

1 **The impact of early life experiences and gut microbiota on neurobehavioral development**
2 **among preterm infants: A longitudinal cohort study**

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58 59 **Abstract**

60 **Objectives:** To investigate the impact of early life experiences and gut microbiota on
61 neurobehavioral development among preterm infants during neonatal intensive care unit (NICU)
62 hospitalization.

63 **Methods:** Preterm infants were followed from the NICU admission until their 28th postnatal day
64 or until discharge. Daily stool samples, painful/stressful experiences, feeding patterns, and other
65 clinical and demographic data were collected. Gut microbiota was profiled using 16S rRNA
66 sequencing, and operational taxonomic units (OTUs) were selected to predict the neurobehaviors.
67 The neurobehavioral development was assessed by the Neonatal Neurobehavioral Scale (NNNS)
68 at 36 to 38 weeks of post-menstrual age (PMA). Fifty-five infants who had NNNS measurements
69 were included in the sparse log-contrast regression analysis.

70 **Results:** Preterm infants who experienced high level of pain/stress during the NICU
71 hospitalization that were associated with higher NNNS stress/abstinence scores. Eight
72 operational taxonomic units (OTUs) were identified to be associated with of NNNS subscales
73 after controlling demographic and clinical features, feeding patterns, and painful/stressful
74 experiences. These OTUs, taxa belong to seven genera including
75 *Enterobacteriaceae_unclassified*, *Escherichia-Shigella*, *Incertae_Sedis*, *Veillonella*,
76 *Enterococcus*, *Clostridium_sensu_stricto_1*, and *Streptococcus* with five belonging to *Firmicutes*
77 and two belonging to *Proteobacteria* phylum. The enriched abundance of
78 *Enterobacteriaceae_unclassified* (OTU17) and *Streptococcus* (OTU28) were consistently
79 associated with less optimal neurobehavioral outcomes. The other six OTUs were also associated
80 with infant neurobehavioral responses depending on days at NICU stay.

81 **Conclusions:** This study explored the dynamic impact of specific OTUs on neurobehavioral
82 development among preterm infants after controlling for early life experiences, i.e., acute and
83 chronic pain/stress, and feeding in the NICU.

84
85 **Keywords:** infants; preterm; NICU; neurobehavioral development; gut microbiota; pain; stress;
86 feeding

87 **1. Introduction**

88 The mortality rate of preterm infants has significantly decreased recent years along with
89 the advances of neonatal healthcare and medical treatments (Swamy et al., 2008; Glass et al.,
90 2015; Bell et al., 2022), whereas preterm infants are still at high risk of neurodevelopmental
91 deficiency in early life as well as late childhood mortality, and late onset mental and behavioral
92 disorders (Vohr, 2013; Patel, 2016; Zhao et al., 2022). How to prevent the neurodevelopmental

93 deficiencies in these infants has been put in the center of child healthcare (Srinivas Jois, 2018).
94 Current interventional strategies in promoting neurodevelopment among preterm infants are still
95 lacking and less than optimal due to the underlying mechanisms of neurobehavioral development
96 understudied in these high-risk population, which hindered the timely prevention, treatment, and
97 prediction of neurobehavioral deficiencies in the early life stages.

98 The etiologies of preterm infant neurodevelopment are complex and multifactorial. We
99 recently found that cumulative pain/stress experiences in early life are significantly related to
100 altered neurobehavioral responses in preterm infants (Zhao et al., 2022), but the mechanisms
101 demand further investigation. The brain-gut-microbiome axis, in which intestinal microbiome is
102 proposed to play a key role in the regulation of stress and early programming of neuro-immune
103 system that has been found to influence all aspects of human behaviors (Aatsinki et al., 2019;
104 Oliphant et al., 2021; Seki et al., 2021). Preclinical and clinical studies have shown the brain-gut-
105 microbiome axis involved in the regulation of neurobehavioral and cognitive development
106 (Oliphant et al., 2021; Olson et al., 2021). Studies have reported that the gut microbiota regulated
107 the pathophysiologic process of brain injury and neurological developments among preterm
108 infants (Stewart et al., 2013; Seki et al., 2021; Beghetti et al., 2022). Several gut bacteria species
109 have been identified to be involved in behavior mitigation and cognitive adjustment (Sordillo et
110 al., 2019; Rozé et al., 2020).

111 Identifying potential pathogens and the pathogenesis process of gut microbiota involved
112 in neurobehavioral development among preterm infants will facilitate the early relief and
113 treatment of neurobehavioral deficiencies. Many are still unknown regarding the impact of early
114 life experiences combined with gut microbiota on neurobehavioral development among preterm
115 infants and few studies used longitudinal cohort design. Therefore, our study aimed to explore
116 the longitudinal impact of gut microbiota and daily painful/stress experiences on the
117 neurobehavioral development among preterm infants during their NICU hospitalization.

118 **2. Methods**

119 **2.1 Design**

120 A longitudinal cohort study was conducted at two NICUs in the Northeastern U.S. from
121 January 2014 to August 2017. Preterm infants were followed from admission into the NICUs
122 until their 28th postnatal day or discharge from the NICUs. The study protocol was approved by
123 the institutional review board of the study hospital and the affiliated institute. Written informed
124 consent was obtained from parents of the preterm infants.

125 **2.2 Inclusion and exclusion criteria**

126 Preterm infants were included if they were: 1) 0 - 7 days old after birth; 2) born at 28 to
127 32 weeks of gestational age (28 0/7 to 32 6/7); 3) negative drug exposure history (no illicit drug
128 use during pregnancy). Exclusion criteria included: 1) infant mothers were younger than 18 years
129 old; 2) severe periventricular/ intraventricular hemorrhage (\geq Grade III); 3) other known
130 congenital anomalies.

131 **2.3 Measurements**

132 **2.3.1 Demographic and clinical data collection**

133 Demographic and clinical characteristics including sex, gestational age (GA), delivery
134 type, birth weight and length were recorded by research nurses. The severity of illness of the
135 infant was measured using the Score for Neonatal Acute Physiology – Perinatal Extension-II
136 (SNAPPE-II) (Richardson et al., 2001). Daily antibiotic use, feeding types (mother's breast milk,
137 donor's milk, and formula milk) and frequencies, and painful/stress experiences during the NICU
138 hospitalization were recorded by research nurses.

139 **2.3.2 Assessment of daily painful/stress experiences**

140 The Neonatal Infant Stressor Scale (NISS) was used to assess daily painful/stress
141 experiences (47 acute and 23 chronic procedures or events) in early life, which was modified
142 from the Australia version in our previous study based on the NICU practice in the U.S. (Zhao et
143 al., 2022). The intensities of acute and chronic painful/stressful procedures were categorized into
144 five domains (1= not painful/stressful; 2 = a little; 3 = moderate; 4 = very; and 5 = extremely
145 painful/stressful). The detailed painful/stressful procedures and categories were list in
146 Supplementary file 1. Trained research nurses extracted the NISS data from the infant electronic
147 medical record and documented the data into the Research Electronic Data Capture (REDCap)
148 system (Harris et al., 2019). Weighted frequencies (acute) and hours of procedures (chronic)
149 were calculated by timing the counts and intensities of each procedure in each day of NICU stay
150 to generate daily acute pain/stress scores and chronic pain/stress scores following our protocol
151 (Zhao et al., 2022).

152 **2.3.3 Fecal sample and gut microbiota**

153 Daily fecal samples were collected during diaper change depending on whether an infant
154 had stool. Samples were processed following our previous protocol (Cong et al., 2016). The fecal
155 sample DNA extraction and processing followed our previous methods and procedures (Cong et
156 al., 2016; Chen et al., 2021). The raw sequence data were processed by the Mothur 1.42.3
157 pipeline (Schloss et al., 2009) following Mothur miseq process and the miseq bash
158 (Supplementary file 2) (Chen et al., 2021). The operational taxonomic units (OTUs) were
159 determined by clustering reads to the SILVA 119 16S reference dataset at a 97% identity, and
160 then performing de novo OTU clustering on reads that failed to cluster to a reference (Edgar,
161 2018). Taxonomic annotation was also determined by the SILVA 119 V4 16S rRNA reference
162 database (Quast et al., 2013; Yilmaz et al., 2014).

163 **2.3.4 Neurobehavioral development assessment**

164 Neurobehavioral outcomes were assessed using the NICU Network Neurobehavioral
165 Scale (NNS) (Lester et al., 2004) when an infant reached 36 to 38 weeks post-menstrual age
166 (PMA) before the NICU discharge. The NNS includes 115 items resulting in 13 summary
167 scores assessing habituation, attention, arousal, self-regulation, handling, quality of movement,
168 excitability, lethargy, reflexes, asymmetrical responses, hypertonicity, hypotonicity, and
169 stress/abstinence. One trained and certified NNS examiner who was blinded to all other
170 assessments completed all the assessment and scoring of the NNS subscales.

171 **2.4 Data analysis**

172 The demographic and clinical data, and OTU tables were imported into R 3.6.2 for
173 statistical analysis. The clinical variables including the painful/stressful procedures of different
174 levels and the population daily feeding of mother's breast milk, donor's milk and formula milk
175 were visualized by plotting the pattern over time using the "ggplot2" package in R (Wickham,
176 2016). The sex differences regarding the demographic and clinical characteristics were tested by
177 Wilcoxon rank sum test for continuous variable and Fisher's exact test for categorical variables.

178 To explore the predictive microbiome biomarkers and estimate time-varying dynamics of
179 their impact during early postnatal stage on the neurobehavioral outcomes of the preterm infants,
180 sparse log-contrast regression with functional compositional predictors (Sun et al., 2020) was
181 adopted. Infants who had 5 or more fecal samples after raw sequencing data processed were
182 included in the current analysis to explore the time-varying effects using the sparse log-contrast
183 regression model. The core OTUs were screened by the abundance and prevalence criteria before
184 fitting the statistical model. Demographics variables including sex and race, delivery type,

185 premature rupture of membranes (PROM) status and gestational age at birth were incorporated
186 into the model as time-invariant control variables. The cubic spline basis was used for modeling
187 the time-varying effects of the OTUs and a constrained group lasso (CGL) algorithm was used
188 for compositional component selection at OTU level (Yuan and Lin, 2006; Sun et al., 2020). A
189 hundred bootstrap samples were generated and used to provide supporting evidence for the
190 stability of the results. The OTUs were chosen by the model selection process and those with
191 higher proportions of being selected in the bootstrap procedure were kept.

192 **3. Results**

193 **3.1 Demographic and clinical characteristics**

194 A total of 92 preterm infants were recruited, and 55 infants were included in this report
195 based on the completion of the microbiome and NNNS measurements (Supplementary Figure 1).
196 The majority infants were Non-Hispanic/Latino White (74.55%), female (54.55%), and born
197 through c-section (61.82%) (Table 1). About 80% of the preterm infants received antibiotics
198 during the first 3 days of the NICU stay; after day 3, only 20% of them used antibiotics. Feeding
199 patterns included mother's breast milk breastfeeding (61.65%), human donor milk (26.31%) and
200 formula milk (12.04%) during the NICU hospitalization. The proportion of mother's breast milk
201 intake are shown in Supplementary Figure 2a, and sex-specific daily feeding patterns are shown
202 in Supplementary Figure 3. For the daily average painful/stress experience (NISS scores),
203 weighted frequencies of acute painful events (mean = 62.66, SD = 9.94) and weighted hours of
204 chronic painful procedures (mean = 89.84, SD = 36.72) were calculated and plotted across sex
205 (Supplementary Figure 2b, 2c).

206 **3.2 The gut microbiota compositions**

207 A total of 584 stool samples were included in the analysis (Supplementary Table 1). The
208 most abundant phylum was *Proteobacteria*, *Firmicutes*, and *Bacteroidetes*. The compositional
209 relative abundances for the 55 preterm infants were plotted on the average basis (Figure 1).
210 Detailed taxonomy of each OTU was summarized in Supplementary Table 2.

211 **3.3 Neurobehavioral development**

212 The NNNS assessment scores were presented in Table 2 and Supplementary Figure 4.
213 These preterm infants had high level of hypertonicity, hypotonicity, and asymmetric reflexes
214 (median score = 0), followed by stress/abstinence and handling (Supplementary Figure 4). Given
215 the substantial missing values on some of the subscales, the main focuses of the current analysis
216 were on stress/abstinence (NSTRESS), handling (NHANDLING), and quality of move
217 (NQMOVE). The stress/abstinence (NSTRESS), handling (NHANDLING), and quality of move
218 (NQMOVE) among these preterm infants at 36 to 38 weeks of post-menstrual age was 0.18 (SD
219 = 0.09), 0.56 (SD = 0.21), and 3.97 (SD = 0.62), respectively. There was no significant
220 difference between females and males.

221 **3.4 Associations of pain/stress experience and gut microbiota with neurobehaviors**

222 The estimated coefficients of the control variables for the NSTRESS, NQMOVE, and
223 NHANDLING assessment were shown in Supplementary Table 3. As shown by the bootstrap
224 analysis, infants with older birth GA, sex of male, race of white, virginal birth, no RPOM, lower
225 acute pain, higher kangaroo care, and no antibiotic uses in the first 3 days of NICU stay might be
226 associated with better outcomes including lower NSTRESS scores (Figure 2 a) and lower
227 NHANDLING scores (Figure 3 a), and higher NQMOVE scores (Figure 4 a). In particular, the
228 positive association of higher acute pain/stress (NISS score) with higher NSTRESS scores was
229 seen in close to 95% of bootstrap (Figure 2 a), indicating that infants who experienced less acute
230 painful/stressful events during the NICU stay had better neurobehavioral outcomes. However,

231 the relationships of feeding patterns and chronic pain (NISS score) with NNNS subscales were
232 still undetermined.

233 To illustrate the relationships between gut microbiota compositions and NNNS subscales
234 (NSTRESS, NHANDLING, and NQMOVE), the standardized scores of each these subscales
235 were plotted with the gut microbiome for each infant using a heatmap (Figure 1). A standardized
236 score of NNNS subscales was generated by dividing the difference between each infant's score
237 and the mean by the standard deviation.

238 Eight OTUs were identified to be associated with NNNS subscales through the regression
239 analysis (Figure 2, 3, and 4). At the taxonomy levels, five belong to *Firmicutes* (OTU4, OTU5,
240 OTU6, OTU8, and OTU28), and three belong to *Proteobacteria* (OTU1, OTU2, and OTU17).
241 The taxa of the OTU1 (*Enterobacteriaceae_unclassified*), OTU2 (*Escherichia-Shigella*), and
242 OTU17 (*Enterobacteriaceae_unclassified*) were identical at the family level
243 (*Enterobacteriaceae*), OTU1 (*Enterobacteriaceae_unclassified*) and OTU17
244 (*Enterobacteriaceae_unclassified*) were also identical at genus level (Supplementary Table 2).
245 The associations of these OTUs and NNNS subscales varied depending on different days of
246 NICU stay (Figure 2, 3, and 4) after controlling for feeding types and pain/stress experiences in
247 addition to demographic and clinical characteristics.

248 The OTU1 (*Enterobacteriaceae_unclassified*), OTU2 (*Escherichia-Shigella*), OTU5
249 (*Veillonella*), OTU4 (*Incertae_Sedis*), OTU8 (*Clostridium_sensu_stricto_1*), and OTU17
250 (*Enterobacteriaceae_unclassified*) were identified to be associated with NSTRESS, and their
251 estimated time-varying effects are presented in each sub figures of Figure 2. The effect of the
252 OTU2 (*Escherichia-Shigella*), OTU4 (*Incertae_Sedis*), and OTU8 (*Clostridium_sensu_stricto_1*)
253 on the NSTRESS score switches from positive to negative during the postnatal days from 4 to 28,
254 while the effect of the OTU1 (*Enterobacteriaceae_unclassified*) and OTU5 (*Veillonella*)
255 switches from negative to positive. The OTU17 (*Enterobacteriaceae_unclassified*) shows
256 consistently positive effect on NSTRESS score during the 28 days of NICU stay. Elevated
257 abundance of *Enterobacteriaceae* (OTU1 and OTU17) was significantly associated with
258 increased NSTRESS, particularly after two weeks of NICU stay (Figure 2). But the elevated
259 enrichment of *Escherichia-Shigella* (OTU2) was associated with decreased NSTRESS,
260 particularly after 10 days.

261 The OTU1 (*Enterobacteriaceae_unclassified*), OTU2 (*Escherichia-Shigella*), OTU 5
262 (*Veillonella*), OTU 6 (*Enterococcus*), OTU8 (*Clostridium_sensu_stricto_1*), and OTU28
263 (*Streptococcus*) were selected for the model regressing on NHANDLING. Their estimated time-
264 varying effects are presented in each sub figures of Figure 3. The effect of the OTU1
265 (*Enterobacteriaceae_unclassified*), OTU2 (*Escherichia-Shigella*), OTU5 (*Veillonella*), and
266 OTU6 (*Enterococcus*) on the NHANDLING score remains positive during the first month, while
267 the effect of the OTU8 (*Clostridium_sensu_stricto_1*) was constantly negative. The OTU28
268 (*Streptococcus*) shows enlarging negative effect on the NHANDLING score over the first month.

269 The OTU4 (*Incertae_Sedis*) was the only OTU selected for NQMOVE; their estimated
270 time-varying effects are presented in Figure 4. The effect of the OTU4 (*Incertae_Sedis*) on the
271 NQMOVE score became negative after day 10.

272 **4. Discussion**

273 Our study using a longitudinal modeling approach demonstrated the impact of early life
274 pain/stress experience and gut microbiota on neurobehavioral outcomes in preterm infants during
275 their NICU hospitalization. Consistent with previous studies, our findings showed that preterm
276 infants had a higher risk of neurobehavioral deficiency compared with full term infants (Kiblawi

277 et al., 2014; Provenzi et al., 2018; McGowan et al., 2022). In comparison to the neurobehavioral
278 results from healthy full-term infants at birth (Provenzi et al., 2018), our findings showed that
279 preterm infants had higher NNNS scores than full term infants in stress/abstinence (0.18 vs. 0.11)
280 and handling responses (0.56 vs. 0.38), and lower quality of movement (3.97 vs. 4.71). The
281 negative impact of higher acute painful/stressful events during the NICU stay on worse
282 neurobehavioral outcomes is congruent with previous studies (Swamy et al., 2008; Lavanga et al.,
283 2021; Russell et al., 2021). We identified eight OTUs of gut microbiome that were significantly
284 associated with infant neurobehavioral profiles in early life. Most importantly, our study
285 uncovered potential pathogenesis process of *Enterobacteriaceae* and *Streptococcaceae* involved
286 in neurobehavioral outcomes by depicting the dynamical impacts of OTUs on NNNS scores.
287 These findings are consistent with previous studies, which showed the brain-gut-microbiome
288 axis involved in neonatal brain damage and immunity (Currie et al., 2011; Seki et al., 2021), and
289 influencing the lifelong health of humans (Lyte, 2014; Cong et al., 2015).

290 The role of *Enterobacteriaceae* on NSTRESS is still unclear given that elevated
291 abundance of *Enterobacteriaceae unclassified* (OTU1 and OTU17) was significantly associated
292 with increased NSTRESS, but the elevated enrichment of *Escherichia-Shigella* (OTU2) was
293 associated with decreased NSTRESS (Figure 2). Enriched *Enterobacteriaceae* has been
294 demonstrated to induce inflammatory and stress response (Kim et al., 2017). Some studies
295 reported the harmful effect of *Enterobacteriaceae* on cognitive function (Wasser et al., 2020;
296 Streit et al., 2021), but the role of *Escherichia-Shigella* is unclear. Of note, only 55% percent of
297 OTU2 was *Escherichia-Shigella*, the other 45% is unknown (Supplementary Table 4). Our study
298 also found negative association between enriched abundance of *Incertae_Sedis* (OTU4) and
299 *Veillonella* (OTU5) and lower abstinence/stress level (NSTRESS) after 14 days, which may
300 indicate the neuro-protective effect of *Incertae_Sedis* and *Veillonella*. These potential protective
301 effects were supported by previous studies which reported the role that *Incertae_Sedis* plays in
302 allergic disease (Quast et al., 2013), and *Veillonella* played in energy conservation among infants
303 (Wang et al., 2020). The role of *Incertae_Sedis* and *Veillonella* in the first two weeks of NICU
304 hospitalization need more investigations.

305 Our study found that enrichment of *Enterococcus* (OTU6), genus level of
306 *Enterococcaceae*, was associated with better handling response (Figure 3). The protective role of
307 *Enterococcaceae* in the gut among cancer patients receiving radiotherapy was reported in a
308 previous study that it is involved in maintaining hematopoiesis and intestinal barriers (Guo et al.,
309 2020). The elevated abundance of *Enterococcaceae* has been reported to exert in the
310 pathophysiology progress of several disorders such as infection and cytokines response (Hu et al.,
311 2019; Rabe et al., 2020). The negative effect of *Clostridium_sensu_stricto_1*(OTU8) on
312 NHANDLING was also confirmed in our study, since it was associated with higher risk of
313 necrotizing enterocolitis and prematurity (Schönherr-Hellec et al., 2018).

314 Enriched *Streptococcus* (OTU28) was related to a lower score of NHANDLING
315 indicating a better developmental outcome, and the negative impact accumulated over time in
316 NICU. Aatsinki et al reported the positive association between behavioral development and
317 *Streptococcus* in infants at the age of 6 months (Aatsinki et al., 2019), but the role of enriched
318 *Streptococcus* in preterm infants is still unknown. Elevated *Streptococcus* (OTU28) was found in
319 the gut microbiota among children in atopic dermatitis, an allergic reaction (Park et al., 2020). A
320 previous study also reported the role of *Streptococcus* (OTU28) in infections, i.e., sepsis and
321 meningitis among preterm infants (Geetha et al., 2021) and *Streptococcus pneumoniae* in infants

322 (Turner et al., 2012; Nieto-Moro et al., 2020), a possible reason might be related to the immature
323 immune responses (Currie et al., 2011).

324 Even the negative effect of *Clostridium_sensu_stricto* (OTU8) and *Streptococcus*
325 (OTU28) on handling response was identified (Figure 3), our study did not find significantly
326 direct association between breastfeeding and neurobehavioral development. Higher portion of
327 breastfeeding could alter gut microbiota compositions (Pannaraj et al., 2017), as well as was
328 associated with better neurobehavioral outcomes (Zhao et al., 2022). However, previous studies
329 reported inconsistent findings regarding the effect of breastfeeding on *Clostridium_sensu_stricto*
330 and *Streptococcus*. One study reported that higher proportion of breastfeeding and human donor
331 milk could significantly increase the enrichment of *Clostridium_sensu_stricto* among preterm
332 infants (Aguilar-Lopez et al., 2021). Another study also reported the protection role of
333 breastfeeding on decreasing the risk of *Streptococcus* induced infection (Béghin et al., 2021).
334 Further studies are needed to uncover the entangling between breastfeeding, gut microbiota, and
335 neurobehavior development among preterm infants.

336 The sex and race differences of neurobehavioral development in preterm infants warrant
337 more effort to investigate the possible underneath mechanisms, even there was no significant
338 findings from the current study. Evidence has confirmed that there exists an impact of sex-
339 dependent gut microbiota on the behavioral development of full-term infants (Jiang et al., 2019;
340 Chen et al., 2021; Laue et al., 2022). The gut microbiota compositions and predicted functions
341 differences between females and males could be a possible reason (Cong et al., 2016; Chen et al.,
342 2021, 2022). Previous studies also reported the race differences of gut microbiota diversities
343 (Pannaraj et al., 2017; Stearns et al., 2017), and compositions (Stearns et al., 2017; Cheng et al.,
344 2022). Future studies should continue to investigate the mechanisms of sex and race disparities
345 of neurobehavioral outcomes among preterm infants.

346 Our findings provided new evidence to demonstrate the gradually mature brain-gut-
347 microbiome axis contributing to the neurobehavioral development among preterm infants.
348 Manipulating the identified gut microbiota by interventional strategies such as fecal microbiome
349 transplantation and/or supplementing prebiotics and probiotics may effectively improve the
350 measured neurobehavioral outcomes among preterm infants, i.e., stress, handling responses and
351 quality of movement (Cryan and Dinan, 2012; Sarkar et al., 2018; Vogel et al., 2020; Samara et
352 al., 2022). The OTUs associated with neurobehavioral development among preterm infants
353 identified in the current study were generated using the 16S RNA sequencing data that may have
354 limitations in conducting data analysis and making inferences based on OTUs, i.e., less powerful
355 to detect differential effects and functions of gut microbiota. Further studies may also need to
356 employ shotgun sequencing and brain image techniques to yield more information including the
357 metabolic functions of the gut microbiome community and the activities of the brain-gut-
358 microbiome axis to explore how the gut microbiome and host brain-gut axis function in the
359 growth and development among preterm infants.

360 **5. Strengths and Limitations**

361 To the best of our knowledge, this is one of the first longitudinal studies modeling the
362 impact of early life pain/stress experience and gut microbiota on neurobehavioral outcomes
363 among preterm infants throughout the NICU hospitalization. The neurobehavioral development
364 measured by NNNS in this study may serve as valid indicators to predict neurodevelopmental
365 and infant health outcomes in the clinical settings, although it may not directly predict infant
366 mortality or morbidity. One of the limitations of our study was that this study only included
367 preterm infants born at 28 to 32 weeks of gestational age which did not consider the extremely

368 preterm infants who are more likely to have developmental deficits. Another limitation was the
 369 weakness of the 16S sequencing data and analysis pipeline based on OTUs. Therefore, the
 370 generalization of findings from this study should be cautious and applying evidence generated in
 371 this study should be prudent.

372 6. Conclusions

373 This longitudinal cohort study reported the dynamic impact of gut microbiota and adverse
 374 life experiences in the NICU on neurobehavioral development among preterm infants. In
 375 addition, specific OTUs combined with acute painful/stressful experiences were determined to
 376 influence infants' neurobehavioral development during their NICU hospitalization. Further
 377 studies may need to develop interventions targeting these factors to prompt developmental
 378 outcomes in this population.

379 Table 1. Characteristics of the included infants, Mean (SD)

	Total (n = 55)	Female (n=30)	Male (n=25)
Birth gestational age (week)	30.72 (1.71)	30.53 (1.72)	30.96 (1.71)
Birth body length (cm)	39.94 (3.25)	39.56 (3.34)	40.38 (3.17)
Birth body weight (g)	1444.53 (406.61)	1362.87 (413.29)	1542.52 (383.76)
Birth head circumference (cm)	27.86 (1.88)	27.50 (2.05)	28.31 (1.59)
SNAPE II [media, IQR] ^a	9.31 (9.66)	11.07 (10.57)	7.2 (8.15)
C-cession (n, %)	34 (61.82%)	21 (70.00%)	13 (52.00%)
Pre-rupture of membrane (n, %)	22 (40%)	11 (36.67%)	11 (44%)
Race (n, %)			
White	41 (74.54%)	23 (76.67%)	18 (72.00%)
American African	11 (20.00%)	4 (13.33%)	7 (28.00%)
Asian	2 (3.64%)	2 (6.67%)	0 (0.00%)
Unknown	1 (1.82%)	1 (3.33%)	0 (0.00%)
Averaged MBM percentage ^b	61.46% (32.07)	63.09% (33.02)	59.51% (31.46)
Averaged Acute pain ^c	62.66 (9.94)	62.01 (9.65)	63.43 (10.42)
Averaged Chronic pain ^c	89.84 (36.72)	93.44 (37.76)	85.82 (35.68)

381 ^a SNAPE II, Score for Neonatal Acute Physiology – Perinatal Extension-II (SNAPPE-II)

382 ^b MBM, Mother's Breast Milk

383 ^c Weighted frequencies (acute) and hours of procedures (chronic) were calculated by timing the
 384 counts and intensities of each procedure in each day of NICU stay to generate daily acute
 385 pain/stress scores and chronic pain/stress scores.

386 Table 2 Neurobehavioral outcomes of the included infants, Mean (SD)

NNNS ^a	Total (n = 55)	Female (n=30)	Male (n=25)
Stress/abstinence (NSTRESS)	0.18 (0.09)	0.19 (0.09)	0.17 (0.09)
Handling (NHANDLING)	0.56 (0.21)	0.57 (0.21)	0.56 (0.22)
Quality of movement (NQMOVE)	3.97 (0.62)	3.90 (0.65)	4.05 (0.60)

388 ^a NNNS, NICU Network Neurobehavioral Scale

389
 390 **Data Availability Statement**

391 The raw sequence data were achieved in NCBI
392 (<https://submit.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/subs/sra/SUB8904718/>). Deidentified data will be available
393 upon reasonable request. Requests to access these datasets should be directed to
394 xiaomei.cong@yale.edu.

395 **Ethics Statement**

396 The studies involving human participants were reviewed and approved by institutional review
397 board in the University of Connecticut and Connecticut Children's Medical Center. The
398 deidentified dataset was used in the analysis. Written informed consent to participate in this
399 study was provided by the participants' legal guardian/next of kin.

400 **Author Contributions**

401 Conceptualization, J.C., X.C., T. Z., and K.C.; formal analysis, J.C., H.L., T.Z., Z.S., W.X., K.C.,
402 M.H.C., and X.C.; funding acquisition, X.C.; methodology, J.C., H.L., W.X., and X.C.; project
403 administration, W.X., and X.C.; writing-original draft, J.C., H.L., T.Z., and X.C.; writing- review
404 and editing, All. All authors critically revised the manuscript, gave final approval, and agree to
405 be accountable for all aspects of work ensuring integrity and accuracy.

406 **Conflict of Interests**

407 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or
408 financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

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Figure Legends

615

616 Figure 1

617 Relative abundance of gut microbiota and 3 sub-scales for each infant

618 a. Relative abundance of gut microbiota for each infant

619 b. Standardized scores of NNNS subscales for each infant

620 The infants were ordered according to the standardized score of NSTRESS scores. A

621 standardized score of NNNS subscales (NSTRESS, NQMOVE, and NHANDLING) was

622 generated by dividing the difference between each infant's score and the mean by the standard

623 deviation. The standardized scores of each these subscales were plotted with the gut microbiome

624 for each infant.

625

626 Figure 2

627 Control sign and OTUs for NSTRESS

628 a. Control sign and NSTRESS

629 b. OTUs associated with NSTRESS scores

630 Figure 2 a, the proportions of the signs of the estimated coefficients of the control

631 variables. Proportions of negative signs were shown as black blocks to the right, and

632 those of positive signs were shown as light gray blocks to the left. Lower NSTRESS

633 scores indicated better development, those variables in black indicated association with lower

634 NSTRESS scores. The red dotted lines show the 90% of bootstrap.

635 Figure 2 b1-6, the estimated time-varying effects of OUT on NSTRESS scores during the NICU

636 stay.

637

638 Figure 3

639 Control sign and OTUs for NHANDLING

640 a. Control sign and NHANDLING

641 b. OTUs associated with NHANDLING scores

642 Figure 3 a, the proportions of the signs of the estimated coefficients of the control

643 variables. Proportions of negative signs were shown as black blocks to the right, and

644 those of positive signs were shown as light gray blocks to the left. Lower NHANDLING

645 scores indicated better development, those variables in black indicated association with lower

646 NHANDLING scores. The red dotted lines show the 90% of bootstrap.

647 Figure 3 b1-6, the estimated time-varying effects of OUT on NSTRESS scores during the NICU

648 stay.

649

650 Figure 4

651 Control sign and OTUs for NQMOVE

652 a. Control sign and NQMOVE

653 b. OTUs associated with NQMOVE scores

654 Figure 4 a, the proportions of the signs of the estimated coefficients of the control

655 variables. Proportions of negative signs were shown as black blocks to the right, and

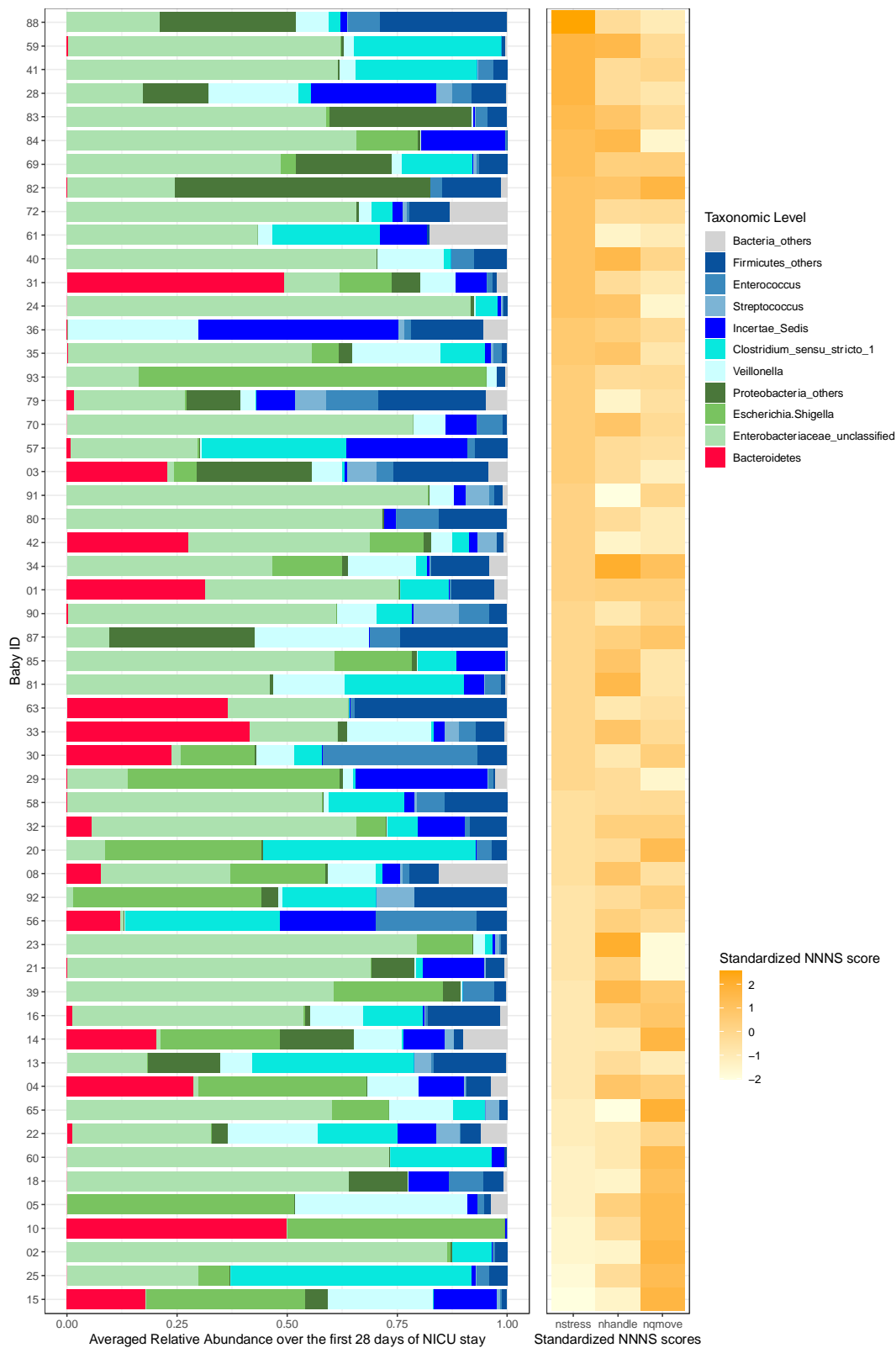
656 those of positive signs were shown as light gray blocks to the left. Higher NQMOVE

657 scores indicated better development, those variables in light gray indicated association with

658 higher NQMOVE scores. The red dotted lines show the 90% of bootstrap.

659 Figure 4 b, the estimated time-varying effects of OUT on NQMOVE scores during the NICU

660 stay.



661
662

Figure 1. Relative abundance of gut microbiota and 3 sub-scales for each infant

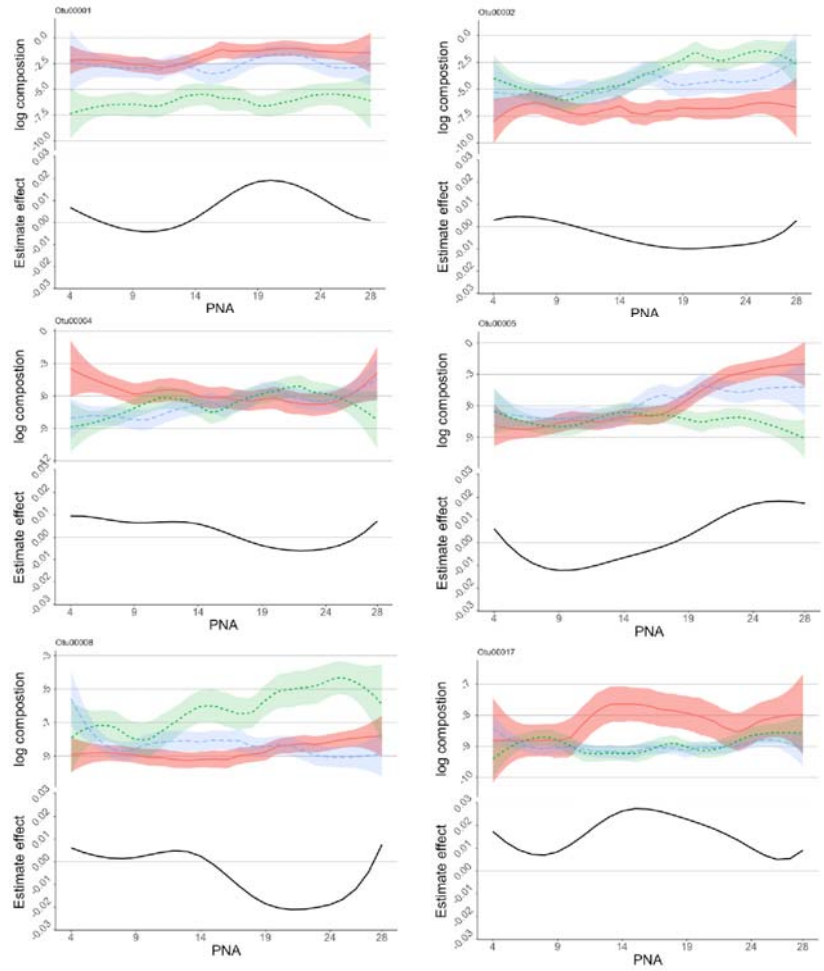
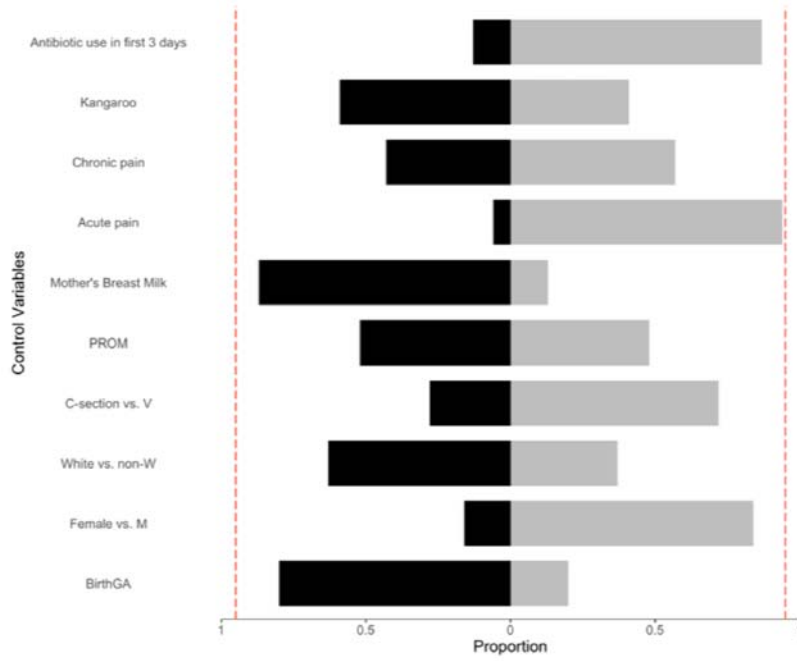


Figure 2. Control sign and OTUs for NSTRESS

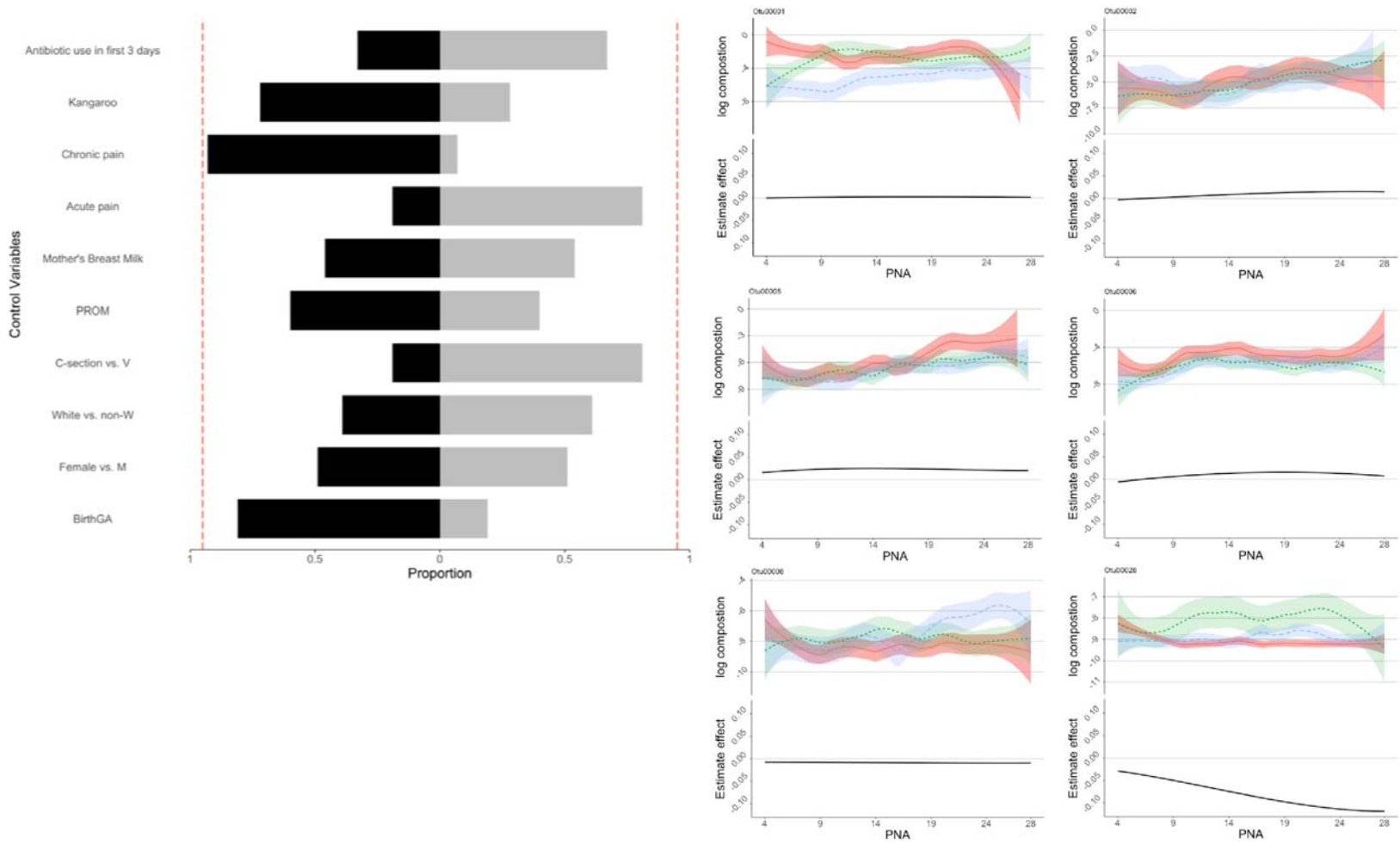


Figure 3. Control sign and OTUs for NHANDLING

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667

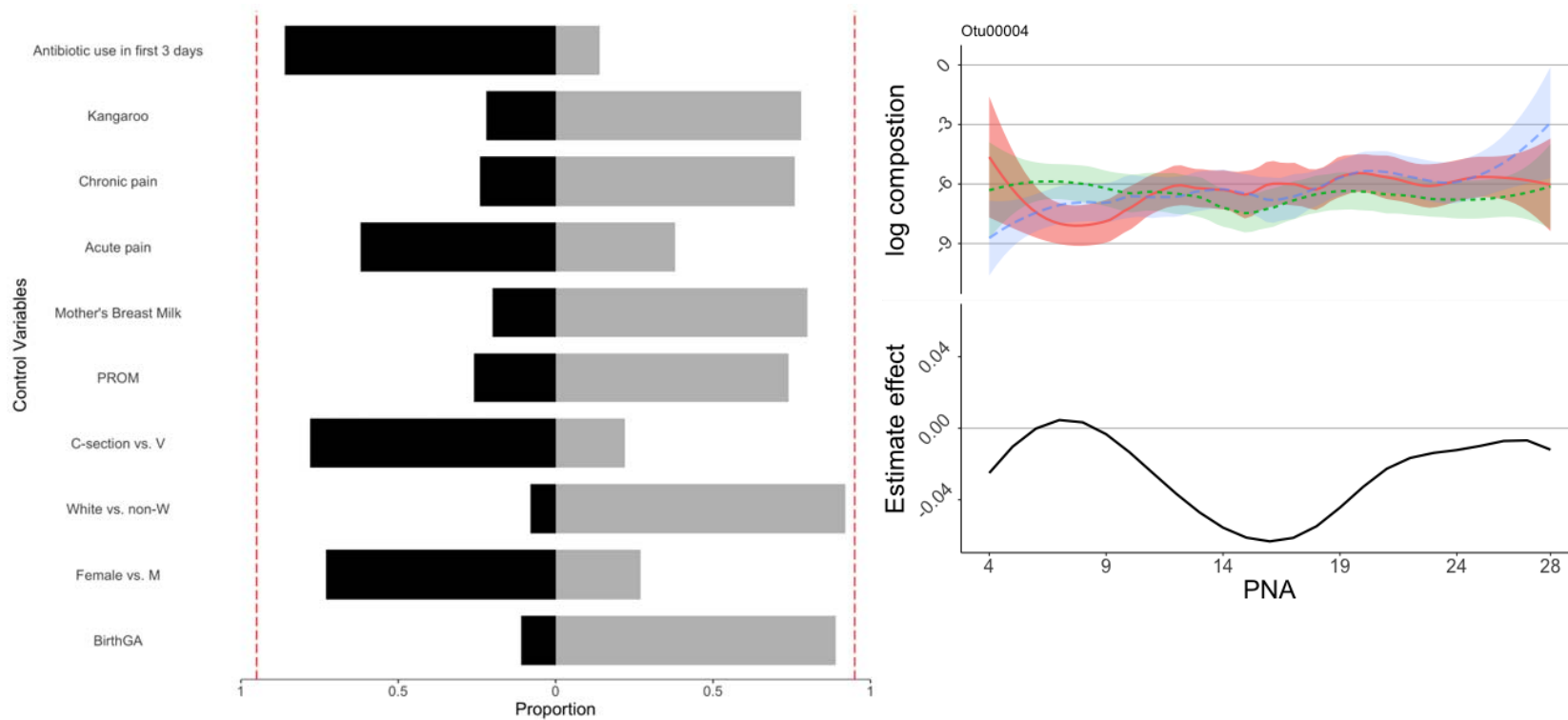


Figure 4. Control sign and OTUs for NQMOVE

668
669