Title: Housing laboratory mice in a natural environment uncovers genetic and

environmental contributions to immune variation.

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Abstract

The relative contributions of genetic and environmental factors to variation in immune responses are still poorly understood. Here, we performed a deep phenotypic analysis of immunological parameters of laboratory mice released into an outdoor enclosure, carrying susceptibility genes (*Nod2* and *Atg16l1*) implicated in the development of inflammatory bowel diseases. Variations of immune cell populations were largely driven by environment, whereas cytokine production showed a stronger genetic component, but this genetic effect was reduced after exposure to the wild environment. Multi-omic models identified transcriptional signatures associated with differences in T cell populations. Sub-networks associated with responses against *Candida albicans* and *Bacteroides vulgatus* are also coupled with rewilding. Hence, exposing laboratory mice of different genetic backgrounds to the outdoor environment can uncover important contributors to immune variation.

One sentence summary

Natural environment exposure in laboratory mice primarily promotes variation in population frequencies of immune cells, whereas cytokine responses to microbial stimulation are affected more by genetic susceptibility to inflammatory bowel disease.

Main Text

Variation in the magnitude of the immune response is an important determinant of susceptibility to pathogen infections, as well as a predisposition to autoimmunity and cancer (*1, 2*). However, immunological studies with laboratory mice typically aim to control variation in order to focus on genetic factors that alter components of both the adaptive and innate immune system. Recent advances in technology and throughput have facilitated a systems immunology approach towards deciphering the relative genetic and environmental contributors to variation of the human immune system (*3-7*). By altering the environment in which laboratory mice are conventionally housed, combined with deep phenotypic analysis of immune responses, we describe here a resource dataset that we used to probe genetic versus environmental drivers of heterogeneity in the immune system. Controlled experiments on specific groups with the same genotype exposed to a new environment would be difficult to conduct in human studies.

Recently, there has been a growing effort to characterize wild mice and pet shop mice, which appear to share greater similarity to the immunological state of humans than laboratory mice (*8-11*). We have developed an outdoor enclosure facility that enables us to reintroduce laboratory mice into a more natural environment, a process termed "rewilding" (*12*). The enclosures include soil and vegetation as well as barnlike structures but no fully wild mammals; over the course of several weeks, mice dig burrows and otherwise adapt to their new environment (*12*). Gene-bacteria associations has been identified in both human and wild mice indicating host genetic determinants of the gut microbial composition across mammals in natural environments (*13*). To interrogate the impact of host genetic variants on microbiota and inflammatory bowel disease (IBD) susceptibility in response to environmental changes, we investigated *Atg16l1* and *Nod2* variants which are among the highest risk factors for IBD associated with a dysregulated immune response to gut microbes (*14, 15*). *Atg16l1* is a key component of the autophagy pathway, and *Nod2* is involved in bacterial sensing. We and others previously demonstrated that mice harboring mutations in *Atg16l1* or *Nod2* develop signs of inflammation in a manner dependent on exposure to infectious entities (*16-22*). Mice

with these particular mutations are sensitive to the presence of murine norovirus (MNV),

Helicobacter species, and other commensal-like agents that are found in some animal

facilities and excluded in others (*16-19, 23, 24*). To study the immunological consequences of

rewilding in the context of genetic susceptibility genes for IBD, we released *Atg16l1^(T300A/T300A)*,

Atg16l1^(T300A/+), *Nod2^(-/-)* mice in addition to C57BL/6J wild type (WT) mice to determine

whether mutations in these genes alter the response to microbial exposure in a natural

environment.

116 mice were released into the outdoor enclosure for 6-7 weeks, of which 104 mice (25

WT, 28 *Nod2^(-/-)*, 27 *Atg16l1^(T300A/+)*, and 24 *Atg16l1^(T300A/T300A)*) were recovered in time for

analysis and compared to 80 matched controls (19 WT, 19 *Nod2^(-/-)*, 20 *Atg16l1^(T300A/+)*, 22

Atg16l1^(T300A/T300A)) maintained under specific pathogen free (SPF) conditions (herein referred

to as lab mice) (Fig. 1A). Blood samples were collected at the time of sacrifice and analyzed

by flow cytometry with a lymphocyte panel (Table S1). Additionally, cytokine levels in the

plasma were also assayed (Fig. 1A). Fecal samples and cecal contents were collected for

microbial profiling and for reconstitution experiments (Companion study, Yeung *et. al.*).

Mesenteric lymph node (MLN) cells were isolated for flow cytometry analysis with the same

lymphocyte panel as the blood and an additional myeloid cell panel (Supplementary

materials). Immune activity in the MLN was measured through transcriptional profiles by

RNA-seq and cytokine production assays in response to microbial stimulations

(Supplementary materials). All of the lab mice were sacrificed in one week, whereas the

rewilded mice were sacrificed over a 2-week period based on trapping frequency. This

collection of multi-parameter datasets from nearly 200 mice provides an opportunity to

examine inter-individual variation in innate and adaptive immune cell populations by flow

cytometry analysis, as well cytokine responses to microbial stimulation, integrated with

high dimensional transcriptomics and microbiota data. This systems level analysis enabled us

to quantify genetic and environmental influences on the heterogeneity of immunological

parameters among individual mice.

In line with previous studies on feral and pet shop mice (*8*), we observed major differences

in effector (CD44^{lo}CD62L^{lo}) and memory (CD44^{hi}CD62L^{lo} or CD44^{hi}CD62L^{hi}) T cells

(Companion study, Yeung *et. al.*). To visualize the overall landscape of flow cytometry data

in an unbiased manner, phenotypic heterogeneity was analyzed on total CD45+ cells per

mouse across the blood lymphocyte panel (Table S1) in lab and rewilded mice. We down

sampled to 1,000 CD45+ cells from each mouse for nearly 180,000 single CD45+ cell events

and single cell flow cytometry data was visualized by uniform manifold approximation and

projection (UMAP) (*25*), which was superior to *t*-distributed stochastic neighborhood

embedding (t-SNE) (*25*) (fig. S1A), to identify major immune cell subsets (Fig. 1, B and C,

and fig. S1, B to E). Unexpected clusters of CD44^{hi}CD19+ cells were increased in the

rewilded mice compared to lab mice (Fig. 1B), while lab mice had more CD62L^{hi}CD4+ cells

(Fig. 1C). This unsupervised visualization strategy was useful for identifying unexpected

differences (e.g. in the CD19+ compartment) in cell clusters of the peripheral blood at a single

cell level, which might have been overlooked by traditional flow cytometry gating.

We also used a traditional gating strategy to systematically quantify the frequencies

of immune cell subsets with a lymphocyte panel (fig. S2 and table S2). The blood lymphocyte

panel identified 13 lymphocyte populations, a total myeloid cell population

(CD11b/CD11c/DX5), and a total CD45+ cell population. From the proportions of these

immune cell populations, we examined the inter-individual variation in lab and rewilded mice

by principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) (Fig. 1D). As shown by the separation of lab and

rewilded mice along principle coordinate (PC) 1 and 2, there is a strong effect of the

environment on lymphocyte populations, and the differences between these populations are

attributed to CD44^{hi}CD62L^{hi} CD4 and CD44^{hi}CD62L^{hi} CD8 T cells as inferred by examining

loading factors along PC1 and PC2 (Fig. 1D). The reduced proportion of naïve T cells and

increased abundance of memory T cells is consistent with previous reports (*8, 11*). We also

quantified the extent of variability between lab and rewilded mice by measuring the Euclidean

distances between mice in our PCoA. Notably, the within group distances in lab mice were

significantly less than rewilded mice (Fig. 1E) suggesting that the natural environment

increases variability in immune cell populations. We then evaluated several metadata

variables to identify covariates with the largest effect sizes on immune cell populations (Fig.

1F). As expected, the composition and activation state of immune cell populations in the

peripheral blood are driven most strongly by environmental differences between the SPF

facility and the outdoor enclosure. These differences far outweighed any effects of genetic

deficiency in *Nod2* or *Atg16l1* in both environments (Fig. 1F). These findings are consistent

with the concept that non-heritable influences explain the majority of the variation in the

proportion of immune cell subsets as reported in twin studies (*3*).

Cytokine production capacity in humans has been reported to be more strongly influenced

by genetic factors (*7*). To investigate the relative roles of genetics and environment on

induced responses, we performed *ex vivo* stimulation experiments to examine the cytokine

responses of total MLN cells from rewilded and lab mice when stimulated with six different

microbes (*C. perfringens*, *P. aeruginosa*, *B. vulgatus*, *B. subtilis, S. aureus* and *C. albicans*),

as well as αCD3/CD28 beads to activate T cells (Fig. 1A and 2A). A broad array of 13

cytokines was measured including IFN-γ, IL-1α, IL-1ß, IL-13 IL-5, IL-10, IL-17, IL-6, CCL2,

CXCL1, CCL3, CCL4 and TNF-α. Relative to PBS mock-treated control cells, increases in

IL-5 and IL-17 were observed after αCD3/CD28 activation, consistent with the production of

these cytokines by T cells in the MLNs (Fig. 2A). In general, bacterial antigens induced

CCL3, IFN-γ, TNF-α, CCL4, and IL-6 production, which differed from the increase in the

regulatory cytokine IL-10 in response to the fungus *C. albicans* (Fig. 2A and fig. S3B).

Bacterial antigens also induced CXCL1, which was not induced by *C. albicans* or

αCD3/CD28 (Fig. 2A). As expected αCD3/CD28 was one of the most potent inducers of

cytokine production, especially for IFN-γ, CCL4, TNF-α and IL-5, and rewilded mice

produced higher levels of these cytokines than lab mice post stimulation (Fig. 2B). Notably,

IFN-γ, IL-10, and IL-6 showed the most variation, whereas IL-1α and IL-1ß showed the least

variation (fig. S3). Overall, MLN cells from rewilded mice produced more cytokines when

challenged with microbial antigens (Fig. 2B). In the companion study (Yeung *et.al.*), the

effects of fungal exposure and colonization of the rewilded mice are further assessed.

We again used PCoA to exam the inter-individual variation in cytokine responses (Fig. 2C).

In contrast to immune cell variations (Fig. 1, D to F), the environmental effects on cytokine

production were less pronounced (Fig. 2, C and D). Instead, genotype was identified as the

covariate with the largest effect size on cytokine responses (Fig. 2D). Genotype also had the

greatest effect size on variation in plasma cytokine levels of individual mice (fig. S4). To

investigate interactive effects of genotype and environment, we performed unsupervised

clustering analysis on inter-individual correlation for the stimulated cytokine profile of MLN

cells in individual mice. In the SPF facility, lab $Nod2^{-/-}$ mice are largely segregated from the

$Atg16l1^{T300A/+}$ and the $Atg16l1^{T300A/T300A}$ mice into two separate clusters (Fig. 2E). Remarkably,

when introduced into the outdoor enclosure, rewilded $Nod2^{-/-}$ mice, $Atg16l1^{T300A/+}$ and

$Atg16l1^{T300A/T300A}$ mice are no longer segregated based on cytokine responses (Fig. 2F). These

results indicate that there are genetic differences in stimulated cytokine profiles between

$Nod2^{-/-}$, $Atg16l1^{T300A/+}$, and $Atg16l1^{T300A/T300A}$ mice under SPF conditions, but when challenged

by the natural environment, these genetic differences are no longer apparent (Fig. 2, E and F),

and consistent with environmental erosion of genetic effects on mucosal phenotypes of

rewilded mice (*12*). Hence, the introduction of variation resulting from environmental

experience may mask differences in stimulated cytokine profiles of genetically deficient mice

kept under SPF conditions.

In addition to stimulated cytokine profiles, MLN cells were assessed for immune cell

populations by flow cytometry analysis (fig. S5 and table S2) and gene expression by RNA-

seq analysis (fig. S6 and table S2). Consistent with the peripheral blood, immune cell

frequencies in MLNs showed a strong effect of environment (figs. S5 and S7). Furthermore,

a group of rewilded mice all sacrificed at week 7 of rewilding, which experienced strong

thunder storms and sustained high humidity right before trapping (unlike mice trapped at

week 6), clustered separately (fig. S7, A and B), raising the possibility of particular events

rather than cumulative environmental factors having an effect on memory T cells (fig. S7, C

and D). When the loading factors were examined, activation states of both CD4+ and CD8+ T

cells were important to distinguishing lab mice from rewilded mice, as were total

CD11b+CD11c+ myeloid cell frequencies (fig. S7C). RNA-seq analysis showed similarly

strong environmental effects on variations (fig. S6). Differences in microbial communities in

stool samples and especially fungal colonization is further discussed in the companion study

(Yeung *et.al.*).

To integrate multi-omics data from flow cytometry analysis (Table S2),

transcriptomics (Table S2), cytokine profiles (Table S2), and microbial profiles (Table S2),

we concatenated these four data types (Table S3) and used supervised classification models to

identify features that are predictive of the environment or genotype (Fig. 3). To understand

how the different predictive features interact with each other, we computed pairwise

correlation values between these predictors to generate a network for the environment and

genotype models (Fig. 3, B and D). For the environment model, this revealed a hub of

transcription factor genes (e.g. *Nfkbia*, *Egr1*, *Jun*, *Klf6*, *Atf4* and *Fosb*) being tightly

correlated with T cell populations in the blood and MLN that distinguish the environmental

differences (Fig. 3, A and B and fig. S8A). For the genotype model, our classification was not

as accurate as the environment, as measured by area under the receiver operator curve (AUC)

of 0.81 versus 1 on the test set (Supplementary materials). In addition to immune cell

populations and transcriptional signatures, certain cytokine profiles (e.g. IFN-γ/*P. aeruginosa*,

IL-5/PBS) were also predictive of the genotype (Fig 3, C and D, and fig. S8B). Hence, while

the features associated with environmental classification are predominantly frequency of T

cells and transcription factors, the features required to classify genotype differences on *Nod2*$^{-/-}$,

Atg16l1$^{T300A/+}$ and *Atg16l1*$^{T300A/T300A}$ mice include the ability to produce cytokines, at baseline

(PBS alone) or when presented with specific microbial stimuli (*P. aeruginosa*).

To evaluate the interactions between data types, we next utilized an unsupervised

sparse partial least squares (sPLS) regression model to integrate the different data types into a

multi-component network (Fig. 4A and fig. S9). Data matrices (Table S4) from flow

cytometry data (blood and MLNs), transcriptional profiles (MLNs), microbial profiles (16S)

and stimulated cytokine profiles were used as inputs for sPLS-regression to generate a covariance network that included 252 nodes and 844 edges (Fig. 4A and fig. S9). In the resulting model, all microbial taxa fell below our 0.6 covariance threshold and were therefore removed (Table S4). This indicated that bacterial composition was not an important component of the network. IL-5 production in response to *B. vulgatus* stimulation had the most connections within the network and was found to be higher in rewilded mice (Fig. 4A; figs. S9 and S10). The CD44^hi^CD62L^hi^ CD4 T cell population in the flow cytometry data set was highly connected within the network and was also higher in rewilded mice (Fig. 4A; figs. S9 and S10). This approach groups transcriptional expression data into modules based on co-expression. A gene module (11.1) consisting of 206 co-regulated genes was the most connected transcriptional signature within the network and was lower in rewilded mice (Fig. 4A; figs. S9 and S10). This module was enriched for genes involved in transferrin transport, cellular response to interferon-beta, leukocyte cell-cell adhesion and myeloid cell activation (Fig. 4, B and C).

We then probed our multi-component network using a gene set analysis (GSA) method to identify sub-network differences driven by environment (Fig. 4D) and genotype (fig. S11). A twelve node sub-network, which included production of CCL2 in response to *C. albicans* and IL-1α in response to *B. vulgatus*, had the highest enrichment score distinguishing between lab and rewilded mice (Fig. 4D). Components of this subnetwork separated mice based on environmental conditions (Fig. 4E). The gene module 11.1.2, while connected to CCL2/*C. albicans* and IL-1α/*B. vulgatus*, was part of a subnetwork enriched for the effects of genotype (fig. S11) and was generally higher in lab mice. The gene module 39 (consisting of 21 genes) included several involved in mitochondrial respiration (e.g. *Atp5k*, *Atp5j2*) that were enriched in rewilded mice, while the gene module 22 (consisting of 71 genes) was higher in lab mice and appears to be related to B cells (fig. S12). Notably, genotype differences were less pronounced, potentially because they may be masked by the effects of the environment (Fig. 2 and fig. S11). This multi-omics network analysis therefore substantiated the omics-by-omics inferences (Figs. 1 and 2) but also provided new insight by

identifying an important role for *C. albicans* responses during rewilding, which is addressed

in the companion study (Yeung *et.al.*).

In summary, we found that changing the environment profoundly contributes to the

inter-individual variations on immune cell frequencies, whereas cytokine responses to

pathogen stimulation were more affected by genetic deficiencies in the IBD susceptibility

genes *Nod2* and *Atg16L1* and primarily under SPF conditions. Perhaps environment is a

primary driver of the composition of the immune system, but genetics is a stronger driver of

per-cell responsiveness. Our finding that genotype-specific differences were reduced upon a

change in the environment highlights the need to investigate environmental variables when

assessing gene function and suggests that certain types of exposure mask the contribution of

susceptibility genes to inflammatory diseases. A systems level analysis identified

interconnected networks of transcriptional signatures, immune cell populations and cytokine

profiles to microbial stimulation, highlighting a potentially important role for fungal

stimulation from rewilding (Companion study, Yeung *et. al.*). Hence, rewilding laboratory

mice of different genetic backgrounds and careful monitoring of other non-heritable

influences (e.g. differential behavior via which divergent immunological experience of

individuals may accrue, by analogy with causes of divergence in neurological phenotype

during rewilding (*26, 27*)) could be a powerful new approach towards dissecting drivers of

immune response heterogeneity under homeostatic as well as during disease settings or

infectious challenges.

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Figure Legends:

Fig. 1. Environmental change drives inter-individual variation in immune cell

populations. (A) 25 C57BL/6$^{+/+}$, 28 *Nod2$^{-/-}$*, 27 *Atg16l1$^{T300A/+}$*, 24 *Atg16l1$^{T300A/T300A}$* mice

(total=104) were housed in the wild enclosure (Rewilded) for 6-7 weeks and successfully

trapped for flow cytometry analysis of lymphoid and myeloid cell populations in the blood

and mesenteric lymph nodes (MLNs). Age matched 19 C57BL/6$^{+/+}$, 19 *Nod2$^{-/-}$*, 20

Atg16l1$^{T300A/+}$, 22 *Atg16l1$^{T300A/T300A}$* mice (total=80) housed under SPF conditions (Lab) were

analyzed as controls. Feces were collected for 16S rRNA sequencing. MLN cells were

cultured with indicated stimulates for 48 hours and supernatants were collected for cytokine

profiling. Samples that fail quality control are not included in downstream analyses. (**B** and **C**)

UMAP projections of ~180,000 CD45+, ~110,000 CD19+, and ~36,000 CD4+ cells on flow

cytometry data of the blood from lab and rewilded mice. Events are color-coded according to

CD19, CD44 (B), CD4, and CD62L (C) fluorescence level. Box plots show the abundance of

CD44^{hi} CD19+ cells (B) and CD62L^{hi} CD4+ cells (C) in the blood of individual lab and

rewilded mice. (**D**) Principal coordinates analysis (PCoA) of gated immune cell populations

in the blood and the density of each population along the principal coordinates (PC). Right

panel indicate biplots of the gated immune cell populations that are projected onto PC1 and

PC2. (**E**) Box plot of pairwise Euclidean distance measures based on blood immune cell

population in the blood of lab versus lab, rewilded versus rewilded and lab versus rewilded

mice. (**F**) Bar plot showing the pseudo R^2 measure of effect size on the entire distance matrix

used to calculate the PCoA of immune cell populations in the blood (D). ***P < 0.001 by

Kruskal-Wallis test between groups (B, C) and ***P < 0.001 by Mann-Whitney-Wilcoxon

test between groups (E).

Fig. 2. The genetic contribution towards variation in cytokine production in response to

microbial stimulation is masked when mice are rewilded. (**A** to **F**) MLN cells from lab

and rewilded mice were *ex vivo* cultured with *B. subtilis*, *S. aureus*, *C. perfringens*, *B.*

vulgatus, *P. aeruginosa*, *C. albicans*, and αCD3/CD28 beads for 48 hours and the

supernatants were assayed for 13 cytokines. (**A**) Heat map of average fold changes compared

to cytokine levels of MLN cells cultured with PBS controls from all mice. (**B**) Bar plot

showing the top 10 log$_2$ fold changes of cytokine responses to stimulation for MLN cells from

lab and rewilded mice. (**C**) PCoA plot on cytokine stimulation profiles with the histogram of

the total variance explained by each PC indicated on the axis. Right panel indicates the

loading factor of each stimulated cytokine profile that contributes to each PC. (**D**) Bar plot

showing the pseudo R^2 measure of effect size on the entire distance matrix used to calculate

the PCoA of cytokine profiles (C). (**E** and **F**) Heatmap of pairwise correlation values from

stimulated cytokine profiles of lab (E) and rewilded (F) mice. * P <0.05, ** P <0.01, *** $P <$

0.001 by Mann-Whitney-Wilcoxon test between groups (B).

Fig. 3. Multi-omic classification models identify predictive features of environment and

genotype. (**A**) Bar plot of the top 40 features predictive of the environment and (**B**)

interaction network analysis of correlations ($R^2 > 0.6$ or $R^2 < -0.6$) between features (genes,

immune cell populations, OTUs or cytokines) that are predictive of environmental changes.

(**C**) Bar plot of the top 40 features predictive of the genotype and (**D**) network analysis of the

associations between features that are associated with genotype differences. Data types are

colored according to cytokine profiles (green), genes (red), immune populations (blue), and

OTUs (purple). The size of the nodes in B and D are scaled proportionally to the number of

connections with other nodes in each network.

Fig. 4. An unsupervised multi-component model identifies a *C. albicans* and *B. vulgatus*

response network associated with environmental changes. (**A** to **C**) Data matrices from

flow cytometry data, transcriptional profiles, microbial profiles and stimulated cytokine

profiles were used as inputs for a sPLS-regression model to generate a covariance network

(A), which identifies a 206 gene module (11.1) that is highly connected within the network.

(**B**) Bar plot of top 10 biological processes that are enriched in module 11.1 according to

Panther and (**C**) heatmap of the module 11.1 genes associated with these biological processes.

Color bars indicate environment and genotype. (**D** and **E**) The network (A) was queried by

GSA to identify the most predictive sub-network (D) for differences driven by the

environment. (**E**) Unsupervised hierarchical clustering analysis and heatmap of modules in

this network separated lab and rewilded mice. Color bars indicate environment and genotype.

In (A, D), data types are colored according to cytokine profiles (green), genes (red), immune

populations (blue), and OTUs (purple). The size of the nodes in A and D are scaled

proportionally to the number of connections with other nodes in each network.

Figure S1: Identification of immune cell populations that differ between lab and

rewilded mice with UMAP. (**A**) Projection of ~180,000 CD45+ cells visualized by tSNE vs

UMAP. (**B**) Identification of the major lymphocyte populations on UMAP based on CD19,

CD3, CD4 and CD8 expression. (**C** to **E**) Expression of cell surface molecules on CD19+

cells (C), CD4+ cells (D) and CD8+ cells (E). In (C), (D) and (E), expression of 1B11, PD1,

CD25, CD44, CD127, CXCR3, KLRG1, CD27, CD69, and CD62L are shown using cut-off

values based on overall distribution of fluorescence expressions.

Figure S2: Flow cytometry gating strategy for the quantification of lymphoid

populations in the blood of lab and rewilded mice. (**A** to **H**) Representative flow cytometry

plots illustrating gating strategy (A) of lymphoid populations in the blood including the total

CD45+ cells (B), total myeloid cells (C), total B and T cells (D), total CD4 and CD8 T cells

(E), CD44^{lo}CD62L^{hi}, CD44^{hi}CD62L^{hi}, CD44^{hi}CD62L^{lo}, CD44^{lo}CD62L^{lo} CD8 T cells (F),

CD44^{lo}CD62L^{hi}, CD44^{hi}CD62L^{hi}, CD44^{hi}CD62L^{lo}, CD44^{lo}CD62L^{lo} CD4 T cells (G), and

CD25+CD4+ T cells (H).

Figure S3: Hierarchy of variance for cytokine production after stimulation with

microbial antigens *in vitro*. (**A**) Bar plots showing average variance for cytokine production

after stimulations. (**B**) Unsupervised hierarchical clustering and heatmap of variance in

cytokine production in response to *B. subtilis*, *S. aureus*, *C. perfringens*, *B. vulgatus*, *P.*

aeruginosa, *C. albicans*, and αCD3/CD28 stimulation.

Figure S4: A genetic contribution towards variation in plasma cytokine levels of lab and

rewilded mice. (**A** and **B**) Levels of RANTES, MIP-3a, KC, TNF-α, MCP-1, IP-10, MIP-1a,

MIP-1b, IL-1α, IL-6 cytokines were measured from the plasma of lab and rewilded mice at

the time of sacrifice with bead-based immunoassays (LEGENDplex). (**A**) PCoA of plasma

cytokine levels in the blood of individual mice and the density of each population along the

principal coordinates (PC). Right panel indicate biplots of the plasma cytokines are projected

onto PC1 and PC2. (**B**) Bar plot showing the pseudo R^2 measure of the effect size of different

variables on the variance of plasma cytokine levels.

Figure S5: Memory CD4+ and CD8+ T cells are increased in the mesenteric lymph

nodes (MLNs) of rewilded mice. (**A** to **F**) Representative flow cytometry plots for immune

cell populations after gating for CD45+ cells in the MLNs of lab or rewilded C57BL/6 mice;

for the total abundance of myeloid cells (A), B and T cells (B), CD4 and CD8 T cells (C),

CD44^{lo}CD62L^{hi}, CD44^{hi}CD62L^{hi}, CD44^{hi}CD62L^{lo}, CD44^{lo}CD62L^{lo} CD4 T cells (D),

CD44^{lo}CD62L^{hi}, CD44^{hi}CD62L^{hi}, CD44^{hi}CD62L^{lo}, CD44^{lo}CD62L^{lo} CD8 T cells (E), and

CD25+CD4+ T cells (F).

Figure S6: Environment has the greatest effect on variation of transcriptional profiles.

(**A** to **B**) Transcriptional profiles of MLNs were determined by Celseq. (**A**) PCoA based on

gene profiles in the MLN and the density of each population along the principal coordinates

(PC). Right panel indicates biplots of the genes projected onto PC1 and PC2. (**B**) Bar plot

showing the pseudo R^2 measure of effect size on the entire distance matrix used to calculate

the PCoA of gene expression levels.

Figure S7: Unmeasured environmental effects drive additional variation of MLN

immune cell populations for the rewilded mice on the week 6 of rewilding. (**A** to **D**) A

thunderstorm over the weekend between week 6 and week 7 of rewilding may have

introduced additional variation into immune cell populations. (**A** and **B**) PCoA based on

lymphoid populations in the MLN and the density of each population along the principal

coordinates (PC). In plot (A), dot color coded by rewilded (red) and lab (purple) and in plot

(B), dot color coded by lab (green), rewilded week 6 (yellow), rewilded week 7 (blue) (**C**)

Biplots of the MLN lymphocyte populations are projected onto PC1 and PC2. (**D**) Bar plot

showing the pseudo R^2 measure of effect size on the entire distance matrix used to calculate

the PCoA of immune populations.

Figure S8: Multi-omic classification models identify transcriptional factors and certain

cytokines are predictive of environmental and genotype differences. (**A** and **B**) Top

predictive features of environment (A) and genotype (B). * P <0.05, ** P <0.01, *** *P <*

0.001 by Mann-Whitney-Wilcoxon test between groups.

Figure S9: An unsupervised PLS-regression multi-component network model for multi-

omic integration. A fully annotated multi-component network as shown in Fig. 4A.

Figure S10: The most connected features from each data type within multi-component

network. (**A** to **C**) Bar plots indicate IL-5 production of MLN cells in response to *B. vulgatus*

(A), gene module 11.1 (B) and CD44^{hi}CD62L^{hi} CD4 T cells in the blood (C) are the most

connected features within the multi-component network. ****P* < 0.001 by Mann-Whitney-

Wilcoxon test between lab and rewilded mice.

Figure S11: Heatmap of gene modules associated with rewilding. (**A** and **B**) Heatmap of

gene expression levels for transcripts in gene modules 39 (A) and 22 (B). Color bars indicate

environment and genotype.

Figure S12: Subnetwork associated with genotype differences. (**A**) The subnetwork most

associated with genotype differences is shown. Data types are colored according to cytokine

profiles (green), genes (red), immune populations (blue), and OTUs (purple). The sizes of the

nodes are scaled proportionally to the number of connections with other nodes in the network.

(B) Unsupervised hierarchical clustering analysis and heatmap of modules in this network

separate by genotype and environment. Color bars indicate environment and genotype.

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

A

Environment Model Features

B

Environment Classifier

C

Genotype Model Features

D

Genotype Classifier

A

MLN Lymphocyte Panel

PC2

PC1

● $Atg16l1^{T300A/+}$
▲ $Atg16l1^{T300A/T300A}$
■ WT
+ $Nod2^{-/-}$

● Rewilded
● Lab

B

MLN Lymphocyte Panel

PC2

PC1

● $Atg16l1^{T300A/+}$
▲ $Atg16l1^{T300A/T300A}$
■ WT
+ $Nod2^{-/-}$

● Lab
● Rewilded (Week 6)
● Rewilded (Week 7)

C

CD8 T-cells CD44hi CD62Llo
Total myeloid CD11b CD11c
CD4 T-cells CD44hi CD62Llo
CD4 T-cells CD44hi CD62Lhi
CD4 T-cells CD44lo CD62Llo
CD8 T-cells CD44hi CD62Lhi
CD4 T-cells CD25+
CD4 T-cells
CD8 T-cells CD44lo CD62Llo
CD8 T-cells
CD4 T-cells CD44lo CD62Lhi
CD8 T-cells CD44lo CD62Lhi

D

Environment
Genotype
Diarrhea
Gender
WeightGain

0.0   0.1   0.2   0.3
Effect Size

A

B

Supplementary Figure 11

A

B   Supplementary Figure 12