1	Leveraging host-genetics and gut microbiota to determine immunocompetence in pigs
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19 20	Abstract

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22 The aim of the present work was to identify microbial biomarkers linked to 23 immunity traits and to characterize the contribution of host-genome and gut microbiota to 24 the immunocompetence in healthy pigs. To achieve this goal, we undertook a combination 25 of network, mixed model and microbial-wide association studies (MWAS) for 21 26 immunity traits and the relative abundance of gut bacterial communities in 389 pigs 27 genotyped for 70K SNPs. The heritability (h²; proportion of phenotypic variance explained 28 by the host genetics) and microbiability (m²; proportion of variance explained by the 29 microbial composition) showed similar values for most of the analyzed immunity traits, 30 except for both IgM and IgG in plasma that were dominated by the host genetics, and the haptoglobin in serum which was the trait with larger m^2 (0.275) compared to h^2 (0.138). 31 32 Results from the MWAS suggested a polymicrobial nature of the immunocompetence in 33 pigs and revealed associations between pigs gut microbiota composition and 15 of the 34 analyzed traits. The lymphocytes phagocytic capacity (quantified as mean fluorescence) and the total number of monocytes in blood were the traits associated with the largest 35 36 number of taxa (6 taxa). Among the associations identified by MWAS, 30% were 37 confirmed by an information theory network approach. The strongest confirmed

38 associations were between *Fibrobacter* and phagocytic capacity of lymphocytes (r=0.37), 39 followed by correlations between Streptococcus and the percentage of phagocytic 40 lymphocytes (r=-0.34) and between Megasphaera and serum concentration of haptoglobin 41 (r=0.26). In the interaction network, Streptococcus and percentage of phagocytic 42 lymphocytes were the keystone bacterial and immune-trait, respectively. Overall, our 43 findings reveal an important connection between immunity traits and gut microbiota in 44 pigs and highlight the need to consider both sources of information, host genome and 45 microbial levels, to accurately characterize immunocompetence in pigs.

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48 Introduction

49 The pig industry has a considerable socio-economical value representing around 50 35% of the total meat produced worldwide [1] and being the most popular meat for 51 consumption [2]. The intensification of pig production coupled with the ban on in-feed use 52 of antibiotics has led to a deterioration of the health status of pig farms. In addition, the 53 current emergence of antibiotic resistance and society demands for healthier products and 54 environmentally responsible livestock systems, has motivated to explore relevant 55 approaches for pig and other livestock breeding programs, to improve robustness and 56 disease resistance [3].

57 The implementation of breeding programs to select animals according to their 58 robustness presents several challenges and levels of complexity. One of the most relevant 59 milestones is the identification of selection criteria that combine functional traits with 60 those of immunocompetence. These complex traits are driven by several physiological and 61 behavioral mechanisms that in turn are determined by genetic and environmental factors. Regarding the genetic determinism of immunocompetence, several studies in pigs 62 63 acknowledged medium to high heritability estimates [4-9] and reported genomic regions 64 and candidate genes associated with phenotypic variation of health-related traits [9-15].

Over the past few years, multiple studies highlighted the relevant role of the gut microbiota composition in the homeostasis and function of the mammalian immune system [16-19]. Gut microbiota can regulate host-immunity through both direct mechanisms like translocation of bacteria and their components (i.e. metabolites), or mediate indirect process such as T-cell polarization and the regulation of immune cell trafficking [18]. Commensal gut populations modulate hosts' immune responses, which in turn can modify the 71 microbiota composition to maintain gut homeostasis [20, 21]. Recently, polymorphisms 72 located in immune genes associated with the abundance of microbial communities have 73 been reported [22-25]. Furthermore, it has been suggested that the pattern recognition 74 receptors, which are proteins capable of recognizing molecules frequently associated with 75 pathogens, may have evolved to mediate the bidirectional crosstalk between microbial 76 symbionts and their hosts [26]. This has resulted in a mutualistic and symbiotic partnership 77 between the immune system and these commensal microorganisms [27]. Therefore, the 78 immune system not only protects the host from pathogens but can also modulate, and is 79 itself modulated, by beneficial microbes.

Considering the relevant interplay between gut microbiota and host immunity, a better understanding of the role of gut microbiota in the immunocompetence determination in pigs could greatly assist in the implementation of selection programs to improve robustness and disease resistance simultaneously. The present work aimed to identify microbial biomarkers linked to immunity traits and to estimate the contribution of hostgenome and gut microbial communities to the immunocompetence in healthy pigs.

86 Material and Methods

87 Ethics Statement

All experimental procedures were performed according to the Spanish Policy for Animal Protection RD53/2013, which meets the European Union Directive 2010-63-EU about the protection of animals used in experimentation. The experimental protocol was approved by the Ethical Committee of the Institut de Recerca i Tecnologia Agroalimentàries (IRTA).

93 Animal Samples

Samples employed in this study are a subset of pigs reported in Ballester et al. [9] and Reverter et al. [25]. A total of 405 weaned piglets (204 males and 201 females) from a commercial Duroc pig line were used. The pigs were distributed in six batches obtained from 132 sows and 22 boars. All animals were raised on the same farm and fed *ad libitum* a commercial cereal-based diet.

99 Immunity and hematological traits

100 Details of the sampling and laboratory processing have been reported [9]. In brief, 101 blood and saliva samples were collected from all 405 piglets at 60 ± 8 days of age. Blood 102 samples in 4 ml EDTA tubes were used to measure the hemograms (Laboratory 103 Echevarne, Spain; Barcelona). Saliva was collected with Salivette tubes (Sarstedt S.A.U., 104 Germany) according to the protocols recommended by the manufacturer. Blood samples 105 for serum were collected in 6 mL tubes with gel serum separator and centrifuged at 1600 g 106 for 10 min at RT. Plasma was collected from the sampled blood in 6 ml heparinized tubes 107 and centrifuged at 1300 g for 10 minutes at 4°C. Plasma and serum samples were collected, 108 aliquoted, and stored a -80°C. The following haematological parameters were included in this study: total number of eosinophils (EO), leukocytes (LEU), lymphocytes (LYM) and 109 110 neutrophils (NEU) in blood. Analyzed immunity parameters included immunoglobulins 111 (IgA, IgG and IgM) concentrations in plasma; C-reactive protein (CRP), Haptoglobin (HP) 112 and Nitric Oxide (NO) concentrations in serum; and IgA concentration in saliva (IgAsal). 113 Gamma-delta T cells ($\gamma\delta$ T cells) were separated from heparinised peripheral blood by 114 density-gradient centrifugation with Histopaque-1077 (Sigma, Spain). Phagocytosis assay 115 was carried out in heparinized whole blood samples incubated with fluorescein (FITC)-116 labelled opsonized Escherichia coli bacteria using the Phagotest kit (BD Pharmigen, 117 Spain) as indicated in the manufacturer's protocol. The following phagocytosis traits were 118 used: percentage of total phagocytic cells (PHAGO %); percentage of phagocytic cells 119 among granulocytes (GRANU PHAGO %), monocytes (MON PHAGO %) and 120 lymphocytes (LYM PHAGO %); mean fluorescence in FITC among the total phagocytic 121 cells (PHAGO FITC); and mean fluorescence in FITC among the granulocytes (GRANU 122 (MON PHAGO FITC) PHAGO FITC), monocytes and lymphocytes 123 (LYM PHAGO FITC) that phagocyte.

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125 DNA extraction, sequencing and bioinformatics analysis

127 Simultaneous with blood and saliva samples, fecal samples were collected from all 128 405 piglets. DNA was extracted with the DNeasy PowerSoil Kit (QIAGEN, Hilden, 129 Germany) following manufacturer's instructions. Extracted DNA was sent to the 130 University of Illinois Keck Center for Fluidigm sample preparation and paired-end (2 \times 131 250 nt) sequencing on an Illumina NovaSeq (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA). The 16S 132 fragment was amplified using the primers rRNA gene V3 F357 N: 5'-133 CCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG-3' and V4 R805: 5'-GACTACHVGGGTATCTAATCC-3'.

134 Sequences were analysed with *Qiime2* [28]; barcode sequences, primers and low-quality 135 reads (Phred scores of <30) were removed. The quality control also trimmed sequences 136 based on expected amplicon length and removed chimeras. Afterwards, sequences were 137 processed into Amplicon Sequences Variants (ASVs) at 99% of identity. Samples with less 138 than 10,000 reads were excluded and ASVs present in less than three samples and 139 representing less than 0.001% of the total counts were discarded. ASVs were classified to 140 the lowest possible taxonomic level based on a primer-specific trained version of 141 GreenGenes Database [29].

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143 Genotype data

A total of 390 out of 405 animals were genotyped using the Porcine 70 k GGP Porcine HD Array (Illumina, San Diego, CA) containing 68,516 single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs). The quality control excluded SNPs with minor allele frequencies < 5%, rates of missing genotypes above 10%, and SNPs that did not map to the porcine reference genome (Sscrofa11.1 assembly). Consequently, 42,641 SNPs were retained for subsequent analysis.

150 Microbiability and heritability estimation

Heritability (h²), i.e. the proportion of variance explained by the host genetics, and microbiability (m²), i.e. the proportion of variance explained by the microbial composition, were estimated for each immunity trait based on a mixed-model as follows:

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 $y = X\beta + Zu + Wm + e$

155 where y is the *n*-dimensional vector containing the individual phenotypes for the immune 156 trait under consideration; β is the vector of fixed effects, containing the general intercept, 157 the sex effect (two levels), and batch effect (six levels) for most traits but data of 158 laboratory analysis (12 levels, two by batch) for phagocytosis-related traits; u is the vector 159 containing the host genetic random effect from each individual; m is the vector of the 160 animal's microbiome random effect; X, Z and W are, respectively, the incidence matrices 161 correspondent to β , u and m; and e is the vector of residual terms.

Assuming independence between random effects, the following distributions were considered: $u \sim N(0,G, \sigma^2_u)$, where σ^2_u is the host genetic effects variance and *G* is the genomic relationship matrix between individuals, computed following [30], i.e., $G = \frac{SS'}{2\sum_i p_i(1-p_i)}$ being *S* the matrix that contains the centered individual genotype for the 166 42,641 SNPs (columns) of each individual (rows), and p_j is the frequency of the minimum 167 allele of the j^{th} SNP; $m \sim N(0,B, \sigma^2_m)$, where σ^2_m is the microbial effects variance and B the 168 microbial relationship matrix computed following [31], i.e., $B = \frac{MM'}{n}$, being M the matrix 169 containing the scaled after a previous cumulative sum scaling normalization of the ASV 170 abundances (columns) for each individual microbiome (rows) and n the total number of 171 ASVs; and finally $e \sim N(0, I\sigma_e^2)$, where σ_e^2 is the error variance.

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173 The model parameters for each immunity trait were estimated by a Bayesian 174 approach, using the Bayes Ridge Regression model from BGLR package [32]. We used a 175 Gibbs sampler with 30,000 iterations and a burn-in of 3,000 rounds. The 'heritability'

176 $\left(h^2 = \frac{\sigma_u^2}{(\sigma_u^2 + \sigma_m^2 + \sigma_e^2)}\right)$ and 'microbiability' $\left(m^2 = \frac{\sigma_m^2}{(\sigma_u^2 + \sigma_m^2 + \sigma_e^2)}\right)$ were estimated from the 177 mean of the posterior distributions [33].

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179 Microbial Wide Association Study

180 We performed a Microbial Wide Association Study (MWAS) using a multi-ASV181 association method that combines all the ASVs in a single model:

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$$y_{i} = \beta_{0} + \sum_{j \in 1..p} \beta_{j} x_{ij} + \epsilon_{i} (2)$$

184

Given a trait y_i measured in *n* individuals and a matrix *X* containing relative abundances of *p* taxa from a microbial community, here the ASVs effects were treated as draws from normal distributions as in any Bayesian Ridge Regression approach [32].

188

Following the approach of Legarra et al [34], Bayes Factor (BF) for the effect of each taxa can be derived as the ratio of probabilities $BF = \frac{P_{H1}(y)}{P_{H0}(y)}$, where H1 means "the *j*-genus has some effect" and H0 "the *j*-genus has no effect". The calculations from the posterior distribution are very simple since both probabilities ($\underline{P_{H1}}, \underline{P_{H0}}$) are normal density.

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194 Network between microbial and immunity traits

195 To better understand the relationship between microbial communities and 196 immunity traits we implemented PCIT [35], a network-based approach that combines 197 partial correlation coefficient with information theory to identify significant correlations 198 between each possible combination of clr-transformed bacterial abundance and the 199 immune-traits [35]. PCIT tests all possible 3-way combinations in the dataset and only 200 keeps correlations between traits if they are significant and independent of the association 201 of another features. To reduce the complexity of the resulting network, from the PCIT 202 significant connections, we kept only the ones involving one immune-trait and one genus 203 (i.e. genus-genus and trait-trait interactions were no represented).

204

205 Results

206 In this study, 16S rRNA gene sequences, host genotype information and immune 207 traits from 389 Duroc pigs were analyzed to estimate both host genomes and gut 208 microbiota contribution to the porcine immunocompetence, and to identify microbial 209 biomarkers linked to immunity traits. Table 1 summarizes the immunity traits and their 210 descriptive statistics used in the present study. Regarding 16S rRNA gene sequences, after 211 quality control, a total of 2,055 Amplicon Sequences Variants (ASVs) and 68 genera were 212 detected. The dominant bacterial phyla were Bacteroidetes and Firmicutes, and the most 213 abundant genera were Prevotella, Lactobacillus, Treponema, Roseburia and Ruminococcus 214 (Supplementary figure 1)

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Table 1. Descriptive statistics, mean, standard deviation (SD) and coefficient of variation
 (CV) of the 21 analysed traits.

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Trait	Abrev	Mean	SD	CV
C-reactive protein in serum (µg/ml)	CRP	176.69	128.61	0.73
Eosinophils count n/μL γδ T-lymphocyte subpopulation	EO	406.31	191.04	0.47
(%)	γδ T-cells	7.83	4.94	0.63
Granulocytes phagocytosis FITC	GRANU_PHAGO_FITC	5.15	0.42	0.08
Granulocytes phagocytosis (%)	GRANU_PHAGO_%	91.70	3.85	0.04
Haptoglobin in serum (mg/ml)	HP	1.03	0.67	0.65
IgA in plasma (mg/ml)	IgA	0.65	0.31	0.48
IgA in saliva (mg/dl)	IgAsal	5.13	3.12	0.61
IgG in plasma (mg/ml)	IgG	12.64	4.85	0.38
IgM in plasma (mg/ml)	IgM	2.27	0.79	0.35
Leukocytes count n/µL	LEU	20,350.15	6948.01	0.34
Lymphocytes count n/µL	LYM	12,422.40	4497.03	0.36
Lymphocytes phagocytosis FITC	LYM_PHAGO_FITC	3.16	0.13	0.04

Lymphocytes phagocytosis (%)	LYM_PHAGO_%	6.06	4.02	0.66
Monocytes phagocytosis FITC	MON_PHAGO_FITC	3.92	0.25	0.06
Monocytes phagocytosis (%)	MON_PHAGO_%	49.48	9.72	0.20
Monocytes count n/µL	MONOCITOS_MM	548.42	280.43	0.51
Nitric oxide in serum (µM)	NO	206.45	79.83	0.39
Phagocytosis FITC	PHAGO_FITC	4.71	0.33	0.07
Phagocytosis (% cells)	PHAGO_%	42.94	8.37	0.19
Neutrophils count n/µL	NEU	6985.62	3316.61	0.47

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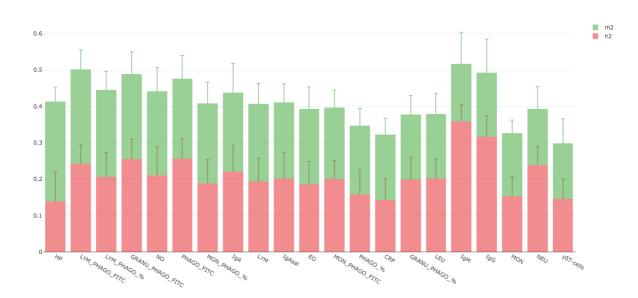
222 Heritability and microbiability of immunity traits

223 Posterior estimates of h^2 and m^2 for the 21 health-related traits can be shown in 224 Figure 1 and Supplementary Table 1. Posterior means of h² in the analyses considering 225 microbiota contribution reached low to medium values (from 0.138 to 0.359), but posterior 226 probability of h² being superior to 0.1 was in all cases above 0.82. Similarly, estimated m² 227 reached values between 0.152 and 0.276, and the probability of being above 0.1 was above 228 0.85 for all immunity and hematological traits (Supplementary Table 1). Among analysed traits, IgG and IgM in plasma showed the highest genetic determinism ($h^2 = 0.316$ and 229 230 0.359), whereas microbiota contribution was below 0.18. Conversely, the Hp concentration in serum showed the highest microbial effect ($m^2=0.276$), accompanied by the lowest h^2 231 estimate ($h^2 = 0.138$). Considering the joint effects of host-genome and gut microbiota, 232 233 these two sources of variation explained from 29.9% to 51.7% phenotypic variance of the 234 analysed immunity and hematological traits. To be noted, in the 76% (16/21) of these traits 235 the h^2 and m^2 estimates reaching relatively similar values (Figure 1).

236

Figure 1. Percentage of phenotypic variance explained by the host-genetic (red points) and

the gut microbial composition (green points) for most relevant immunity traits.



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241 Associations between microbial genera and immunity traits

Results from the MWAS reported some putative associations between bacterial 242 243 genera abundance and health-related traits (Table 2). In particular, 15 out of the 21 244 immunity traits were associated with at least one microbial genus (Table 2). The strongest 245 association was observed between the relative abundance of *Chlamydia* and the profile of 246 LYM PHAGO FITC, followed by Streptococcus linked to LYM PHAGO % and 247 Peptococcus associated with LYM PHAGO FITC. In addition, several genera showed 248 multiple associations with numerous immunity traits: Desulfovibrio, Oribacterium and 249 Chlamydia (4 traits) followed by Oxalobacter and Parabacteroides (3 traits), Peptococcus 250 and Streptococcus (2 traits). As far as the analysed phenotypes, those traits showing the 251 highest number of associations with different bacterial taxa were: LYM PHAGO FITC 252 and MON (6 taxa); LYM PHAGO %, EOS, GRANU PHAGO FITC (4 taxa) and total 253 number of LEU (3 taxa). Meanwhile, only four out of the 15 immunity traits analysed were 254 linked with only one genus (Table 2).

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Table 2. Results from the microbial-wide association studies

Names	Description_trait	Genus	BPcum
MON	Monocytes count n/µL	Anaerobiospirillum	2.676
LYM_PHAGO_FITC	Lymphocytes phagocytosis FITC	Bacteroides	2.536
IgG	IgG in plasma (mg/ml)	Bulleidia	2.313
GRANU_PHAGO_FITC	Granulocytes phagocytosis FITC	Campylobacter	6.556
MON	Monocytes count n/µL	Catenibacterium	2.952
EO	Eosinophils count n/µL	Chlamydia	5.292
IgAsal	IgA in saliva (mg/dl)	Chlamydia	2.364
LYM_PHAGO_FITC	Lymphocytes phagocytosis FITC	Chlamydia	11.246
			0

LYM PHAGO %	Lymphocytes phagocytosis (%)	Chlamydia	3.088
EO – –	Eosinophils count $n/\mu L$	Desulfovibrio	3.369
LEU	Leukocytes count $n/\mu L$	Desulfovibrio	2.085
LYM PHAGO FITC	Lymphocytes phagocytosis FITC	Desulfovibrio	2.852
MONOCITOS MM	Monocytes count $n/\mu L$	Desulfovibrio	2.427
LYM PHAGO FITC	Lymphocytes phagocytosis FITC	Fibrobacter	3.829
HP	Haptoglobin in serum (mg/ml)	Megasphaera	3.582
MON PHAGO FITC	Monocytes phagocytosis FITC	Mitsuokella	2.788
CRP	C-Reactive Protein in serum (ug/ml)	Mucispirillum	2.588
LYM PHAGO %	Lymphocytes phagocytosis (%)	Oribacterium	3.089
MON_PHAGO_FITC	Monocytes phagocytosis FITC	Oribacterium	2.673
PHAGO_%	% of total phagocytic cells	Oribacterium	2.009
NEU	Neutrophils count n/µL	Oribacterium	2.478
LEU	Leukocytes count n/µL	Oxalobacter	2.816
MON	Monocytes count n/µL	Oxalobacter	2.320
NEU	Neutrophils count n/µL	Oxalobacter	3.216
IgG	IgG in plasma (mg/ml)	Paludibacter	3.018
HP	Haptoglobin in serum (mg/ml)	Parabacteroides	2.018
LYM_PHAGO_FITC	Lymphocytes phagocytosis FITC	Parabacteroides	2.219
MON_PHAGO_FITC	Monocytes phagocytosis FITC	Parabacteroides	5.158
LYM_PHAGO_FITC	Lymphocytes phagocytosis FITC	Peptococcus	7.497
PHAGO_%	% of total phagocytic cells	Peptococcus	2.288
GRANU_PHAGO_FITC	Granulocytes phagocytosis FITC	rc4.4	2.156
LEU	Leukocytes count n/µL	rc4.4	2.619
LYM	Lymphocytes count n/µL	rc4.4	3.621
MON	Monocytes count n/µL	RFN20	3.022
GRANU_PHAGO_FITC	Granulocytes phagocytosis FITC	Sphaerochaeta	2.686
γδ T-cells	$\gamma\delta$ T-Lymphocyte subpopulation	Streptococcus	2.444
LYM_PHAGO_%	Lymphocytes phagocytosis (%)	Streptococcus	8.484
EO	Eosinophils count n/µL	Succinivibrio	4.814
MON	Monocytes count n/µL	Succinivibrio	2.439
LYM_PHAGO_%	Lymphocytes phagocytosis (%)	Treponema	2.187

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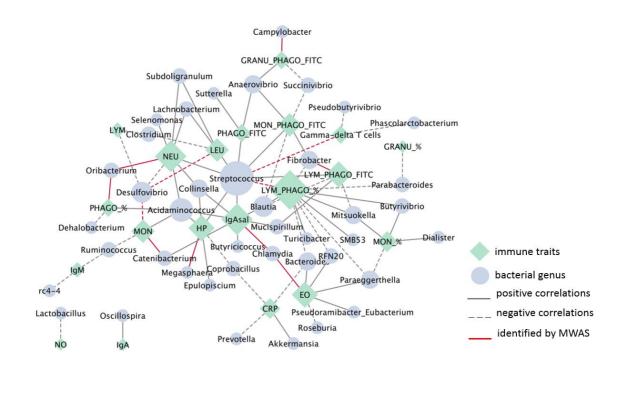
259 Gut microbial and host-immune interaction network

The interplay between microbial and health-related traits was also inferred through a network comprised of 63 nodes (42 genera and 21 immunity traits) and 86 edges (significant connections) in which only the significant interactions between a bacterial genus and an immunity trait were considered (Figure 2). The topological evaluation of the network highlights LYM_PHAGO_% as the most connected trait, followed by IgAsal, NEU and Hp. Meanwhile, at microbial level, *Streptococcus* was the most connected genus followed by *Acidaminococcus, Desulfovibrio* and *Blautia*. The network approach

267 confirmed 30% (12/40) of the associations identified by the MWAS (Figure 2). The 268 strongest confirmed correlation was between Fibrobacter and LYM PHAGO FITC (r= 269 0.37) followed by correlations between Streptococcus and LYM PHAGO % (r=-0.34) and 270 and Hp (r=0.26). To be noted, between Megasphaera Streptococcus and 271 LYM PHAGO % that showed the strongest confirmed association in the MWAS were 272 highly in the interaction-network as the keystone bacterial and immunity trait, respectively. 273

Figure 2. Microbial - health-related traits network. Green diamond nodes correspond to
immunity traits (n=21) and blue ellipse nodes correspond to microbial genera (n=42). Node
sizes are relative to their topological degree (number of connections) and edges are
continuous or dashed to represent positive or negative correlations, respectively.
Relationships previously identified by MWAS are highlighted in red.

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284 General Discussion

285 Host-genome and gut microbiota contribution to porcine immunocompetence

We report the first study that aimed to dissect the joint contribution of the host genome and the gut microbiota to the immunocompetence in healthy pigs. Estimates of microbiability pointed out significant microbial effects on most immunity and hematological traits, ranging between 15% and 27% of total phenotypic variance. Effects

290 of microbiota resulted particularly relevant for Hp concentrations in serum, followed by 291 the parameters related to phagocytosis of lymphocytes. Regarding genomic heritabilities of 292 these traits, they reached low to moderate values and were substantially lower compared to 293 the medium to high h^2 previously obtained in the same Duroc population [9] for all traits 294 but MON and MON PHAGO %. A dramatic decrease of the estimated host genetic 295 effects was observed for $\gamma\delta$ T cells, but also for EOS and NEU counts and 296 immunoglobulins concentrations in plasma, despite IgM and IgG variability seemed 297 dominated by host genetics and showed the highest h² among analysed traits. These results 298 would call into question the high genetic determinism of the global immunocompetence in 299 pigs reported in previous studies [6, 7, 9]. However, it should be considered that the 300 limited sample size joint with the likely similarity between close relatives (particularly 301 between full-sibs) in their microbiota profiles makes plausible that the model could not 302 separate adequately genetic from microbiota effects.

303

304 Microbial signatures associated with immunity traits

305 In the present study, we implemented a combination of MWAS and network 306 approaches to pinpoint microbial signatures associated with immunity traits, revealing 307 some interesting associations between the composition of the pig gut microbiota and the 308 host immunity traits. Remarkably, lymphocyte phagocytosis traits were among the most 309 connected and associated traits to the highest number of taxa and were also central nodes 310 in the network. The strongest confirmed association involved Fibrobacter relative 311 abundance in gut microbiota and the host phagocytosis capacity of lymphocytes, which 312 were positively correlated (r=0.37). Fibrobacter genus is composed of strictly anaerobic 313 bacteria with cellulolytic capacity capable of degrading complex plant fiber [36] and it has 314 been associated with better feed efficiency in pigs [37, 38]. Conversely, the relative 315 abundance of Streptococcus showed an opposite association with the percentage of 316 phagocytic lymphocytes (r=-0.34). Streptococcus was also the keystone taxa in the 317 network. In pigs, some *Streptococcus* species are important opportunistic pathogens such 318 as Streptococcus suis, which abundance increased in the stomach and small intestine after 319 weaning [39]. Piglets with high intestinal concentrations of S. suis can serve as a source of 320 transmission and infection between animals and farms (reviewed in [39]). In general 321 Streptococcus are less abundant in more-feed efficient pigs [37], although there are also 322 evidences of the immunomodulatory properties of member of Streptococcus genus [40, 323 41].

324 Several studies in mammals have demonstrated that B cells have a significant 325 phagocytic capacity, being able to phagocytose particles including bacteria [42-44]. Most 326 important has been the demonstration of the efficient capability of these cells to present 327 antigen from phagocytosed particles to CD4⁺ T cells [42-44], acting as a bridge that link 328 innate with adaptive immunity. Therefore, considering the inferred high connection of 329 these phagocytosis phenotypes with gut microbiota, we could hypothesize that, as other 330 antigen-presenting cells such as dendritic cells or macrophages, the phagocytic 331 lymphocytes seem to be relevant to maintain immune tolerance to the normal gut 332 microbiota, being also relevant to control the abundance of opportunistic pathogens. B-333 cells also produce secretory IgA, the most abundant secreted isotype in mammals and a 334 key element to maintain 'homeostatic immunity'[45]. Secretory IgA was among the most 335 connected traits in the network being positively associated with several taxa. Among them, 336 the genus *Blautia* is of particular interest due to its potential role modulating inflammatory 337 and metabolic diseases, with potential beneficial effects for the host [46]. Therefore, 338 similar to phagocytic lymphocytes, the interplay between secretory IgA levels and the 339 abundance of different taxa in our animals may regulate the ecological balance of 340 commensal bacteria and the development of Ig-A secreting cells. Neutrophils were also 341 positively correlated with gut microbiota profiles. A systemic immunomodulation of 342 neutrophils by intestinal microbiota has been demonstrated [47], and a crosstalk between 343 NEU and gut microbial composition has been also documented [48]. Our results 344 confirmed a positive association of Oribacterium abundance with the quantity of neutrophils. Oribacterium genus belongs to the Lachnospiraceae family, and the 345 346 abundance of this genus increased in piglets after weaning [49]. Members of the genus 347 Oribacterium produce short-chain fatty acids such as acetate [50], which directly 348 influences immune system regulation [51], and can contribute to the health of the pig.

349 Among the most connected traits in our network we also found acute-phase protein 350 Hp, which based on the estimated microbiability appeared preferentially determined by 351 microbiota effects. The main function of Hp is to facilitate hemoglobin (Hb) clearance. 352 After the formation of stable Hp-Hb complexes, the macrophage receptor CD163 353 recognize them and the entire complex is removed from circulation by receptor-mediated 354 endocytosis [52]. Therefore, Hp favors the reduction of free iron concentrations in the 355 circulation and tissues [53]. Several bacterial pathogens such as Staphylococcus, 356 Mycobacteria, Salmonella, Corynebacterium, Haemophilus, among others, require iron for 357 growth, thus elaborating different acquisition strategies to uptake heme from the host, 358 particularly from Hb [54-56]. The host immune system has developed antimicrobial 359 mechanisms, most related to innate pathways, to deplete iron availability for pathogens 360 [54]. Remarkably, our results indicate a relevant effect of the microbiota composition on 361 Hp levels which could also modulate the concentration of circulating free iron. We could 362 hypothesize that the symbiotic microbiota could also modulate the iron levels in these 363 animals through innate immunity mechanisms to prevent the development of different 364 opportunistic pathogens. Our results confirmed a positive association between serum 365 concentration of Hp and the relative abundance of Megasphaera, a member of the phylum 366 Firmicutes. According to this result, an increase in the abundance of Megasphaera has 367 been described in colon content and faeces of pigs fed with iron-deficient diet [57]. 368 Interestingly, this genus was reported as a potential biomarker for immune-mediate 369 mechanism of protection from diarrhea [58] and positive correlated with luminal IgA 370 concentration in pigs [49].

371

372 Finally, it is worth highlighting the negative association between the relative 373 abundance of Desulfovibrio and LEU and MON counts. Desulfovibrio is a sulfate-reducing 374 bacteria (SRB), which can promote the metabolism of sugars [59] and plays also a key role 375 in intestinal hydrogen and sulfur metabolism [60]. In pigs, *Desulfovibrio* plays a relevant 376 role during pig gut colonization [49] and was among the dominant genus in healthy pigs compared with diarrhea-affected piglets [61]. In fact, in weaned piglets, a negative 377 378 correlation between *Desulfovibrio* and several inflammatory markers such as IL-1β, IL-2 379 and IL-6, have been observed [62], which would be in agreement with the negative 380 correlation observed between Desulfovibrio and LEU and MON counts in our piglets.

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382 Despite of an inventory of potential gut health biomarkers exists for pigs [63, 64], our results propose new microbial candidates, and emphasize a polymicrobial nature of 383 384 the immunocompetence in pigs. Furthermore, in agreement with previous reports [65], our 385 results suggest that some immunity traits are influenced by specific microorganisms while 386 others are determined by interactions between members of the gut microbiome. We also 387 reveal the joint contribution of the host genome and the gut microbial ecosystem to the 388 phenotypic variance of immunity parameters and advice that ignoring microbiota effects 389 could generate an overestimation of genetic parameters. A better understanding of the host 390 and microbial contribution to immunocompetence will allow to develop holistic breeding

391 strategies to modulate these traits, as well as to improve animal health, robustness and392 welfare.

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394 Conclusions

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396 Estimates of heritability and microbiability exposed the joint contribution of both 397 the host genome and the gut microbial ecosystem to the phenotypic variance of immunity 398 parameters, and revealed that ignoring microbiota effects on phenotypes could generate an 399 upward bias in the estimation of genetic parameters. Results from the MWAS suggested a 400 polymicrobial nature of the immunocompetence in pigs and highlighted associations 401 between the compositions of pig gut microbiota and 15 of the analyzed immunity traits. 402 Overall, our findings establish several links between the gut microbiota and the immune 403 system in pigs, underscoring the importance of considering both sources of information, 404 host-genome and microbial level, for the genetic evaluation and the modulation of 405 immunocompetence in pigs.

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408 Funding

409 YRC is recipient of a Ramon y Cajal post-doctoral fellowship (RYC2019-027244-I) from 410 the Spanish Ministry of Science and Innovation. MB was recipient of a Ramon y Cajal 411 post-doctoral fellowship (RYC-2013-12573). LMZ is recipient of a Ph.D. grant from 412 Ministry of Economy and Science, Spain associated with 'Centro de Excelencia Severo 413 Ochoa 2016–2019' award SEV-2015-0533 to CRAG. Part of the research presented in this 414 publication was funded by Grants AGL2016-75432-R, AGL2017-88849-R awarded by the 415 Spanish Ministry of Economy and Competitiveness. The authors belong to Consolidated 416 Research Group TERRA (AGAUR, 2017 SGR 1719).

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418 Acknowledgements

The authors warmly thank all technical staff from *Selección Batallé* S.A, for providing theanimal material and their collaboration during the sampling.

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