

Market integration predicts human gut microbiome attributes across a gradient of economic development

Keaton Stagaman^{a, *}, Tara J. Cepon-Robins^b, Melissa A. Liebert^c, Theresa E. Gildner^c, Samuel S. Urlacher^d, Felicia C. Madimenos^e, Karen Guillemin^{f,g}, J. Josh Snodgrass^c, Lawrence S. Sugiyama^c, Brendan J. M. Bohannon^a

^a Institute of Ecology and Evolution, University of Oregon, Eugene, OR, USA^a; ^b Department of Anthropology, University of Colorado Colorado Springs, Colorado Springs, CO, USA^b; ^c Department of Anthropology, University of Oregon, Eugene, OR, USA^c; ^d Department of Anthropology, Hunter College (CUNY), New York City, NY, USA^d; ^e Department of Anthropology, Queens College (CUNY), New York City, NY, USA^e; ^f Institute of Molecular Biology, University of Oregon, Eugene, OR, USA^f; ^g Humans and the Microbiome Program, Canadian Institute for Advanced Research, Toronto, Ontario M5G 1Z8, Canada^g

Compiled September 5, 2017

This is a draft manuscript, pre-submission

Address correspondence to Keaton Stagaman, kstagaman@gmail.com.

ABSTRACT Economic development is marked by dramatic increases in the incidence of microbiome-associated diseases, but the lifestyle changes that drive alterations in the human microbiome are not known. We surveyed numerous lifestyle factors associated with economic development and profiled fecal microbiomes of 213 participants from a contiguous, indigenous Ecuadorian population. Despite relatively modest differences in lifestyle across the population, greater economic development correlated with significantly lower within-host diversity, higher between-host dissimilarity, and a decrease in the relative abundance of the bacterium *Prevotella*. These microbiome shifts were most strongly associated with more modern housing, followed by reduced ownership of traditional subsistence lifestyle-associated items. Both factors are associated with decreased exposure to environmental microbes, indicating that decreased exposure may underlie the negative health outcomes associated with economic development such as allergy, autoimmunity, and inflammatory disorders.

IMPORTANCE Previous research has reported differences in the gut microbiome between populations residing in wealthy versus poorer countries, leading to the assertion that lifestyle changes associated with economic development promote changes in the gut microbiome that promote the proliferation of microbiome-associated diseases. However, a direct relationship between economic development and the gut microbiome has not previously been shown. We surveyed the gut microbiomes of a single indigenous population undergoing economic development and found significant associations between features of the gut microbiome and lifestyle changes associated with economic development. These findings suggest that even the earliest stages of economic development can drive changes in the gut microbiome, which may provide a warning sign for the development of microbiome-associated diseases.

KEYWORDS: microbiome, market integration, microbial ecology, biological anthropology.

INTRODUCTION

It is increasingly evident that the gut microbiome—the collection of microbes found in the intestines of animals, including humans—plays a critical role in the development of

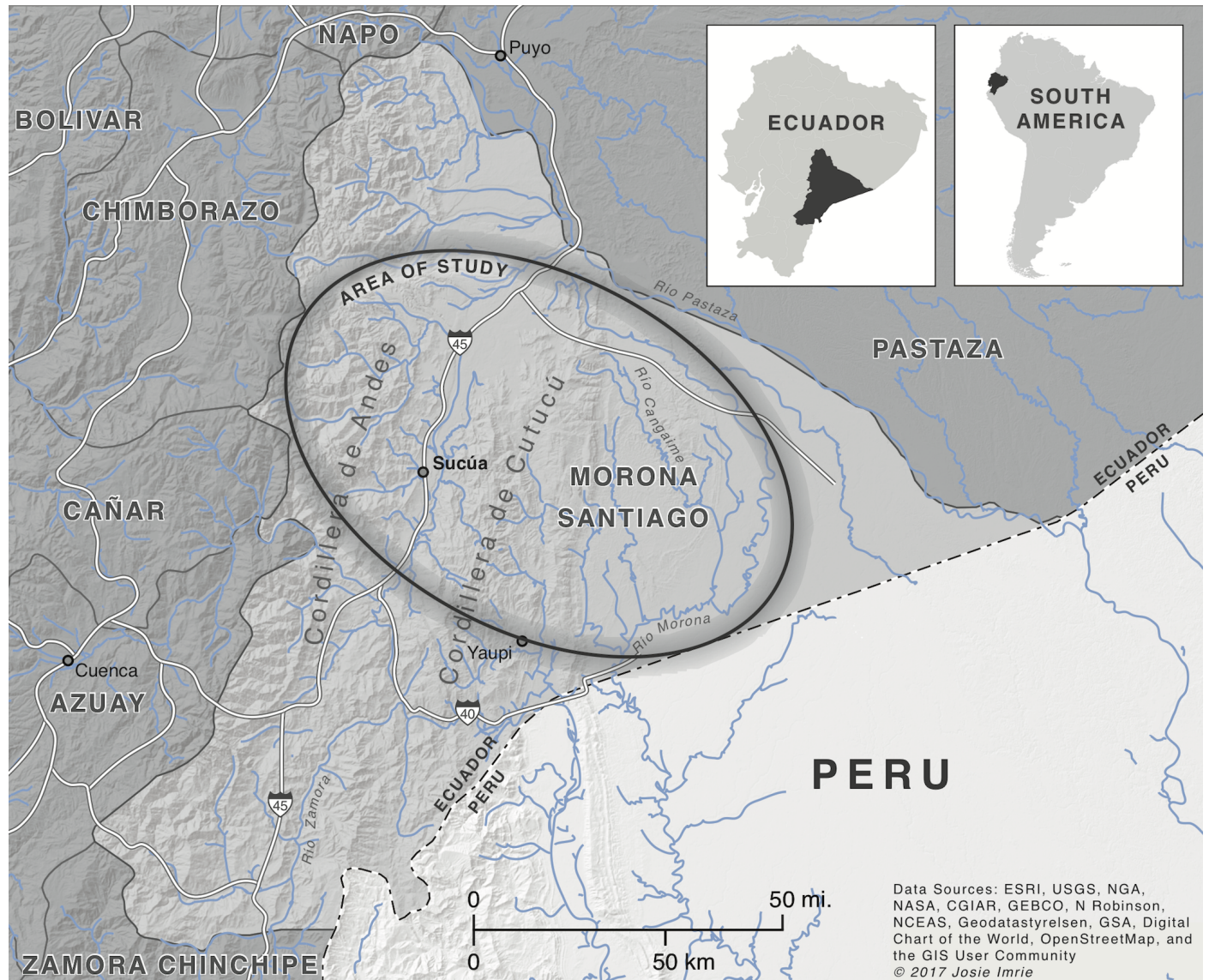


FIG 1 Map of Morona-Santiago Province, Ecuador. The ellipse roughly corresponds to the area within which all five study villages reside. The two villages within the Upano Valley (west of the Cordillera de Cutucú and through which highway 45 runs), UV1 and UV2, have a travel time to the regional market center of Sucúa between 1 and 2 hours (including a 30-60 minute walk to the main road and a 30-60 minute car or bus ride). Travel times to Sucúa from three villages east of the Cordillera de Cutucú vary between 7 and 12 hours, based on time of departure, weather conditions, and river height. Estimates for typical travel times from each Cross-Cutucú village are as follows: 8.5-9.5 hr from CC1, 8-9 hr from CC2, and 10.5-11.5 hr from CC3.

various diseases, including metabolic syndrome and immunoallergic disease (4, 30). Previous studies suggest that people from wealthier nations (e.g., those in western Europe and the United States) have gut microbiomes significantly different from people from nations undergoing economic development (e.g., Africa, South America, or the Pacific Islands) (5, 11, 20, 29, 37). This observation has led to the hypothesis that economic development results in substantial changes to the microbiome either through decreased exposure to environmental microbes (31) or loss of ancestral commensal microbes (2), resulting in the increased prevalence of major health problems associated with economic development, including cardiovascular disease, obesity, allergy, and autoimmune disorders (19, 23, 25, 36). However, these assertions derive from studies comparing the gut microbiomes of disparate populations (20, 29, 37), and thus confound the impact of economic development with many other important factors that influence microbiome composition and diversity, such as genotype, ethnicity, and geographic location (8, 26).

To test the role of economic development on intestinal microbiota diversity without such confounding factors, we conducted a survey of the fecal microbiome of a single indigenous population, the Shuar of southeastern Ecuador, and recorded household-level metrics of “market integration” (i.e. producing for and consuming from a market-based economy) to measure participants’ level of economic development (9, 10, 17). The Shuar are experiencing rapid market integration, but share a recent common cultural and genetic history, having rapidly spread from a constrained geographic area in the last hundred years (Figure 1). The degree of market integration varies between individuals, households, and communities, but to a much lesser degree than between the populations studied in previous work. The impact of market integration on the health and well-being of the Shuar has been extensively studied (3, 14, 33). For example, as a whole the Shuar have favorable cardiovascular and metabolic health, and market integration is associated with both positive and negative health outcomes (14, 33). However, little is known regarding how market integration influences the Shuar’s microbiomes.

For our study, samples were provided by participants living in five villages across a geographical region divided by the Cordillera de Cutucú mountain range. Two sample communities in the Upano Valley west of the Cordillera de Cutucú (UV1 and UV2) are approximately one hour by truck from the town of Sucúa, a local market center. Shuar in these communities tend to own more industrially produced items (e.g., televisions and portable propane stoves), and most reside in homes made from wood plank or recently introduced cinder block construction (14, 33). Three sample communities (CC1, CC2, CC3) in the region east of the Cordillera de Cutucú mountain range (referred to as “Cross-Cutucú”) are much farther from market centers (1.5-3 hours by motor canoe to a road where they might sell produce, and an additional 5-8 hours by bus to Sucúa). Residents of these villages tend to own more subsistence-associated items (e.g., hunting or fishing equipment), more often live in traditional homes comprised of palmwood and thatch with dirt floors, and none live in cinderblock houses (14, 33). There is, however, substantial variation in market integration within each village, regardless of region (33). For example, some houses in the Upano Valley are still made using traditional materials, while more recently, houses in the Cross-Cutucú region have been built using wood planks. We therefore directly quantified the level of household market integration experienced by participants in this study, rather than simply using geographic location as a proxy measure of market integration, as previous studies have done (5, 11, 20, 29, 37). To do so, we used three style-of-life (SOL) metrics (see (8) and (9) for details). The first metric, SOL-House, is a composite

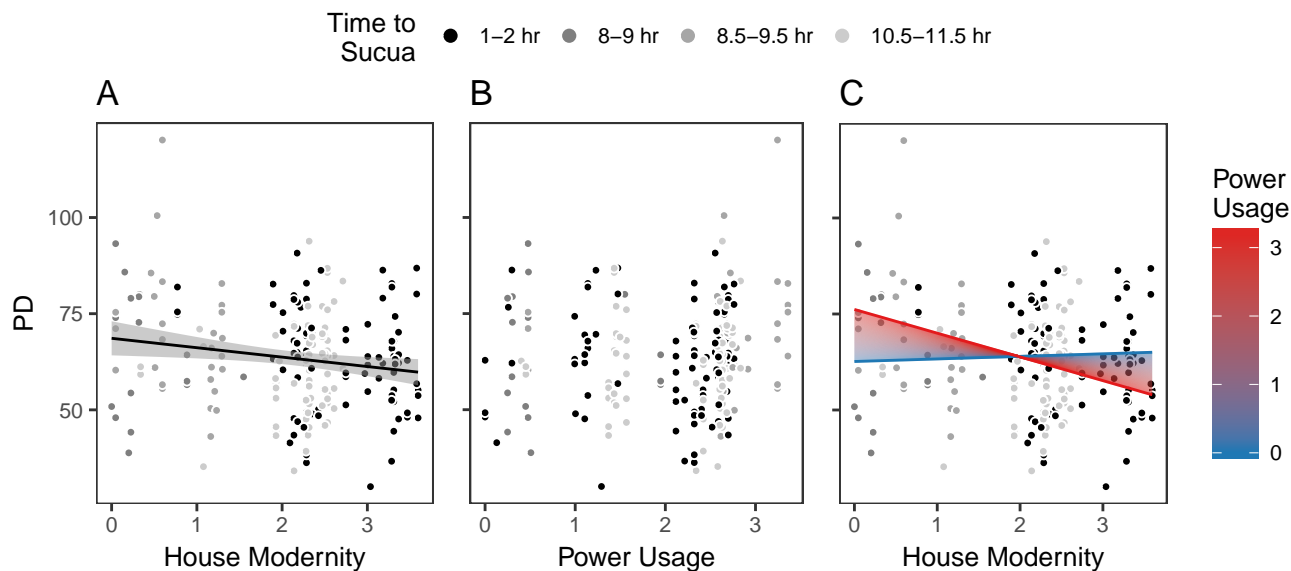


FIG 2 Phylogenetic Diversity (PD) by significant market integration factors. (A) *House Modernity* (Factor 1), the black line is the best fit line from regressing PD by *House Modernity* ($R^2 = 0.024$, $p = 0.013$); (B) *Power Usage* (Factor 3, $p = n.s.$); and (C), the interaction between *House Modernity* and *Power Usage* ($R^2 = 0.037$, $p = 0.012$). The blue line is the predicted relationship (using the full regression model) between PD and *House Modernity* when *Power Usage* is held to zero, the red line is the predicted relationship when *Power Usage* is set to its maximum, and the gradient between the two prediction lines represents predictions for each of 100 steps between the minimum and maximum values of *Power Usage*. ($n = 213$ for all panels).

metric of five codes indicating type of housing construction and infrastructure. The second metric, SOL-Traditional, is the proportion of important items owned that reflect investment in a traditional foraging lifestyle. The third, SOL-Market, is the proportion of important items owned that reflect degree of investment in manufactured goods associated with the market economy. The codes and items for these metrics can be found in Table S1.

To reduce the number of variables in our analysis and to identify latent factors, we performed exploratory factor analysis including all individual items used in the SOL metrics. The factor analysis produced three factors, which we call (in order of variance explained): “House Modernity”, “Subsistence Items”, and “Power Usage” (the latter indicating the number of objects owned that require external electrical or petrochemical power such as radios, refrigerators, and gasoline engines). The results of the factor analysis and an explanation of the factor labels can be found in Table S2.

RESULTS

Based on previous studies suggesting that market integration is inversely related to intra-individual microbiome diversity (α -diversity) (5, 11, 20, 37, 29), we predicted a negative correlation between the phylogenetic diversity (PD) of the gut microbiome and the factors associated with greater market integration: *House Modernity* and *Power Usage*. Similarly, we expected a positive correlation between PD and the *Subsistence Items* factor. As detailed in the methods, we performed model selection starting from a full model that included all three style-of-life factors, participant age, and the rank travel time from Sucúa and determined that the best fit model only included age, *House Modernity*, and *Power Usage*.

Because age followed the expected trends and did not interact with any other factors (Table S3), we omitted it from the rest of the analyses. Figure 2A shows the

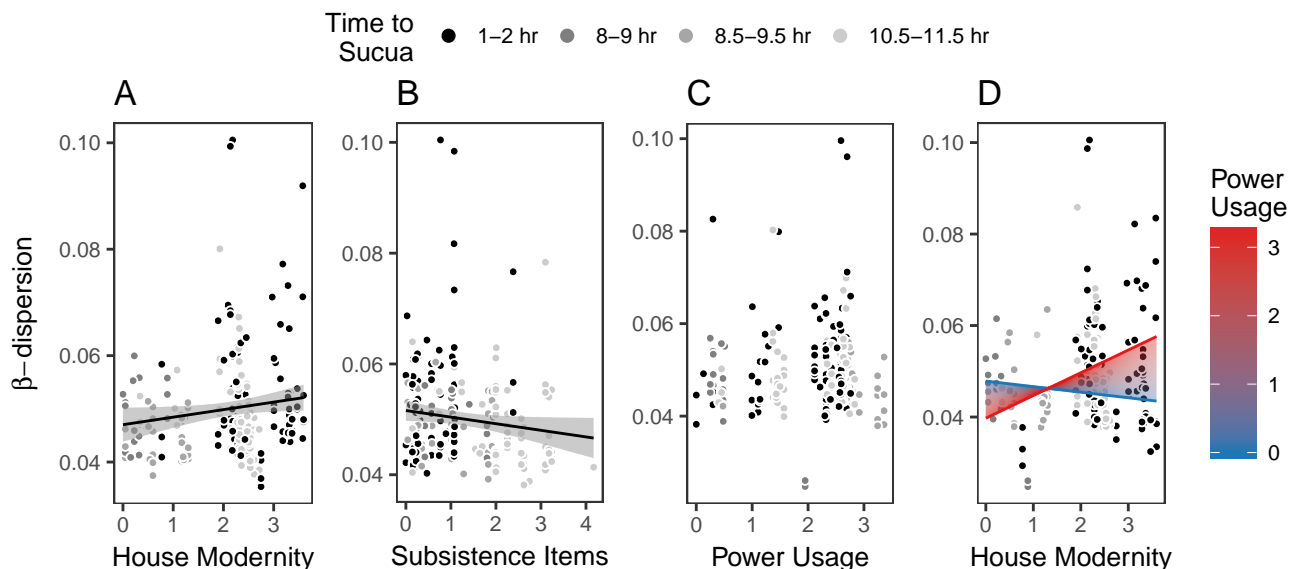


FIG 3 β -dispersion by each market integration factor. The term β -dispersion is often used when comparing the β -diversity of subjects within the same treatment or group. (A), *House Modernity* ($n = 212$, $R^2 = 0.014$, $p = 0.045$), (B) *Subsistence Items* ($n = 213$, $R^2 = 0.014$, $p = 0.046$), (C) *Power Usage* ($n = 213$, $p = n.s.$), (D) the interaction between *House Modernity* and *Power Usage* ($n = 209$, $R^2 = 0.034$, $p = 0.018$), β -dispersion was calculated as described in the methods. Black lines represent best fit regression lines for β -dispersion by each individual factor. The colored lines in panel D represent the predicted relationship between β -dispersion and *House Modernity* when *Power Usage* is held at zero up to its maximum observed value, divided into 100 steps.

117 predicted significant negative relationship between PD and *House Modernity*. That is,
 118 participants with homes built from more modern materials have lower gut microbiome
 119 phylogenetic diversity than people with homes built from more traditional materials.

120 There was no significant relationship between PD and *Subsistence Items* or *Power Usage*
 121 *Usage* (Figure 2B). However, there was a significant interaction between *Power Usage*
 122 and *House Modernity* such that as participants' *Power Usage* increases, the strength of
 123 relationship between PD and *House Modernity* increases (Figure 2C). Thus, *House Moder-*
 124 *ernity* and *Power Usage* appear to be separate but related measures of market integration
 125 that are significantly associated with the diversity of the human gut microbiome.

126 Previous studies that compared disparate populations found that those in re-
 127 gions with higher market integration tend to have greater among-subject variation
 128 (β -diversity) than more traditionally living populations (20). It is hypothesized that this
 129 may be due to either lower levels of exposure to a common pool of environmental
 130 microbes or lower levels of microbial dispersal between individuals. We predicted that
 131 greater *House Modernity* and *Power Usage* would be associated with greater dissimilarity
 132 among participants' microbiomes, whereas higher *Subsistence Items* scores would be
 133 associated with greater homogeneity of participants' microbiomes. We calculated the
 134 mean weighted Unifrac (16) distance between the gut microbiomes of each subject
 135 and those of other subjects who experience similar levels of market integration (see
 136 Methods for details). These analyses confirmed our hypotheses: *House Modernity* was
 137 positively associated with among-subject variation (i.e., microbiomes were more dis-
 138 similar as *House Modernity* increased; Figure 3A), while *Subsistence Items* were negatively
 139 related to among-subject variation (i.e., microbiomes were more homogeneous as *Sub-*
 140 *sistence Items* increased; Figure 3B). Alone, *Power Usage* did not have a significant effect
 141 on among-subject variation (Figure 3C). However, as with within-host diversity, there
 142 was a significant interaction between *House Modernity* and *Power Usage* (Figure 3D),

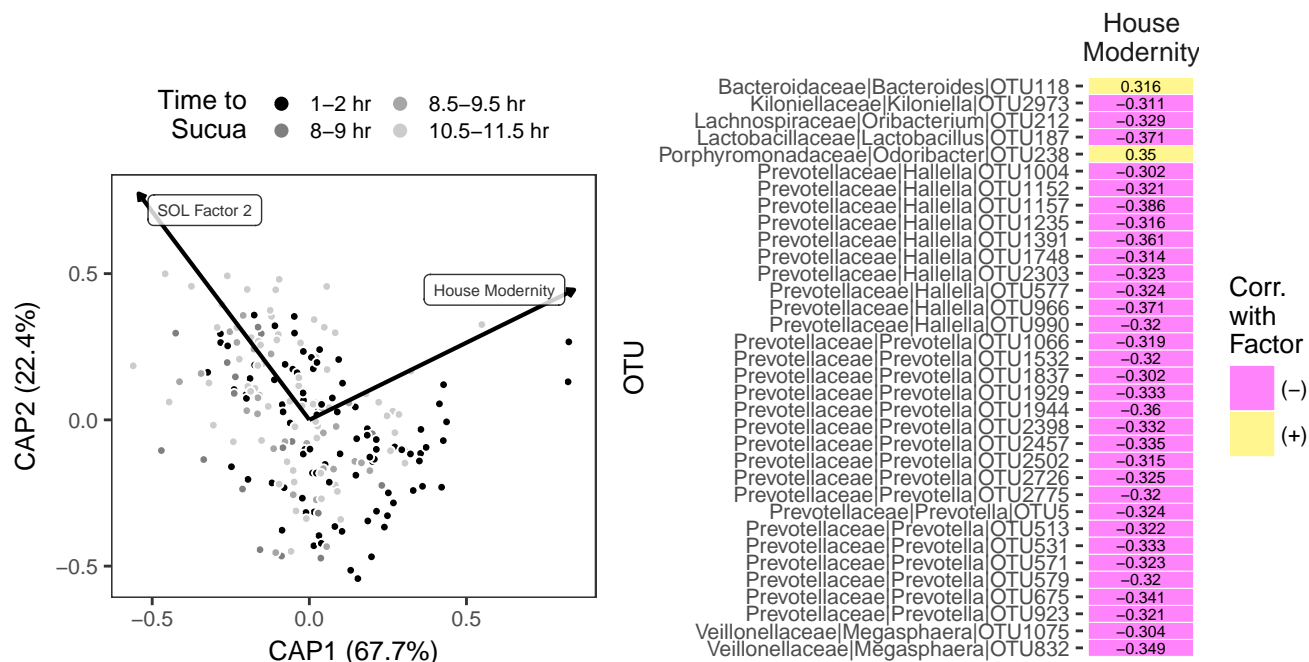


FIG 4 β -dispersion by each market integration factor. The term β -dispersion is often used when comparing the β -diversity of subjects within the same treatment or group. (A), *House Modernity* ($n = 212$, $R^2 = 0.014$, $p = 0.045$), (B) *Subsistence Items* ($n = 213$, $R^2 = 0.014$, $p = 0.046$), (C) *Power Usage* ($n = 213$, $p = n.s.$), (D) the interaction between *House Modernity* and *Power Usage* ($n = 209$, $R^2 = 0.034$, $p = 0.018$), β -dispersion was calculated as described in the methods. Black lines represent best fit regression lines for β -dispersion by each individual factor. The colored lines in panel D represent the predicted relationship between β -dispersion and *House Modernity* when *Power Usage* is held at zero up to its maximum observed value, divided into 100 steps.

such that as *Power Usage* increases, the strength of the relationship between *House Modernity* and among-subject variation increases.

We analyzed the taxonomic composition of the gut microbiome of each subject via distance-based RDA (Figure 4A) and PERMANOVA (Table S4). These analyses reveal that the *House Modernity* and *Subsistence Items* factors are significantly associated with gut microbiome composition. Furthermore, these two factors are nearly orthogonal in the ordination space, implying that they have nearly independent relationships with microbiome composition. This result is to be expected if these style-of-life factors are measuring aspects of participants' lives that expose them to, isolate them from, or select for, non-overlapping consortia of environmental microbes. Thus, it further highlights the importance of providing specific measures of market integration, something rarely done in past studies of microbiome variation.

Finally, a multiple correlation test ($\alpha = 0.05$, false discovery rate corrected) of the relationships among the abundances of all microbiome taxa and the three market integration factors revealed 32 operational taxonomic units (OTUs) that were negatively correlated, and two that were positively correlated, with *House Modernity* (Figure 4B). Of these 32 OTUs, 16 were assigned to the genus *Prevotella*, and another ten to the genus *Hallella*, a member of the Prevotellaceae family. Of the two OTUs positively correlated with *House Modernity*, one was assigned to *Bacteroides*. These results are consistent with previous studies. For example, Yatsunen et al. (37) reported that 23 of 73 OTUs that were over-represented in Amerindian or Malawian versus U.S. adults were assigned to *Prevotella*, and De Filippo et al. (5) found that the intestinal microbiomes of participants from Burkina Faso harbored a much larger proportion of *Prevotella* than

166 that of participants from the United States. Additionally, Yatsunenکو et al. (37) reported
167 a negative relationship between the abundance of *Prevotella* and *Bacteroides* in adults,
168 while De Filippo et al. (5) reported a greater proportion of *Bacteroides* in microbiomes
169 from US individuals relative to microbiomes from Burkina Faso individuals.

170 DISCUSSION

171 Our results suggest that even within a single ethnicity living in a constrained geographic
172 region, the early stages of market integration affect the diversity and composition of
173 the gut microbiome. In particular, the modernity of participants' homes consistently
174 predicts gut microbiome attributes. The mechanism by which *House Modernity* affects
175 the gut microbiome cannot be definitively determined from our study, but it could
176 plausibly be due to the isolation from environmental microbes afforded by more
177 modern housing. For example, related work with the Shuar showed reduced exposure
178 to helminth soil parasites in more modern homes (28). Traditional housing consists of
179 palm thatch structures with dirt floors, which allow more exposure to microbes from the
180 "outside" (i.e. those associated with soil and plants) than does more modern housing
181 (which consists of wood or cinder block structures with plank or concrete floors). The
182 idea that more modern housing excludes environmental microbes is consistent with our
183 previous work associating house modernity with reduced exposure to soil-transmitted
184 parasites (28). The intensifying effect of *Power Usage* on the relationship between *House*
185 *Modernity* and microbiome diversity metrics may be the result of numerous lifestyle
186 changes that reduce a person's exposure to environmental microbes, such as remaining
187 in their homes to use powered devices, employment in jobs (such as teaching) that
188 are primarily indoors, or having access to a vehicle and a refrigerator increases the
189 likelihood that food is bought commercially rather than foraged, fished, or hunted.
190 Ownership of *Subsistence Items*, on the other hand, could be positively correlated
191 with environmental microbe exposure associated with outdoor activities and non-
192 domesticated animals, such as hunting. Alternatively, *Subsistence Items* and *House*
193 *Modernity* (and its interaction with *Power Usage*) may together be a proxy for a suite
194 of other lifestyle factors (e.g. dietary changes, healthcare practices, etc.) associated
195 with economic development, which could be the actual drivers of the microbiome
196 differences we observed.

197 Cardiovascular disease is now the leading cause of death in all but the lowest
198 income nations (36). Obesity, already a major public health problem in wealthier
199 nations, is rapidly increasing in the developing world (36). Allergy and autoimmune
200 disorders continue to rise in the west (25). The increasing incidence of these and other
201 microbiome-associated disorders currently experienced by populations in wealthy
202 nations has been hypothesized to be driven by the loss of microbes essential to human
203 health (the "Hygiene Hypothesis" (31) and the "Disappearing Microbiota Hypothesis"
204 (2)). These hypotheses assert that recent lifestyle changes have either limited our
205 exposure to or have driven extinct certain members of the microbiome in economically
206 developed nations. The association between early market integration and gut micro-
207 biome composition and diversity observed in our study demonstrates that economic
208 development can, indeed, alter the human microbiome, as predicted by these hypothe-
209 ses. Furthermore, we show that these changes occur even in the early stages of market
210 integration. This indicates that slower mechanisms, such as reduce trans-generational
211 microbiome transmission, are unlikely to explain these effects. Our results are consis-
212 tent with the assertion that reduced exposure to environmental microbes is a major
213 driver of microbiome changes in economically developing countries, although further
214 research is needed to definitively test this hypothesis. Finally, our results suggest

215 that the microbiome differences we observed may provide an early warning sign for
216 microbiome-associated disorders in rapidly developing countries.

217 MATERIALS AND METHODS

218 **Quantification of market integration and factor analysis** The three style-of-life
219 (SOL) metrics were determined as described in previous work (14, 33). In short, re-
220 searchers conducted structured interviews, administered mostly in Spanish (or through
221 a bilingual translator for subjects who did not speak Spanish), to collect a range of
222 demographic and lifestyle information. Ages of participants ranged from one to 100
223 years. Dietary data were collected in the form of a food frequency questionnaire, but as
224 we did not directly quantify caloric amount and nutritional content of food consumed
225 by each participant, these data were excluded from the analysis. Ethnographic obser-
226 vations and pilot testing over the course of a decade led to the selection of items in
227 the House, Traditional, and Market style-of-life metrics. The final SOL-Traditional scale
228 contained six items reflecting investment in a foraging lifestyle, while the SOL-Market
229 scale included 12 items reflecting investment in a market economy. Individual scores
230 were calculated as the fraction of list items owned (range 0–1). The SOL-House metric
231 included five household measures as indices of household permanence, access to
232 infrastructure, market participation, and pathogen risk. Individual scores for these
233 metrics broken down by village can be found in Supplemental Figure 1. We conducted
234 an exploratory factor analysis on the two item-based metrics (SOL-Traditional and SOL-
235 Market), along with the five components of the SOL-House metric (type or presence of
236 wall, floor, bathroom, water, and electricity in a participant's home) using the factanal
237 function from the basic R stats package (27). Starting with fitting a single factor, we
238 increased the number of fitted factors until either we reached the maximum allowed by
239 the method (three for seven input variables) or until the p-value of the analysis was less
240 than 0.05. This analysis resulted in three market integration factors that were similar to
241 the style-of-life metrics except that the electricity type (from SOL-House) loaded most
242 strongly on the third factor with SOL-Market. Biplots from the factor analysis can be
243 found in Figure S1.

244 **Stool collection and DNA extraction** Three hundred stool samples were col-
245 lected as described previously (3). Briefly, participants were given a pre-packed plastic
246 bag containing an empty stool container and clean implements with which to collect
247 the stool, and instructed on the collection technique. Participants returned the contain-
248 ers, and samples were preserved in RNAlater (ThermoFisher Scientific, Waltham, MA,
249 USA) within an hour of sample collection. Preserved samples were stored in a portable
250 freezer at -20°C over the course of data collection, and then shipped to the lab on dry
251 ice, where it was stored at -80°C until analysis. DNA was extracted from the samples
252 using the Blood and Stool kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) in accordance with the kit
253 protocol. No human data was gathered as part of this project, and the bacterial data
254 gathered was purged of all sequences that aligned to the human genome (including
255 mitochondrial genome) before archiving. Genetic material resulting from this research
256 will never be used for human DNA research or commercial cell-line patenting.

257 **Ethics Statement** Informed verbal consent was obtained from adult participants.
258 For participants under 15 years old (the local age of consent), parental verbal consent
259 and child assent were obtained. Individuals were informed that they could choose not
260 to participate, to participate only in individual portions of the study, or to participate in
261 the full study. The study and consent procedures were approved by the Institutional
262 Review Board (IRB) of the University of Oregon, and a central Shuar governing organi-
263 zation authorized research in member villages. The precise locations of the villages

264 were omitted from Figure 1 to protect the anonymity of the participants.

265 **Illumina library preparation and 16S rRNA gene sequence analysis** We char-
266 acterized the intestinal microbial communities of fecal samples via Illumina (San Diego,
267 CA, USA) sequencing of 16S rRNA gene amplicons. To prepare amplicons for Illumina
268 sequencing, we used a single-step PCR method to add dual indices and adapter se-
269 quences to the V4 region of the bacterial 16S rRNA gene (no human sequences were
270 specifically targeted) and generate paired-end 150 nucleotide reads on the Illumina
271 HiSeq 2000 platform. Sequences can be accessed under the NCBI BioProject number
272 PRJNA362944.

273 The 16S rRNA gene Illumina reads were processed using methods implemented
274 by FLASH (18), the FASTX Toolkit (1), and the USEARCH pipeline (6). The processing
275 pipeline can be found at http://www.github.com/kstagaman/Process_16S. Operational
276 taxonomic units (OTUs) were defined using 97% sequence similarity. Any amplicons
277 that matched the human genome were removed from the analysis with bowtie (13)
278 prior to OTU clustering. Read assembly, quality control, and OTU table building were
279 done on the University of Oregon ACISS cluster, and all subsequent data processing
280 and diversity analyses were done in R (27).

281 **Intestinal microbiota diversity analyses** Samples were not included in the anal-
282 ysis if they had fewer than 20,000 total reads, or from individuals lacking complete SOL
283 metric data. OTU abundances of the remaining 213 samples were variance-stabilized
284 using phyloseq (21) and DESeq2 (15) as recommended (22). We measured phylogenetic
285 diversity using Faith's PD (7), which takes into account taxon abundances as well as
286 their phylogenetic relationship, as implemented in the picante package (12), and chose
287 the best linear model using the anova function from the base R stats package (27). We
288 used the distance function from the phyloseq package to calculate weighted Unifrac
289 distances (16) between microbiomes. When comparing the β -diversity of subjects
290 within the same treatment or group, the term β -dispersion is often used. We calcu-
291 lated β -dispersion as the mean weighted Unifrac community distance between each
292 participant and other participants within 5% of the same factor score (thus comparing
293 similarly market-integrated participants; analyses using between 2.5 and 10% of factor
294 scores resulted in qualitatively similar results). Using the same distance matrix, we gen-
295 erated a distance-based redundancy analysis (db-RDA) ordination using the capscale
296 function and measured individual factor R-squared values via PERMANOVA using the
297 adonis function, both from the vegan package (24). Other distance metrics were used
298 and produced qualitatively similar results. Diversity data visualization was done with
299 the ggplot2 (35), ggfortify (32), and ggbiplot (34) packages.

300 ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

301 We thank Jose Imrie for creating Figure 1.

302 The research reported in this publication was supported by the National Institute of
303 General Medical Sciences of the NIH (T32GM007413, P50GM098911), the Wenner-Gren
304 Foundation (7970, 8476, 8749), the National Science Foundation (BCS-1341165, BCS-
305 0824602, BCS-0925910, 2011109300), the Ryoichi Sasakawa Young Leaders Fellowship
306 Fund, the Leakey Foundation, and the University of Oregon. The ACISS computational
307 resources were funded by a Major Research Instrumentation grant, number OCI-
308 0960354, from the NSF Office of Cyber Infrastructure.

REFERENCES

1. FASTX Toolkit; 2010. http://hannonlab.cshl.edu/fastx_toolkit/index.html.
2. Blaser MJ. Who are we? Indigenous microbes and the ecology of human diseases. *EMBO reports* 2006 oct; 7(10):956–960. <http://embor.embopress.org/cgi/doi/10.1038/sj.embor.7400812>.
3. Cepon-Robins TJ, Liebert Ma, Gildner TE, Urlacher SS, Colehour AM, Snodgrass JJ, et al. Soil-Transmitted Helminth Prevalence and Infection Intensity Among Geographically and Economically Distinct Shuar Communities in the Ecuadorian Amazon. *J. Parasitol.* 2014 oct; 100(5):598–607. <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24865410><http://www.bioone.org/doi/abs/10.1645/13-383.1>.
4. Clemente JC, Ursell LK, Parfrey LW, Knight R. The Impact of the Gut Microbiota on Human Health: An Integrative View. *Cell* 2012 mar; 148(6):1258–1270. <http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0092867412001043><http://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0092867412001043>.
5. De Filippo C, Cavalieri D, Di Paola M, Ramazzotti M, Poullet JB, Massart S, et al. Impact of diet in shaping gut microbiota revealed by a comparative study in children from Europe and rural Africa. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* 2010 aug; 107(33):14691–14696. <http://www.scopus.com/inward/record.url?eid=2-s2.0-77957075815&partnerID=tZOtx3y1><http://www.pnas.org/cgi/doi/10.1073/pnas.1005963107>.
6. Edgar RC. Search and clustering orders of magnitude faster than BLAST. *Bioinforma.* 2010 oct; 26(19):2460–2461. <http://bioinformatics.oxfordjournals.org/cgi/doi/10.1093/bioinformatics/btq461>.
7. Faith DP. Conservation evaluation and phylogenetic diversity. *Biol. Conserv.* 1992 jan; 61(1):1–10. <http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0006320792912013><http://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0006320792912013>.
8. Fallani M, Young D, Scott J, Norin E, Amarri S, Adam R, et al. Intestinal Microbiota of 6-week-old Infants Across Europe: Geographic Influence Beyond Delivery Mode, Breast-feeding, and Antibiotics. *J. Pediatr. Gastroenterol. Nutr.* 2010 jul; 51(1):77–84. <http://content.wkhealth.com/linkback/openurl?sid=WKPTLP:landingpage&an=00005176-201007000-00015>.
9. Godoy R, Cárdenas M. Markets and the Health of Indigenous People: A Methodological Contribution. *Hum. Organ.* 2000 mar; 59(1):117–124. <http://sfaajournals.net/doi/10.17730/humo.59.1.e5p11012864375q4>.
10. Godoy R, Reyes-García V, Byron E, Leonard WR, Vadez V. The Effect of Market Economies on the Well-Being of Indigenous Peoples and on Their Use of Renewable Natural Resources. *Annu. Rev. Anthropol.* 2005 oct; 34(1):121–138. <http://www.annualreviews.org/doi/10.1146/annurev.anthro.34.081804.120412>.
11. Gomez A, Petrzalkova KJ, Burns MB, Yeoman CJ, Amato KR, Vlckova K, et al. Gut Microbiome of Coexisting BaAka Pygmies and Bantu Reflects Gradients of Traditional Subsistence Patterns. *Cell Reports* 2016 mar; 14(9):2142–2153. <http://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S2211124716300997>.
12. Kembel SW, Cowan PD, Helmus MR, Cornwell WK, Morlon H, Ackerly DD, et al. Picante: R tools for integrating phylogenies and ecology. *Bioinforma.* 2010 jun; 26(11):1463–1464. <http://bioinformatics.oxfordjournals.org/cgi/doi/10.1093/bioinformatics/btq166>.
13. Langmead B, Trapnell C, Pop M, Salzberg S. Ultrafast and memory-efficient alignment of short DNA sequences to the human genome. *Genome biology* 2009; 10(3):R25. <papers://1bc19a7c-6e6a-4594-831a-36d8c340e116/Paper/p2438>.
14. Liebert Ma, Snodgrass JJ, Madimenos FC, Cepon TJ, Blackwell AD, Sugiyama LS. Implications of market integration for cardiovascular and metabolic health among an indigenous Amazonian Ecuadorian population. *Annals Hum. Biol.* 2013 may; 40(3):228–242. <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23388068><http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/full/10.3109/03014460.2012.759621>.
15. Love MI, Huber W, Anders S. Moderated estimation of fold change and dispersion for RNA-seq data with DESeq2. *Genome Biol.* 2014 dec; 15(12):550. <http://genomebiology.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/s13059-014-0550-8><http://genomebiology.com/2014/15/12/550><http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25516281><http://www.pubmedcentral.nih.gov/articlerender.fcgi?artid=PMC43>.
16. Lozupone C, Knight R. UniFrac: a New Phylogenetic Method for Comparing Microbial Communities. *Appl. environmental microbiology* 2005; 71(12):8228–8235.
17. Lu F. Integration into the Market among Indigenous Peoples. *Curr. Anthropol.* 2007 aug; 48(4):593–602. <http://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/10.1086/519806>.
18. Magoc T, Salzberg SL. FLASH: fast length adjustment of short reads to improve genome assemblies. *Bioinforma.* 2011 nov; 27(21):2957–2963. <http://www.pubmedcentral.nih.gov/articlerender.fcgi?artid=3198573&tool=pmcentrez&rendertype=abstract><http://bioinformatics.oxfordjournals.org/cgi/doi/10.1093/bioinformatics/btr507>.
19. Malik VS, Willett WC, Hu FB. Global obesity: trends, risk factors and policy implications. *Nat. Rev. Endocrinol.* 2012 nov; 9(1):13–27. <http://www.nature.com/doi/10.1038/nrendo.2012.199>.
20. Martínez I, Stegen J, Maldonado-Gómez M, Eren A, Siba P, Greenhill A, et al. The Gut Microbiota of Rural Papua New Guineans: Composition, Diversity Patterns, and Ecological Processes. *Cell Reports* 2015 apr; 11(4):527–538. <http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S221112471500340X>.
21. McMurdie PJ, Holmes S. phyloseq: An R Package for Reproducible Interactive Analysis and Graphics of Microbiome Census Data. *PLoS ONE* 2013 apr; 8(4):e61217. <http://dx.plos.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0061217>.
22. McMurdie PJ, Holmes S. Waste not, want not: why rarefying microbiome data is inadmissible. *PLoS computational biology* 2014 apr; 10(4):e1003531. <http://journals.plos.org/ploscompbiol/article?id=10.1371/journal.pcbi.1003531>.
23. Miele L, Giorgio V, Alberelli MA, De Candia E, Gasbarrini A, Grieco A. Impact of Gut Microbiota on Obesity, Diabetes, and Cardiovascular Disease Risk. *Curr. Cardiol. Reports* 2015 dec; 17(12):120. <http://link.springer.com/10.1007/s11886-015-0671-z>.
24. Oksanen J, Blanchet FG, Kindt R, Legendre P, Minchin PRR, O'Hara RBB, et al., vegan: Community Ecology Package; 2016. <https://cran.r-project.org/package=vegan>.
25. Pawankar R, Mellon M, Parasuraman B, Haahtela T, Tuomisto L, Pietinalho A, et al. Allergic diseases and asthma: a global public health concern and a call to action. *World Allergy Organ. J.* 2014; 7(1):12. <http://waojournal.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/1939-4551-7-12>.
26. Prideaux L, Kang S, Wagner J, Buckley M, Mahar JE, De Cruz P, et al. Impact of Ethnicity, Geography, and Disease on the Microbiota in Health and Inflammatory Bowel Disease. *Inflamm. Bowel Dis.* 2013 dec; 19(13):2906–2918. <http://graphics.tx.ovid.com/ovftpdfs/FPDDNCIBHCLGOF00/fs047/ovft/live/gv031/00054725/00054725-201312000-00022.pdf><http://content.wkhealth.com/linkback/openurl?sid=WKPTLP:landingpage&an=00054725-201312000-00022>.
27. R Core Team, R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing; 2015. <https://www.r-project.org/>.
28. Robins T. Social Change, Parasite Exposure, and Immune Dysregulation among Shuar Forager-Horticulturalists of Amazonia: A Biocultural Case-Study in Evolutionary Medicine. Dissertation, University of Oregon; 2015.

29. Schnorr SL, Candela M, Rampelli S, Centanni M, Consolandi C, Basaglia G, et al. Gut microbiome of the Hadza hunter-gatherers. *Nat. communications* 2014 jan; 5:3654. http://www.nature.com/ncomms/2014/140415/ncomms4654/full/ncomms4654.html?WT.ec_id=NCOMMS-20140416.
30. Shanahan F. The gut microbiota—a clinical perspective on lessons learned. *Nat. Rev. Gastroenterol. & Hepatol.* 2012 aug; 9(10):609–614. <http://www.nature.com/doi/10.1038/nrgastro.2012.145>.
31. Strachan DP. Hay fever, hygiene, and household size. *BMJ* 1989 nov; 299(6710):1259–1260. <http://www.bmj.com/cgi/doi/10.1136/bmj.299.6710.1259>.
32. Tang Y, Horikoshi M, Li W. ggfortify : Unified Interface to Visualize Statistical Results of Popular R Packages. *R J.* 2016; XX/YY(AAAA 20ZZ):1–12.
33. Urlacher SS, Liebert MA, Josh Snodgrass J, Blackwell AD, Cepon-Robins TJ, Gildner TE, et al. Heterogeneous effects of market integration on sub-adult body size and nutritional status among the Shuar of Amazonian Ecuador. *Annals Hum. Biol.* 2016 jul; 43(4):316–329. <http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/full/10.1080/03014460.2016.1192219>.
34. Vu VQ, ggbiplot: A ggplot2 based biplot; 2011. <http://github.com/vqv/ggbiplot>.
35. Wickham H. ggplot2: Elegant Graphics for Data Analysis. Springer-Verlag New York; 2009. <http://had.co.nz/ggplot2/book>.
36. World Health Organization. Global status report on noncommunicable diseases 2010. *World Heal.* 2010; p. 176. http://whqlibdoc.who.int/publications/2011/9789240686458_eng.pdf.
37. Yatsunenko T, Rey FE, Manary MJ, Trehan I, Dominguez-Bello MG, Contreras M, et al. Human gut microbiome viewed across age and geography. *Nat.* 2012 may; 457(740):222–227. <http://www.nature.com/doi/10.1038/nature11053>.

310 **SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL**

TABLE S1 Composite codes for the SOL-House metric and item lists for SOL-Traditional and SOL-Market metrics.

Code Name	Code	Description	SOL-Traditional Item List
House Code	0	palmwood	Fishing hook/line
House Code	1	mixed	Hunting dog
House Code	2	milled lumber	Blowgun
House Code	3	cinder block	Firearm
Floor Code	0	dirt	Fishing net
Floor Code	1	palmwood	Canoe
Floor Code	2	milled lumber	
Floor Code	3	concrete	
Floor Code	4	tile	
Bathroom Code	0	none	
Bathroom Code	1	pit	
Bathroom Code	2	indoor without water	
Bathroom Code	3	outdoor with water	
Bathroom Code	4	indoor with water	
Water Code	0	river/stream	
Water Code	1	well/outdoor pipe	
Water Code	2	indoor pipe	
Electricity Code	0	none	
Electricity Code	1	lights only	
Electricity Code	2	outlets	

SOL-Market Item List
Radio
Propane stove
Mobile phone
Television
Chainsaw
Bicycle
Refrigerator
Computer
Outboard motor
Motorcycle
Car
Truck

TABLE S2 Results from factor analysis on the components of the SOL-House metric, SOL-Traditional, and SOL-Market. The first factor is most strongly composed of the wall type and the floor type of a subject’s home, and to a lesser extent access to water and the type of latrine associated with the home. The more manufactured the materials used to build a subject’s house (e.g., cinder block vs palmwood), the higher their Factor 1 score. Therefore, we named Factor 1 “House Modernity”. The second factor is almost exclusively defined by the proportion of objects a subject owns from the SOL-Traditional list, thus we called it “Subsistence Items”. The third factor’s strongest loadings are the level of access to electricity in a subject’s house and the proportion of objects a subject own from the SOL-Market list, which is mostly composed of items that use either electrical or petrochemical power. Factor 3 is therefore called “Power Usage”.

	Wall	Floor	Bathroom	Water	Electricity	SOL-Traditional	SOL-Market
Uniquenesses	0.19	0.26	0.60	0.66	0.26	0.01	0.81

	Factor1	Factor2	Factor3
Wall Code	0.89	-0.092	0.068
Floor Code	0.8	-0.29	0.16
Bathroom Code	0.55	-0.28	-0.15
Water Code	0.56	0.12	-0.11
Electricity Code	0.21	-0.14	0.82
SOL-Traditional	-0.12	0.99	-0.053
SOL-Market	-0.14	0.049	0.41

	Factor1	Factor2	Factor3
SS Loadings	2.12	1.18	0.91
Proportion Var.	0.30	0.17	0.13
Cumulative Var.	0.30	0.47	0.60

TABLE S3 Significance of terms in the full model for predicting phylogenetic diversity (PD). Terms with p-values less than 0.05 are bolded.

	D.f.	Sum Sq.	Mean Sq.	F value	Pr(> F)
Time to Sucúa (rank)	1	4.72	4.72	0.03	0.867
Age	1	819.61	819.61	4.90	0.028
House Modernity	1	1158.04	1158.04	6.92	0.00918
Subsistence Items	1	808.48	808.48	4.83	0.0291
Power Usage	1	124.27	124.27	0.74	0.39
Age:House Modernity	1	39.28	39.28	0.23	0.628
Age:Subsistence Items	1	0.14	0.14	0.00	0.977
House Modernity:Subsistence Items	1	609.87	609.87	3.65	0.0576
Age:Power Usage	1	138.36	138.36	0.83	0.364
House Modernity:Power Usage	1	968.02	968.02	5.79	0.0171
Subsistence Items:Power Usage	1	265.41	265.41	1.59	0.209
Age:House Modernity:Subsistence Items	1	37.11	37.11	0.22	0.638
Age:House Modernity:Power Usage	1	113.75	113.75	0.68	0.411
Age:Subsistence Items:Power Usage	1	395.05	395.05	2.36	0.126
House Modernity:Subsistence Items:Power Usage	1	0.27	0.27	0.00	0.968
Age:House Modernity:Subsistence Items:Power Usage	1	380.01	380.01	2.27	0.133
Residuals	196	32780.68	167.25		

TABLE S4 Result of PERMANOVA analysis of contribution of style-of-life factors to microbiota composition. Terms with p-values less than 0.05 are bolded.

	D.f.	Sum of Sqs.	Mean Sqs.	F Model	R ²	Pr(> F)
House Modernity	1	0.01	0.01	3.98	0.02	0.0092
Subsistence Items	1	0.00	0.00	2.54	0.01	0.0431
Power Usage	1	0.00	0.00	0.86	0.00	0.437
Residuals	209	0.30	0.00		0.97	
Total	212	0.31			1.00	

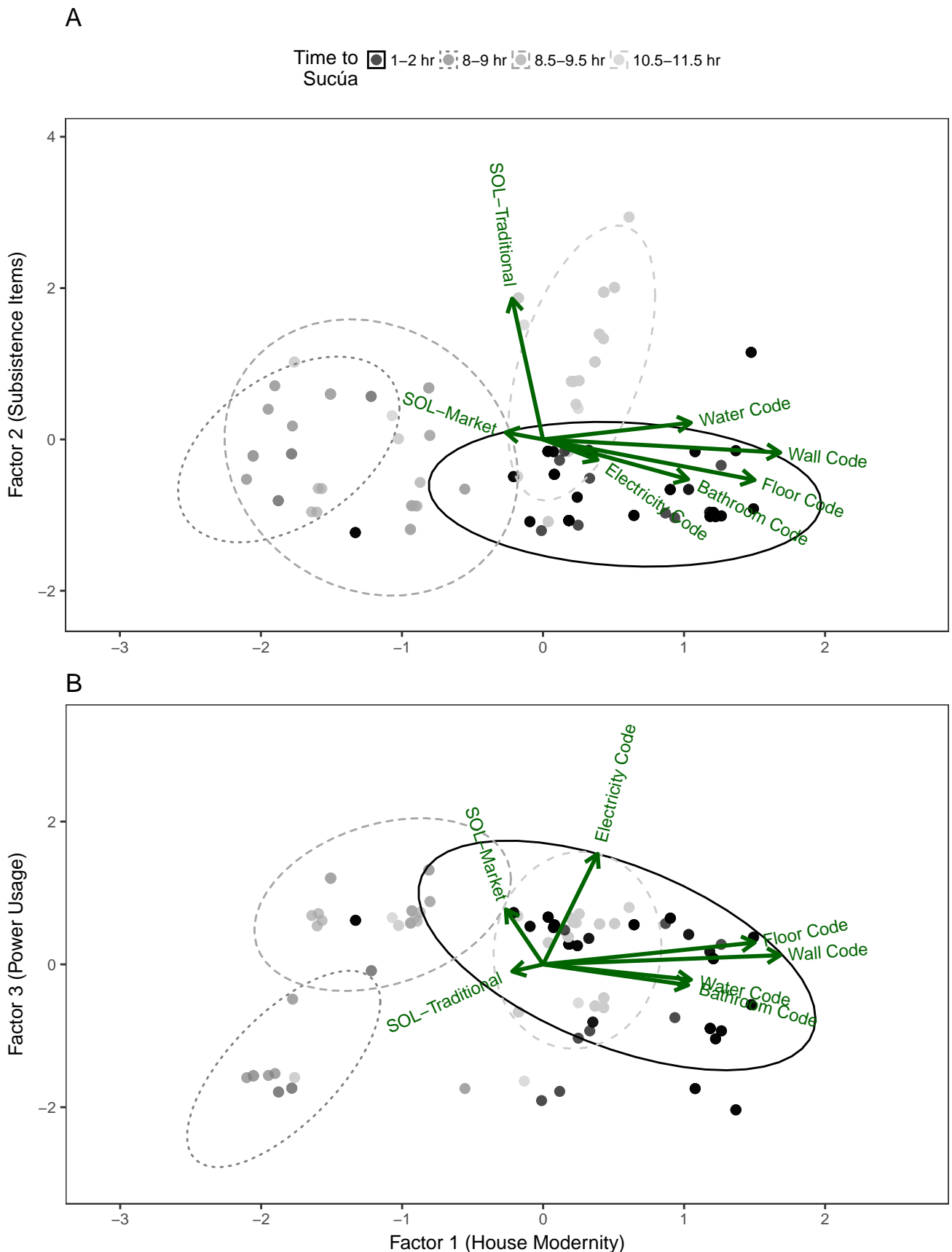


FIG S1 Biplots of item codes and style-of-life metrics with factor scores for each participant. The contribution of item codes and style-of-life metrics to each factor are represented by the direction and magnitude of its labelled green vector. Points represent scores for each participant ($n = 213$) for each factor and are colored by the average travel time from each village to Sucúa. Ellipses represent the standard error around the centroid for each estimated travel time. The top