

# Maternal Gut Microbes Contribute to Rapid Acquisition of Intestinal Microbiota and High-Altitude Adaptation of Pre-Weaning Yak Calves

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1 **Maternal gut microbes contribute to rapid acquisition of intestinal**  
2 **microbiota and high-altitude adaptation of pre-weaning yak calves**

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22 **Abstract**

23 **Background:** Long time exposure to seasonal forage availability and harsh environment on the  
24 Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau (QTP) has resulted in a series of unique adaptation mechanisms following  
25 the evolution of yak to cope with nutritional deficiencies and other adverse conditions. This is likely  
26 achieved by an unprecedented genetic resource for fibrolytic enzymes of microbial origins that  
27 allow the host to efficiently degrade plant polysaccharides. However, to what extent of maternal  
28 symbiotic microbial transmission throughout early microbial successions and its adaptation to high-  
29 altitude hypoxia in grazing yak driven by the harsh environment and nutritional stress have been far  
30 from clear. Understanding the colonization and succession of yak gut microbiota would help to  
31 clarify the functional interaction and crosstalk between microorganisms and their hosts. This study  
32 explored the succession of intestinal microbiota of yak (*Bos grunniens*) and cattle (*Bos taurus*) kept  
33 in the same habitat during pre-weaning period.

34 **Results:** The gut microbiota of yak and cattle calves were dominated by members of the families  
35 *Ruminococcaceae*, *Lachnospiraceae*, and *Bacteroidaceae* during pre-weaning. Moreover, source-  
36 tracking models revealed that maternal microbiota was critical for the rapid establishment and  
37 colonization of initial intestinal microbiota of their calves at development stage and its impact  
38 persisted until weaning or even longer. Compared to cattle calves, the gut microbiota of yak calves  
39 was rapidly established and reached to a relatively stable status at the 5th week after birth, indicating  
40 the evolutionary significance of interaction between the yak and its intestinal microbial community  
41 that could facilitate the adaptation of this flagship species to adapt to the harsh environment on the  
42 QTP.

43 **Conclusion:** Our results revealed that under natural grazing conditions, the calves raised by their

44 mothers acquire gut microbiota through the contacts with maternal feces and the social learning  
45 behavior, which accelerate the establishment of stable intestinal microbiota. In addition, after long-  
46 term natural selection, the yak calves acquire a relatively mature and stable intestinal microbiota  
47 earlier than the cattle calves, facilitating their strong adaptation to the harsh environment on the QTP.

48 **Keywords:** Intestinal microbiota assembly, Host-microbiome interactions, Maternal microbial  
49 transmission, Natural grazing yak

## 50 **Background**

51 The animal gastrointestinal tract is inhabited by a diverse microbial community, which influences a  
52 wide range of host metabolic processes, immune system, central nervous system development, and  
53 even behavior [1-3]. This complex community of microbes must be reassembled each generation.

54 The animal gastrointestinal tract is thought to be largely sterile in newborn [4, 5], and is  
55 subsequently colonized by diverse bacterial taxa varying in abundance and functional traits [2, 3].

56 Insight into the establishment and composition of microbial communities is essential for predicting  
57 and directing their future states[6]. There is increasing evidence that microbial colonization is a

58 complex process influenced by a two-way interaction between the host and microbial community  
59 as well as a variety of external factors, such as neonatal delivery, maternal and environmental

60 microbiota, diet, parenting behavior, and early use of antibiotics [7-11]. Studies have revealed the  
61 essential roles of environmental and maternal microbes in the establishment of newborn microbiota,

62 which is likely critical for protecting the newborn from pathogens when its immune system is  
63 immature [12-14]. However, ruminants are born with underdeveloped rumen, reticulum, and

64 omasum are considered functionally monogastric animals before weaning [15]. Therefore, dietary  
65 nutrients obtained from hindgut is likely an important source of energy for ruminants throughout all

66 stages of their development, while hindgut fermentation could be of an elevated importance to the  
67 calves during their first days of life before the rumen is fully developed [16]. Some studies have  
68 shown that microbial fermentation in the hindgut may be responsible for up to 30% of cellulose and  
69 hemicellulose degradation in ruminants [17, 18]. There are a few studies that examined the intestinal  
70 and fecal microbiota in newborn calves [19, 20]. In contrast to that of rumen microbial ecosystem,  
71 the fundamental role of intestinal microbiota and its contribution to ruminant health and production  
72 in newborn calves are less well understood. In addition, knowledge about the possible sources of  
73 early gastrointestinal microbiota and their colonization may help to explore the functional  
74 interaction between host metabolism and gut microbiota.

75 The yak (*Bos grunniens*), a herbivore exclusively inhabiting the Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau (QTP)  
76 and adjacent mountainous regions, evolutionarily diverged from cattle (*Bos taurus*) about 4.4 to 5.3  
77 million years ago [21]. The QTP offers one of the harshest environments for the survival of humans  
78 and other mammalian species. It has been found that yak are superior to cattle in feeding and grazing  
79 behavior [22], digestive organ structure [23, 24], nitrogen use efficiency [25], low rumen methane  
80 emission [26], and interseason energy utilization efficiency [27, 28]. A whole genome sequencing  
81 study has identified potentially functional genes related to the unique adaptation of yak to severe  
82 hypoxia condition [29]. A recent study argued that yak adaptation mechanisms to harsh environment  
83 and long-term nutritional stress on the QTP are related to the enrichment of key genes for volatile  
84 fatty acid (VFA) fermentation pathway in rumen microbiome while methanogenesis pathway are  
85 enriched in cattle [30]. Furthermore, rumen microbial compositions change during the growth of  
86 yak from neonatal (7 days) to adult (12 years) stages, especially the bacterial and archaeal groups  
87 are more sensitive in response to development stages compared to the two eukaryotic microbial

88 groups [31]. Notably, most of the above-mentioned studies focused on the structure, function, and  
89 succession of the rumen microbial community in yak, but there is limited knowledge about how  
90 intestinal microbiota develops during pre-weaning period and when it becomes fully established  
91 during yak lifetime.

92 Some studies have shown that maternal microbes quickly colonize offspring gut after parturition  
93 through birth canal, skin contact or breast feeding and shape the onset of an intestinal immune  
94 system and its future development [32-34]. Yak calves are mainly fed by maternal nursing under  
95 traditional natural grazing condition during the pre-weaning period, which is beneficial for the  
96 calves to learn how to eat forage earlier and to promote the development of gastrointestinal tracts.  
97 However, the weaning time of yak calves is prolonged, which greatly limits the productivity of yak  
98 [35]. We hypothesize that a core intestinal microbiota develops in yak calves and facilitates their  
99 strong adaptation to harsh environment on the QTP, and that the intestinal microbial community  
100 structure of yak calves got established and matured earlier than that of cattle calves under the same  
101 habitat. Therefore, we collected fecal samples in yak and cattle calves from one to nine weeks after  
102 birth along with rumen fluid, feces, oral cavity and breast surface swabs of their mothers at one  
103 week post parturition for 16S rRNA amplicon sequencing. We aimed to track down the sources,  
104 determine the time of establishment, and explore the phylogenetic composition of the intestinal  
105 microbiota of yak calves, which are expected to shed light on the fundamental knowledge essential  
106 to the development of strategies to improve the intestinal function of yak.

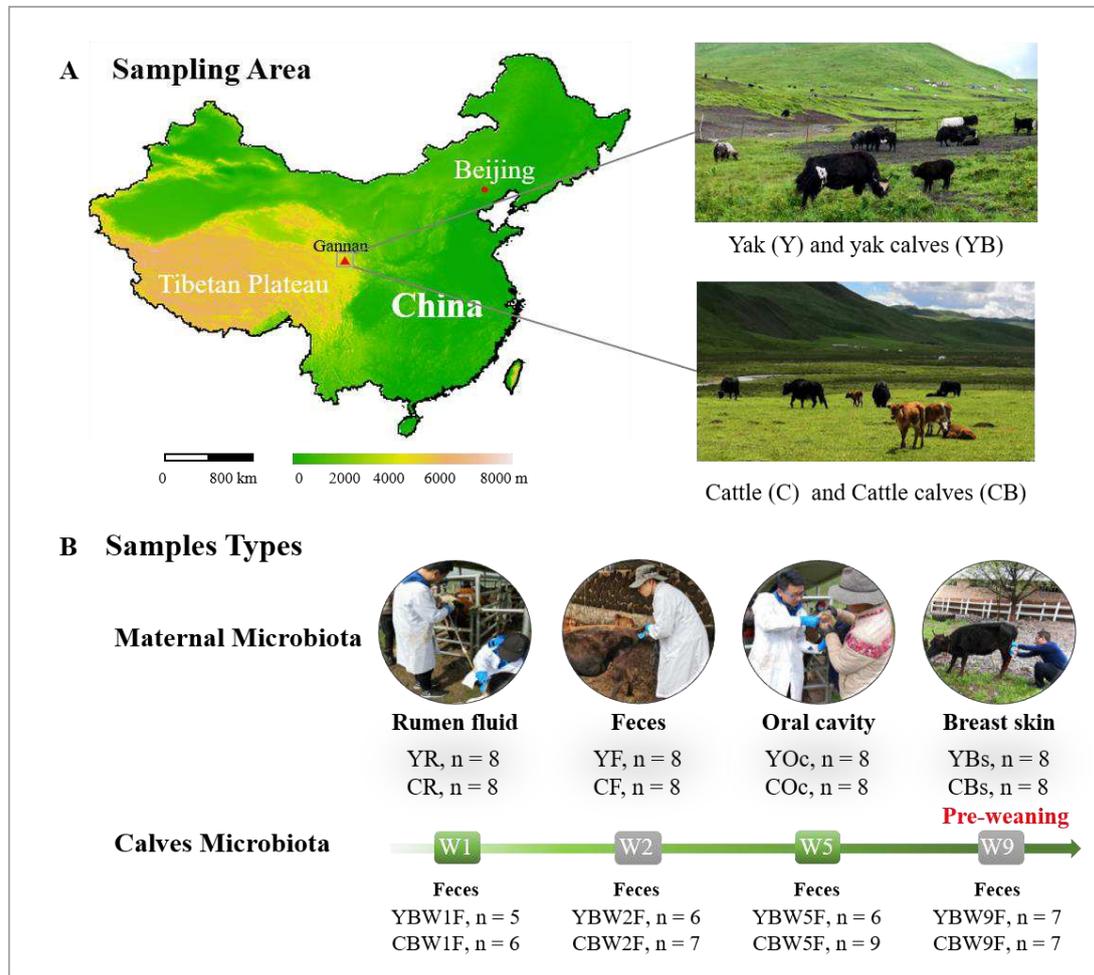
## 107 **Methods**

### 108 **Animals experiments and sampling**

109 Both yak and cattle calves were born naturally, fed with milk by maternal suckling, and grazed  
110 on the same native pasture (without concentrate supplementation) in Yangnuo Specialized Yak  
111 Breeding Cooperative (34°43'19.66"N, 102°28'49.51"E) at Xiahe county of Gannan Tibetan  
112 Autonomous Prefecture, Gansu Province, China. All the animals involved in this experiment were  
113 from the same herd and they all grazed together in an alpine meadow on the QTP, where the average  
114 altitude is 3,300 m and the average annual temperature is 4 °C. There were abundant natural alpine  
115 meadow herbage and water resource, and the animals freely drank water from the local river or the  
116 snow meltwater. In addition, all the animals grazed from 7 a.m. to 6 p.m., and the samples were  
117 collected before the morning grazing. All animals included in this study were healthy during our  
118 sampling period and received no recorded therapeutic or prophylactic antibiotic treatment.

119 Fecal samples were collected from yak and cattle calves since the 1st until the 9th week after  
120 birth. Rumen fluid, feces, oral cavity, and breast skin swab from their mothers were also sampled at  
121 one week post parturition. An overview of the experimental design is shown in [Fig. 1](#). Briefly, feces  
122 samples from both yak and cattle calves aged 1 week (YBW1F: n = 5; CBW1F: n = 6), 2 weeks  
123 (YBW2F: n = 6; CBW2F: n = 7), 5 weeks (YBW5F: n = 6; CBW5F: n = 9), and 9 weeks (YBW9F:  
124 n = 7; CBW9F: n = 7) were repeatedly sampled before the morning grazing, of which six yak calves  
125 and seven cattle calves were continuously sampled from the 1st to the 9th week. Specifically, fecal  
126 samples (YF: n = 8; CF: n = 8) of their own mothers were taken manually from the rectum by use  
127 of a sterile gloves and lubricant. At the same time, rumen fluid samples (YR: n = 8; CR: n = 8) of  
128 their own mothers were collected via a perforated stainless-steel stomach tube connected to a suction  
129 pump prior to the morning grazing, while oral cavity (YOc: n = 8; COc: n = 8) and breast surface  
130 (YBs: n = 8; CBs: n = 8) samples were obtained by swabbing mouth and breast with a sterile cotton

131 swab. In particular, the first 20 ml rumen fluid were discarded to avoid any contamination with  
 132 saliva. All samples were immediately deep frozen using liquid nitrogen, transported to the laboratory  
 133 and stored at  $-80\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  prior to DNA extraction.



134  
 135 **Fig. 1** Intestinal microbial source and succession analysis of yak (YB) and cattle (CB) calves on the same pasture at  
 136 different weeks during pre-weaning.

137 **DNA extraction and Illumina sequencing of 16S rRNA genes**

138 The samples included the feces from calves at four-time points (yak calves: n = 24; cattle calves:  
 139 n = 29) along with their mothers' feces (n = 16), rumen fluid (n = 16), the swab of oral cavity and  
 140 breast surface (n = 16). In total, these 117 samples were applied to the same sample preparation and

141 DNA isolation procedure. Sample preparation was applied prior DNA isolation to optimize  
142 microbial loads for 16S rRNA gene PCR amplifications.

143 Total genome DNA from all the samples was extracted using CTAB method. DNA concentration  
144 and purity were monitored on 1 % agarose gels. DNAs were diluted to a final concentration of 1  
145 ng/μl using sterile distilled water. The bacterial V4 region of 16S rRNA gene was amplified using  
146 F515/R806 primers under the following conditions: initial denaturation at 98°C for 1 min, followed  
147 by 30 cycles of denaturation at 98 °C for 10 s, annealing at 50 °C for 30 s, and elongation at 72 °C  
148 for 30 s, and finished by a final extension at 72 °C for 5 min. Amplicons were purified with Qiagen  
149 Gel Extraction Kit (Qiagen, Germany). Sequencing libraries were generated using TruSeq® DNA  
150 PCR-Free Sample Preparation Kit (Illumina, USA) following manufacturer's recommendations and  
151 index codes were added. The library quality was assessed on the Qubit® 2.0 Fluorometer (Thermo  
152 Scientific) and Agilent Bioanalyzer 2100 system. At last, the library was sequenced on an Illumina  
153 NovaSeq platform and 250 bp paired-end reads were generated (Novogene, Tianjin, China).

#### 154 **Bioinformatic and statistical analysis**

155 Paired-end reads were assigned to samples based on their unique barcode and then merged using  
156 FLASH (Version 1.2.7, <http://ccb.jhu.edu/software/FLASH/>) [36]. Quality filtering of the raw tags  
157 was performed under specific filtering conditions to obtain the high-quality clean tags [37]  
158 according to QIIME (Version 1.9.1, [http://qiime.org/scripts/split\\_libraries\\_fastq.html](http://qiime.org/scripts/split_libraries_fastq.html)) [38].  
159 Sequences with  $\geq 97\%$  similarity were assigned to the same OTUs by Uparse software (Version  
160 7.0.1001, <http://drive5.com/uparse/>) [39]. Representative sequence for each OTU was screened for  
161 further annotation. For each representative sequence, the Silva Database (<http://www.arb-silva.de/>)  
162 [40] was used based on Mothur (Version 1.36.0) algorithm to annotate taxonomic information.

163 Alpha diversity was applied to analyze the complexity of species diversity through Chao1 species  
164 richness and Shannon diversity index using QIIME and displayed with R software (Version 2.15.3).  
165 For beta-diversity, beta\_diversity.py in QIIME was used to obtain distance matrices and Principal  
166 Coordinate Analysis (PCoA) was performed and visualized using ggplot2 package in R software.  
167 Nonmetric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) plots of the Bray-Curtis metric were calculated with  
168 square root transformed data and visualized in R (vegan package). Permutational multivariate  
169 analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) was used to examine the differences of gut microbial  
170 communities between calves and their mothers among different age groups. The linear discriminant  
171 analysis (LDA) effect size (LEfSe) algorithm was used for differential analysis to identify  
172 significantly different taxa [41]. In addition, we used SourceTracker2 [42], a Bayesian community-  
173 level microbial source-tracking tool, to estimate the proportion of sequences in the calf gut  
174 microbiota that originated from different parts of their mother's body. SourceTracker2 was run with  
175 default parameters using nonrarefied data; each calf gut microbial community was designated as a  
176 sink, and all maternal sample types were designated as sources. In order to identify and sort the  
177 genera which contributed the most to the differences in gut microbial community between yak and  
178 cattle calves at different developmental stages before weaning, a similarity percentage analysis  
179 (SIMPER) was performed using PAST (Version 3.1.7) [43]. All genera below a certain threshold  
180 (90%) of cumulative contributions were set as specialized genera. In this analysis, SIMPER  
181 determined the specialized genera in the calf gut microbiota based on the changes in cumulative  
182 contributions to explain differences among developmental stages and species groups. Moreover,  
183 intersections between sets of OTUs were visualized using UpSet plot (with the R package UpSetR  
184 (Version 1.3.3) [44]). The 16S function prediction was employed to standardize the OTU abundance

185 by PICRUSt [45], which was used to remove the effect of the number of copies of the 16S marker  
186 gene in the species genome. The predicted functional contents were summarized at KEGG pathway  
187 hierarchy levels 2 and 3 for interpretation and subsequent analysis.

## 188 **Data availability**

189 All raw high-throughput sequencing data were submitted to the National Center for  
190 Biotechnology Information (NCBI) Sequence Read Archive (SRA) under the Bioproject accession  
191 number PRJNA688363.

## 192 **Results**

### 193 **Richness and diversity of calves and maternal microbiota**

194 To assess the dynamic microbiota variations, fecal samples of yak ( $n = 24$ ) and cattle ( $n = 29$ )  
195 calves were collected from the 1st to the 9th week after birth (Fig. 1). In order to explore possible  
196 sources of these microbiota, rumen fluid, feces, oral cavity, and breast skin samples were collected  
197 from their mothers ( $n = 8$ ) in the first week after their parturition (Fig. 1). All DNA samples were  
198 initially subjected to ribosomal marker gene amplification and sequencing, and 10,029,364 quality-  
199 filtered 16S rRNA gene sequences were obtained with an average of  $85,721 \pm 9,173$  (mean  $\pm$  SD)  
200 reads per sample. The coverage ranges of different sample types were narrower (feces: 66,720 –  
201 99,894; rumen: 80,673 – 99,593; oral cavity: 64,823 – 98,614; and breast skin: 80,295 – 96,729; see  
202 species diversity in Additional file 1: Figure S1) than that of the total range (64,823 - 99,894).  
203 Besides, through annotation of the sequences of the OTUs with the Silva132 database following the  
204 97% sequence similarity threshold, a total of 13,807 OTUs were annotated, of which the proportion  
205 of sequences annotated at the genus levels were 4,463 OTUs (31.09%).

206 We found that the calves and maternal microbiota varied across different sample types. The  
207 maternal samples (rumen fluid, feces, breast skin, and oral cavity) harbored higher OTU richness  
208 than samples from the gut of calves during pre-weaning periods in both yak and cattle (Fig. 2). To  
209 gain insight into the diversity of fecal microbial community, we compared the Chao1 species  
210 richness and Shannon diversity indexes of yak and cattle calves between different age groups (Fig.  
211 2A, B, and Additional file 1: Table S1). In the intestinal microbiota of two-week old yak and cattle  
212 calves, Chao1 richness was not significantly different between the two species (YBW1F vs. CBW1F,  
213 Wilcox test,  $P = 0.995$ ; YBW2F vs. CBW2F, Wilcox test,  $P = 0.335$ ). Interestingly, at five weeks of  
214 age, the Chao1 species richness and Shannon diversity indexes of fecal microbiota in yak calves  
215 suddenly decreased, which was significantly different from that of cattle calves (Chao1, YBW5F vs.  
216 CBW5F, Wilcox test,  $P = 0.014$ ; Shannon, YBW5F vs. CBW5F, Wilcox test,  $P = 0.008$ ). At the 9th  
217 week, the differences in Chao1 species richness and Shannon diversity indexes between yak and  
218 cattle calf fecal microbiota were not statistically significant (Chao1, YBW9F vs. CBW9F, Wilcox  
219 test,  $P = 0.855$ ; Shannon, YBW9F vs. CBW9F, Wilcox test,  $P = 0.070$ ), indicating that the calf  
220 intestinal microbiota were relatively matured and got stabilized during this period (Additional file  
221 1: Table S1). However, we found that although the difference in gut microbial abundance and  
222 diversity between yak and cattle were not significant with age (Chao1, YF vs. CF, Wilcox test,  $P =$   
223  $0.502$ ; Shannon, YF vs. CF, Wilcox test,  $P = 0.433$ ), there were still significant differences in gut  
224 microbial abundance and diversity between calves and their mothers before weaning (Chao1,  
225 Wilcox test, YBW9F vs. YF:  $P < 0.001$ , CBW9F vs. CF:  $P < 0.001$ ; Shannon, Wilcox test, YBW9F  
226 vs. YF:  $P = 0.022$ , CBW9F vs. CF:  $P = 0.238$ ), indicating that the microbial community in the  
227 intestine of calves matured and stabilized gradually with age (Fig. 2A, B and Additional file 1: Table

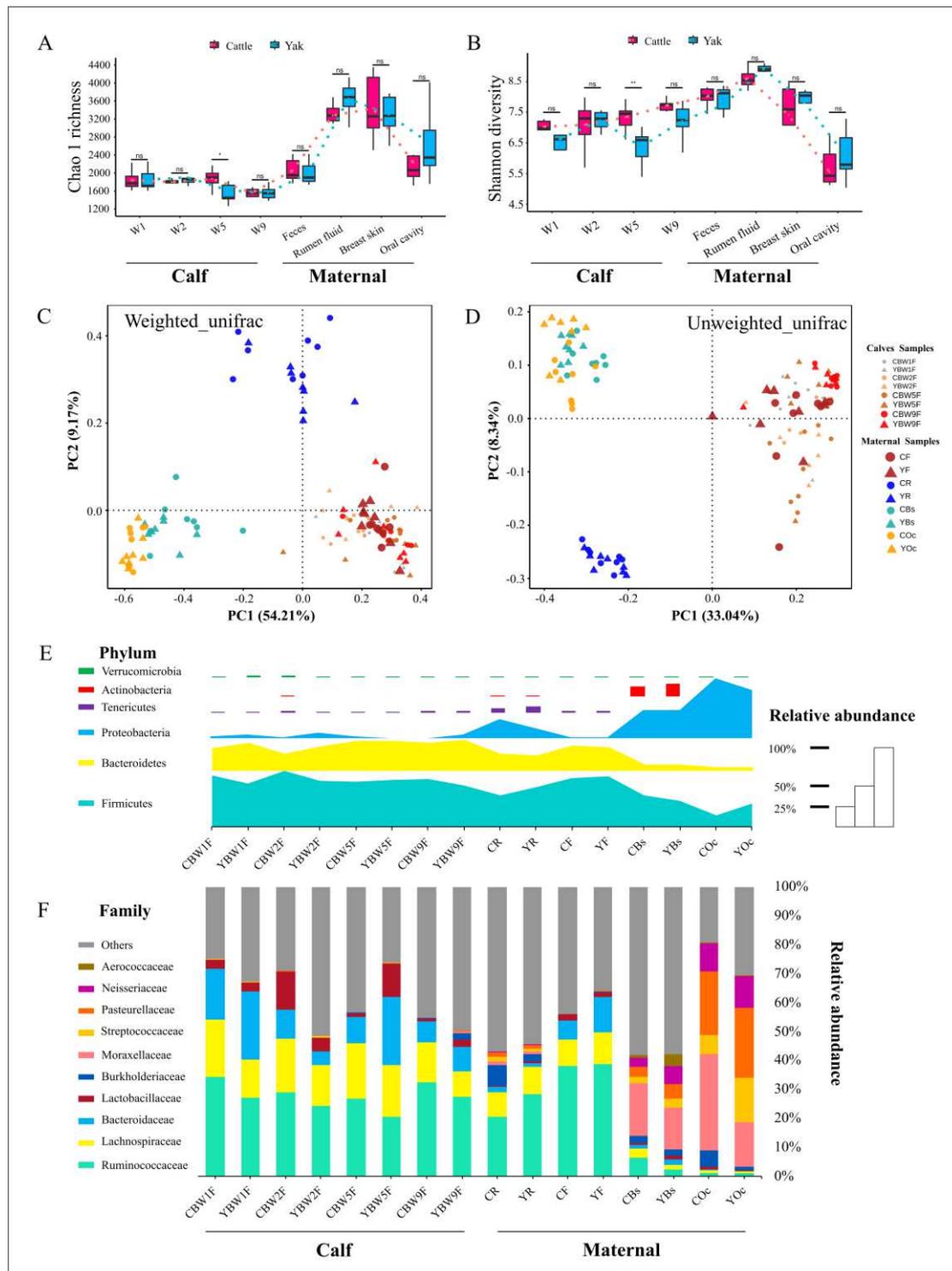
228 [S1](#)). Besides, we also found that the microbial richness and diversity of the rumen, oral cavity, and  
229 breast skin of yak cows were higher than those of cattle cows, but insignificant (Wilcox test,  $P >$   
230 0.05) ([Fig. 2A, B](#) and Additional file 1: [Table S1](#)).

231 We next sought to examine how the maternal microbial community influenced the gut microbial  
232 community of both yak and cattle calves kept in the same habitat during pre-weaning ([Fig. 2C, D](#)).  
233 Principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) was performed on maternal microbiota (fecal, rumen fluid,  
234 oral cavity, and breast skin) and calf fecal microbiota at 1, 2, 5, and 9 weeks of life using unweighted  
235 and weighted UniFrac distances matrices. The PCoA plot showed clear separations between the  
236 types of calf fecal and maternal samples (rumen fluid, oral cavity, and breast skin) in both species,  
237 for examples, maternal oral cavity and breast skin samples clustered together, all maternal and calf  
238 fecal samples formed a separate cluster, while maternal rumen samples stood alone ([Fig. 2C, D](#)). In  
239 addition, analysis of molecular variance (AMOVA) [46] confirmed these stratifications among the  
240 sample types (Additional file 1: [Table S2](#)). For calf fecal samples, there was no significant difference  
241 between the yak and cattle calf groups at one and two weeks after birth (AMOVA,  $P > 0.05$ ;  
242 Additional file 1: [Table S2](#)). However, the fecal microbial communities between the yak and cattle  
243 calves were significantly different at their five weeks of age (AMOVA,  $P = 0.043$ ). Nevertheless,  
244 such differences disappeared at their nine weeks of age (AMOVA,  $P > 0.05$ ; Additional file 1: [Table](#)  
245 [S2](#)).

246 Of the 29 bacterial phyla identified, six dominated the calf fecal microbiota (average cumulative  
247 abundance = 98.5%), including Firmicutes, Bacteroidetes, and Proteobacteria being prevalent in  
248 adult bovine intestinal microbiota [47] ([Fig. 2E](#)). Firmicutes (YB: 55.9%; CB: 62.7%) were the most  
249 dominant phylum among both the calf and maternal gut microbiota (rumen and hindgut), followed

250 by Bacteroides (YB: 35.1%; CB: 30.5%). However, Proteobacteria was the most dominant phylum  
251 in oral cavity (YOc: 61.2%, COc: 76.3%) and breast skin microbial communities (YBs: 36.5%;  
252 CBs:35.5%) of maternal origins, followed by Firmicutes. It is worth noting that Actinobacteria was  
253 also common in the maternal breast skin microbiota (YBs: 16.3%; CBs: 13.0%) (Fig. 2E).  
254 Interestingly, Euryarchaeota (YB: 0.016%; CB: 0.003%) and Thaumarchaeota (YB: 0.004%) were  
255 found in the feces of both yak and cattle calves at their 1st week of age, indicating that archaea had  
256 colonized the calf intestines very early.

257 Clostridiales (YB: 48.0%; CB: 55.2%), Bacteroidales (YB: 34.8%; CB: 30.2%) and  
258 Lactobacillales (YB: 5.9%; CB: 4.8%) were the three most abundant orders in the intestines of yak  
259 and cattle (Additional file 1: Figure S2). At the family level, we found that *Ruminococcaceae* (YB:  
260 24.8%; CB: 30.5%), *Lachnospiraceae* (YB: 13.5%; CB: 17.8%), and *Bacteroidaceae* (YB: 15.1%;  
261 CB: 11.1%) were prevalent in the gut of both pre-weaning yak and cattle calves (Fig. 2F). Moreover,  
262 *Lactobacillus* was abundant in the gut microflora of both yak and cattle calves at their very early  
263 age, but its abundance decreased gradually at their ages in later weeks. In comparison with the  
264 intestinal microbiota, the oral cavity and breast skin microbiota of both yak and cattle cows mainly  
265 consisted of *Moraxellaceae* (YOc: 15.2%, COc: 33.6%; YBs: 14.6%; CBs: 18.1%) followed by  
266 *Pasteurellaceae* (YOc: 15.4%, COc: 6.5%; YBs: 3.1%; CBs: 2.2%) and *Streptococcaceae* (YOc:  
267 24.1%, COc: 21.9%; YBs: 4.9%; CBs: 3.3%). We also found that the unknown microbial  
268 communities in the gut of both yak and cattle calves increased along with their ages (Fig. 2F).



269

270 **Fig. 2** Compositions of the calf and maternal microbiota. (A) The Chao1 species richness and (B) Shannon diversity

271 indexes of microbial communities in the samples of yak and cattle calf feces (at 1, 2, 5, and 9 weeks of their ages),

272 and their mothers (rumen fluid, feces, oral cavity, and breast skin). Distances between the samples, based on OUT

273 similarity (OTU similarity  $\geq 97\%$ ) calculated using (C) weighted UniFrac distances in all samples; and (D)

274 unweighted UniFrac distances in all samples; both visualized in PCoA plots. A greater distance between two points  
275 infers a lower similarity, whereas similar OTUs cluster together. (E) The average relative abundances of the most  
276 prevalent bacterial phyla (bar length and area plot) in each sample type are plotted for samples from the maternal  
277 microbiota and calf feces. (F) Bar plots depict the relative abundances of bacterial families from the maternal samples  
278 and calf feces; unclassified taxa and bacterial families which have a relative abundance less than 1% were grouped  
279 into “Others”.

### 280 **Predictive source tracking of the calf gut communities during pre-weaning**

281 Bayesian community-level source tracking [48] was used to investigate the contribution of  
282 maternal microbiota to the gut microbial community assemblies of both yak and cattle calves. The  
283 SourceTracker model also revealed the main roles of the microbial communities from different body  
284 parts (rumen fluid, feces, oral cavity, and breast skin) of both yak and cattle cows in shaping the  
285 intestinal microbial communities of their calves. It was clear that the intestinal microbiota of both  
286 yak and cattle calves at their early ages were primarily derived from the maternal intestinal  
287 microbiota (Fig. 3). On average, 94.1% of the intestinal microbiota of yak calves at 1st week of age  
288 were from maternal intestinal source while less than 0.2% from maternal rumen and 5.7% from  
289 unknown sources (Fig. 3A); Comparatively, 94.3% of intestinal microbiota of cattle calves also  
290 originated from maternal intestinal source, but less than 0.3% from maternal rumen and 5.4% from  
291 unknown sources (Fig. 3B). On average, both yak and cattle calves at 2nd week of their age still  
292 carried more than 80% of such maternally-originated gut microbial community. However, the  
293 proportions from the maternal rumen fluid, breast skin, and other unknown sources started to  
294 increase along with their ages. Similarly, UpSet analysis revealed that the maternal microbial  
295 community played an important role in the succession of the intestinal microbial community of both

296 yak and cattle calves after birth, especially the maternal intestinal microbial community (Fig. 3).

297 The result was consistent with the patterns derived from the taxonomy and linear analyses (Fig. 2).

298 Moreover, in order to further determine the influence of the maternal gut microbial community on

299 the succession process of the calf's early gut microbiota, NMDS analysis was performed to

300 determine whether the microbial community structure changed along with their ages. The similarity

301 cluster analysis based on NMDS showed a good agreement with the result of source tracking (Fig.

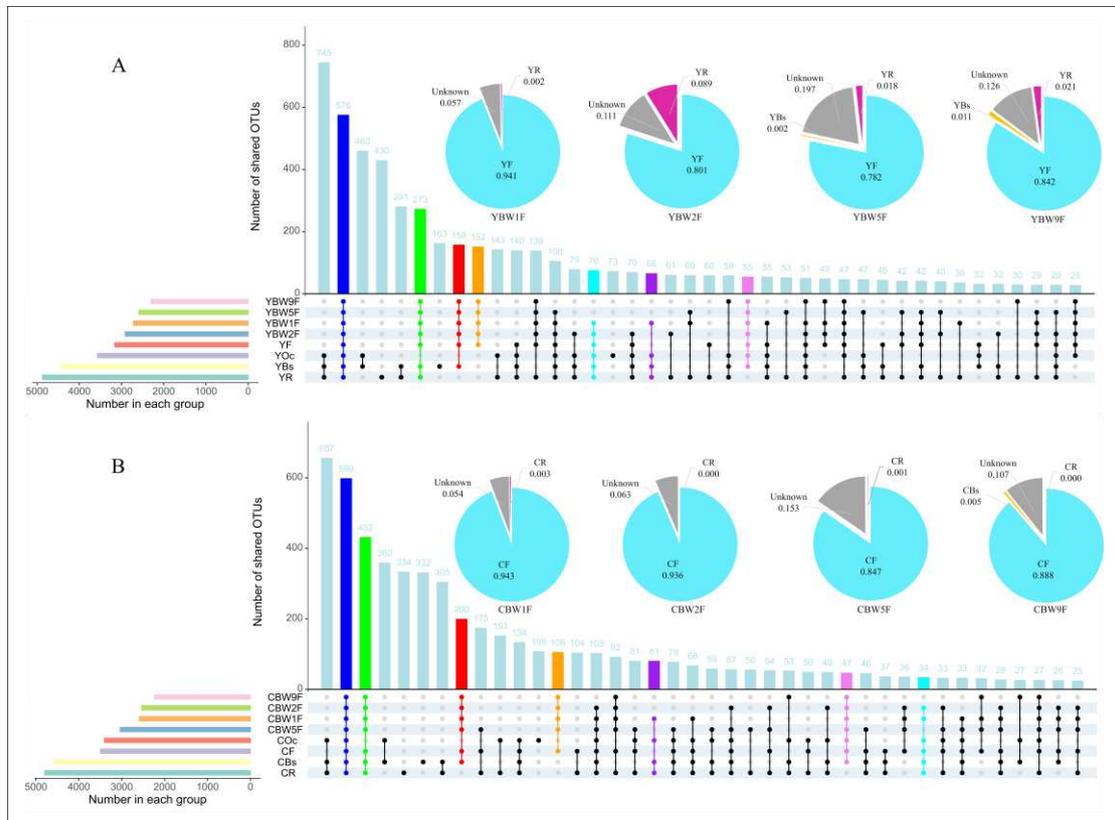
302 4F), that is, the gut microbial communities of both yak and cattle calves at the 1st and 2nd weeks of

303 their ages were more similar to those in the guts of their mothers. Hence, both SourceTracker and

304 UpSet analyses indicated that their mothers cares contributed to the rapid establishment of intestinal

305 microbial community of the calves, and especially that the maternal intestinal microbiota

306 significantly shaped the composition and stability of the calf intestinal microbial community.



307

308 **Fig. 3** Community-level modeling and source-tracking analyses of the maternal sources in early calf gut community

309 assembly. Yak (A) and cattle (B) animals are displayed separately. UpSet plots of common OTUs in the samples  
310 from the calf feces (at 1, 2, 5, and 9 weeks of their ages) and their mothers (rumen fluid, feces, oral cavity, and breast  
311 skin). Only OTUs with an overall abundance across all samples greater than 0.01% are included, the 40 intersections  
312 which involved the greatest number of OTUs are displayed. The pie charts show the predicted proportions of  
313 sequences in the gut microbiota of both yak and cattle calves at different weeks pre-weaning (1, 2, 5 and 9 weeks)  
314 that originated from their maternal microbial communities (rumen fluid, feces, oral cavity, and breast skin).

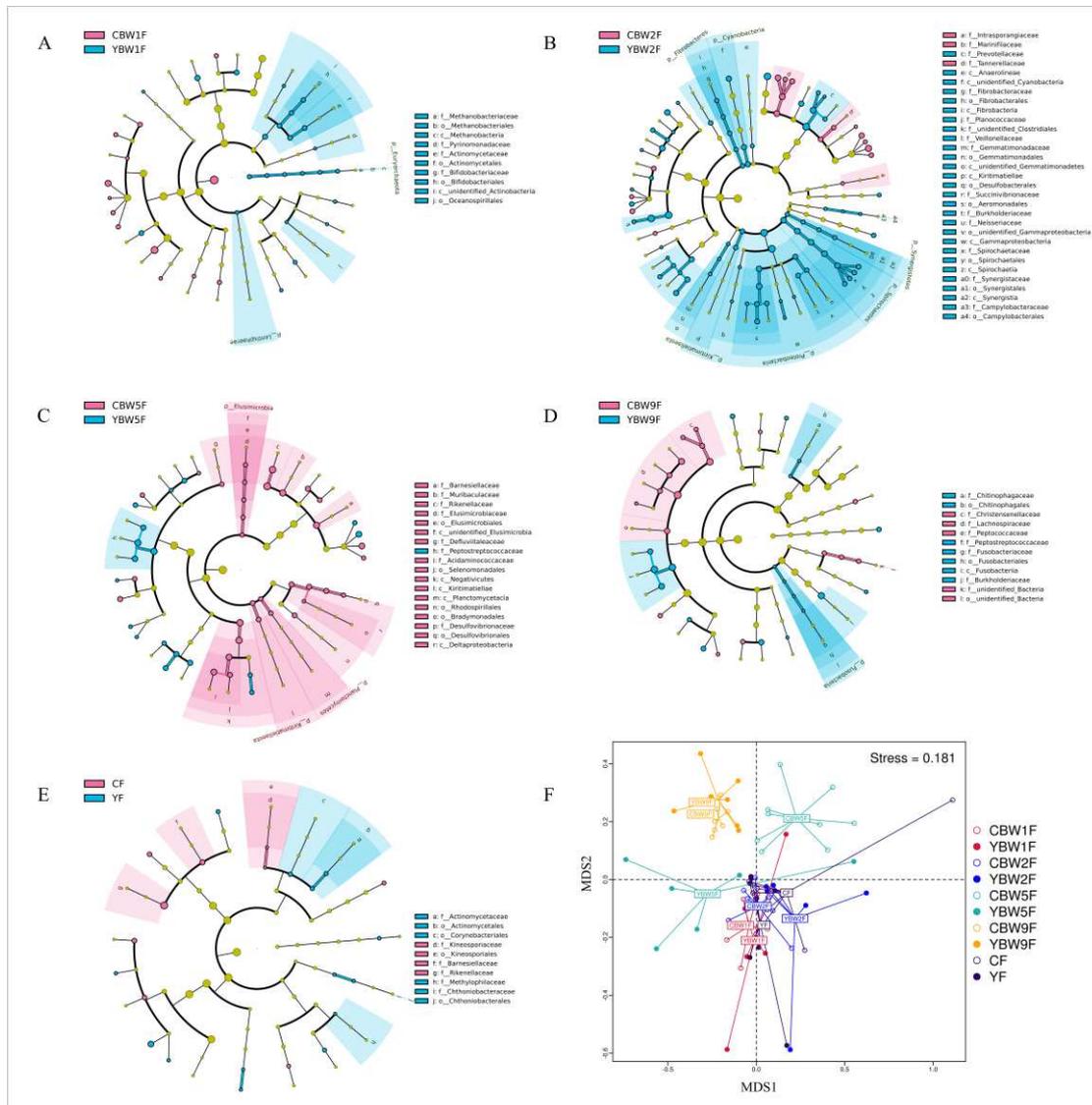
### 315 **Influence of the maternal gut microbiota on early calf gut microbial succession**

316 To determine the association between early gut microbial succession and mother care, the  
317 resemblance between gut microbiota of calves and their mothers was detected by performing LefSe  
318 in given communities (Fig. 4 and Additional file 1: Figure S3). The gut microbiota of yak cows  
319 were enriched in *Actinomycetaceae*, *Methylophilaceae*, and *Chthoniobacteraceae*, while cattle cows  
320 were enriched in *Kineosporiaceae*, *Barnesiellaceae*, and *Rikenellaceae* at the family level (Fig. 4E).  
321 At genus level, the gut microbiota of yak cows were enriched in *Kandleria*, *Methanosphaera*, and  
322 *Cupriavidus*, while cattle cows were enriched in *Butyrivibro*, *Acetitomaculum*, and *Acinetobacter*  
323 (Additional file 1: Figure S3E). Interestingly, *Pyrinomonadaceae*, *Actinomycetaceae*,  
324 *Bifidobacteriaceae*, and *Methanobacteriaceae* were the dominant families of gut microbes in yak  
325 calves at the 1st week of their ages (Fig. 4A and Additional file 1: Figure S3A). However, the  
326 relative abundances of Proteobacteria, Fibrobacteria, Cyanobacteria, and Spirochaetes in the  
327 intestinal microflora of yak calves at the 2nd week was higher than those of cattle calves, but  
328 Elusimicrobia, Planctomycetes, and Kiritimatiellaeota (at phylum level, Fig. 4C) in the intestinal  
329 microflora of cattle calves at the 5th weeks were higher than those of yak calves. In addition, the  
330 LefSe result showed that the gut microbiota of yak calves at the 2nd week were enriched for

331 *Prevotellaceae*, *Succinivibrio*, *Acidaminococcus*, *Fibrobacter*, *Ruminobacter*, *Lachnospira*, etc. (at  
332 the genera level, Fig. 4B and Additional file 1: Figure S3B). Following the increase in age, the  
333 differences in the microbial communities in the intestines between yak and cattle calves decreased  
334 gradually. We found that the gut microbiota of yak calves at the 9th week were enriched in  
335 *Chitinophagaceae*, *Peptostreptococcaceae*, and *Fusobacteriaceae*, while cattle calves were  
336 enriched in *Christensenellaceae*, *Lachnospiraceae*, and *Peptococcaceae* (at the family level, Fig.  
337 4D). Therefore, the LEfSe result further demonstrated that maternal gut microbiota was the major  
338 contributor to calf initial gut community.

339 In order to further determine how the maternal gut microbiota influence the succession process  
340 of the calf early gut microbiota, NMDS analysis was performed to determine whether the microbial  
341 community structure changed with increasing age (Fig. 4F). The similarity cluster analysis based on  
342 NMDS (stress = 0.181) showed a good agreement with the result of LEfSe analysis (Fig. 4F and  
343 Additional file 1: Table S4). In one-week old calves, the intestinal microbial communities were  
344 similar between yak and cattle (YBW1F vs. CBW1F, PERMANOVA,  $F_{1,9} = 0.868$ ,  $R^2 = 0.088$ ,  $P$   
345  $= 0.514$ ; Additional file 1: Table S4). Along with the gradual development of intestinal tract, the  
346 Bata diversity in the intestinal microbial communities of calves at different weeks of age (2 and 5  
347 weeks after birth) and from different species (yak and cattle) was significantly different (YBW2F  
348 vs. CBW2F, PERMANOVA,  $F_{1,11} = 2.084$ ,  $R^2 = 0.159$ ,  $P = 0.012$ ; YBW5F vs. CBW5F,  
349 PERMANOVA,  $F_{1,13} = 2.184$ ,  $R^2 = 0.144$ ,  $P = 0.014$ ). Finally, the intestinal microbiota of yak and  
350 cattle calves gradually got matured and stabilized by the time of weaning (YBW9F vs. CBW9F,  
351 PERMANOVA,  $F_{1,12} = 1.702$ ,  $R^2 = 0.124$ ,  $P = 0.054$ ), and the gut microbiota of yak and cattle

352 calves gradually converged with their ages (YF vs. CF, PERMANOVA,  $F_{1,14} = 1.007$ ,  $R^2 = 0.067$ ,  
 353  $P = 0.397$ ).



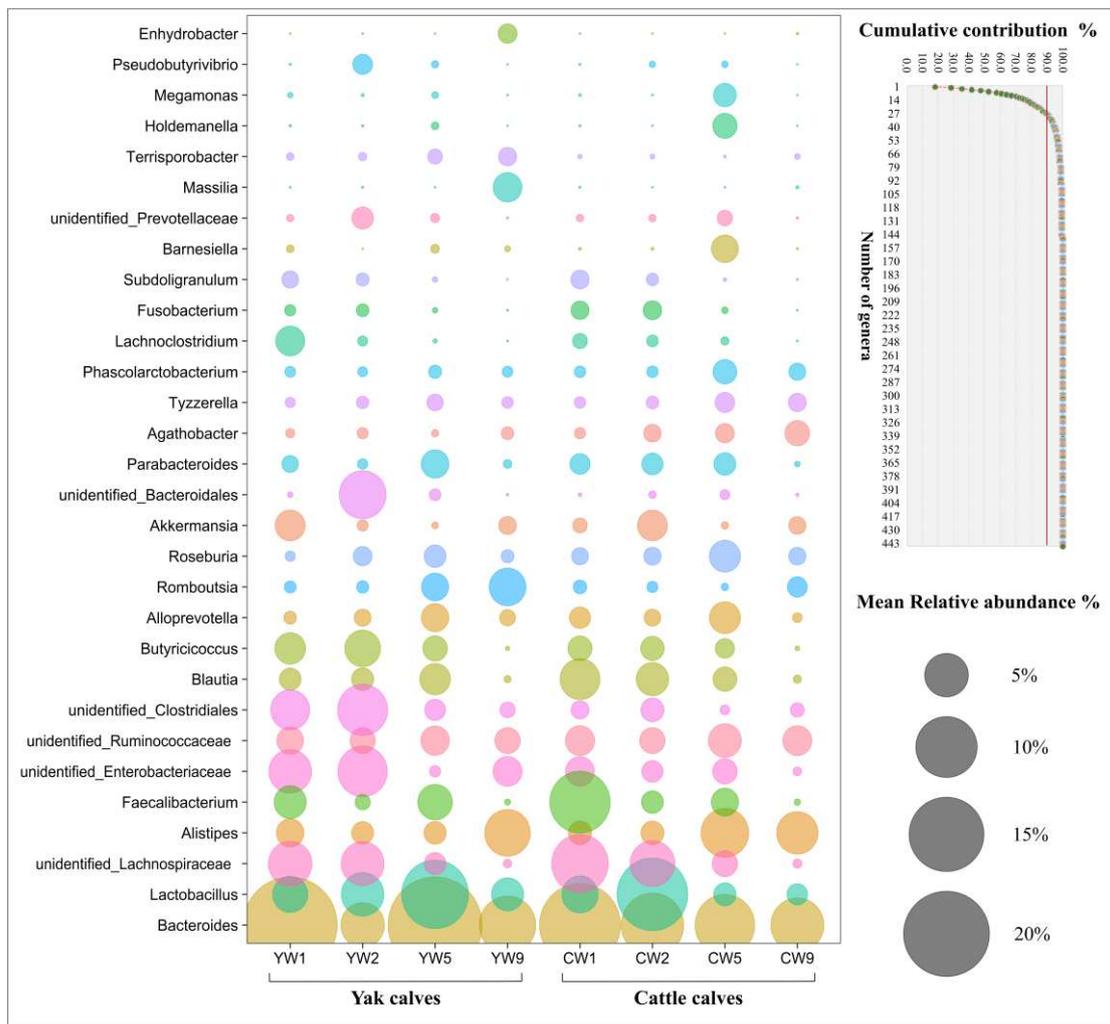
354  
 355 **Fig. 4** LefSe analysis. The cladograms indicate the phylogenetic distribution of the intestinal microbiota of yak and  
 356 cattle at (A) 1, (B) 2, (C) 5, and (D) 9 weeks before weaning and their mothers (E) using the Linear Discriminant  
 357 Analysis (LDA) Effect Size (LEfSe) method. Differences are represented by treatment colors (nattier blue indicates  
 358 yak, pink indicates cattle, and yellow non-significant). Circle's diameters are proportional to the taxon's abundances.  
 359 Circles represent taxonomic ranks from domain to species from inside to out layers. The LDA cut-off score is 2.  
 360 Letters in front of OTUs represent taxonomic levels (p, phylum; c, class; o, order; f, family). (F) The gut microbial

361 community structures across calf and maternal samples. Non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) ordination  
362 based on Bray-Curtis distances among sample types are plotted based on OTU abundances in the calf and maternal  
363 samples.

### 364 **Establishment of the specialized microbial communities in the guts of yak and** 365 **cattle calves pre-weaning**

366 The specialized community was defined based on the SIMPER analysis, to identify predominant  
367 gut microbial genera contributing to the specialized community of the intestinal microbiota of yak  
368 and cattle calves at different weeks pre-weaning. We found that only 6.8% of the overall community  
369 of fecal samples, i.e., 30 (of 443) genera with the highest variabilities in their relative abundances  
370 were responsible for 90% of the dissimilarities between the communities at different age groups of  
371 yak and cattle calves (Fig. 5). In general, the metabolic capacity of these 30 genera belonged to the  
372 specialized communities, which reflected the major differences in the intestinal microbial  
373 communities of yak and cattle calves at different weeks pre-weaning. However, there were some  
374 unique microbial communities in the intestines of yak and cattle calves at different weeks of early  
375 development. In one-week old calves, the relative abundances of *Lachnoclostridium*, *Akkermansia*  
376 and *Butyrivoccus* in the intestines of yak were higher than those of cattle, while the relative abundance  
377 of *Faecalibacterium* in the intestines of cattle was higher than those of yak (Additional file 1: Table  
378 S5). After 2 weeks, the relative abundances of some unidentified genera in the intestines of yak  
379 calves were higher than those of cattle calves, such as *unidentified\_Enterobacteriaceae*,  
380 *unidentified\_Prevotellaceae*, and *unidentified\_Clostridiales*; however, there were significant  
381 differences in the relative abundances of certain members of *Ruminococcaceae* and  
382 *Lachnospiraceae* in the intestines between yak and cattle calves (Fig. 5 and Additional file 1: Table

383 S5). In five week old calves, the relative abundance of *Bacteroides*, *Lactobacillus*, and *Romboutsia*  
 384 in the intestines of yak were higher than those of cattle, while the relative abundances of *Megamonas*,  
 385 *Holdemanella*, *Barnesiella*, and *Alistipes* in the intestines of cattle were higher compared to yak. At  
 386 the 9th week, the relative abundances of *Enhydrobacter*, *Terrisporobacter*, *Massilia*, and  
 387 *Romboutsia* in the intestine of yak calves were higher than those of cattle calves (Fig. 5 and  
 388 Additional file 1: Table S5).



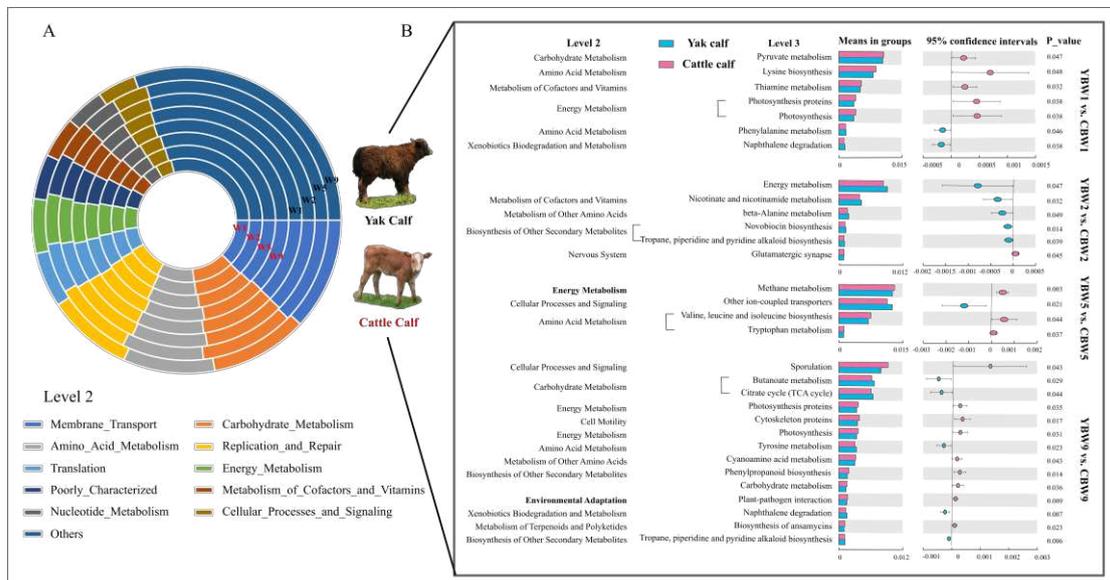
389  
 390 **Fig. 5** Similarity percentage analysis (SIMPER). The line graph shows the result of the SIMPER analysis performed  
 391 with the PAST program, where all genera under a defined threshold (90%) of the cumulative contribution are  
 392 declared as specialized genera. Bubble-plot represents specialized microbial communities in the intestines of yak  
 393 and cattle calves before weaning (at 1, 2, 5, and 9 weeks of their ages), while the size of the bubble represents the

394 relative abundance of the respective genus.

### 395 **Predicted function of the gut microbiota in pre-weaning calves**

396 To assess the metabolic potentials of the gut microbiome, PICRUST-based functional prediction  
397 revealed the differences of microbial functions in the intestinal microbial communities between yak  
398 and cattle calves at different weeks pre-weaning. Generally, these differences were mainly  
399 manifested in carbohydrate metabolism, amino acid metabolism, energy metabolism, metabolism  
400 of cofactor and vitamin, and other secondary metabolites biosynthesis (Fig. 6 A). There were  
401 significant differences in the function of intestinal microbiota between yak and cattle calves in the  
402 aspects of pyruvate metabolism (T-test,  $P = 0.047$ ), lysine biosynthesis (T-test,  $P = 0.048$ ),  
403 phenylamine metabolism (T-test,  $P = 0.046$ ), and thiamine metabolism (T-test,  $P = 0.032$ ),  
404 indicating that the intestinal microbial function in yak and cattle calves within the 1st week mainly  
405 focused on carbohydrate and amino acid metabolisms (Fig. 6 B). However, at the 2nd week after  
406 birth, the intestinal microbial function of yak calves was higher than that of cattle calves in energy  
407 metabolism (T-test,  $P = 0.047$ ), nicotinate and nicotinamide metabolism (T-test,  $P = 0.032$ ), and  
408 beta-alanine metabolism (T-test,  $P = 0.049$ ), showing that the intestinal microbiota of yak calves  
409 had been relatively stable in nutrient digestion and metabolism (Fig. 6 B). Notably, it was predicted  
410 that the intestinal microbiota function of cattle calves at five-week of their ages was significantly  
411 higher in methane metabolism (T-test,  $P = 0.003$ ) than that in yak calves, which illustrated that the  
412 capability of methanogenesis in the hindgut of cattle might be higher than yak. The intestinal  
413 microbial function of yak calves at nine-week of their ages was significantly higher in carbohydrate  
414 metabolism, including butanoate metabolism (T-test,  $P = 0.029$ ) and citrate cycle (TCA cycle) (T-

415 test,  $P = 0.044$ ), than those of cattle calves, specifying that the hindgut of yak calves was stronger  
 416 than that of cattle calves in plant fiber degradation (Fig. 6 B).



417  
 418 **Fig. 6** Predicted microbial functions using PICRUSt. (A) Relative abundances of level 2 KEGG pathways are  
 419 described by the age of calves within different species (different weeks before weaning) in circular bar plots. (B)  
 420 The comparison of the function of intestinal microbiota at different stages of development before weaning between  
 421 yak and cattle calves based on KEGG level 3 annotation.

## 422 Discussion

423 Central to ruminant production and health is the intestinal microbiota, the complex microbial  
 424 community that resides in the ruminant gastrointestinal tract and is now well-recognized as a crucial  
 425 contributor to the maintenance of intestinal homeostasis, mucosal and lymphoid structure  
 426 development, and activation of the host immune cell repertoire [2, 49-51]. This complex community  
 427 of microbes must be reassembled each generation since infants lack a gut microbiota at birth [4, 6,  
 428 51]. Understanding how microbial communities develop is essential for predicting and directing  
 429 their future states [6]. To date, there is limited knowledge on the hindgut microbiota and its microbial

430 fermentation profiles in neonatal ruminants. Hence, the objective of our study was to explore the  
431 composition and possible sources of the intestinal bacterial community in yak and cattle calves from  
432 birth until pre-weaning and to identify changes in the intestinal microbiota during normal  
433 development. In contrast to other studies that mainly examined Holstein-Friesian calves[11, 52], we  
434 analyzed gut microbiota development of yak calves, the predominant dairy and meat animals in the  
435 QTP region. Our results demonstrated that the maternal microbiome is critical for the rapid  
436 establishment of intestinal microbiota of the calves at the early development stage and has the  
437 greatest impact on the colonization of the calf intestinal microbiota within the first week after birth,  
438 and that this effect persists until weaning or even longer. This phenomenon was similar in both yak  
439 and cattle calves despite they had their respective mothers to take care of them. Besides, our results  
440 revealed that the gut microbiota of yak calves was rapidly established and relatively stable at the 5th  
441 week compared to cattle calves. This finding indicates that yak calves have evolved to quickly  
442 establish a relatively mature and stable intestinal microbial community to adapt to harsh  
443 environment on the QTP.

#### 444 **Maternal effects on the shaping and assembly of calf gut microbiota during early** 445 **development**

446 There is increasing evidence that microbial colonization is a complex process influenced by a mutual  
447 interaction between host and microbes along with a variety of external factors, such as neonatal  
448 delivery, maternal and environment microbiota, diet, parenting behavior, and early use of antibiotics  
449 [8-11, 53]. However, calves of both yak and cattle in this study were born naturally, fed by their  
450 mothers, and grazed along with their mothers on the same natural alpine pastures (without  
451 concentrate supplementation) on the QTP. Bayesian community-level source tracking and UpSet

452 analyses showed that maternal fecal microbiome was critical for the rapid establishment and  
453 colonization of the intestinal microbiota in the calves within the first week of birth (94% via  
454 maternal fecal transmission), and this effect persisted until weaning or even longer. Several studies  
455 on other species suggested that the gut microbiota was transferred from mother to offspring through  
456 social interaction, shared environment, and diet[9, 10, 54, 55]. In parallel, initially colonized  
457 microbiota in neonatal gut originated from the maternal vagina, breast milk and fecal microbes[56-  
458 58]. Later on, a great degree of parental care may increase a variety of parental microbes in newborns  
459 during their early stage of intestinal microbiota development, such as skin microbes[59]. This  
460 process is essential for the recruitment and establishment of microbiota and helps to resist pathogens  
461 when the immune system is not well developed in newborns [12-14]. Recently, it has been reported  
462 that kid goats reared with their dam had a greater rumen development than their twins that were  
463 isolated from adult animals and fed on milk replacer, although both groups had access to the same  
464 forage and concentrate offered *ad libitum* [60]. Additionally, some studies found that calves reared  
465 in the presence of older companions exhibited more frequent and longer visits to the feeder, which  
466 was assumed hypothesized to be a result of social learning [61, 62]. Hence, the advantage of direct  
467 inoculation of microbiota via physical contact with the dam deserves further attention.

468 In contrast to most of these studies, our study focused on the influence of maternal microbiome  
469 on the calf gut microbial community during postnatal and pre-weaning development. Our results  
470 showed that since calves live with their dams and herds, the maternal intestinal microflora can be  
471 transmitted indirectly to the calves' intestines during their social feeding behavior, and it also  
472 promotes the rapid establishment and stability of calf intestinal microbiota. This phenomenon was  
473 similar in both yak and cattle calves, although they have their mothers to take care of them, further

474 indicating that our results are stable and reliable. It has recently been reported that the establishment  
475 of intestinal microbiota within the first seven weeks of life is associated with calf health and growth  
476 (neonatal diarrhea, pneumonia and weight gain), while colonization by enteric pathogens might be  
477 responsible for the observed dysbiosis in gut microbiota during neonatal diarrhea [63]. Moreover,  
478 studies have found that calves are more likely to learn to eat forage in advance when they are raised  
479 with other cattle of different ages [64]. Along with this, around 22% of the change in the first milk  
480 yield of a cow is associated with the average daily gain in the first a few weeks of life [65].  
481 Surprisingly, studies have pointed out that neonatal diarrhea is the main cause of calf death in pre-  
482 weaning and accounting for more than 50% of the calf deaths in dairy industry [66]. However, under  
483 the commercial dairy system, calves are usually separated from the dam at a young age and fed  
484 either milk replacer or whole milk, which increase the risk of diarrhea in calves. Therefore, we  
485 recommended that calves should be raised by their mothers during the first a few weeks, which  
486 would help to increase milk production at later stages in commercial dairy system.

487 In recent years, fecal microbiota transplantation (FMT) is one of the hot research directions,  
488 which is considered to be helpful to treat intestinal diseases and establish a healthy intestinal  
489 microbiota [67-69]. A proof-of-concept safety study showed that oral-fecal transplantation could  
490 shift the microbiota composition of infants who were born via cesarean section to a profile that was  
491 more similar to those born via vaginal delivery [70]. As co-author of this research, Sture Andersson,  
492 puts it, “it’s a gift from mother to baby”. Hence, it is suggested that the calf should live with its  
493 mother for at least one week after birth in future ruminant farming, which will help to establish and  
494 stabilize the intestinal microbiota of the calf, as well as to lower down the economic loss caused by  
495 diarrhea of pre-weaning calves.

496 **The rapid establishment and stability of gut microbiota is the key for yak calves**  
497 **to adapt to the QTP**

498 Studies of genetic adaptation, a central focus of evolutionary biology, most often focus on the  
499 host's genome but rarely on the co-evolved microbiota. It is well known that QTP offers one of the  
500 most extreme environments for the survival of humans and other mammalian species [21]. Yak has  
501 developed many anatomical and physiological traits to adapt to this extreme living habitat [23, 24].  
502 Previous studies on rumen microbial diversity in yak found that the yak rumen microbiota has  
503 stronger efficient fiber-degrading and energy-harvesting abilities than that of cattle from low altitude  
504 [30]. However, there is a paucity of knowledge on how the intestinal microbiota develops during  
505 pre-weaning period and at what stage of life it becomes fully matured in grazing yak. Our result  
506 revealed that, except for the 5th week, there was no significant difference in the gut microbial  
507 richness and diversity between yak and cattle calves. We did not find any significant difference in  
508 the intestinal microbiota of yak calves between the 5th and the 9th week neither. This finding  
509 suggested that yak calves could quickly establish a relatively mature and stable intestinal microbial  
510 community, which may facilitate the adaptation of yak to the extreme natural environment of QTP.  
511 In addition, when microbiota composition throughout the gastrointestinal tract was explored, the  
512 rumen and intestinal regions consisted primarily of Firmicutes and Bacteroidetes, while >55% of  
513 the bacteria in the intestine was composed of Firmicutes [47, 71]. In the present study,  
514 *Ruminococcaceae*, *Lachnospiraceae*, *Bacteroidaceae*, and *Lactobacillaceae* were the most  
515 abundant family in the gut of pre-weaning yak and cattle calves. *Ruminococcaceae* and  
516 *Lachnospiraceae* belong to butyrate-producing bacteria, indicating that they provide energy to the  
517 host by promoting the degradation of plants fibers [72, 73]. Moreover, members of the genus

518 *Lactobacillus* are known as probiotics to secrete lactic acid as the major end product of carbohydrate  
519 metabolism, therefore playing an important role in nutrition, growth, and protection from infection  
520 [74-76].

521 There is increasing evidence that microbial colonization is a complex process influenced by a  
522 mutualistic interaction between the host (immune defense mechanisms, food retention time in the  
523 gut) and microbial factors (adhesion, mechanisms to obtain nutrients from the host, and survival  
524 mechanisms under oxygen gradient). Along with this, a variety of external factors, such as neonatal  
525 delivery, maternal and environment microbiota, parenting behavior, and early use of antibiotics, all  
526 combine to influence gut colonization [8-11, 53]. To determine the association between early gut  
527 microbial successions and mother care, LEfSe analysis was performed to identify representative  
528 taxa in given communities. Interestingly, we found that *Pyrinomonadaceae*, *Actinomycetaceae*,  
529 *Bifidobacteriaceae*, and *Methanobacteriaceae* were the dominant families of gut microbiota in yak  
530 calves at 1 week of life. The study showed that the original colonizers (*Streptococcus* and  
531 *Enterococcus*) utilize available oxygen in the intestinal and create an anaerobic environment for the  
532 strict anaerobic intestinal residents (such as *Bifidobacteria* and *Bacteroides*) [77, 78]. Besides, our  
533 study has shown that the administration of *Bifidobacterium* and *Lactobacillus* to newborn calves  
534 during the first week of life increased weight gain and feed conversion ratio, while decreased  
535 diarrhea incidences [79]. Our finding indicated that the relative abundance of some microbial  
536 communities such as *Prevotellaceae*, *Acidaminococcus*, *Fibrobacter*, *Ruminobacter*, *Succinivibrio*,  
537 *Lachnospira*, etc., in the intestines of yak calves were significantly higher than cattle calves,  
538 although there was no significant difference in Chao1 species richness and Shannon diversity  
539 indexes of intestinal microbiota between yak and cattle calves at the 2nd week of their age. The

540 social learning behavior of calves and the care of their mothers' to expose and feed fresh herbage  
541 during early life promoted the successful colonization of intestine functional microbiota of yak  
542 calves, such as the main cellulolytic and hemicellulolytic bacteria (*Fibrobacter*, *Prevotellaceae*,  
543 *Clostridium*, and *Eubacterium*), amylolytic bacteria (*Streptococcus* and *Ruminobacter*), proteolytic  
544 bacteria (*Acidaminococcus* and *Lachnospira*), and saccharolytic bacteria (*Succinivibrio*,  
545 *Lactobacillus*, and *Bifidobacterium*) [72-76, 79]. Diet is one of the main factors that influence the  
546 composition of intestinal microbiota, so an earlier intake of forage can promote the stability and  
547 healthy development of the intestinal microbiota of neonatal calves[64, 80-82]. Also, inherited host-  
548 associated factors, such as genotype, gender, and immune status, might function as selective filters  
549 in the assembly process of the intestinal microbial community[83-85]. However, with the maturation  
550 and stabilization of calf intestinal microbiota, the difference between yak and cattle calves decreased  
551 gradually, which may be the result of a convergent evolution of the key genomic functions conserved  
552 between the hosts in interaction with the microbial partners [30, 86, 87].

553 Microbial amino acid metabolism, carbohydrate metabolism and energy metabolism are crucial  
554 functions in the hindgut, which provide energy to the host [88]. The higher predicted microbial  
555 energy metabolism at weeks 1 and 2 indicated that microbiota during early life tended to harvest  
556 more energy from the lumen substance for their growth and proliferation. Also, the significant  
557 increase in predicted amino acid metabolism of mucosa-attached bacteria at weeks 5 and 9 suggested  
558 that bacteria derived more energy from amino acid fermentation along with the increase of the age  
559 of calves. The observed temporal variations in predicted microbial functions of the hindgut bacteria  
560 suggested potential changes in energy harvesting mechanisms associated with host diets. It is  
561 noticeable that the functional prediction based on the 16S rRNA gene is biased and further

562 metagenomic and metatranscriptomic studies are needed to assess the function of hindgut  
563 microbiota. However, the predicted function could provide preliminary information on the hindgut  
564 microbial functions of pre-weaned calves.

## 565 **Conclusions**

566 Gut microbes in early life are important for many aspects of animal immune [2, 89], metabolic  
567 [1], and neurobehavioral traits [90]. A central question is the extent to which microbiota composition  
568 is determined by the host genetics and environment. Most animal models can help identify heritable  
569 bacterial taxa and mechanisms, though the gut microbiota is shaped by multiple factors, and the  
570 relative contributions of host genetics and environments remain elusive. Therefore, in this study, we  
571 investigated the effect of maternal microbiota on the succession of intestinal microbiota in pre-  
572 weaning yak and cattle calves kept in the same natural pasture. Our results indicated that genetics  
573 and early maternal rearing had important effects on the maturation and stability of calf intestinal  
574 microbial community. We found that the intestinal microbiota of yak calves reached a relatively  
575 stable state earlier than those of cattle calves, following their long-term evolution and natural  
576 selection to better adapt to harsh environment on the QTP, as an old saying goes, “the neonate from  
577 the poor seems to grow up earlier”. Noteworthy, our results revealed that under natural grazing  
578 conditions, the calves raised by their mothers could lick the maternal feces and eat fresh grass  
579 through the social learning behavior earlies, which might accelerate the establishment and relative  
580 stability of the normal intestinal functional microbiota. Therefore, our results suggest that living  
581 with mother for at least 1 week after birth may help to establish and stabilize the intestinal microbiota  
582 of the calve, and subsequently, lower economic loss caused by diarrhea of pre-weaning calves.

583 **Supplementary information**

584 **Additional file 1:**

585 **Figure S1.** Species diversity curve. A) Rarefaction curve, in which the abscissa is the number of  
586 sequences randomly drawn from a sample and the ordinate is the number of OTUs based on  
587 the number of sequences. B) Rank abundance, ordinal by OTUs abundance in abscissa and  
588 relative abundance in OTUs' relative abundance in ordinate. Different samples are represented  
589 by polylines of different colors.

590 **Figure S2.** Circos plot. (A) The microbial communities of different samples are phylogenetic at the  
591 genus level (top 100). (B and C) The average relative abundances of the most prevalent  
592 bacterial phyla and order in each sample type plotted for the samples from the maternal and  
593 calf fecal samples.

594 **Figure S3.** Bar plots showing differential abundant gut microbes of yak and cattle at A) 1, B) 2, C)  
595 5, and D) 9 weeks before weaning, and E) their mothers, as identified by linear discriminant  
596 analysis (LDA) effect size (LEfSe). The bar plot shows scores for all the taxa with a LDA score  
597  $\geq 2$ . Labels are shown at the family and genera levels.

598 **Additional file 2:**

599 **Table S1.** Comparison of alpha diversity of fecal microorganisms in different developmental stages  
600 of yak and cattle calves before weaning.

601 **Table S2.** The results of the Amova test.

602 **Table S3.** The relative abundance of the sample types between yak and cattle at the genus level (top  
603 30).

604 **Table S4.** The results of the PERMANOVA test based on Bray-Curtis distance.

605 **Table S5.** T-test of the intestinal microbial community at different developmental stages of yak and  
606 cattle at the genus level.

#### 607 **Abbreviations**

608 QTP: The Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau; 16S rRNA: 16 Svedberg unit ribosomal ribonucleic acid; PCR:  
609 Polymerase chain reaction; OTU: Operational taxonomic unit; NDMS: Non-metric  
610 multidimensional scaling; PCoA: Principal Coordinate Analysis; PERMANOVA: Permutational  
611 analysis of variance; SIMPER: Similarity percentage analysis.

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614 some data analysis and programming in R.

#### 615 **Authors' contributions**

616 JBZ, PY, and XZD designed the study. JBZ, ZYL, RQ DK, MD, AAA, and SYW collected the  
617 samples. JBZ, ZYL, RQ KD, and MD performed bioinformatics and statistical analyses. JLH, SYW,  
618 GHS, RJL, PY, and XZD guided the data analysis and revised the manuscript. JBZ, ZYL, and XZD  
619 interpreted the data and wrote the manuscript. The authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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625 **Availability of data and materials**

626 Raw sequencing data have been deposited at the NCBI Sequence Read Archive (SRA) under  
627 BioProject ID PRJNA688363.

628 **Ethics approval and consent to participate**

629 All experimental procedures in this study were approved by the Animal Care and Utilization  
630 Committee of Lanzhou Institute of Husbandry and Pharmaceutical Sciences of Chinese Academy  
631 of Agricultural Sciences.

632 **Consent for publication**

633 Not applicable

634 **Competing interest**

635 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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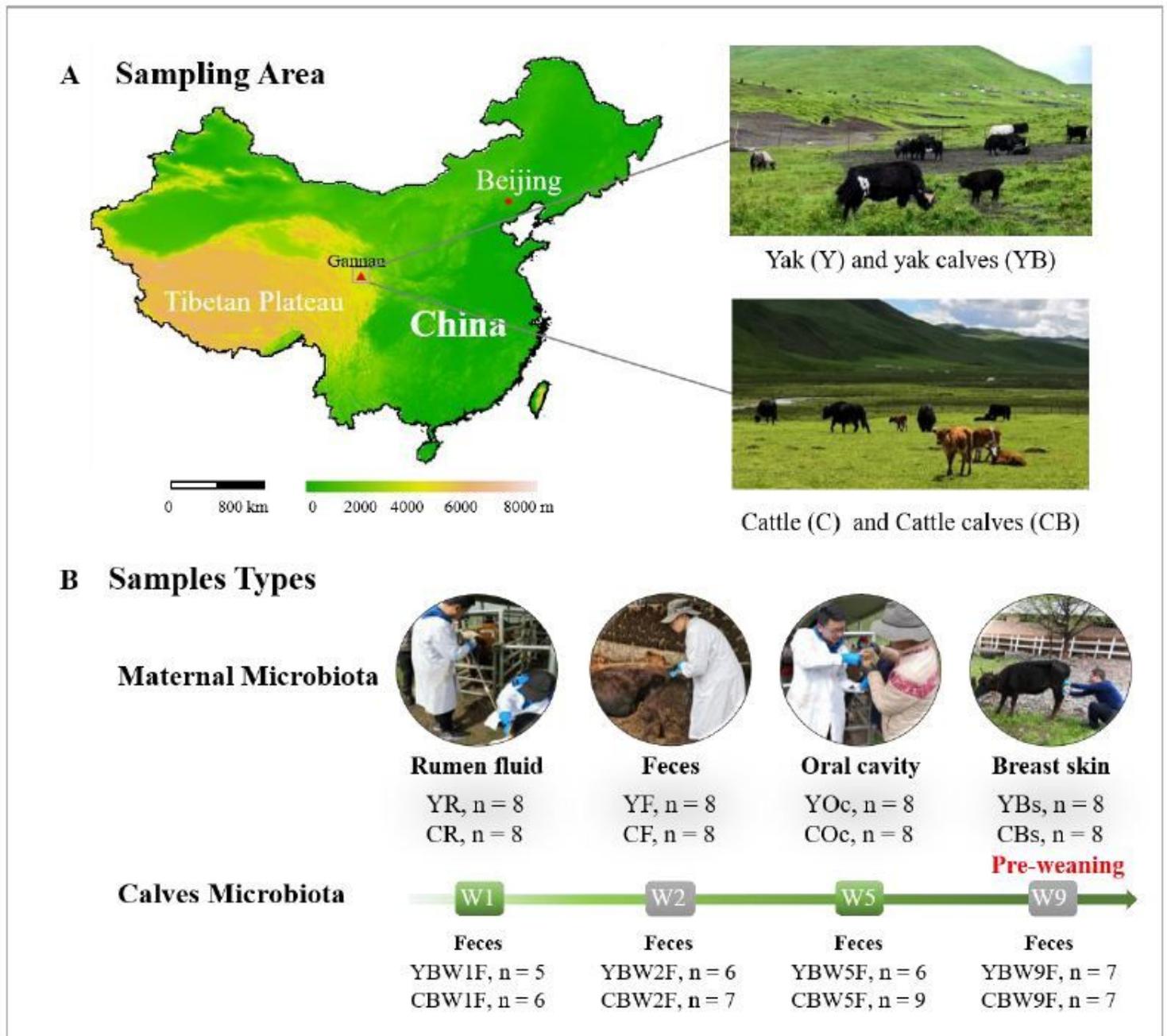
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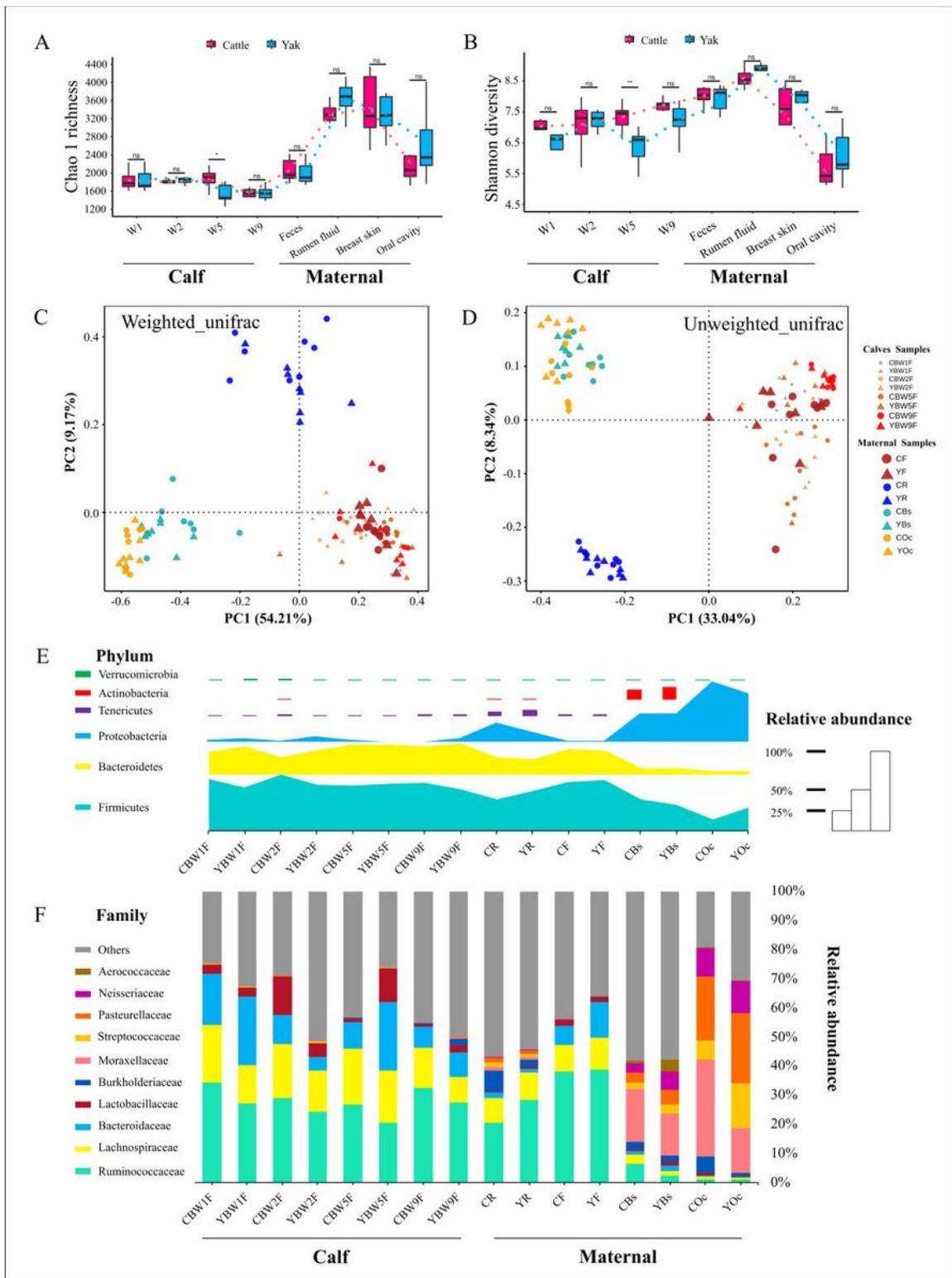
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# Figures



**Figure 1**

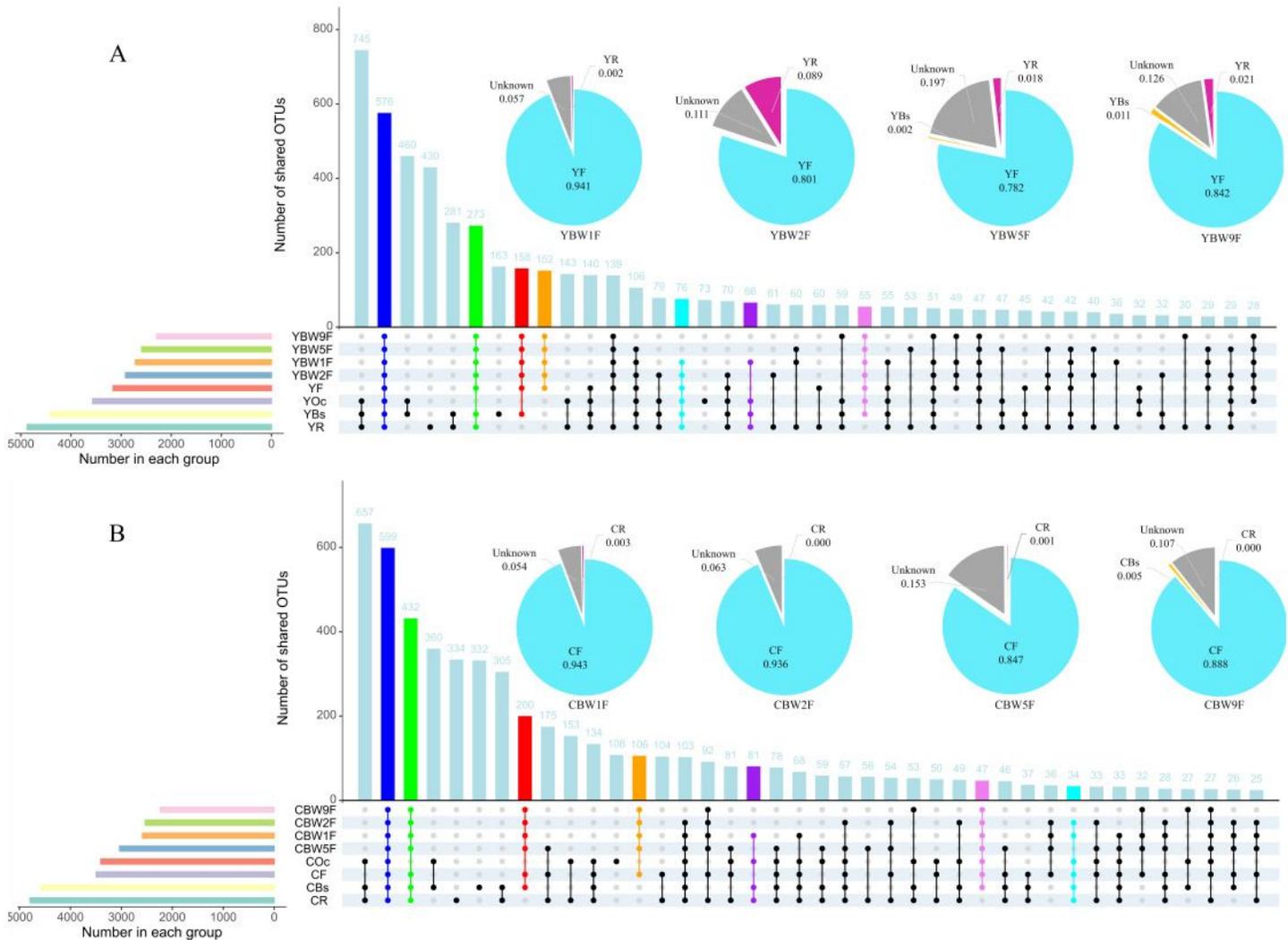
Intestinal microbial source and succession analysis of yak (YB) and cattle (CB) calves on the same pasture at different weeks during pre-weaning. Note: The designations employed and the presentation of the material on this map do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of Research Square concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries. This map has been provided by the authors.



**Figure 2**

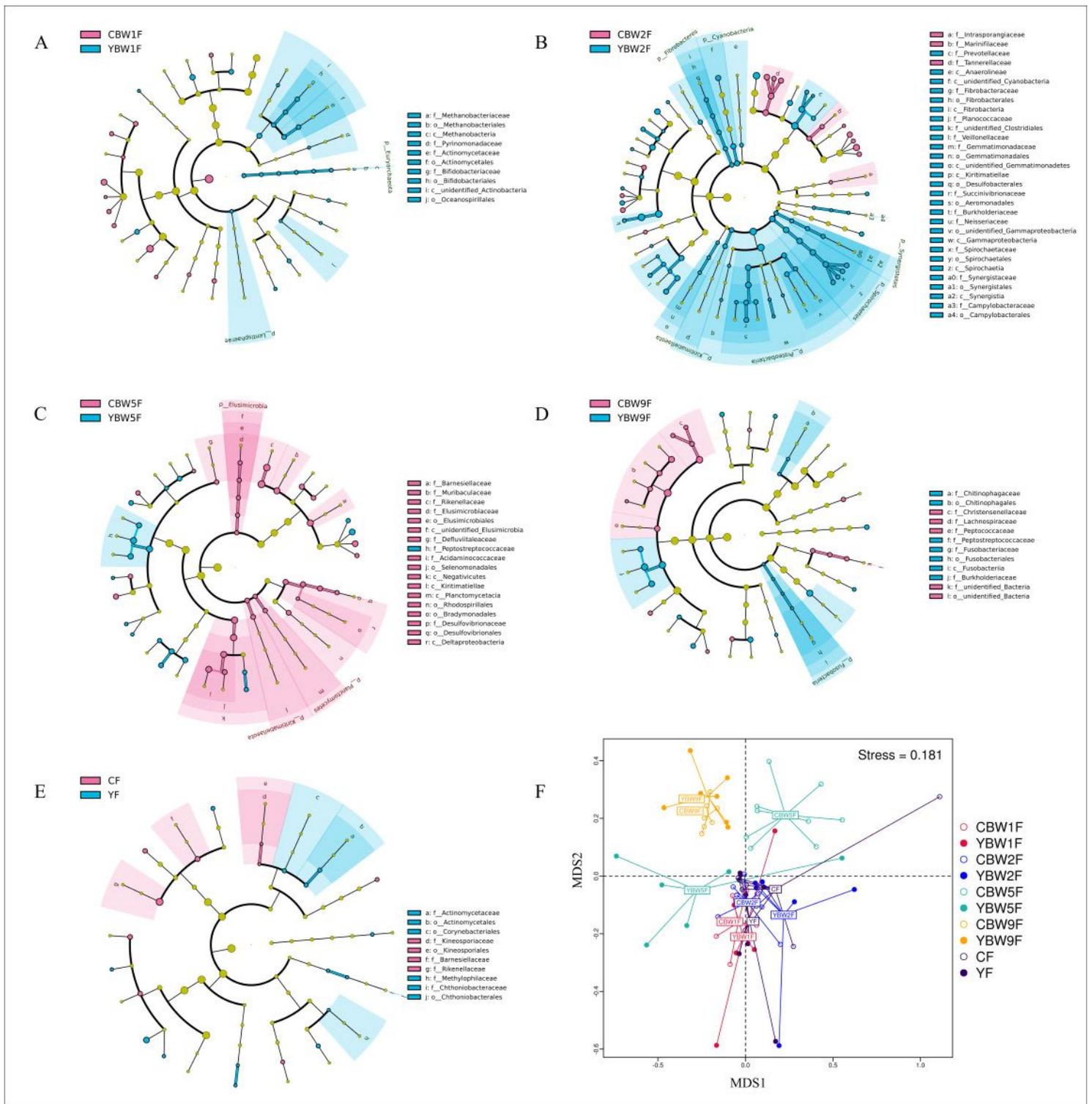
Compositions of the calf and maternal microbiota. (A) The Chao1 species richness and (B) Shannon diversity indexes of microbial communities in the samples of yak and cattle calf feces (at 1, 2, 5, and 9 weeks of their ages), and their mothers (rumen fluid, feces, oral cavity, and breast skin). Distances between the samples, based on OTU similarity (OTU similarity  $\geq 97\%$ ) calculated using (C) weighted UniFrac distances in all samples; and (D) unweighted UniFrac distances in all samples; both visualized in

PCoA plots. A greater distance between two points infers a lower similarity, whereas similar OTUs cluster together. (E) The average relative abundances of the most prevalent bacterial phyla (bar length and area plot) in each sample type are plotted for samples from the maternal microbiota and calf feces. (F) Bar plots depict the relative abundances of bacterial families from the maternal samples and calf feces; unclassified taxa and bacterial families which have a relative abundance less than 1% were grouped into "Others".



**Figure 3**

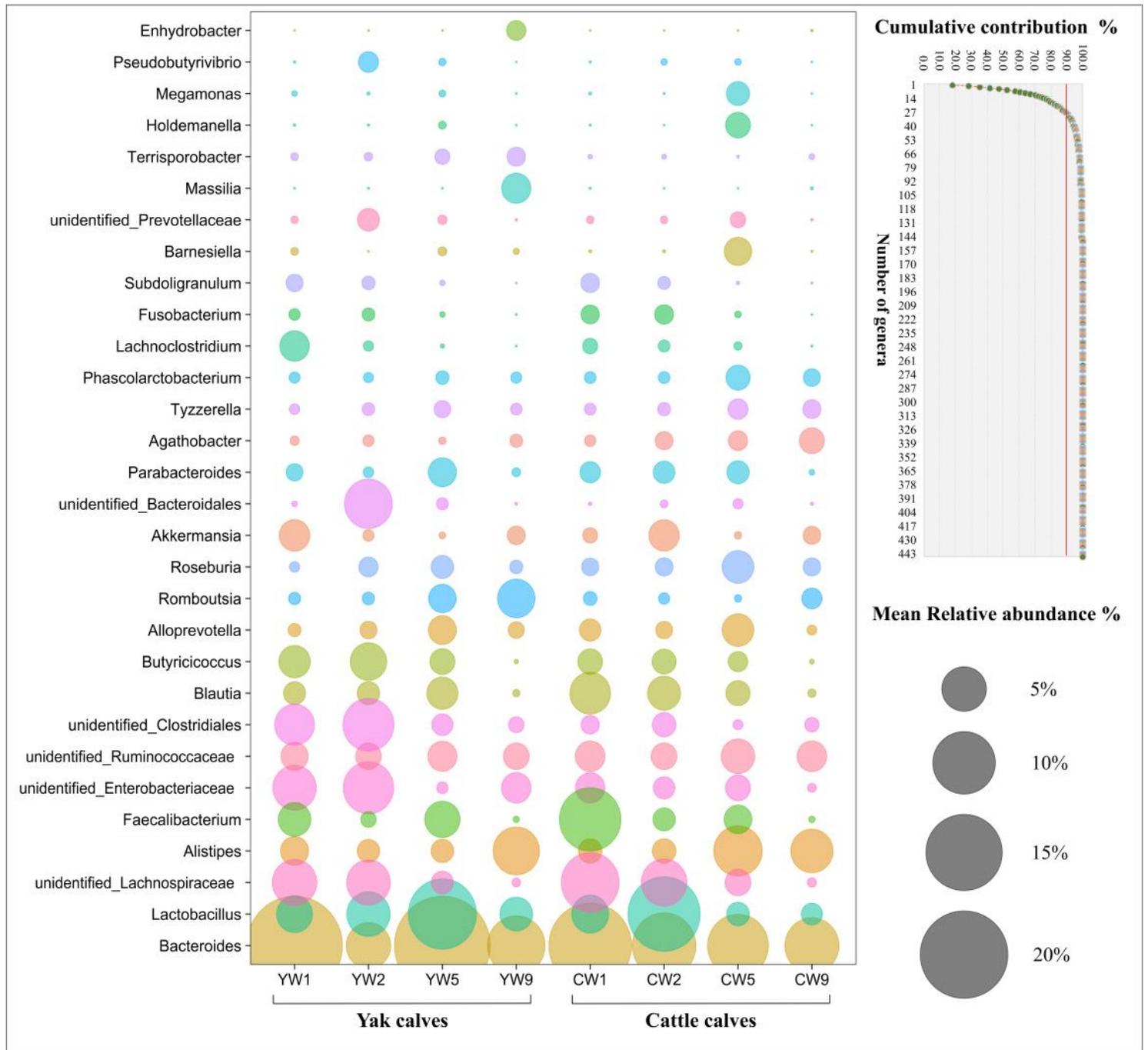
Community-level modeling and source-tracking analyses of the maternal sources in early calf gut community assembly. Yak (A) and cattle (B) animals are displayed separately. UpSet plots of common OTUs in the samples from the calf feces (at 1, 2, 5, and 9 weeks of their ages) and their mothers (rumen fluid, feces, oral cavity, and breast skin). Only OTUs with an overall abundance across all samples greater than 0.01% are included, the 40 intersections which involved the greatest number of OTUs are displayed. The pie charts show the predicted proportions of sequences in the gut microbiota of both yak and cattle calves at different weeks pre-weaning (1, 2, 5 and 9 weeks) that originated from their maternal microbial communities (rumen fluid, feces, oral cavity, and breast skin).



**Figure 4**

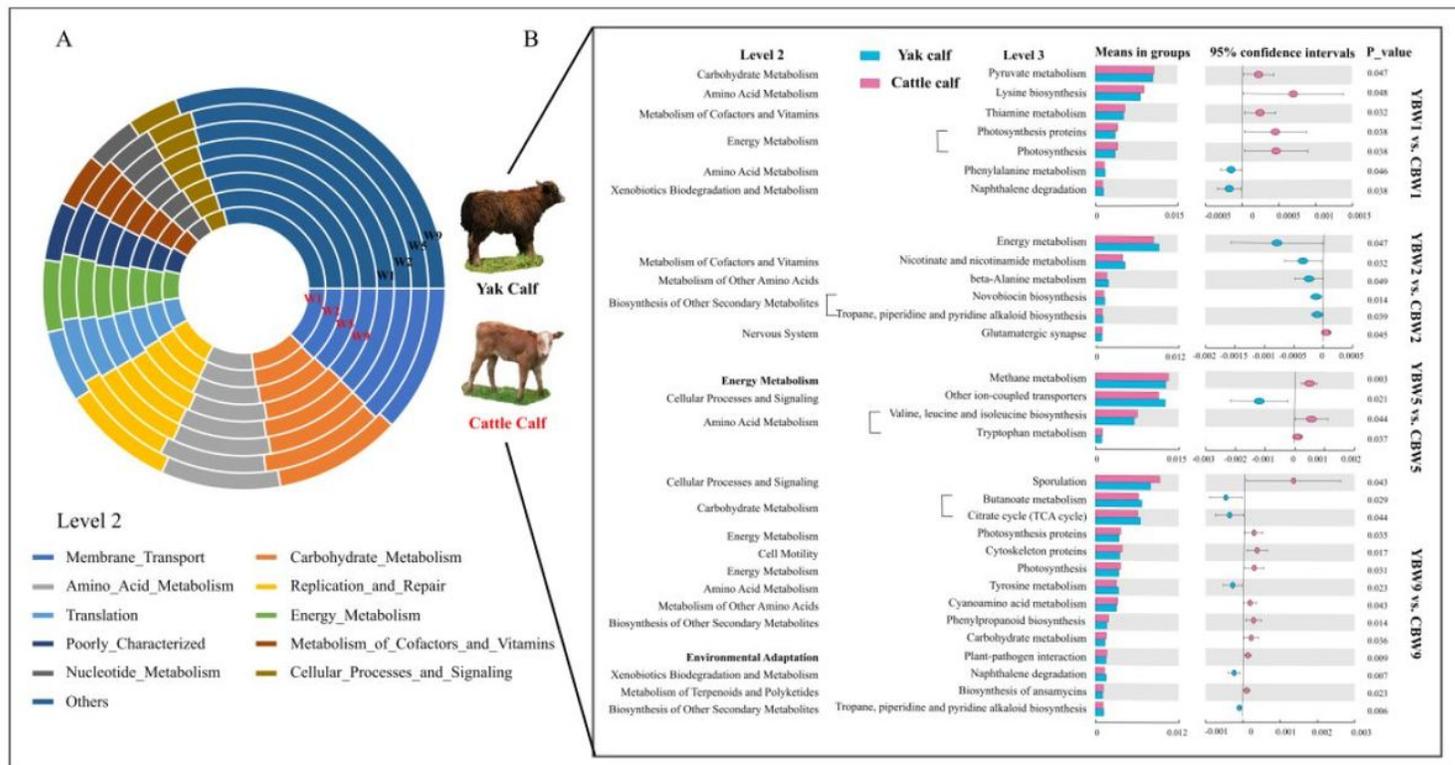
LfSe analysis. The cladograms indicate the phylogenetic distribution of the intestinal microbiota of yak and cattle at (A) 1, (B) 2, (C) 5, and (D) 9 weeks before weaning and their mothers (E) using the Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA) Effect Size (LfSe) method. Differences are represented by treatment colors (nattier blue indicates yak, pink indicates cattle, and yellow non-significant). Circles' diameters are proportional to the taxon's abundances. Circles represent taxonomic ranks from domain to species from inside to out layers. The LDA cut-off score is 2. Letters in front of OTUs represent taxonomic levels (p,

phylum; c, class; o, order; f, family). (F) The gut microbial community structures across calf and maternal samples. Non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) ordination based on Bray-Curtis distances among sample types are plotted based on OTU abundances in the calf and maternal samples.



**Figure 5**

Similarity percentage analysis (SIMPER). The line graph shows the result of the SIMPER analysis performed with the PAST program, where all genera under a defined threshold (90%) of the cumulative contribution are declared as specialized genera. Bubble-plot represents specialized microbial communities in the intestines of yak and cattle calves before weaning (at 1, 2, 5, and 9 weeks of their ages), while the size of the bubble represents the relative abundance of the respective genus.



**Figure 6**

Predicted microbial functions using PICRUSt. (A) Relative abundances of level 2 KEGG pathways are described by the age of calves within different species (different weeks before weaning) in circular bar plots. (B) The comparison of the function of intestinal microbiota at different stages of development before weaning between yak and cattle calves based on KEGG level 3 annotation.

## Supplementary Files

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