Human milk bacteria assembled into functionally distinct synthetic communities in infant formula differently affect intestinal physiology and microbiota in neonatal mini-piglets

Charles Le Bras[a,b], Gwenaelle Randuineau[a], Armelle Cahu[a], Patrice Dahirel[a], Sylvie Guérin[a], Regis Janvier[a], Véronique Romé[a], Lucie Rault[b], Marie-Bernadette Maillard[b], Amandine Bellanger[c], Yves Le Loir[b], Sophie Blat[a], Sergine Even[b¤], Isabelle Le Huërou-Luron[a¤]

[a]*Institut NuMeCan, INRAE, INSERM, Université de Rennes, Saint Gilles, France;*

[b]*STLO, INRAE, Institut Agro Rennes Angers, France;*

[c]*CHU Rennes, Pediatric Department, CIC-Inserm 1414, Rennes, France.*

Running Head (54 characters and space): Human milk SynComs alter gut functions and microbiota

Address correspondence to I. Le Huërou-Luron, isabelle.luron@inrae.fr

¤, Isabelle Le Huërou-Luron and Sergine Even contributed equally to this work.

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Abstract

The contribution of Human milk (HM) microbiota to infant gut health was addressed by evaluating the effects of HM bacteria combined in two synthetic communities (SynComs, with an *in vitro* characterized anti-inflammatory (AI) or high immunomodulatory (HI) profile) on systemic and ileal immune cell functions, gut epithelial barrier and microbiota. Neonatal mini-piglets were fed either a formula without supplementation (CTRL) or supplemented with AI or HI SynComs and compared to sow milk-fed (SM) piglets. The two HM-derived SynComs differently modulated microbiota and intestinal functions (mainly immunity). Notably, the abundance of more than half of the intestinal taxa that differed between the three formula groups differed between AI and HI piglets. In addition, fewer differently abundant genera were observed between HI and SM piglets than between CTRL and SM piglets, suggesting that SynCom HI supplementation brought the microbiota of HI piglets closer to that of SM piglets. SynCom supplementation affected immune functions at both systemic and mucosal levels. Fecal sIgA level in HI piglets, which was slightly lower than in SM piglets, was markedly higher than in CTRL and AI piglets. Finally, SynCom bacteria were correlated with several genera in ileum and colon microbiota and both were highly correlated with physiological variables, supporting the HM bacteria-driven influence on gut microbiota and on multiple gut functions. Overall, our data show that SynComs with contrasting immunomodulatory properties but similar taxonomic composition can differently modulate the developmental profile of intestinal functions and microbiota in mini-piglets used as a human infant model.

Importance

Early life environmental factors, such as neonatal diet, modulate gut microbiota that

is a driving force for the functional development of the gut. However, the role of the

human milk (HM) microbiota is not well understood, particularly the importance of the

immunomodulatory properties of HM bacteria. This study provides insight into the

differential effects of two synthetic communities, with similar taxonomic composition

representative of the taxonomic diversity of the HM cultivable microbiota, but with

contrasting immunomodulatory properties (previously characterized *in vitro* on an

intestinal quadricellular model). Daily supplementation with these two SynComs

differently modulated gut microbiota composition and gut physiology, particularly

intestinal immune signatures. In conclusion, the functional profile of bacteria within

the HM microbiota may induce a different developmental profile of gut physiology in

infants.

39 Introduction

Early nutrition is essential to ensure optimal infant growth and development,

especially regarding gut digestive and immunological functions and microbiota, which

are immature at birth (1). Human milk (HM) is the optimal source of nutrition for the

first few months of infant life (2, 3). Its beneficial properties are mediated by the

presence of bioactive compounds particularly promoting the maturation of the gut

immune system in interaction with the development of gut microbiota (4, 5). Breast

milk has a diverse bacterial community with dozens of genera and over 200 different

species identified (6, 7), including prevalent genera such as *Bifidobacterium* and

Lactobacillus, as well as *Streptococcus, Staphylococcus, Cutibacterium* or

Corynebacterium (6, 8, 9). Despite the low bacterial load in HM (10^3-10^4 colony

forming units (CFU)/mL), these bacteria contribute to the neonatal gut microbiota and

would account for 5 to 33 % of total bacteria present in feces of breastfed infants

under 6 months of life (10, 11). It is also noteworthy that maternal milk bacteria are

the primary colonisers of the small intestine and colon of piglets, contributing

approximately to 90% of the mucosa-associated microbial community in the small

intestine throughout the first month of the life. It also contributes to 90% and to less

than 20% of the mucosa-associated microbial community in the colon at birth and

after the first postnatal week of life, respectively (12). This suggests that milk-derived

bacteria are present in the intestine from an early stage of development (12) and can

directly impact gut physiological functions, as demonstrated with specific HM-derived

probiotics such as *Bifidobacterium* and *Lactobacillus* strains supplied separately in

infant diet (13, 14). However, the role of HM-derived bacteria assembled in complex

communities that mimic the actual bacterial communities present in HM, on gut

functions and microbiota has been insufficiently addressed so far.

To further explore the *in vivo* role of HM bacteria assembled in synthetic bacterial

communities (SynComs) on intestinal homeostasis, Yucatan piglets used as a human

infant model, were fed dairy-based infant formula supplemented with HM SynComs.

Two SynComs of 11 HM strains each, closely related in terms of taxonomy and

covering the prevalent taxa of HM microbiota were used. We have previously

demonstrated *in vitro* that the intestinal epithelium was differently affected depending

on the HM strain assembly, these two SynComs displaying an anti-inflammatory

profile *vs.* a high immunostimulatory one (9). It was hypothesized that the two HM-

derived bacterial communities added to infant formula at a concentration close to

physiological concentrations (~$5.5.10^5$ CFU/mL infant formula) would differentially

affect key gut immune and barrier functions *in vivo*, according to their functional

characteristics, in association with changes in gut microbiota composition. The gut

immune and barrier functions and microbiota were also examined in sow milk-fed

(SM) piglets as a natural physiological control group.

Results

From postnatal day (PND) 2 to PND24, Yucatan piglets were fed dairy-based infant

formula (Supplemental Table S1) without supplementation (CTRL) or supplemented

with HM SynComs of 11 HM strains each, which exhibited an *in vitro* anti-

inflammatory (AI) or immunostimulatory (HI) profile according to a previous *in vitro*

characterization on an intestinal quadricellular model (Table 1; (9)). The AI and HI

bacterial doses added in formulas corresponded to 5.5 x 10^5 CFU/mL formula,

amounting to an average daily intake of 1.28 x 10^8 CFU/kg body weight (BW) for

piglets fed supplemented formulas (with a range of daily bacterial intake from 1.09 x

10^8 CFU at PND5 to 3.24 x 10^8 CFU at PND23). During the whole experimental

period, formula-fed piglets remained healthy and kept growing with an average daily

BW gain of 74 ± 14 g/day. The average daily volume of formula intake was not

different between AI, HI and CTRL groups, with an average value of 255 ± 3 mL/kg

BW. Supplementing formulas with SynComs had no significant effect on BW gain,

compared to the CTRL formula. The average piglet BW was 1.01 ± 0.03 kg at PND 5

up to 2.35 ± 0.06 kg at PND23. As expected, the growth of the fourth group of SM

piglets was significantly higher with an average daily BW gain of 146 ± 4 g/day,

compared to 74 ± 14 g/day for the formula-fed piglets (P<0.05).

SynCom bacterial strains were present in AI and HI intestinal microbiota

To determine the presence of SynCom bacteria in the intestine of piglets,

metabarcoding was applied to AI- and HI-supplemented formulas in order to identify

the OTU potentially corresponding to each SynCom bacteria in supplemented

formulas and in the ileal and colonic piglet digesta. At the exception of *Cutibacterium*

and *Veillonella*, OTUs corresponding to the genera added in SynComs AI and/or HI

were identified in AI and/or HI formulas (Table 1). In few cases, multiple OTUs have

been considered appropriate for a strain, or conversely, one potential OTU was

assigned to two strains of a single genus, considering that the 16S sequencing

identification of bacteria was reliable at the genus level (Table 1).

Most SynCom bacteria were traced in the intestinal microbiota of AI and/or HI piglets

at PND24. In the ileum, most of them displayed higher relative abundances in the

intestinal microbiota of PND24 AI and/or HI piglets compared to that of CTRL piglets

(Figure 1, Table 1). In the colon, the abundance of *Bifidobacterium breve* and

Staphylococcus haemolyticus added in formula AI and that of *Corynebacterium sp.*

added in formulas AI and HI were increased whereas the abundances of the other

bacteria assembled in Syncoms were not significantly changed, the presence of their

corresponding OTUs being very low in some colon digesta. Comparison of the ileal

and colonic microbiota of AI and HI piglets with CTRL piglets indicates that most

SynCom bacteria were recovered from the ileal microbiota and, to a lesser extent,

the colonic microbiota.

SynCom AI and HI differentially impacted the intestinal homeostasis of

formula-fed piglets

To analyze the overall effect of SynCom supplementation of formulas on intestinal

homeostasis, Partial Least Squares-Discriminant Analysis (PLS-DA) was performed

on the complete dataset from the three formula-fed piglet groups in ileum and colon.

The most discriminant variables with a Variable Importance in Projection (VIP)

score>1 in the PLS-DA (n = 112 out of a total of 201 variables in the ileum and n =

141 out of a total of 250 variables in the colon) were selected for multifactorial

analysis (MFA) after grouping by function (6 functions) or phylum (5 phyla)

(Supplemental Figures S1, dataset accessible in the repository

https://doi.org/10.57745/ATTHZ3). MFA was able to distinguish the three groups of

formula-fed piglets in the ileum on Dimensions 1 and 2 (11.4 and 10.5 % of variance

recovered on Dimension 1 and 2, respectively) and in the colon on Dimension 2

(10% of variance recovered on Dimension 2) (Figure 2). In the ileum, the groups of

variables contributing to the discrimination between formula-fed piglet groups

included immunity, endocrine, tryptophan metabolism and barrier functions, and

Pseudomonadota, Actinomycetota and Bacillota phyla. In the colon, the

discrimination of formula-fed piglet groups was mainly explained by Bacillota,

Pseudomonadota and Actinomycetota phyla, and endocrine and immunity functions.

These results indicate that the two SynComs differentially modulate the intestinal

homeostasis, both on the ileal and colonic microbiota and on physiological functions.

SynCom supplementation modified microbiota composition and activity

Microbiota sequencing was performed on ileal digesta, colonic digesta and feces

from formula-fed and SM-fed piglets at PND24. In addition, fecal microbiota was also

analyzed at PND8 to detect early dietary effects on fecal microbiota composition.

Moderate differences occurred in the structure of ileal, colonic and fecal bacterial

ecosystems between the three formula-fed groups. At PND24, α-diversity was lower

in the ileum of CTRL than in that of HI group, AI group value being intermediate

(Supplemental Figure S2). No difference in β-diversity occurred between the three

formula-fed groups (Supplemental Figure S2). However, consistent with the MFA

results, differential abundance analysis revealed several differences in the composition of ileal and colonic microbiota between the formula-fed groups that go beyond the presence of the SynCom bacteria in the microbiota of SynCom-supplemented piglets (Table 2; Supplemental Table S2). At PND24, a lower abundance of Pseudomonadota, Bacteroidota and Campylobacterota phyla was observed in the ileum of AI group than in that of CTRL group, and that of HI group for the latter two phyla (Table 2). Although not visible at the phylum level, the abundance of several genera within Bacillota was also affected by SynCom supplementation. The abundance of *Butyricimonas* (in the 2 sites), *Parasutterella* (in colon) and *Actinomyces* (in ileum) was higher in AI and HI groups than in CRTL groups (Table 2). HI microbiota was enriched with *Turicibacter*, *Eubacterium* and *Romboutsia* (in ileum) compared to CTRL, and with *Clostridium* and *Prevotellaceae UCG-003* (in ileum) and *Anaerococcus* (in colon) compared to AI and CTRL microbiota. Finally, AI microbiota was enriched with *Alistipes* (in ileum) and with *Staphylococcus* (in both sites) compared to CTRL and HI microbiota (Table 2). In the feces, there were also differences in the abundance of several genera belonging mainly to Bacillota and to a lesser extent to the Bacteroidota and Actinomycetota, between the formula-fed groups at both PND8 (Supplemental Table S3) and PND24 (Table 2).

The ileal, colonic and fecal microbiota composition of the formula-fed groups was compared with that of SM piglets. Of note, the bacterial composition of the sow milk was also determined (546 OTUs identified), revealing that several genera predominant in sow milk microbiota are commonly found in HM microbiota and were also present in the SynComs, including *Staphylococcus*, *Streptococcus*, *Lactobacillus*, *Rothia* and *Corynebacterium* (Table *'OTUs identified in sow milk'* accessible in the repository https://doi.org/10.57745/ATTHZ3). However, a few

differences occurred between sow milk and HM microbiota (15, 16) or SynComs,

including the low abundance of *Bifidobacterium* (corresponding to less than 0.1 % of

the total OTUs) or the presence of *Terrisporobacter* in sow milk.

Overall, both ☐-and ☐-diversities differed in ileal and colonic microbiota of SM-fed

piglets compared to the three groups of formula-fed piglets (Supplemental Figure

S2). The α-diversity of SM piglet microbiota was lower than that of formula-fed

groups in the ileum at PND24 and this was already observed at PND8 in the feces

(Supplemental Figure S2). As expected, the relative abundance of numerous

bacterial phyla, families and genera in the ileum, colon and feces differed between

SM-fed and formula-fed groups (Supplemental Table S4). Some differences in

genera abundance between CTRL and SM groups were not observed between

piglets fed AI and/or HI formulas and SM piglets, and vice-versa. As a result, piglets

fed supplemented formulas, especially with SynCom HI, had a lower total number of

differentially abundant genera than CTRL piglets compared to SM piglets.

To determine whether SynCom supplementation affected microbiota activity, SCFA

concentrations were also analysed at PND8 (feces) and PND24 (feces and colonic

digesta). The concentration of acetate was higher in HI feces than in CTRL and AI

ones at PND8, whereas difference no longer occurred at PND24 (Supplemental

Figure S3). Similarly, fecal SCFA concentrations in SM piglets differed from that of

formula-fed piglets mainly at PND8 (Supplemental Figure S3). In the colon,

propionate, valerate, butyrate, isovalerate, isobutyrate and total SCFA concentrations

were higher in SM-fed than in formula-fed groups and proportions between SCFAs

also differed (Table 3). Overall, adding HM-derived functionally distinct SynComs to

the formulas specifically altered the microbiota composition. These changes mainly

observed with HI SynCom reduced, but did not eliminate, the differences observed

between CTRL and SM piglets. The effect of SynComs on fermentative activity was

mainly observed in the first days of supplementation.

SynCom supplementation affected systemic and intestinal immune function

MFA indicated that immunity was one of the main function affected by SynCom

supplementation. Both the systemic and intestinal immune functions were affected

(Figure 3, Table 4, Supplemental Tables S5 and S6). IL-10 production under basal

condition and TNF-α production under ConA-stimulated condition tended to be higher

in HI PBMC than in CTRL and AI PBMC (Figure 3). In PP cells, SynCom HI and AI

supplementation tended to increase basal TNF-α secretion compared to CTRL

group, whereas no differences in TNF-α and IL-10 secretion were observed in

stimulated conditions (Supplemental Table S5). The effect of SynCom

supplementation on intestinal immune functions was also highlighted through

changes in the expression of genes involved in pro-inflammatory (IL6, TNFaR1),

antioxidant (SOD2) and Treg (FOXP3) pathways in ileal and colonic tissues

compared to the CTRL group, although no clear pattern emerged (Table 4 and

Supplemental Table S6). Compared to SM, the expression of genes encoding anti-

inflammatory proteins (IL-10, SOCS3), pro-inflammatory proteins (CCL20, CX3CL1,

TNFaR1, IL1b, IL6), antioxidant (SOD2) and Treg pathways (FOXP3) and cellular

signalling (TLR4) differed in CTRL, AI and/or HI piglets in the ileum and/or colon.

Finally, the fecal sIgA content of HI piglets was 6- and 11-fold higher than in CTRL

and AI piglets, respectively (Figure 3). A similar profile was observed for ileal content,

but with non-significant differences. In SM piglets, the concentration of sIgA in ileum,

colon and feces was 45-, 5- and 12-fold, respectively, higher than in CTRL group.

Interestingly, the level of fecal sIgA in HI group was only 1.9-fold lower than in SM

group.

Overall, the addition of SynCom HI to formula enhanced PBMC cytokine secretion. At

the intestinal level, the expression of a few genes was altered with SynCom AI and/or

HI supplementation compared to the CTRL group. Supplementation of the formulas

with SynCom HI increased the secretion of sIgA, thereby reducing the differences in

fecal sIgA levels observed between CTRL and SM piglets.

Intestinal morphology and barrier functions differed between groups at PND24

To determine the effect of formula supplementation with SynComs and of SM feeding

on the epithelial barrier, the intestinal morphology, the expression of genes related to

cell renewing and barrier function and the *ex vivo* para- and transcellular permeability

were evaluated in ileum and colon (Figure 4, Table 5 and Supplemental Table S6).

SynCom HI supplementation reduced the ileal villus height (414 ± 61 µm) compared

to the CTRL (561 ± 53 µm) and AI (523 ± 62 µm) groups and was closer to the ileal

villus height of SM piglets (192 ± 23 µm), although still higher. There was no

difference in ileal and colonic crypt depths between groups (mean values: 94 ± 3 µm

in ileum and 378 ± 31 µm in colon). The expression of PCNA gene (proliferation) in

the ileum and colon, and that of Caspase 3 gene (apoptosis) in the colon of the SM

group were higher than those of formula-fed groups, while the opposite change was

observed for the latter in the ileum (Table 5). In ileum, goblet cell density of AI and HI

groups was higher in villi and lower in crypts than those of SM group (Figure 4A). In

the colon, crypt goblet cell density of formula-fed piglets was higher than that of SM

piglets (Figure 4B). The expression of MUC2 gene was higher in HI than SM group

(Table 5). Finally, the expression of IAP gene (mucosal defense) was higher in the

ileum of HI and CTRL than SM group, while it was lower in the colon of HI than SM

group (Table 5).

In the ileum, the paracellular permeability was lower in formula-fed than SM-fed

piglets (Figure 4C). Concomitantly, the expression of genes encoding tight junction

proteins, CLDN4, MLCK and ZO1, as well as a tendency for CTNNB1 and OCLN,

was higher in CTRL and AI than in SM ileum, with intermediate values for HI ileum

(Table 5). In the colon, there was no difference in *ex vivo* paracellular permeability

between the four groups (Figure 4C), while the expression of MLCK, ZO1 and

CTNNB1 (as a tendency) genes was higher and that of CLDN7 was lower in formula-

fed than SM piglets (Table 5). The transcellular permeability was higher in AI than in

HI ileum, while it was higher in CTRL than in AI, HI and SM colon (Figure 4D).

Overall, these results showed an effect of SynCom supplementation on ileal villus

size and goblet cell density, as well as on ileal and colonic transcellular permeability.

In addition, the ileal expression of several genes encoding tight junction proteins was

closer in the HI group to that in the SM group than in the CTRL or AI groups.

Intestinal nutrient transport, tryptophan metabolism and endocrine functions

were moderately affected by the SynCom supplementation of formulas at

PND24

The expression of genes encoding proteins involved in nutrient transport, tryptophan

metabolism and endocrine functions was evaluated in the ileum and colon of formula-

fed and SM-fed piglets (Table 6 and Supplemental Table S6). Only a few genes were

differentially expressed between formula-fed piglets: the gene expression of

SLC15A1 (peptide transporter) in the ileum and that of GCG (endocrine function) in

the colon was higher and that of IDO (tryptophan metabolism) in the ileum was lower

in HI than AI group (Table 6). In addition, the expression of several other genes

encoding proteins involved in nutrient transport, tryptophan metabolism and

endocrine function in the ileum and colon was different between formula-fed and SM-

fed piglets (Table 6).

Correlation analyses

To get a deeper insight into the individual associations between variables, correlation

analyses were performed between the SynCom bacteria, and microbiota and

physiological variables (Figure 5), and between microbial genera and physiological

variables (Figures S4), in the ileum and colon of formula-fed piglets. In the ileum, the

abundance of ten (out of thirteen SynCom bacteria that were detected in the piglet

microbiota) SynCom bacteria was highly correlated to immune variables, in particular

Bifidobacterium breve (OTU specific of HI group) was correlated to sIgA level in ileal

digesta (Figure 5A). Conversely, the abundance of three SynCom OTUs was only

correlated with a few ileal barrier variables (BD2, OCLN) (Figure 5A). It is noteworthy

that only three SynCom OTUs, either common to SynComs AI and HI

(*Bifidobacterium bifidum* and *Rothia mucilaginosa*) or specific to SynCom HI

(*Staphylococcus capitis*), were correlated with physiological variables in the colon

(Figure 5B). Regarding correlations between SynCom bacteria and microbiota

genera in the ileum and colon, all SynCom OTUs correlated with several genera in

the ileum (Figure 5C) while nine of them correlated with several other genera in the

colon (Figure 5D). Finally, the individual associations between microbiota genera and

physiological variables were analysed separately in the ileum (Supplemental Figure

S4A) and the colon (Supplemental Figure S4B) of formula-fed piglets. The

abundances of microbiota genera were positively or negatively correlated ($p < 0.05$

and |r| > 0.7) with 30.6 % of total physiological variables analysed in the ileum, and with 77.6 % of total physiological variables analysed in the colon. These results support the HM bacteria-driven influence of gut microbiota composition on multiple gut functions.

Discussion

The aim of our study was to evaluate the effect of two SynComs with similar taxonomic composition, representative of the taxonomic diversity of the HM cultivable bacteria, but with contrasting immunomodulatory properties as characterized *in vitro* on an intestinal quadricellular model (9), on gut physiology and microbiota in piglets used as a human infant model. Our data provide evidence that the majority of the bacteria assembled in the SynComs were present in the intestine of piglets fed SynCom-supplemented formulas and that the two SynComs differentially affected the intestinal immune and barrier functions and microbiota composition. The SynCom HI showed a global effect on intestinal immune markers and, to a lesser extent, barrier function, associated with changes in microbial composition, particularly within Bacillota. In contrast, the immune and barrier effects of the SynCom AI were less pronounced than those of SynCom HI. In addition, correlation studies revealed some correlations between several SynCom bacteria and both microbiota composition and intestinal functions, mainly in the ileum. Additional correlations between intestinal functions and several genera not provided by SynComs were demonstrated in the colon and, to a limited extent, in the ileum, suggesting that the addition of SynComs in formulas also induced physiological changes through changes in microbiota composition.

The HM bacteria assembled in SynComs were safe and did not induce intestinal

disorders or growth differences in piglets among the three formula-fed groups. OTUs

corresponding to the added SynCom bacteria were present in the intestine,

consistent with vertical transfer of HM bacteria to the infant gut and the fecal

presence of probiotic bacteria during the supplementation period (10, 17–20). In fact,

metabarcoding analysis of the three formulas allowed to specifically match the

bacteria assembled in the two SynComs and the corresponding OTUs in the

formulas and the intestine. Most SynCom OTUs were identified in ileal and, at a

lower abundance, in colonic digesta and feces, allowing for the intestinal presence of

all SynCom bacteria, with the exception of *Cutibacterium*, *Lactobacillus gasseri,* and

V*eillonella* strains. This may be explained by the use of the V3-V4 regions, which

were not optimal for amplification of the 16S rRNA gene for *Cutibacterium* (21). Of

note, although most SynCom OTUs were retrieved from intestinal microbiota of

SynCom-supplemented piglets, we cannot distinguish between gut colonization by

these SynCom bacteria or their simple transit, as piglets were fed SynCom daily

throughout the experiment. In addition, the use of a metabarcoding approach does

not allow conclusions about the physiological state of the SynCom bacteria (either

alive or not). Notably, the relative abundance of these SynCom OTUs varied from

0.0002 to 0.86 % of the total OTUs in the ileum and colon, suggesting that certain

bacterial species of SynComs had the ability to grow, colonize and persist in the

mucosal environment. It was shown that *Lacticaseibacillus rhamnosus* and

Leuconostoc mesenteroides isolated from HM and added to the diet, colonized and

multiplied in the germ-free mouse intestine and this was also suggested for

Streptococcus, Staphylocccus, *Corynebacterium* and *Cutibacterium* (22, 23).

Alternatively, the differences in the relative abundance of SynCom bacteria in the

ileum and colon may be related to the survival rate of SynCom strains in the intestinal

environment, as previously reported (24–26).

The observed direct effect of SynCom bacteria on intestinal immune and barrier

functions highlights the modulatory role of HM-derived bacteria on intestinal

physiology. Indeed, ten and four of the thirteen SynCom OTUs that were detected in

the piglet microbiota, were correlated with ileal markers of immune and epithelial

barrier functions, respectively. Such functional roles of SynCom bacteria confirmed

their immunomodulatory profiles as characterized *in vitro* (9). Correlations between

the SynCom OTUs and ileal immune variables concerned OTUs common to the

SynComs AI and HI or specific to one of them, and belonging to *Rothia mucilaginosa,*

Bifidobacterium breve, Corynebacterium sp., *Staphylococcus haemolyticus, Winkia*

neuii and *Micrococcus luteus*. Our results are consistent with the recognized

immunomodulatory role of *Bifidobacterium* strains as probiotics (27–31). They also

reinforce the scarce information available on HM genera such as *Corynebacterium,*

Staphylococcus, Rothia, Micrococcus, Winkia, confirming their potential interest in

terms of probiotic use when assembled in SynComs.

In addition to the presence of SynCom bacteria in the intestine, supplementation of

formulas with SynComs AI and HI induced changes in the composition of the

microbiota. At PND24, microbial α-diversity was higher in the HI than in the CTRL

formula-fed ileum. Several taxa were differentially abundant among the three

formula-fed groups, regardless of intestinal compartment. More than half of the taxa

that were differentially abundant among the three formula-fed groups were

differentially abundant between AI and HI piglets. In addition, microbial α-diversity in

PND8 feces and PND24 ileal content was lower in SM than in CTRL piglets,

consistent with results reported in 0- to 6-month-old breastfed infants and in HM-fed

piglets compared to formula-fed piglets (5, 32, 33). Interestingly, the number of taxa

with differential abundance between HI and SM groups in the ileum and colon was

lower than between CTRL and SM. It highlights that SynCom HI may drive changes

in microbiota composition towards that of SM-fed piglets, although no differences in

β-diversity were observed between formula-fed piglets.

The formula supplementation with SynCom HI induced specific changes in the

abundance of several genera belonging to the Bacillota and Bacteroidota phyla

compared to the formula supplementation with SynCom AI. The abundance of

Clostridium sensu stricto 1, *Eubacterium*, *Romboutsia* and *Turicibacter* belonging to

Bacillota and *Prevotellaceae UCG-003* (Bacteroidota) was higher in HI than in CTRL

ileum. Several of these genera (*Eubacterium*, *Prevotellaceae UCG-003*, *Clostridium*

sensu stricto 1 and *Turicibacter*) were positively correlated with the TNFα response

of ileal PP cells. Likewise, in the colon, *Anaerococcus*, a member of the Clostridiales

vadimBB6 group family and *Sutterella* whose abundances were higher in HI and/or

AI compared to CTRL, correlated with the expression of colonic genes involved in

mucosal immunity. These correlations suggest the involvement of these genera

affected by SynCom supplementation in the maturation of the intestinal immune

system. Early immune boost reported in breastfed infants and HM-fed piglets was

associated with the composition of the microbiota (5, 34–37). The specific importance

of Bacillota in the induction of immune ontogeny, essential for regulating

susceptibility to immunopathologies later in life, has been demonstrated in rodents

(38). The genera *Clostridium* and *Prevotellaceae UCG-003* are known to be

important genera of the preweaning piglet microbiota (39–41). An increase in the

abundance of *Clostridium*, among others, has been shown to have beneficial long-

term effects on post-weaning health (42, 43). *Turicibacter*, and *Clostridium* are

hallmarks of immune status. Indeed, the abundance of *Turicibacter* was decreased in

immunodeficient mice (44, 45) and negatively correlated with immune-related

adverse events (46). That of *Clostridium* was positively correlated with fecal

calprotectin concentration, an indicator of immune maturation, in preterm infants (36).

It is noteworthy that other genera, such as *Romboutsia*, *Eubacterium oxidoreducens*

group, which did not differ between groups, also correlated with immune genes, as

previously shown (47). In addition, at PND8 the early increase in acetate in HI feces

compared to CTRL and AI feces may be involved in immune maturation, SCFAs

having immunogenic activity locally within the intestine and at systemic level (48).

Interestingly, a direct effect of the HI SynCom *Bifidobacterium breve* (OTU 205) on

sIgA was suggested by its positive correlation with ileal sIgA levels, as well as an

indirect effect illustrated by its positive correlation with the genera *Bavaricoccus,*

Blautia and *Clostridiales vadinBB60 group* (Bacillota) and *Sutterella*

(Pseudomonadota), which were also associated with ileal sIgA levels. sIgA plays an

important role in the intestinal defense against bacterial pathogens, by limiting the

adhesion of potentially harmful antigens to mucosal tissues and neutralizing their

toxins and virulence factors. Thus, sIgA is a relevant marker for the development of

the immune system in infants. Compared to breastfed infants, fecal sIgA

concentrations were decreased in formula-fed infants and restored with probiotic

supplementation (49–51). Taken together, our data suggest a beneficial effect of

Syncom HI-induced changes in microbiota composition on immune markers.

Formula supplementation with Syncom AI modulated the abundance of genera,

increasing that of *Staphylococcus* (ileum, colon, and feces), *Alistipes* (colon and

feces), and *Parasuterella* (colon), and decreasing that of *Peptococcus* and

Parasutterella (ileum) compared to the CTRL and HI groups. *Alistipes*, considered to

be a human gut commensal involved in protein fermentation, has been associated

with the immune system, but with conflicting evidence on its effects (52, 53), and

Alistipes onderdonkii has shown interest as an anti-inflammatory probiotic in

transplant recipients (54). *Parasutterella*, a member of the human core gut

microbiota, has diverse roles, including a role in tryptophan and bile acid metabolism,

and protective effects against metabolic disease (55, 56) and in maintaining host

immunity during late pregnancy in mice (57). Regarding *Peptococcus*, some studies

have suggested that it may be pathogenic, and it has been shown to be associated

with diarrhea in piglets and ulcerative colitis in humans (58, 59). In addition, niacin-

induced relief of intestinal inflammatory symptoms was associated with a decrease in

Peptococcus abundance (60). Therefore, the effect of SynCom AI-induced changes

in the composition of the intestinal microbiota in terms of immune consequences was

not entirely clear from the literature.

The correlations between several genera, whose abundance was altered or not with

the SynCom supplementation, and colonic barrier variables (genes encoding tight

junction proteins and mucins) illustrate the relationship between the microbiota and

intestinal barrier functions, although no difference in *ex vivo* paracellular permeability

was observed between the formula-fed groups in the ileum and colon. It is

noteworthy that the higher paracellular permeability in the SM ileum was consistent

with the higher permeability reported in some studies in breastfed infants (61) and

HM-fed piglets (5) compared to formula-fed piglets. In agreement, the expression of

some genes encoding tight junction proteins was hardly modulated between formula-

fed piglets, but decreased in SM piglets, with sometimes, an intermediate situation

for HI piglets. It has been reported that high intestinal permeability, which facilitates

the passage of molecules across the epithelium, influences the maturation of the

immune system and the acquisition of tolerance to indigenous bacterial and dietary

antigens (62). Additional changes in the expression of genes involved in other

functions (nutrient transport, endocrine function and tryptophan metabolism) were

significantly correlated with numerous genera in the ileum and colon microbiota,

reinforcing the evidence for an effect of SynComs AI and HI on intestinal functions

through changes in the composition of the intestinal microbiota.

In conclusion, HM-derived bacteria can reach the intestinal compartments and

influence the intestinal epithelium, its immune function and the microbiota. Consistent

with our *in vitro* study on a quadricellular model mimicking the intestinal epithelium,

we confirmed that SynComs with contrasting immunomodulatory properties but

similar taxonomic composition can differentially modulate the developmental profile

of intestinal functions. The immunostimulatory profile of SynCom HI induced deeper

changes in intestinal immune properties than the anti-inflammatory profile of SynCom

AI. A major limitation of our study was that the SynComs, with 11 strains, did not fully

represent the complexity of the HM microbiota. Furthermore, the strains were

assembled in equal proportions, whereas dominant taxa are observed in the HM

microbiota (4, 6). Despite its limitations, this study highlights that the continuous

supply of HM-like SynComs in the diet, at physiological doses - 5.5×10^5 CFU/mL,

which is in the upper mid-range of HM bacterial load - was sufficient to induce short-

term physiological effects in a SynCom-dependent manner. Further investigation is

needed to more fully characterize long-term health effects. In addition, such

apparently beneficial effects, mainly observed with SynCom HI in healthy infants,

should be evaluated in unhealthy situations where the immune system is challenged,

such as in allergic situations, which are common in infants.

Materials & Methods

Animal study

The study was designed and conducted at INRAE experimental facilities (Pig Physiology and Phenotyping Experimental Facility, Saint-Gilles, France, doi 10.15454/1.5573932732039927E12; Agreement No. D35-275-32) in accordance with the current ethical standards of the European Community (Directive 2010/63/EU), and the French legislation on animal experimentation and ethics. The ethics committees of CREEA (Rennes Committee of Ethics in Animal Experimentation) and of France's Ministry of Higher Education and Research approved (authorization #35727-2022030411197283) the entire procedure described in this protocol. Animal welfare was ensured by daily observation throughout the experiment. The piglets did not receive any medication or antibiotic treatment.

Thirty female and male Yucatan piglets were separated from their dam at postnatal day (PND) 2 and housed in individual stainless-steel metabolic cages. Room temperature was maintained at 30°C for the first week and then lowered at 28°C until the end of the experiment. Piglets were fed one of the three experimental formulas with an automatic milk feeder, as previously described (63). To account for litter-to-litter variation, three piglets with a body weight (BW) close to the mean birth weight of the litter were selected from each litter and assigned to one of the three formulas. Mean birth weight of selected piglets was 0.849 ± 0.023 kg. Allocation to formulas was balanced between groups for birth weight, BW at PND2 and gender. Formulas were daily rehydrated to 20 % dry matter extract in water prior to distribution. Formula supply was divided into ten meals that were automatically distributed throughout the day. BW was measured twice a week and feeding amounts were adjusted accordingly. The daily net energy offered was 1450 kJ/kg per $BW^{0.75}$.

Formula intake was automatically recorded for each meal. In addition, six piglets

selected from the same litters as the formula-fed piglets were allowed to suckle the

sow naturally (SM) to provide benchmarks for gut development and microbiota. All

piglets were euthanized at PND24 (± 2.6 days) and tissues were collected.

Diets and synthetic bacterial communities

Formulas were manufactured at a semi-industrial pilot scale at Bionov (Rennes,

France). The three formulas had the same nutritional content (Supplemental Table

S1). They differed by the bacterial supplementation: two HM-derived SynComs with

anti-inflammatory (AI) *vs.* high immunomodulatory (HI) properties (9) as described in

Table 1, or no bacterial supplementation for the control (CTRL) formula.

The AI and HI SynComs were each composed of 11 strains in equal proportions.

Three of the strains were common to both SynComs and a further eight strains were

specific to each SynCom. Firstly, the two SynComs were designed to mimic HM

microbiota with representatives of genera frequently found in HM and with at least,

one representative of the 4 most widespread genera of the cultivable HM microbiota:

Staphylococcus, *Cutibacterium*, *Streptococcus* and *Corynebacterium* (6). Secondly,

to consider the wide variability in the immunomodulatory capacities of HM bacteria,

the 2 communities were assembled to have theoretically contrasting

immunomodulatory effects, depending on their individual properties, as previously

described (9). The SynCom AI was designed to display mainly anti-inflammatory

properties and the SynCom HI to display both anti- and pro-inflammatory properties.

Each bacterial strain was cultured separately on its optimal growth medium for 1 to 5

days as previously described (9) and its concentration was estimated with an OD

measurement. Bacterial cells were harvested by centrifugation (6000 g, 10 min, 4°C),

washed with 0.9 % (wt /vol) saline solution, pooled and resuspended in the formula.

Daily doses equivalent to a 500-fold concentrated bacterial suspension (total

bacterial concentration of 2.75 x 10^8 Colony Forming Units (CFU)/mL) were prepared

and stored at -80°C until used. After thawing in a water bath at 37°C for a few

minutes, AI and HI bacterial doses were added in the AI and HI diets, respectively, at

a total bacterial concentration of 5.5 x 10^5 CFU/mL of formula (corresponding to a

concentration of 5 x10^4 CFU/mL of formula for each strain).

Sample collection

Diet

Fifteen mL milk samples were collected from sows nursing the SM piglets on day 20

postpartum. Injection of oxytocin (2 mL, Laboratoires Biové, Arques, France) was

carried out to facilitate milking. Before sampling, the sow teats were thoroughly

washed with water and soap and rinsed with sterile physiological water (0.9 % NaCl)

before cleaning with ethanol. Samples of formulas CTRL, AI and HI were also

randomly collected at the time of rehydration of formula powders during the third

week of the experimental period. Sow milk and formula samples were stored at -80°C

until microbiota analysis.

Piglets

During the experimental period, feces were collected at PND8 and stored at -80°C for

microbiota, short-chain fatty acid (SCFA) and sIgA analyses. On the last day of the

experiment, piglets were euthanized 1 h after their last meal by electrical stunning

immediately followed by exsanguination. Blood was collected in 2 BD Vacutainer

CPT (BDBiosciences, NJ, USA) and stored at room temperature until PBMC

extraction. Ileal digesta and tissue were collected from an 80-cm segment anterior to

the ileocecal junction, and colonic digesta and tissue were collected from the first

third part of the colon. Samples of 100 mg ileal and colonic digesta and feces were

immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C for microbiota and sIgA

analyses. In addition, 0.5 to 2 g of ileal and colonic digesta and feces were collected

for SCFA analysis. A 10-cm segment of distal ileum (containing the ileal Peyer Patch

(PP)) was collected, rinsed with ice-cold Hank's balanced saline solution

supplemented with 50 mg/mL gentamicin, 200 UI/mL penicillin, 200 mg/mL

streptomycin and 10 mM hepes for isolation of PP mononuclear cells. The remaining

ileal segment and the proximal colon were rinsed with cold phosphate buffered saline

(PBS). A 10-cm segment was kept in ice-cold Dulbecco's Minimum Essential Medium

(Gibco, Thermo Fisher, France) for immediate Ussing chamber analysis. About 100

mg of ileal (without PP) and colonic tissues were kept in a RNA later solution for 24 h

at 4°C and stored at –20°C until RNA extraction and gene expression analysis.

Finally, adjacent segments (10-cm) were fixed in 4 % paraformaldehyde for 48 h until

further dehydration in ethanol and embedding in paraffin, for morphometry analysis

and goblet cell counting.

Microbiota analysis

Extraction of total bacterial DNA from ileal and colonic digesta and feces was

performed as described in the instruction guide of the Quick-DNA Fecal/Soil Microbe

Miniprep Kit (ZYMO Research, Irvine, USA). Sow milk and formula samples were

pre-treated before total bacterial DNA extraction as described (64). The V3-V4 region

of 16S rRNA gene was amplified using the following primers:

CTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTACTCCTACGGGAGGCAGCAG (V3F)

and GGAGTTCAGACGTGTGCTCTTCCGATCTTACCAGGGTATCTAATCC (V4R),

Phusion® High-Fidelity DNA Polymerase (New England Biolabs, Évry-
Courcouronnes, France) and dNTP (New England Biolabs) for 25 cycles (10 s to
98°C, 30 s at 62°C, and 30 s at 72°C). Agarose gel electrophoresis was performed to
verify amplicon purity prior to sequencing using Illumina MiSeq technology,
performed at the Genotoul GeT-PlaGe platform (Toulouse, France).

SCFA analysis

After collection, ileal and colonic digesta and feces were weighed, mixed with 1 mL
0.5 % orthophosphoric acid solution per g of digesta and centrifuged at 1700 g for 15
min at 4°C. Supernatants were then stored at -20°C until SCFA quantification.
SCFAs were analyzed by High Performance Liquid Chromatography (HPLC, Ultimate
3000, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Courtaboeuf, France). Acid separation was
performed using a Rezek ROA organic acid H+ column (300*7.8mm Phenomenex,
California) with H_2SO_4 0.005M as mobile phase at a flow rate of 0.4ml/min at 60°C.
Two detectors were used: a UV detector (Dionex UVD 170U) operating at 210nm
and a refractometer (RI 2031 Plus Jasco). Quantification was performed with an
external calibration using acetic acid (PanReac, Lyon, France), propanoic, 2-
methylpropanoic, butanoic, 3-methylbutanoic and pentanoic acids (Merck, St.
Quentin Fallavier, France) as standards (5).

Ex vivo **permeability measurement**

Ileal and colonic permeability measurements were performed using Ussing chambers
(Physiological Instruments, San Diego, CA, USA) as described (5). Permeability was
determined using tracer molecules, fluorescein sodium salt (Na-FITC) for paracellular
permeability and peroxidase from horseradish type VI (HRP) for transcellular

permeability. The tracer molecules were added into the apical compartment and

those transferred through the epithelium were analyzed in the serosal compartment.

Concentration of Na-FITC in the samples collected after 120-min incubation from the

serosal buffer was measured by fluorimetry (Varioskan™ LUX multimode microplate

reader, ThermoFisher Scientific, Saint-Herblain, France) whereas concentration of

HRP was determined using spectrophotometry (Varioskan™ LUX multimode

microplate reader, ThermoFisher Scientific, France) after enzymatic reaction using o-

Dianisidine dihydrochloride as substrate (Merck, Molsheim, France).

Histomorphometry analysis

Histomorphometric analysis was performed after alcian blue and periodic acid Schiff

staining on 7 µm sections of formalin-fixed and paraffin-embedded ileal and colonic

tissues. Sections were analysed using a light microscope (Nikon Eclipse E400, Nikon

Instruments, France) with image processing software (NIS-Elements AR 3.0, Nikon

Instruments), as described (65). Villus and crypt sizes and goblet cell density were

measured in at least 15-20 crypt-villus units per piglet.

Cell isolation and *in vitro* culture

PBMC extraction was performed within 2 h after collection following the manufacturer

instructions of the BD Vacutainer CPT (BDBiosciences, NJ, USA). After centrifuging

the BD Vacutainer CPT tube at 1500 g for 20 min, the cell ring was recovered. The

PBMC cells obtained were resuspended with 10 mL of HBSS supplemented with 10

% Foetal Calf Serum (FCS) and centrifuged 10 min at 600 g and 4°C. The

supernatant was discarded. The pellet containing PBMC was resuspended with 7 mL

of Ammonium-Chloride-Potassium (ACK) lysis buffer, and with 7 mL of RPMI

complemented with 10 % FCS and 1 % Penicillin/Streptomycin (complete RPMI).

The suspension was centrifuged 5 min at 600 g and 4°C. The pellet was

resuspended with 14 mL of complete RPMI and centrifuged 10 min at 600 g and 4°C.

Finally, PBMC were suspended in complete RPMI to achieve cell concentration of

4.10^6 cells/mL. Mononuclear cells from freshly-removed ileal PP were isolated as

previously described (65). PP cells were suspended in complete RPMI to achieve cell

concentration of 8.10^6 cells/mL.

PBMC and PP mononuclear cells were cultured in RPMI complete medium for 48 h

at 37°C in a 5% CO_2 water-saturated atmosphere. Culture was performed in

unstimulated conditions and stimulated conditions with ConA (5 µg/ml of

Concanavalin A from Canavalia ensiformis Merck, Molsheim, France) or LPS

(10 µg/ml of LPS-EB ultrapure from Escherichia coli 0111:B4 strain, InvivoGen, San

Diego, USA). In addition, PP mononuclear cells were cultured at 37°C in a 5 % CO_2

water-saturated atmosphere for 7 days to assess sIgA production. Supernatants of

PBMC and PP cells were collected and following the addition of antiprotease cocktail

1X (SigmaFast, Merck Sigma, Saint Quentin Fallavier, France) stored at –20 °C

until cytokine and sIgA analyses.

Cytokine and sIgA analyses

Concentrations of IL-10 and TNF-α in culture supernatants of PBMC and PP cells

were measured by ELISA (R&D Systems, USA: DY693B and DY985, respectively).

For sIgA analysis, ileal and colonic digesta and fecal samples were 10-fold diluted

with PBS-EDTA (0.5 M) buffer supplemented with a protease inhibitor cocktail (250

µg/L; P2714-1BTL). After a vigorous shaking, suspensions were incubated 30 min at

room temperature on a Rotary laboratory shaker and centrifuged at 18 000 g, 30 min

and 4°C. Supernatants were stored at -20°C until ELISA analysis. Concentration of

sIgA in 7 days-cultured PP cell supernatants as well as in ileal, colonic and fecal

supernatants was assessed as previously described (65).

Gene expression analysis

Total RNA extraction from ileal and colonic tissues was performed using the

"NucleoSpin® RNA" kit (Macherey Nagel). Extracted RNA was quantified using a

DS-11 spectrophotometer (DeNovix, Wilmington, DE, USA). RNA quality and RNA

Integrity Number (RIN) were assayed using the Agilent RNA 6000 Nano kit in

combination with an Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent Technologies France, Massy,

France). Reverse transcription was then carried out on 1 µg of extracted RNAs using

the High Capacity Complementary DNA Reverse Transcription Kit, as previously

described (66).

Quantitative real-time PCR was performed on a 384-well plates real-time PCR

machine using a PowerSYBR green PCR Master Mix kit (4368708, ThermoFisher

Scientific, France) for detection (67). The housekeeping genes selected were

YWHAZ and PGK1 for ileum, and HTPR1 and RPL4 for colon. Relative expressions

of the target genes were determined using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$ method for group comparisons.

Statistical analysis

Data are presented as means ± SEM (standard error of the mean). For microbiota

data, raw sequences were analyzed using the bioinformatic pipeline FROGS (Find

Rapidly OTU with Galaxy Solution) software (68). Data were treated with the

following steps: pre-processing, clustering with swarm algorithms, remove of

chimera, OTU filters, and finally taxonomic affiliation. The descriptive analysis of the

structure (α- and β-diversity) of the microbiota was conducted with the Phyloseq

function (EdgeR package, Bioconductor). The α-diversity index used were Chao1

representing the bacterial richness. Phylogenetic β-diversity was studied using the

Bray-Curtis distances and group differences were evaluated with principal co-

ordinate analysis (PCoA) and permutational multivariate analysis (PERMANOVA) of

variance using distance matrices. Differences in phyla, families, genera and OTUs

were assessed with pairwise comparisons on OTUs or after aggregation at the

desired taxonomic rank (phyloseq tax_glom function) using DESeq2 as described in

(5).

Statistical analysis of the other variables was performed using R software, version

4.3.2. Differences between groups (SM, CTRL, AI and HI) were assessed using a

three-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), testing diet, gender, litter, and interactions

between diet and gender, and diet and litter, followed by Tukey *post hoc* test for

parametric variables. When gender or litter effects or their interactions with diet were

non-significant ($p > 0.05$), these factors were removed from the model. The normal

distribution and the homoscedasticity of the residuals of each linear model were

tested using Shapiro-Wilk and Levene's tests, respectively. When the raw data did

not fulfil these model assumptions, a natural logarithmic transformation of the data

was performed prior to running the linear model. If the assumptions were still not

satisfied, data were tested with a non-parametric Kruskal Wallis test associated with

Dunn test. Differences were considered as statistically significant for $p < 0.05$ and a

trend for difference at $0.05 < p < 0.1$.

For the multidimensional analysis of the three formula-fed groups, Partial Least

Squares Discriminant Analyses (PLS-DA; mixOmics package (69)) were performed

on all the variables measured in the ileum (n=201) and colon (n=250) to calculate

their Variable Importance in Projection (VIP) score (70) on the first and the second

components of the PLS-DA that discriminated the three formula groups. The

variables with a VIP score greater than 1 on components 1 or 2 were selected,

corresponding to 112 variables for the ileum and 141 variables for the colon.

Variables were then divided into eleven groups as follows: Barrier, Immunity,

Microbiota activity, Nutrient transporter, Endocrine and Tryptophan metabolism, plus

five microbiota phyla: Actinomycetota, Bacillota, Bacteroidota, Pseudomonadota, and

'Other   Phyla'   (that   gathered   the   Campylobacterota,   Deferribacterota,

Desulfobacterota, Euryarchaeota, Fusobacteriota, Spirochaetota, Synergistota,

Verrucomicrobiota and Patescibacteria phyla), for the Multifactorial analysis (MFA;

FACTOMINE R package (71, 72)).

Figure legends

Figure 1. Ileal (A) and colonic (B) relative abundances of the OTUs potentially

corresponding to the SynCom strains added in AI and/or HI formulas.

Each individual is represented with one dot; Median with interquartile range; [a,b,c] non-

common letters indicate that piglet groups differed significantly, P < 0.05

Figure 2. Multifactorial analysis (MFA) using microbiota and intestinal variables of

formula-fed piglets (CRTL, AI, HI), and grouped by function or phylum (n = 11 groups

of quantitative variables).

Variables used in the MFA were the most discriminating variables preselected by

Partial Least Squares-Discriminant Analysis (PLS-DA) with a Variable Importance in

Projection (VIP) score > 1 for components 1 and 2 (n=112 and 141 variables in the

ileum and colon, respectively; Supplemental Figure S1 and Table '*Table Individual*

ileal and colonic data used for PLS-DA and MFA' accessible in the repository

https://doi.org/10.57745/ATTHZ3). Red dot line, level of statistical significance

corresponding to the inverse of the number of groups of variables used in the

analyses.

Dim, Dimension

Figure 3. PBMC **(A)** IL-10 and **(B)** TNFα production in unstimulated (basal) and

stimulated (Concanavalin A, ConA) conditions; **(C)** Secretory IgA (sIgA)

concentration in ileal and colonic digesta and feces of formula-fed (CTRL, AI, HI) and

sow milk-fed (SM) piglets at PND24.

[a,b,c,d] non-common letters indicate that piglet groups differed significantly, P < 0.05; #

indicates that piglet groups tended to differ, P < 0.1.

PBMC, Peripheral Blood Mononuclear Cells; PND, postnatal days

Figure 4. Effects of diets on intestinal barrier. Goblet cell density in **(A)** ileal villi, and

(B) ileal and colonic crypts; *ex vivo* (Ussing chamber) epithelial barrier **(C)**

paracellular and **(D)** transcellular permeability in formula-fed (CTRL, AI, HI) and sow

milk-fed (SM) piglets at PND24.

[a,b,c] non-common letters indicate that piglet groups differed significantly, P < 0.05.

PND, postnatal days

Figure 5. Correlation matrix between the relative abundance of the OTUs potentially

corresponding to AI and/or HI SynCom strains and **(A and B)** physiological variables,

(C and D) microbial genera abundances in **(A and C)** ileum and **(B and D)** colon of

formula-fed piglets (|r|> 0.7, *P* < 0.05).

* indicates genera that may partly correspond to the SynCom bacteria added in the

formula.

TNFα Basal PEYER, TNFα secretion by Peyer Patch cells in unstimulated condition;

IL10 LPS PEYER, IL-10 secretion by Peyer Patch cells in LPS-stimulated condition;

isovalerate, isovalerate concentration; the variables in capital letters correspond to

the expression of genes listed in Tables 4 and 5, and Supplemental Table 6.

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Conflict of interest

The authors declare no competing financial interests. The funders had no role in

study design, data collection or the interpretation of the work.

Data Availability Statement

All data generated or analysed during this study are included in this published article

and its supplementary information files. The datasets presented in this study can be

found in online repositories (four Tables named 'Relative abundance of the OTUs

that did not correspond to AI and HI bacteria in formulas', 'Individual ileal and colonic

data used for PLS-DA and MFA', 'OTUs identified in sow milk', 'Cytokine production

by   Peyer   Patch   and   PBMC   cells   in   formula-fed   piglets')

https://doi.org/10.57745/ATTHZ3. In addition, the raw sequences of microbiota
analysis are available on NCBI repositories (PRJNA1197167).

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Contributions

SE, ILHL, YLL and SB conceived the project that led to the submission of this work.
SE and ILHL supervised research; CLB, SE and ILHL designed the experiment; CLB,
GR, AC, PD, SG, RJ, VR, LR, MBM, SE and ILHL acquired data; CLB, SE and ILHL
played an important role in interpreting the results; AB and LR realised the human
milk collection; CLB, SE and ILHL drafted the manuscript and had primary
responsibility for final content. All authors revised and approved the final manuscript.

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1048 **Table 1.** Relative abundances of the Syncom OTUs in formulas, and in the feces at
1049 PND8 and ileum, colon and feces of formula-fed (CRTL, AI and HI) piglets at PND24.
1050 OTUs potentially corresponding to the strains added in SynCom AI and/or HI
1051 formulas are presented together with their relative abundance (in % of total OTUs) in
1052 feces, ileon and colon microbiota.

Strain	added in AI	added in HI	ID[1]	Identification	formulas CTRL	formulas AI	formulas HI	feces PND8[2] CTRL	feces PND8[2] AI	feces PND8[2] HI	feces PND24[2] CTRL	feces PND24[2] AI	feces PND24[2] HI	ileum[2] CTRL	ileum[2] AI	ileum[2] HI	colon[2] CTRL	colon[2] AI	colon[2] HI
Bifidobacterium bifidum (CIRM BIA 2840)	x	x	172	Bifidobacterium bifidum	0.002	1.428	1.286	0.0003		0.0003		0.0003		0.0003	0.0206	0.0170		0.0002	0.0004
Bifidobacterium breve (CIRM BIA 2844)	x		99	Bifidobacterium breve		5.341		0.0003	0.0584	0.0012	0.0002	0.0144	0.0002	0.0006	0.1159	0.0008		0.0103	0.0002
			184	Bifidobacterium breve		2.489			0.0209		0.0004	0.0049		0.0003	0.0485	0.0009		0.0044	0.0003
			2283	Bifidobacterium breve		0.084			0.0009						0.0012				
Bifidobacterium breve (CIRM BIA 2845)		x	205	Bifidobacterium breve			0.893	0.0002	0.0002	0.0011	0.0002		0.0113	0.0006	0.0003	0.2889	0.0003		0.0148
Corynebacterium simulans (CIRM BIA 2853)[3]	x		78	Corynebacterium sp.	0.002	7.205	1.575	0.0005	0.0180	0.0043	0.0002	0.0288	0.0119		0.3388	0.0709	0.0002	0.0147	0.0065
Corynebacterium kroppenstedtii (CIRM BIA 2852)[3]		x	78	Corynebacterium sp.	0.002	7.205	1.575	0.0005	0.0180	0.0043	0.0002	0.0288	0.0119		0.3388	0.0709	0.0002	0.0147	0.0065
Lactobacillus gasseri[4] (CIRM BIA 2841)	x		10	Lactobacillus sp.	0.025	3.212	0.022	0.0967	0.1923	0.1277	0.3195	0.3337	0.2538	8.4725	12.053	10.764	0.5893	0.7879	0.4547
			1622	Lactobacillus sp.		0.018			0.0007					0.0357	0.0347	0.0466	0.0010	0.0005	
Lactobacillus jensenii (CIRM BIA 2839)		x	203	Lactobacillus jensenii			1.566			0.0006			0.0009		0.0006	0.0127	0.0005	0.0002	0.0008
Micrococcus luteus (CIRM BIA 2843)		x	204	Micrococcus sp.	0.002		1.676		0.0002		0.0002		0.0005	0.0003		0.0181		0.0006	0.0023
Rothia mucilaginosa (CIRM BIA 2847)	x	x	209	Rothia mucilaginosa		1.283	0.629	0.0002	0.0002	0.0002	0.0002	0.0008			0.0225	0.0117		0.0002	0.0002
Staphylococcus haemolyticus (CIRMBP-1635)	x		94	Staphylococcus haemolyticus	0.004	13.97	0.002	0.0040	0.0166	0.0071	0.0019	0.0150	0.0018	0.0512	0.8563	0.0184	0.0036	0.0245	0.0026
			3443	Staphylococcus sp.		0.088								0.0007	0.0102				
			3980	Staphylococcus sp.		0.043					0.0002			0.0003	0.0015	0.0002			
			5808	Staphylococcus sp.		0.018								0.0013	0.0221	0.0007			
Staphylococcus capitis (CIRMBP-1634)		x	41	Staphylococcus capitis	0.009	0.191	43.10	0.0175	0.0036	0.0035	0.0029	0.0030	0.0175	0.0415	0.0311	0.4045	0.0036	0.0032	0.0186
			2175	Staphylococcus sp.			0.043	0.0003			0.0002			0.0005		0.0022			
			2556	Staphylococcus sp.			0.061									0.0010			
			2648	Staphylococcus sp.		0.002	0.051					0.0002		0.0008	0.0008	0.0097			
			3748	Staphylococcus sp.			0.038							0.0002	0.0003	0.0026	0.0003		
		x	2175	Staphylococcus sp.			0.043												
Staphylococcus epidermidis (CIRMBP-1633)			2556	Staphylococcus sp.			0.061									0.0010			
			2648	Staphylococcus sp.		0.002	0.051					0.0002		0.0008	0.0008	0.0097			
			3748	Staphylococcus sp.			0.038							0.0002	0.0003	0.0026	0.0003		
Streptococcus infantis (CIRMBP-1636)	x		1690	Streptococcus sp.		0.032	0.097					0.0002		0.0011	0.0006				
			1091	Streptococcus sp.	0.002	0.084	0.025								0.0003				
Streptococcus salivarius (CIRM BIA 2846)		x	1690	Streptococcus sp.		0.032	0.097												
			1091	Streptococcus sp.	0.002	0.084	0.025												
Winkia neuii (CIRM BIA 2850)	x		127	Winkia neuii		4.899		0.0002	0.0067			0.0125		0.0003	0.1470	0.0002	0.0003	0.0075	0.0005
Veillonella dispar (CIRM BIA 2842)	x	x		No corresponding OTU															
Cutibacterium granulosum (CIRM BIA 2851)	x			No corresponding OTU															
Cutibacterium granulosum (CIRM BIA 2848)		x		No corresponding OTU															
Cutibacterium acnes (CIRM BIA 2849)	x			No corresponding OTU															

[1] ID of OTUs identified in formulas

[2] In bold, significative differential abundances in AI or HI formula-fed piglets

compared to CTRL formula-fed piglets; in italic, significative differential abundances

between HI and AI formula-fed piglets (Deseq analysis)

[3] *Corynebacterium simulans* CIRM BIA 2853 and *Corynebacterium kroppenstedtii*

CIRM BIA 2852 were associated to a single OTU (78)

[4] For *Lactobacillus gasseri*, two OTUs of *Lactobacillus sp.* (10 and 1622) were

identified in the intestinal compartments without any possibility to discriminate

between the strain added in SynCom AI and those of the piglet intestine microbiota,

knowing that *Lactobacillus* was highly predominant in the ileum and colon of the

three formula-fed groups.

It is noteworthy that additional OTUs were also identified in the three prepared

formulas (Table *'Relative abundance of the OTUs that did not correspond to the AI*

and HI bacteria in formulas' available on the online dataverse

https://doi.org/10.57745/ATTHZ3), as early as the rehydration of formula powders.

These additional OTUs were not differentially abundant between the three rehydrated

formulas, suggesting that this environmental contamination probably occurred during

the process of formula manufacturing and/or were present in dairy ingredients.

PND, postnatal day

1072

Phylum	Family	Genus	CTRL vs. AI		CTRL vs. HI		AI vs. HI	
			p-adjusted	log₂ (Fold Change)	p-adjusted	log₂ (Fold Change)	p-adjusted	log₂ (Fold Change)
ILEUM								
Bacteroidota			0.014	1.54	NS		0.034	-1.40
Campylobacterota			<0.001	15.58	NS		<0.001	-15.89
Pseudomonadota			0.045	1.90	NS		NS	
Actinomycetota	Actinomycetaceae		0.001	-2.55	0.036	-1.92	NS	
Bacteroidota	Bacteroidaceae		NS		NS		0.003	-2.02
	Marinifilaceae		<0.001	-11.41	<0.001	-13.02	NS	
Bacillota	Anaerovoracaceae		NS		0.022	-2.36	0.004	-2.50
	Lachnospiraceae		NS		NS		0.049	-1.07
	Lactobacillaceae		0.002	1.81	NS		NS	
	Peptococcaceae		<0.001	18.81	NS		<0.001	-19.10
	Peptostreptococcaceae		NS		0.006	-3.30	NS	
	Ruminococcaceae		NS		NS		0.041	-1.29
	Staphylococcaceae		<0.001	-7.29	NS		<0.001	8.46
	Turicibacteraceae		NS		0.020	-3.08	0.012	-3.08
	UCG-010		NS		<0.001	17.77	<0.001	16.94
Actinomycetota	Actinomycetaceae	Actinomyces	<0.001	-3.27	0.050	-2.17	NS	
Bacteroidota	Marinifilaceae	Butyricimonas	<0.001	-11.78	<0.001	-12.91	NS	
	Prevotellaceae	Prevotellaceae UCG-003	NS		<0.001	-12.89	<0.001	-42.53
Bacillota	Clostridiaceae	Clostridium sensu stricto 1	NS		0.038	-3.09	NS	
	Eubacteriales incertae sedis	Evtepia	NS		NS		0.008	-2.28
	Family XI	Anaerococcus	0.006	15.81	NS		<0.001	-19.50
	Lachnospiraceae	Eubacterium fissicatena grp	NS		0.030	-2.60	NS	
	Peptococcaceae	Peptococcus	<0.001	17.37	NS		<0.001	-17.96
	Peptostreptococcaceae	Romboutsia	NS		0.011	-3.66	NS	
	Staphylococcaceae	Staphylococcus	<0.001	-8.65	NS		<0.001	9.57
	Streptococcaceae	Lactococcus	0.030	3.40	NS		NS	
	Turicibacteraceae	Turicibacter	NS		0.038	-3.27	NS	
	UCG-10	unknown genus	NS		<0.001	15.94	<0.001	15.41
Pseudomonadota	Sutterellaceae	Parasutterella	<0.001	16.46	NS		<0.001	-16.34
COLON								
Bacteroidota	Marinifilaceae		<0.001	-41.87	<0.001	-33.32	0.036	8.55
Bacillota	Butyricicoccaceae		<0.001	2.77	NS		NS	
	Clostridia vadinBB6 group		NS		0.015	-5.11	0.028	-4.50
	Family XI		<0.001	-17.32	<0.001	-22.49	0.007	-5.18
	Staphylococcaceae		<0.001	-4.38	NS		<0.001	5.37
Bacteroidota	Marinifilaceae	Butyricimonas	<0.001	-42.10	<0.001	-33.50	NS	
	Rikenellaceae	Alistipes	<0.001	-6.59	NS		<0.001	7.14
Bacillota	Butyricicoccaceae	Butyricicoccus	0.003	2.81	NS		NS	
	Clostridia vadinBB6 group	unknown genus	0.016	-5.11	NS		NS	
	Family XI	Anaerococcus	NS		<0.001	-23.78	<0.001	-24.17
	Lactobacillaceae	Leuconostoc	0.017	2.77	NS		NS	
	Staphylococcaceae	Staphylococcus	0.001	-4.67	NS		<0.001	5.36
	Streptococcaceae	Lactococcus	NS		NS		0.003	-4.24
Pseudomonadota	Sutterellaceae	Parasutterella	<0.001	-16.04	<0.001	-23.51	NS	
FECES								
Actinomycetota	Actinomycetaceae		0.023	-2.28	0.001	-2.75	NS	
	Atopobiaceae		NS		0.016	3.03	NS	
Bacteroidota	Marinifilaceae		0.046	-8.12	<0.001	38.06	<0.001	-46.18
Bacillota	Carnobacteriaceae		0.023	4.16	0.023	3.95	NS	
	Family XI		NS		<0.001	-7.90	<0.001	7.95
	Staphylococcaceae		<0.001	-5.88	NS		<0.001	6.20
Actinomycetota	Actinomycetaceae	Actinomyces	0.003	-2.91	0.007	-2.90	NS	
	Eggerthellaceae	Eggerthella	<0.001	-45.80	<0.001	-43.93	NS	
Bacteroidota	Marinifilaceae	Butyricimonas	0.036	-8.30	<0.001	-35.57	<0.001	43.87
	Muribaculaceae	Muribaculum	NS		<0.001	11.01	<0.001	8.06
	Rikenellaceae	Alistipes	<0.001	-8.15	NS		<0.001	7.83
Bacillota	Carnobacteriaceae	Granulicatella	0.027	4.11	NS		NS	
	Eubacteriaceae	Eubacterium	0.001	-9.82	<0.001	-9.25	NS	
	Family XI	Anaerococcus	0.003	-16.95	<0.001	-24.23	NS	
	Lactobacillaceae	Leuconostoc	0.005	2.85	NS		NS	
	Peptostreptococcaceae	Peptostreptococcus	0.044	-3.40	NS		NS	
	Staphylococcaceae	Staphylococcus	<0.001	-6.16	NS		<0.001	6.38
	Streptococcaceae	Lactococcus	0.003	4.15	NS		NS	

1076
1077 Log₂ Fold Change, the Fold Change indicates the significant differential abundance
1078 of bacteria (at phylum, family or genus level) in the first cited group compared to the
1079 second cited group (Deseq analysis). For example, Bacteroidota abundance is higher
1080 in CTRL ileum than in AI one.
1081 PND, postnatal days.

		CTRL		AI		HI		SM		p-value
Concentration (mmol/kg dry matter)[1]	Acetate	23.64	± 4.50	26.61	± 6.80	24.45	± 7.30	47.81	± 12.20	0.255
	Propionate	6.85	± 1.1[a]	8.20	± 1.9[a]	6.98	± 1.7[a]	19.80	± 5.2[b]	0.007
	Butyrate	2.68	± 0.4[a]	3.12	± 0.6[a]	3.07	± 0.9[a]	7.43	± 1.5[b]	0.017
	Valerate	0.95	± 0.2[a]	0.77	± 0.1[a]	0.97	± 0.2[a]	3.06	± 0.8[b]	0.004
	Isobutyrate	0.34	± 0.1[a]	0.31	± 0.1[a]	0.40	± 0.1[a]	2.14	± 0.4[b]	0.002
	Isovalerate	0.96	± 0.2[a]	1.20	± 0.2[a]	1.69	± 0.7[a]	3.91	± 0.6[b]	0.001
	Total SCFA	35.42	± 6.2[a]	40.20	± 9.4[a]	37.56	± 10.8[a]	84.16	± 20.4[b]	0.034
Proportion (%)	Acetate	64.39	± 2.4[b]	63.68	± 1.5[b]	63.53	± 2.1[b]	54.84	± 3.5[a]	0.016
	Propionate	20.18	± 1.1[a]	20.63	± 0.6[b]	19.89	± 1[a]	22.83	± 1[c]	0.002
	Butyrate	8.72	± 1.20	8.86	± 0.80	8.32	± 0.60	9.82	± 1.30	0.152
	Valerate	2.93	± 0.3[ab]	2.43	± 0.3[a]	2.89	± 0.3[ab]	3.84	± 0.5[b]	0.018
	Isobutyrate	0.92	± 0.1[a]	0.83	± 0.1[a]	1.05	± 0.1[b]	2.86	± 0.3[c]	0.001
	Isovalerate	2.85	± 0.30[a]	3.57	± 0.60[a]	4.32	± 0.90[ab]	5.81	± 1.3[b]	0.031

1084
1085
1086 Data are presented as means ± SEM

1087 [1] SCFA concentration are expressed as mmol / kg dry matter of colonic digesta.

1088 [a,b,c] non-common letters indicate that piglet groups differed significantly (P < 0.05).

1089 SCFA, short chain fatty acids.

1090

 Table 4. Ileal and colonic immune-related genes, which were differentially expressed

 between formula-fed (AI, HI and CTRL) and sow milk-fed (SM) piglets at PND24.

Site	Function	Protein name	Gene	CTRL			AI			HI			SM			p value
Ileum	Anti-inflammatory	*Suppressor Of Cytokine Signalling 3*	*SOCS3*	*1.04*	*±*	*0.12*	*1.33*	*±*	*0.21*	*1.12*	*±*	*0.11*	*0.92*	*±*	*0.17*	*0.069*
	Pro-inflammatory	**C-C Motif Chemokine Ligand 2**	CCL2	1.11	±	0.22^{ab}	1.59	±	0.16^{b}	1.38	±	0.12^{ab}	0.97	±	0.10^{a}	0.046
		C-C Motif Chemokine Ligand 20	CCL20	1.78	±	0.24^{b}	1.51	±	0.19^{ab}	1.21	±	0.18^{ab}	0.99	±	0.1^{a}	0.048
		C-X3-C Motif chemokine Ligand 1	CX3CL1	1.08	±	0.14^{b}	1.25	±	0.1^{b}	1.21	±	0.13^{b}	0.67	±	0.07^{a}	0.017
		Interferon gamma	*IFNg*	*1.23*	*±*	*0.31*	*1.35*	*±*	*0.18*	*1.78*	*±*	*0.41*	*0.77*	*±*	*0.23*	*0.067*
		Interleukin 4	*IL4*	*1.17*	*±*	*0.21*	*2.09*	*±*	*0.36*	*1.48*	*±*	*0.31*	*0.93*	*±*	*0.19*	*0.089*
		Interleukin 6	IL6	1.28	±	0.19^{a}	2.18	±	0.27^{b}	1.41	±	0.19^{ab}	1.57	±	0.28^{ab}	0.034
		Interleukin 8	*IL8*	*1.08*	*±*	*0.20*	*1.14*	*±*	*0.23*	*0.95*	*±*	*0.21*	*0.56*	*±*	*0.09*	*0.094*
		Tumor necrosis factor alpha	*TNFa*	*1.15*	*±*	*0.21*	*1.56*	*±*	*0.18*	*1.06*	*±*	*0.15*	*1.05*	*±*	*0.14*	*0.088*
		Tumor necrosis factor alpha rcpt 1	TNFaR1	1.07	±	0.16^{b}	1.06	±	0.11^{b}	1.32	±	0.15^{c}	0.61	±	0.09^{a}	0.009
	Antioxidant activity	**Superoxide dismutase 2**	SOD2	1.07	±	0.13^{b}	1.00	±	0.07^{b}	1.28	±	0.14^{c}	0.75	±	0.09^{a}	0.009
	Treg pathway	**Forkhead box P3**	FOXP3	1.10	±	0.16^{a}	1.48	±	0.14^{b}	0.97	±	0.11^{a}	1.24	±	0.08^{ab}	0.008
Colon	Anti-inflammatory	**Interleukin 10**	IL10	1.11	±	0.18^{a}	1.15	±	0.22^{a}	0.90	±	0.19^{a}	2.26	±	0.55^{b}	0.013
		Suppressor Of Cytokine Signalling 3	SOCS3	1.04	±	0.14^{a}	1.31	±	0.4^{a}	1.43	±	0.39^{ab}	2.48	±	0.17^{b}	0.047
	Pro-inflammatory	**C-C Motif Chemokine Ligand 20**	CCL20	1.21	±	0.21^{ab}	1.34	±	0.26^{ab}	1.74	±	0.32^{b}	0.89	±	0.25^{a}	0.027
		C-X3-C Motif chemokine Ligand 1	*CX3CL1*	*1.01*	*±*	*0.06*	*0.94*	*±*	*0.09*	*0.96*	*±*	*0.08*	*1.26*	*±*	*0.10*	*0.080*
		Interleukin 1-Beta	IL1b	1.20	±	0.31^{a}	2.16	±	0.83^{ab}	2.17	±	0.74^{ab}	4.19	±	0.75^{b}	0.030
		Interleukin 4	*IL4*	*1.14*	*±*	*0.2*	*1.69*	*±*	*0.33*	*0.87*	*±*	*0.13*	*1.17*	*±*	*0.20*	*0.067*
		Interleukin 6	IL6	1.11	±	0.19^{a}	1.12	±	0.12^{a}	1.64	±	0.26^{ab}	2.30	±	0.52^{b}	0.006
		Interleukin 8	*IL8*	*1.05*	*±*	*0.14*	*1.47*	*±*	*0.31*	*1.67*	*±*	*0.36*	*1.72*	*±*	*0.17*	*0.052*
		Tumor necrosis factor alpha rcpt 1	*TNFaR1*	*0.99*	*±*	*0.07*	*0.98*	*±*	*0.06*	*1.04*	*±*	*0.07*	*1.23*	*±*	*0.06*	*0.094*
	Receptor/cellular signalling	*Myeloid Differentiation Primary Response Gene*	*MYD88*	*1.00*	*±*	*0.08*	*0.99*	*±*	*0.08*	*1.01*	*±*	*0.06*	*1.27*	*±*	*0.09*	*0.067*
		Toll-like receptor 2	*TLR2*	*1.01*	*±*	*0.08*	*1.11*	*±*	*0.13*	*1.59*	*±*	*0.32*	*0.91*	*±*	*0.06*	*0.099*
		Toll-like receptor 4	TLR4	1.03	±	0.1^{a}	1.07	±	0.1^{ab}	1.14	±	0.13^{ab}	1.50	±	0.15^{b}	0.042
	Antioxidant activity	**Superoxide dismutase 2**	SOD2	1.10	±	0.17^{a}	1.29	±	0.17^{b}	1.38	±	0.09^{c}	1.36	±	0.1^{c}	0.003
	Treg pathway	**Forkhead box P3**	FOXP3	1.08	±	0.18^{b}	0.91	±	0.14^{ab}	0.67	±	0.10^{a}	2.02	±	0.36^{c}	0.001

 Data are presented as means ± SEM ; [a,b,c] non-common letters indicate that piglet

 groups differed significantly ($P < 0.05$) ; bold indicates p-values inferior to 0.05 ; italic

 indicates a tendency with p-values between 0.05 and 0.1.

 PND, postnatal days

1099 **Table 5.** Ileal and colonic genes related to epithelial barrier functions, which were

1100 differentially expressed between formula-fed (AI, HI and CTRL) and sow milk-fed

1101 (SM) piglets at PND24.

Site	Function	Protein name	Gene	CTRL[1]	AI[1]	HI[1]	SM[1]	p value
Ileum	Permeability	Claudin 4	CLDN4	1.27 ± 0.1^{bc}	1.56 ± 0.2^{c}	0.98 ± 0.09^{ab}	0.71 ± 0.08^{a}	<0.001
		ß-catenin	CTNNB1	1.05 ± 0.17	1.00 ± 0.12	0.79 ± 0.08	0.58 ± 0.06	0.098
		Myosin light-chain kinase	MLCK	1.21 ± 0.18^{b}	1.07 ± 0.09^{b}	1.00 ± 0.2^{ab}	0.52 ± 0.04^{a}	0.014
		Occludin	OCLN	1.17 ± 0.14	0.96 ± 0.09	1.00 ± 0.14	0.61 ± 0.12	0.064
		Tight junction protein 1	ZO1	1.02 ± 0.11^{b}	0.98 ± 0.11^{b}	0.88 ± 0.14^{ab}	0.56 ± 0.06^{a}	0.022
	Defense	Intestinal Alkaline Phosphatase	IAP	1.29 ± 0.18^{b}	1.18 ± 0.18^{ab}	1.62 ± 0.23^{b}	0.74 ± 0.2^{a}	0.008
	Proliferation	Proliferating Cell Nuclear Antigen	PCNA	1.10 ± 0.19^{a}	1.09 ± 0.17^{a}	0.93 ± 0.16^{a}	1.87 ± 0.27^{b}	0.019
	Apoptose	Caspase 3	CASP3	1.02 ± 0.1^{b}	1.02 ± 0.08^{b}	1.23 ± 0.19^{b}	0.63 ± 0.1^{a}	0.037
Colon	Permeability	Claudin 3	CLDN3	1.05 ± 0.11	1.10 ± 0.11	1.36 ± 0.16	1.21 ± 0.17	0.057
		Claudin 7	CLDN7	0.76 ± 0.13^{a}	0.94 ± 0.2^{a}	0.84 ± 0.1^{a}	1.19 ± 0.21^{b}	0.007
		ß-catenin	CTNNB1	1.17 ± 0.22	1.08 ± 0.09	1.21 ± 0.19	0.81 ± 0.04	0.098
		Junctional adhesion molecule-A (JAM-A)	F11R	0.96 ± 0.05	1.02 ± 0.06	1.16 ± 0.07	0.97 ± 0.06	0.085
		Myosin light-chain kinase	MLCK	1.05 ± 0.1^{b}	1.11 ± 0.15^{b}	1.13 ± 0.19^{b}	0.63 ± 0.07^{a}	0.001
		Tight junction protein 1	ZO1	1.00 ± 0.05^{b}	0.93 ± 0.06^{ab}	1.05 ± 0.1^{b}	0.74 ± 0.07^{a}	0.033
	Defense	Intestinal Alkaline Phosphatase	IAP	2.12 ± 0.6^{ab}	1.67 ± 0.054^{ab}	0.92 ± 0.26^{a}	3.33 ± 0.76^{b}	0.047
		Mucin 2	MUC2	1.33 ± 0.33^{ab}	1.04 ± 0.22^{ab}	1.98 ± 0.47^{b}	0.65 ± 0.15^{a}	0.009
	Proliferation	Proliferating Cell Nuclear Antigen	PCNA	1.03 ± 0.11^{a}	1.05 ± 0.11^{a}	0.97 ± 0.09^{a}	1.36 ± 0.11^{b}	0.002
		Trefoil factor 3	TFF3	1.21 ± 0.25	1.22 ± 0.24	1.56 ± 0.40	1.51 ± 0.45	0.051
	Apoptose	Caspase 3	CASP3	1.02 ± 0.1^{a}	1.19 ± 0.16^{a}	1.30 ± 0.15^{ab}	1.61 ± 0.14^{b}	0.002

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1103
1104 [1]Data are presented as means ± SEM ; [a,b,c] non-common letters indicate that piglet

1105 groups differed significantly (P < 0.05) ; bold indicates that p-values were inferior to

1106 0.05 ; italic indicates a tendency with p-values between 0.05 and 0.1.

1107 PND, Postnatal days.

1108

Table 6. Ileal and colonic genes encoding proteins involved in nutrient transport, tryptophan metabolism and endocrine functions, which were differentially expressed between formula-fed (AI, HI and CTRL) and sow milk-fed (SM) piglets at PND24.

Site	Function	Sub-function	Protein name	Gene	CTRL[1]	AI[1]	HI[1]	SM[1]	p value
Ileum	Nutrient	Amino acid transporter	Peptide transporter 1	SLC15A1	1.03 ± 0.14[ab]	0.80 ± 0.10[a]	1.29 ± 0.18[b]	0.82 ± 0.25[a]	0.047
			Monocarboxylate Transporter 1	*MCT1*	*1.03 ± 0.10*	*0.99 ± 0.10*	*1.00 ± 0.11*	*0.73 ± 0.05*	*0.093*
			Monocarboxylate Transporter 2	MCT2	1.07 ± 0.15[b]	1.22 ± 0.17[b]	0.91 ± 0.08[ab]	0.59 ± 0.07[a]	0.009
			Monocarboxylate Transporter 4	MCT4	1.21 ± 0.18[b]	0.70 ± 0.12[ab]	1.09 ± 0.19[b]	0.56 ± 0.09[a]	0.016
	Tryptophan pathway	Kynurenine pathway	Indoleamine 2.3-Dioxygenase 1	IDO	2.18 ± 0.16[b]	2.39 ± 0.18[b]	1.57 ± 0.21[a]	1.74 ± 0.25[ab]	0.013
			Kynureninase	*KYNU*	*1.05 ± 0.14*	*1.25 ± 0.24*	*0.95 ± 0.11*	*0.74 ± 0.08*	*0.097*
		Tryptophan pathway	Tryptophan hydroxylase 1	TPH1	1.15 ± 0.25[b]	1.17 ± 0.12[b]	1.17 ± 0.15[b]	0.54 ± 0.08[a]	0.007
	Endocrine	Endocrine	Chromogranin A	CHGA	0.97 ± 0.11[b]	0.95 ± 0.19[b]	0.90 ± 0.06[b]	0.56 ± 0.09[a]	0.044
			Neuropeptide Y Receptor Y1	NPY1R	1.06 ± 0.19[a]	1.46 ± 0.27[ab]	1.35 ± 0.24[ab]	2.11 ± 0.32[b]	0.047
			Peptide Tyrosine Tyrosine	PYY	1.33 ± 0.21[b]	0.95 ± 0.22[ab]	1.03 ± 0.2[b]	0.54 ± 0.11[a]	0.023
Colon	Nutrient transporter	Amino acid transporter	Peptide transporter 1	SLC15A1	1.33 ± 0.27[b]	1.28 ± 0.27[b]	1.94 ± 0.42[b]	0.27 ± 0.06[a]	0.001
		Carbohydrate transporter	Glucose Transporter Type 1	GLUT1	1.10 ± 0.16[a]	1.09 ± 0.12[a]	1.21 ± 0.08[a]	1.64 ± 0.14[b]	0.001
			Free fatty acid receptor 3	FFAR3	1.36 ± 0.52[a]	1.44 ± 0.50[ab]	0.72 ± 0.11[a]	3.37 ± 0.81[b]	0.011
			Monocarboxylate Transporter 2	*MCT2*	*1.02 ± 0.09*	*1.11 ± 0.09*	*1.18 ± 0.12*	*0.94 ± 0.12*	*0.061*
			ProGlucagon Precursor	GCG	1.03 ± 0.09[ab]	1.06 ± 0.13[a]	1.33 ± 0.28[b]	0.96 ± 0.19[a]	0.025
			Glucagon Like Peptide 1 receptor	GLP1R	1.02 ± 0.07[ab]	1.08 ± 0.13[ab]	1.15 ± 0.14[b]	0.81 ± 0.14[a]	0.043
			Insulin Receptor Substrate 2	IRS2	1.04 ± 0.11[a]	1.31 ± 0.16[ab]	1.26 ± 0.19[ab]	1.53 ± 0.13[b]	0.049

[1] Data are presented as means ± SEM ; [a,b] non-common letters indicate that piglet groups differed significantly ($p < 0.05$) ; bold indicates that p-values were inferior to 0.05 ; italic indicates a tendency with p-values between 0.05 and 0.1.

PND, postnatal days

1122

Figure 1

Figure 2

ILEUM

COLON

Contribution of variable groups to Dim1

Contribution of variable groups to Dim2

Contribution of variable groups to Dim2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

OTUs* potentialy corresponding to strains assembled in