

JAST (Journal of Animal Science and Technology) TITLE PAGE

ARTICLE INFORMATION	Fill in information in each box below
Article Type	Research article
Article Title (within 20 words without abbreviations)	A multi-omics characterization of the gut microbiota of weaned piglets in response to <i>Lactobacillus plantarum</i> supplementation
Running Title (within 10 words)	Multi-omics Analysis of Gut Microbiota in Weaned Piglets
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Competing interests	The authors declare no potential conflict of interest.
Funding sources State funding sources (grants, funding sources, equipment, and supplies). Include name and number of grant if available.	This work was supported by Korea Institute of Planning and Evaluation for Technology in Food, Agriculture and Forestry(IPET) through Agricultural Microbiome R&D Program for Advancing innovative technology Program(or Project), funded by Ministry of Agriculture, Food and Rural Affairs(MAFRA)(RS-2025-02216704) and was supported by the Chung-Ang University Research Grants in 2024.
Acknowledgements	Not applicable.
Availability of data and material	Upon reasonable request, the datasets of this study can be available from the corresponding author.
Authors' contributions Please specify the authors' role using this form.	Conceptualization: Park NH, Kim JM Data curation: Park NH, Lee M Formal analysis: Park NH, Yang J Methodology: Park NH, Lim B, Lim C, Lee JY Software: Seo YJ, Lee JY, Park KI, Kyoung H Validation: Seo YJ, Yang J, Lee M, Song M, Kim JM

	Investigation: Park NH, Song M Writing - original draft: Park NH Writing - review & editing: Park NH, Lim B, Lim C, Seo YJ, Lee JY, Yang J, Lee M, Kyoung H, Song M, Kim JM
Ethics approval and consent to participate	All animal experiments followed standard protocols and guidelines and received approval from the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of Chungnam National University, Daejeon, South Korea (approval # 202103A-CNU-079).

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5 ABSTRACT

6 Weaning is a critical developmental stage in piglets and is frequently
7 associated with intestinal dysfunction, diarrhea, and growth retardation due to abrupt
8 dietary and environmental changes. Probiotics have been explored as antibiotic
9 alternatives to alleviate postweaning stress, and *Lactobacillus plantarum* has shown
10 potential for modulating the gut microbiota and improving intestinal health. However,
11 most previous studies have relied on single-omics approaches, limiting mechanistic
12 understanding of host–microbiome interactions.

13 This study employed an integrated multi-omics approach combining ileal
14 transcriptomics, fecal microbiomics, and metabolomics to investigate the effects of
15 dietary *L. plantarum* supplementation in weaned piglets. Six piglets were assigned to
16 either a control or *L. plantarum*-supplemented group for two weeks. RNA sequencing,
17 16S rRNA gene sequencing, and gas chromatography mass spectrometry based
18 metabolomics were conducted, followed by integrative analysis using MIMOSA2 and
19 MetaboAnalyst.

20 Transcriptomic analysis identified 1,229 differentially expressed genes
21 enriched in immune-related pathways, including NF- κ B and IgA signaling, as well as
22 epithelial barrier regulation. Microbiome profiling revealed increased microbial
23 diversity, enrichment of *Lactobacillus*, and reduced abundance of *Shigella*. Functional
24 prediction suggested enhanced innate immune responsiveness. Integrated
25 metabolome–transcriptome analysis highlighted lipid and amino acid metabolic
26 pathways linking microbial metabolites with host gene expression.

27 Overall, *L. plantarum* supplementation induced coordinated host–microbiome

28 adaptations associated with reduced oxidative stress, improved intestinal barrier
29 stability, and enhanced immune resilience. These findings provide mechanistic
30 evidence supporting *L. plantarum* as a promising nutritional strategy to mitigate
31 postweaning stress and improve piglet intestinal health.

32

33 **Keywords:**

34 Piglet, Microbiota, Multi-Omics Integration, *Lactobacillus*, Gut

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1. Introduction

Weaning is an important part of the pig lifecycle. During the weaning period, piglets encounter various environmental challenges such as separation from the sow, changes in diet, culminating in changes in the intestinal environment (1). This may induce diarrhea, which results in reduced growth rate and mortality in piglets (2). Reports from large-scale pig production systems indicate that post-weaning diarrhea can affect up to 50% of piglets, with mortality rates increasing to 15–20%, underscoring the considerable impact of weaning-related gastrointestinal challenges on herd health and farm profitability (3). To address these challenges, several studies have been conducted to alleviate weaning stress, reduce diarrhea, and enhance pig growth. Previous studies have shown that probiotic feed additives can improve nutrient utilization, feed efficiency, and growth-related performance in pigs by supporting intestinal function (4). In particular, *L. plantarum*-based feed additives may support postweaning productivity by improving intestinal morphology and nutrient absorption (5), as well as resilience against diarrhea-associated growth retardation through pathogen suppression and host defense modulation (6). These effects are closely associated with intestinal environmental changes, including increased villus height, modulation of gut microbiota, suppression of opportunistic pathogens, and stimulation of local immune responses (5, 6).

Antibiotics have traditionally been used to control diseases in livestock. However, their continuous application disrupts the gut microbiota and accelerates the spread of antimicrobial resistance, raising significant public health concerns (7, 8). To address these challenges, probiotics have emerged as promising alternatives to promote

72 swine health and performance. Probiotics, including *Lactobacillus plantarum*, help
73 maintain balanced intestinal microbiota, suppress opportunistic pathogen growth, and
74 stimulate local immune responses (4, 6). Recent studies have reported that *L.*
75 *plantarum* supplementation is associated with increased villus height in the ileum,
76 jejunum, and duodenum, thereby enhancing nutrient absorption and strengthening the
77 gut barrier against pathogens (5). Collectively, probiotics contribute to the stabilization
78 of intestinal function and resilience, ultimately supporting animal growth and
79 productivity.

80 Previous studies have investigated the effects of *L. plantarum* on weaned
81 piglets; however, most have relied on a single-omics approach (5, 9). Although studies
82 provide valuable insights, the complexity and interconnectedness of biological systems
83 in animals make it difficult to fully capture host responses through single-omics
84 analysis alone. To overcome these limitations, this study employed an integrated multi-
85 omics approach, combining transcriptomics, metabolomics, and microbiomics data.
86 This systematic integration enables a more comprehensive characterization of the
87 interplay between gene expression patterns, metabolic alterations, and microbial
88 community dynamics, thereby offering deeper insights into the mechanisms by which
89 *L. plantarum* influences piglet development and health.

90 The ileum, which is the terminal segment of the small intestine, is
91 structurally characterized by abundant villi and microvilli that expand its absorptive
92 surface. In addition to its role in nutrient absorption, the ileum contains Peyer's
93 patches—specialized lymphoid structures—that function as key sites for initiating
94 mucosal immune responses (10). Although the ileum does not directly secrete digestive
95 enzymes, it depends on enzymes from the jejunum for complete digestion and nutrient

96 uptake. Given its dual roles in nutrient assimilation and mucosal immunity, the ileum
97 is regarded as a critical region for intestinal health evaluation. Previous studies have
98 shown that probiotics, particularly *L. plantarum*, can influence ileal physiology by
99 enhancing the villus architecture and modulating immune activity, thereby contributing
100 to intestinal barrier integrity and overall gut function (5).

101 In this study, we aimed to elucidate the biological mechanisms underlying host–
102 microbiome interactions mediated by intestinal metabolites in weaned piglets and
103 identify key molecular pathways and microbial signatures that contribute to gut health
104 and development during the critical weaning transition. Using an integrated multi-
105 omics framework, specifically one that combines transcriptomics, metabolomics, and
106 microbiological data, this study provides a comprehensive framework for
107 understanding how *L. plantarum* shapes the intestinal ecosystems of weaned piglets.
108 These insights may inform the development of targeted nutritional or microbial
109 interventions to promote intestinal integrity, enhance immune function, and improve
110 growth performance in swine production.

111

2. Methods

2.1 Animals and experimental design

Six piglets [(Landrace × Yorkshire) × Duroc] were weaned at 28 days of age and used in this study. The animals were randomly assigned to one of two treatment groups (n = 3 per group): a control group fed a standard corn–soybean meal-based diet, and a treatment group receiving the same basal diet supplemented with 0.02% *L. plantarum* IDCC 3501 (CON + *L. plantarum*), providing 2×10^9 CFU/g of probiotic. Each pig was housed individually in a pen (232 × 175 cm) equipped with a slatted plastic floor, feeder, and ad libitum access to water. The ambient temperature was maintained at 28–30°C, and relative humidity was controlled at $55 \pm 5\%$, under a 12-h light/dark cycle. Diets were formulated to meet or exceed the nutritional requirements of the weaning pigs (NRC, 2012), and the ingredient and calculated nutrient compositions of the basal diet are provided in Supplementary Table S1. After a 2-week feeding period, ileal tissue and fecal samples were collected from three pigs per group. Ileal tissues were used for transcriptomic analysis via RNA sequencing, and fecal samples were subjected to 16S rRNA gene sequencing for microbiota profiling and untargeted metabolomic analysis using gas chromatography–mass spectrometry (GC–MS).

2.2 Sample collection

After the 2-week feeding period (day 14 post weaning), fecal samples were collected from all pigs (n = 3 per group) and immediately stored at –80 °C for downstream microbiome and metabolomic analyses. Following sample collection, the

135 pigs were euthanized and ileal tissue samples were obtained for transcriptomic analysis.
136 Approximately 3 cm segments of the ileum were excised, gently rinsed with sterile
137 saline, and immersed in RNAlater® solution (QIAGEN GmbH, Hilden, Germany) at
138 room temperature for 24 h. The stabilized samples were then stored at –80 °C until
139 RNA extraction.

140

141 **2.3 Preparation of 16S rRNA Gene Amplicon Libraries**

142 To characterize the fecal microbiota, the V3–V4 regions of the 16S rRNA gene
143 were amplified using a standard Illumina 16S Metagenomic Sequencing Library
144 Preparation protocol. Genomic DNA (2 ng per sample) was subjected to PCR in a
145 reaction mixture containing 5 × reaction buffer, 1 mM dNTPs, 500 nM of each
146 universal primer, and Herculanase II Fusion DNA Polymerase (Agilent Technologies,
147 Santa Clara, CA, USA). The thermal cycling conditions were as follows: initial
148 denaturation at 95°C for 3 min; 25 cycles of 95°C for 30 s, 55°C for 30 s, and 72°C for
149 30 s; and a final extension at 72°C for 5 min. The primer pair used for the amplification
150 included Illumina adapter overhang sequences:

151 V3-F (5'-
152 GTCGGCAGCGTCAGATGTGTATAAGAGACAGCCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG-3')

153 and

154 V4-R (5'-
155 GTCTCGTGGGCTCGGAGATGTGTATAAGAGACAGGACTACHVGGGTATCTA
156 ATCC-3'). The initial amplicons were purified with AMPure beads (Agencourt

157 Bioscience, Beverly, MA, USA). Two microliters of the purified product was then re-

158 amplified with Nextera XT index primers to incorporate dual indices and Illumina
159 adapters. This indexing PCR was performed under the same thermal profile as the first
160 reaction, but for only 10 cycles. The indexed products were purified again using
161 AMPure beads, after which the library concentration was determined by quantitative
162 PCR using the KAPA Library Quantification Kit for Illumina. Library size distribution
163 and integrity were verified using the TapeStation system with a D1000 ScreenTape
164 (Agilent Technologies, Waldbronn, Germany). Equimolar pooled libraries were
165 sequenced using an Illumina MiSeq instrument (2×300 bp paired-end reads) at
166 Macrogen, Inc.

167

168 **2.4 Microbial community profiling and taxonomic classification**

169 Cutadapt v3.7 (Marcel, 2011) was used to trim adapter sequences from raw
170 16S rRNA gene reads. All sequences were processed using QIIME2 version 2022.8.
171 To correct sequencing errors and remove noise, amplicon sequence variants (ASVs)
172 were inferred using the DADA2 algorithm (11). The ASVs were taxonomically
173 assigned by aligning them to the SILVA v138_99 reference database with 99%
174 similarity. The V3–V4 hypervariable regions of the 16S rRNA gene were annotated
175 using a Naïve Bayes classifier trained with the q2-feature-classifier plugin.

176 To assess within-sample microbial diversity, alpha diversity was estimated
177 using multiple indices, including the ACE, Chao1, Shannon, and Simpson indices,
178 which provide complementary measures of species richness and evenness. These
179 metrics were calculated using the QIIME2 core metrics phylogenetic pipeline, and
180 statistical comparisons between groups were performed using the alpha group
181 significance plugin.

182 Taxonomic classification was further refined by assigning ASVs to known taxonomic
183 groups based on sequence similarity in the SILVA database, enabling detailed
184 characterization of the microbial composition across treatment conditions.

185

186 **2.5 RNA Sequencing and Data Processing**

187 Total RNA was isolated from ileal tissue using TRIzol reagent (Invitrogen, Life
188 Technologies, Carlsbad, CA, USA) following the manufacturer's protocol (12). The
189 concentration and purity of the RNA were assessed using a NanoDrop ND-1000
190 spectrophotometer (NanoDrop Technologies, Wilmington, DE, USA). Library
191 preparation was performed using 1 µg of total RNA with the Illumina TruSeq™ RNA
192 Sample Preparation Kit. Paired-end sequencing (2 × 100 bp) was performed using an
193 Illumina HiSeq 2000 platform (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA). Detailed sequencing
194 quality metrics for each sample are provided in Supplementary Table S2.

195 During library construction, messenger RNA was fragmented into short segments,
196 which were then reverse-transcribed into first-strand cDNA using random primers and
197 reverse transcriptase. Second-strand synthesis was performed using DNA Polymerase
198 I and RNase H, followed by end repair and adapter ligation.

199 Quality control of raw reads was performed using FastQC v0.12.1 (13), and low-
200 quality bases and adapter sequences were removed with Trimmomatic v0.39 (14),
201 using the parameters SLIDINGWINDOW:4:15 and MINLEN:36. The cleaned reads
202 were re-evaluated for quality using FastQC and aligned to the pig reference genome
203 (*Sus_scrofa*.Sscrofa11.1.112) obtained from the Ensembl genome browser using
204 HISAT2 v2.2.1, with the default settings (15).

205 Aligned reads were sorted and converted into BAM format using Samtools

206 v1.19.2 (16). Gene-level read counts were obtained using the featureCounts function
207 in the Subread package (17), based on exon annotations from the Ensembl GTF file
208 version 112.

209 Differential gene expression analysis was conducted using the edgeR package
210 v3.40.2 in the bioconductor environment (18). Genes with fewer than 10 raw counts
211 across all samples were excluded to ensure statistical robustness. Count data were
212 normalized using the trimmed mean of M-values method (18). Multidimensional
213 scaling analysis was performed using the limma package (19), and visualization was
214 performed using the ggplot2 package (20) to assess sample clustering.

215 Differentially expressed genes (DEGs) were identified based on a false discovery
216 rate (FDR) threshold of 0.05, adjusted using the Benjamini–Hochberg method, and a
217 minimum absolute \log_2 fold change of 1.

219 **2.6 Identification of DEGs and Functional Annotation**

220 To investigate the biological significance of DEGs, functional enrichment
221 analysis was performed using Gene Ontology (GO) biological processes (21) and
222 Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) pathway annotations (22).
223 Functional annotation and enrichment were performed using the Database for
224 Annotation, Visualization, and Integrated Discovery (DAVID) v2022 (23).

225 GO terms were filtered using the "DIRECT" annotation option to ensure
226 specificity, and enrichment analysis was conducted with the following thresholds: P -
227 value < 1 and gene count ≥ 2 for initial filtering, followed by P -value < 0.1 and count
228 ≥ 2 for significance. KEGG pathway enrichment analyses were performed using the
229 same criteria. Enrichment results were reported as $-\log_{10}(P\text{-value})$ and fold enrichment

230 values for each pathway, with significance assessed directly from the enrichment test
231 *P*-values rather than corrected *q*-values.

232 To improve interpretability, the enriched GO terms were grouped based on their
233 semantic similarity using the REVIGO tool (24). Tree map visualizations were
234 generated to highlight the representative GO terms from each functional group,
235 emphasizing the most statistically significant terms in each cluster.

236

237 **2.7 Metabolomic Sample Preparation and GC–MS Analysis**

238 For untargeted metabolomic profiling, fecal samples were extracted using ice-
239 cold 100% methanol at a ratio of 0.5 mL per 100 μ L of sample volume. The extraction
240 procedure consisted of three cycles of 1-min vigorous vortexing, interspersed at 1-min
241 intervals on ice to enhance metabolite solubilization. Following extraction, samples
242 were centrifuged at $16,000 \times g$ for 5 min at 4°C, and the resulting supernatants were
243 filtered using 0.2 μ m polyvinylidene fluoride syringe filters. A 400 μ L aliquot of the
244 filtered extract was dried using a speed vacuum concentrator and stored at –80°C until
245 analysis.

246 Prior to GC–MS analysis, the dried metabolites were chemically derivatized
247 under a nitrogen atmosphere using *N,O*-bis(trimethylsilyl)trifluoroacetamide to
248 improve their volatility and thermal stability. Chromatographic separation was
249 performed on a fused silica capillary column coated with 5% diphenyl/95%
250 dimethylpolysiloxane (20 m \times 0.18 mm ID, 0.18 μ m film thickness), with helium used
251 as the carrier gas. The oven temperature was programmed to increase from 60°C to
252 340°C, over a 17.5-min period.

253 Each sample was spiked with nine internal standards (250 ng each) for

254 normalization and quality control: amylbenzene, 1-phenylhexane, 1-phenyloctane, 1-
255 phenyldecane, 1-phenyldodecane, hexadecylbenzene, octadecylbenzene,
256 tetradecylbenzene, and 2,6-di-tert-butyl-4-methylphenol. Mass spectrometric detection
257 was conducted using a Thermo-Finnigan Trace DSQ fast-scanning single-quadrupole
258 system equipped with electron impact (EI) ionization and operated in full-scan mode
259 over a mass range of 50–750 m/z. Metabolites were annotated by comparing EI mass
260 spectra and retention information against the NIST mass spectral library.

261

262 **2.8 Metabolite Functional analysis**

263 To evaluate the biological significance of the metabolomic alterations, pathway
264 enrichment analysis was performed using MetaboAnalyst 6.0 (25). A list of annotated
265 metabolites obtained from the GC-MS profiling was uploaded to the Enrichment
266 Analysis module, and the compounds were mapped to KEGG identifiers using the
267 default metabolite mapping function. Ambiguous or unmatched entries were excluded
268 from analysis.

269 Overrepresentation analysis was performed using the KEGG metabolic pathway
270 library as a reference. Statistical significance was assessed using a hypergeometric test,
271 and pathways were ranked according to their enrichment ratios and corresponding
272 nominal *P*-values. For visualization, the top 25 enriched metabolic pathways were
273 selected and summarized in a bubble plot, in which the x-axis indicates $-\log_{10}(P\text{-value})$,
274 bubble size represents the enrichment ratio, and bubble color reflects the degree of
275 significance.

276

277 **2.9 Multi-omics integration analysis**

278 Microbiome and metabolomics data were integrated using Model-based
279 Integration of Metabolite Observations and Species Abundances 2 (MIMOSA2;
280 <http://elbo-spice.cs.tau.ac.il/shiny/MIMOSA2shiny/>). This framework enables the
281 quantification of community-level metabolic potential (CMP) scores by modeling
282 metabolite turnover within microbial communities based on species-level metabolic
283 capabilities annotated in the KEGG database. MIMOSA2 supports paired
284 microbiome–metabolome datasets and facilitates mechanistic interpretations by
285 estimating the contribution of each taxon to metabolite production or consumption (26).
286 The resulting scatterplots include trend lines indicating that the directionality of
287 metabolite concentration changes with positive slopes for increases and negative slopes
288 for decreases, along with corresponding R^2 values that represent the degree of
289 association between CMP and metabolite levels. Contribution bar charts illustrate the
290 proportional impact of individual taxa on metabolite variance, with positive and
291 negative values indicating their potential roles in metabolite accumulation and
292 depletion, respectively ($P < 0.1$).

293 To further explore host–microbiome metabolic interactions, a joint pathway analysis
294 was performed using MetaboAnalyst 6.0 (25). This analysis integrated the DEG-
295 abundant metabolites identified by MIMOSA2 with the host DEGs to uncover
296 convergently modulated metabolic pathways. Pathway impact scores were computed
297 to evaluate the relative significance of each pathway within the network, considering
298 the pathway topology and metabolite–gene associations.

299

3. Results

3.1. Transcriptomic profiling and differential gene expression analysis

RNA sequencing of the ileal tissue generated 233,587,372 raw reads with an average GC content of 44.75%. After quality trimming, 230,054,530 clean reads were retained, exhibiting a slightly reduced GC content (44.58%). Alignment to the reference *Sus scrofa* genome resulted in an overall alignment rate of 84.8%, with 74.19% of the reads uniquely mapped (Table 1).

Differential expression analysis between the control and *L. plantarum* treatment groups identified 1,229 DEGs, including 662 upregulated and 567 downregulated transcripts, based on a threshold of $|\log_2FC| \geq 1$ and $FDR < 0.05$ (Fig. 1).

3.2. Functional enrichment analysis of DEGs

Functional enrichment analysis of the DEGs in the ileum was performed using the DAVID database. Gene Ontology analysis revealed significant enrichment in immune-related biological processes, including the positive regulation of interleukin-6 production and actin filament organization, indicating the potential activation of immune responses and epithelial remodeling (Fig. 2).

In the cellular component category, DEGs were associated with structures such as phagocytic vesicles, Z discs, apical plasma membranes, and focal adhesions, implying alterations in membrane dynamics and epithelial barrier organization (Fig. 2).

KEGG pathway analysis identified multiple enriched pathways related to immune regulation and barrier function, such as the B-cell receptor signaling pathway,

323 nuclear factor kappa-light-chain-enhancer of activated B cells (NF- κ B) signaling
324 pathway, the intestinal immune network for IgA production, and leukocyte
325 transendothelial migration. In addition, enrichment of tight junctions, mineral
326 absorption, fat digestion and absorption, and general metabolic pathways suggests
327 coordinated regulation of mucosal defense and nutrient absorption (Fig. 2).

328 To explore metabolic alterations induced by *L. plantarum* supplementation,
329 untargeted metabolomic profiling of fecal samples was performed. Enrichment
330 analysis using MetaboAnalyst6.0 revealed that DEG-abundant metabolites were
331 predominantly associated with amino acid and lipid metabolism pathways (Fig. 3).

332 Specifically, valine, leucine, and isoleucine biosynthesis; glutathione
333 metabolism; arginine and proline metabolism; and glycine, serine, and threonine
334 metabolism were among the most enriched pathways. These pathways are closely
335 linked to cellular repair, the oxidative stress response, and mucosal homeostasis.

336 Furthermore, the enrichment of linoleic acid metabolism, pantothenate and
337 CoA biosynthesis, and butanoate metabolism suggests the potential modulation of fatty
338 acid processing and short-chain fatty acid production. Notably, sphingolipid
339 metabolism, although less prominently enriched, was also observed, implying its
340 potential role in epithelial barrier dynamics.

341 Overall, metabolite-based pathway analysis indicates that *L. plantarum*
342 supplementation alters key metabolic pathways in the gut environment, particularly
343 those involved in nutrient absorption, redox balance, and epithelial support.

344

345 **3.3. Fecal microbiome shifts post *L. plantarum* treatment**

346 Alpha diversity analysis revealed that dietary supplementation with *L.*
347 *plantarum* led to increased microbial richness and diversity in fecal samples, as
348 evidenced by higher ACE, Chao1, Shannon, and Simpson indices than those in the
349 control group (Fig. 4). These results suggest that *L. plantarum* intake enhances the
350 ecological complexity of the gut microbiota in weaned piglets. This observation is
351 consistent with previous studies reporting that dietary *L. plantarum* administration
352 increases alpha diversity in the gastrointestinal microbiota, thereby contributing to
353 improved gut microbial stability and resilience (5).

354 Taxonomic analysis at the genus level revealed compositional differences between the
355 control and treatment groups (Fig. 5). Notably, the relative abundance of *Lactobacillus*
356 increased in the plantarum-supplemented group, indicating the successful colonization
357 or promotion of commensal lactic acid bacteria. In contrast, potentially pathogenic
358 genera, such as *Shigella*, were markedly reduced, which may be attributed to
359 competitive exclusion or pH-lowering effects associated with lactic acid production.
360 Interestingly, an increase in the genus *Helicobacter* was observed in the treatment
361 group. Although *Helicobacter* includes pathogenic species, its proliferation may reflect
362 transient ecological shifts rather than pathogenic overgrowth.

363

364 **3.4. Ileal Microbiota Functional Prediction**

365 To investigate the functional implications of microbial compositional
366 changes, predictive metagenomic analysis was performed based on 16S rRNA gene
367 data (Fig. 6). Comparison of functional pathway abundance revealed significant
368 enrichment of the NOD-like receptor signaling pathway in the *L. plantarum*-

369 supplemented group compared to that in the control group ($P = 0.024$). The NOD-like
370 receptor family is integral to innate immune surveillance, recognizing intracellular
371 microbial components and initiating downstream signaling cascades, including
372 activation of NF- κ B and inflammasome formation, ultimately leading to the production
373 of proinflammatory cytokines and antimicrobial peptides.

374

375 **3.5. Microbiota–Metabolite Associations Predicted by MIMOSA2**

376 To elucidate the functional contributions of the gut microbiota to metabolite
377 variation, an integrative analysis was performed using MIMOSA2, which infers CMP
378 based on species abundance and genome-scale metabolic reconstructions. The analysis
379 identified six metabolites that were significantly influenced by the microbiome
380 composition: L-serine, nicotinate, L-proline, linoleate, pidolic acid, and D-
381 phenylalanine (Fig. 7). For each metabolite, the CMP scores were calculated and
382 matched to the metabolite abundance profiles, revealing taxa-specific associations (P
383 < 0.1).

384

385 **3.6. Integrated Metabolic Pathways Linking Ileal Transcriptome and Microbial** 386 **Metabolites**

387 To identify the functional convergence of host gene expression and microbial-
388 derived metabolites, joint pathway analysis was conducted using MetaboAnalyst 6.0.
389 Additionally, KEGG pathway integration was performed by combining the ileal DEGs
390 with metabolites predicted using MIMOSA2. Nine metabolic pathways were identified
391 as functional nodes between the host transcriptome and the microbial metabolome

392 based on both pathway impact and statistical enrichment (Fig. 8). Linoleic acid
393 metabolism exhibited the greatest impact and significance. Glycerolipid metabolism,
394 and cysteine and methionine metabolism also showed high statistical enrichment,
395 whereas glycerophospholipid metabolism displayed a comparatively lower pathway
396 impact but remained statistically significant.

397

398 **3.7. Influence of microbiota–host interactions on host metabolic pathways**

399 The alluvial diagram constructed from the integrated multi-omics analysis
400 revealed extensive interactions between the ileal microbiota, microbially derived
401 metabolites, host metabolic pathways, and host genes (Fig. 9). At the family level, the
402 distinct microbial taxa were strongly associated with specific metabolites.
403 *Helicobacteraceae* predominantly contributed to linoleate, L-proline, and L-serine
404 metabolism, whereas *Enterobacteriaceae* were linked to linoleate, l-serine, and
405 nicotinate metabolism. Additionally, *Prevotellaceae* was involved in the metabolism
406 of L-proline, L-serine, and nicotinate; *Fusobacteriaceae* was primarily associated with
407 nicotinate; and *Cerasicoccaceae* showed a specific relationship with pidolic acid.
408 Integration of these microbial-derived metabolites with the host ileal transcriptome
409 identified several metabolic pathways, notably linoleic acid metabolism; glycine,
410 serine, and threonine metabolism; and sphingolipid metabolism as key nodes
411 influenced by the microbiota during the weaning transition.

4. Discussion

A comprehensive multi-omics strategy was used to investigate the effects of dietary *L. plantarum* supplementation on host–microbiome interactions in weaned piglets. First, each omics layer was analyzed independently, including assessments of the ileal transcriptome, fecal microbiome, and fecal metabolome, to characterize the alterations induced by probiotic intake. The relationships between fecal microbiota and microbial-derived metabolites were examined to determine how specific taxa contributed to shifts in metabolite profiles. Metabolites that were significantly modulated by microbial activity were subsequently integrated with the ileal transcriptomic data to explore their associations with host gene expression. This integrative analysis provides a comprehensive understanding of how probiotic-induced changes in the gut microbial ecosystem and its metabolic outputs converge with host intestinal transcriptional responses during the postweaning transition.

4.1 Metabolic adaptation

Multi-omics integration revealed that *L. plantarum* supplementation strongly influenced host–microbiome metabolic interactions, particularly within the lipid and amino acid pathways. Linoleic acid metabolism exhibited the greatest impact (Fig. 8). Transcriptomic evidence showed increased *CYP1A2* expression, suggesting enhanced conversion of linoleic acid into epoxy-linoleates. Unlike other linoleic acid derivatives that can promote inflammatory signaling, epoxy-linoleates exert anti-inflammatory and cytoprotective effects, including the suppression of reactive oxygen species and preservation of tight junction protein expression (27-29). These effects are particularly

435 relevant during the postweaning transition, when piglets face high oxidative stress and
436 a heightened risk of barrier disruption.

437 Alterations in glycine, serine, and threonine metabolism were also evident.
438 Although *Helicobacteraceae* members were associated with serine consumption, host
439 transcriptional responses appeared to compensate through enhanced serine
440 biosynthesis. Specifically, the upregulation of *PHGDH* and *PGAM1* diverted
441 glycolytic intermediates toward serine production, whereas the downregulation of
442 *SDSL* limited the conversion of serine to glycine. This coordinated adjustment
443 promotes serine accumulation, which is critical for mucin production and membrane
444 phospholipid synthesis, thereby reinforcing epithelial protection (30-32).

445 Sphingolipid metabolism further suggested probiotic-driven remodeling.
446 Transcriptomic profiles showed reduced *SPHK2* expression, along with increased
447 *B4GALT6* expression, suggesting a shift toward ceramide retention and complex
448 glycosphingolipid synthesis (Fig. 9). These molecules are known to cluster within lipid
449 rafts, disperse pathogen receptors, and reduce microbial adherence (33, 34). Such
450 modulation suggests that *L. plantarum* supplementation may support both metabolic
451 stability and structural defense against pathogenic invasion.

452 Collectively, these findings highlight a coordinated metabolic adaptation in
453 which *L. plantarum* supplementation directs lipid and amino acid metabolism toward
454 pathways that reduce oxidative stress, stabilize tight junctions, and enhance mucosal
455 defense. These adjustments are likely central to maintaining intestinal integrity during
456 physiologically stressful weaning periods.

457

458 **4.2 Immune modulation**

459 In addition to metabolic adaptations, *L. plantarum* supplementation modulated
460 immune-related processes at both the transcriptomic and microbiome levels. Gene
461 Ontology and KEGG analyses revealed enrichment of pathways associated with
462 interleukin-6 signaling, NF- κ B activation, B cell receptor signaling, and IgA
463 production, indicating that probiotic intake promoted immune responsiveness at
464 multiple levels (Fig. 2). Collectively, these pathways contribute to mucosal defense by
465 coordinating cytokine release, immune cell recruitment, and antibody production.
466 Importantly, such effects are highly relevant in weaned piglets, whose adaptive immune
467 systems remain immature; antigen-specific IgA responses typically become functional
468 only after approximately six weeks of age (35). Therefore, the activation of immune
469 pathways in response to *L. plantarum* may represent a compensatory mechanism that
470 reinforces mucosal defense during this immunologically vulnerable period. However,
471 these immune-related changes should be interpreted with caution because the piglets
472 were not experimentally challenged with specific pathogens. Therefore, the observed
473 immune responses may reflect enhanced mucosal preparedness rather than a pathogen-
474 induced inflammatory response.

475 Microbiome analysis confirmed these immune-related changes. Alpha diversity
476 indices, including ACE, Chao1, Shannon, and Simpson indices, were consistently
477 higher in the *L. plantarum* group, reflecting a more balanced microbial ecosystem (Fig.
478 4). Enhanced microbial diversity is widely associated with greater functional
479 redundancy and ecological resilience, allowing the gut microbiota to resist
480 perturbations and outcompete opportunistic pathogens (36, 37). Taxonomic shifts
481 supported this protective role; the abundance of *Lactobacillus* increased, while that of
482 potentially pathogenic genera such as *Shigella* were reduced, consistent with probiotic-

483 mediated pathogen suppression via competitive exclusion and lactic acid production
484 (2, 6) (Fig. 5).

485 Interestingly, a transient increase in *Helicobacter* was observed. This transient
486 shift may also be associated with changes in gut pH, as lactic acid produced by
487 probiotics can contribute to acidification, potentially influencing the relative
488 abundance of acid-tolerant taxa such as *Helicobacter*. Although certain species within
489 this genus can be pathogenic, previous studies have shown that acid-tolerant
490 *Helicobacter* strains may expand temporarily when microbial competition decreases
491 after weaning (37). This transient shift likely represents an ecological adjustment rather
492 than harmful colonization, further underscoring the dynamic interplay between
493 microbial competition and the host environment during the weaning transition.

494 Predictive metagenomic analysis provided additional evidence of immune
495 modulation, revealing the enrichment of the NOD-like receptor signaling pathway in
496 the *L. plantarum*-supplemented group (Fig. 6). NOD-like receptors act as critical
497 intracellular sensors that detect microbial motifs and initiate downstream activation of
498 NF- κ B and inflammasome pathways, culminating in the production of cytokines and
499 antimicrobial peptides (1). This suggests that probiotic supplementation may enhance
500 innate immune preparedness, effectively bridging the gap until the adaptive immune
501 system becomes fully functional.

502 Taken together, these findings demonstrate that *L. plantarum* supplementation
503 not only reshapes the gut microbiota composition, but also strengthens mucosal
504 immunity by stimulating innate defense pathways and promoting ecological stability.
505 Such changes likely contribute to the reduced susceptibility to postweaning diarrhea
506 and improved intestinal resilience.

507

508 **4.3 Integrated host–microbiome interactions**

509 The multi-omics framework used in this study revealed how *L. plantarum*
510 supplementation shapes host–microbiome interactions during the postweaning
511 transition. MIMOSA2 analysis identified taxon-specific contributions to metabolite
512 turnover, with *Helicobacteraceae* linked to L-serine and L-proline consumption,
513 *Prevotellaceae* and *Enterobacteriaceae* influencing both amino acid and nicotinate
514 metabolism, and *Cerasicoccaceae* associated with pidolic acid production (Fig. 7).
515 Conversely, metabolites such as linoleate, pidolic acid, and D-phenylalanine were
516 predicted to be produced microbially, indicating that distinct bacterial taxa contributed
517 to either consumption or production depending on the metabolic context. These
518 findings highlight the division of metabolic labor within the gut microbiota and
519 illustrate how probiotic-driven shifts reconfigure the luminal metabolite pool.

520 When host transcriptional responses were overlaid with microbial metabolite
521 profiles, several convergent pathways emerged, including linoleic acid, glycerolipid,
522 cysteine, methionine, and glycerophospholipid metabolism (Fig. 8). These pathways
523 were closely associated with epithelial lipid remodeling, antioxidant defense, and cell
524 membrane turnover, suggesting that probiotic supplementation fosters a metabolic
525 environment conducive to epithelial resilience. Key host genes were identified as
526 central mediators within these processes. *CYP1A2* directs linoleic acid toward epoxy-
527 linoleates, reducing oxidative stress and reinforcing tight junctions. *PGAM1* and
528 *PHGDH* enhanced serine biosynthesis, whereas *SDSL* downregulation limited serine
529 catabolism, collectively ensuring serine retention for mucin and phospholipid synthesis.
530 *B4GALT6* promotes glycosphingolipid formation that disperses pathogen receptors

531 within lipid rafts, thereby decreasing the opportunities for microbial adhesion.

532 Importantly, these host–microbiome adjustments did not operate in isolation but
533 formed a coordinated network of interactions. While Sankey plot visualization reflects
534 correlation rather than direct causation, the associations highlight functionally
535 meaningful links (Fig. 9). For example, even though *Helicobacteraceae* transiently
536 expanded and correlated with the consumption of L-serine and L-proline, host
537 transcriptional adjustments compensated for the enhanced serine biosynthesis and
538 restricted catabolism. This ensures sufficient serine availability for barrier-supportive
539 functions, thereby maintaining the epithelial integrity in an environment with increased
540 microbial competition. Probiotic supplementation buffers the potential negative effects
541 of transient microbial shifts, with host metabolic compensation and enhanced microbial
542 diversity, thereby preventing long-term destabilization.

543 Overall, these integrative findings illustrate that *L. plantarum* supplementation
544 orchestrates a multilayered adaptation in which microbial taxa, metabolite profiles, and
545 host gene expression converge to stabilize the intestinal barrier and promote immune
546 preparedness. This systems-level interplay highlights the value of multi-omics
547 approaches in uncovering mechanisms that would remain hidden under single-omics
548 frameworks, providing a holistic understanding of how probiotics mitigate weaning-
549 associated stress in piglets.

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5. Conclusion

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This study characterized the effects of *Lactobacillus plantarum* supplementation on host–microbiome interactions in weaned piglets using an integrated multi-omics approach. Probiotic supplementation increased microbial diversity, promoted beneficial bacterial populations, reduced potentially pathogenic taxa, and was associated with host transcriptional changes related to immune function, epithelial barrier maintenance, and metabolic regulation. Integrated analysis identified linoleic acid, glycine/serine/threonine, and sphingolipid metabolism as key pathways linking microbial and host responses. These findings indicate that *L. plantarum* may help improve intestinal resilience during weaning and provide mechanistic insight into its beneficial role in gut health. Practically, the microbial, metabolic, and host transcriptional signatures identified here may guide the development of targeted probiotic-based feed additives aimed at improving antioxidant capacity, mucosal immune preparedness, and metabolic stability during the postweaning period. Such strategies may help reduce weaning-associated intestinal stress and support healthier growth in commercial swine production.

567

Acknowledgments

568 This work was supported by Korea Institute of Planning and Evaluation for Technology
569 in Food, Agriculture and Forestry(IPET) through Agricultural Microbiome R&D
570 Program for Advancing innovative technology Program(or Project), funded by
571 Ministry of Agriculture, Food and Rural Affairs(MAFRA)(RS-2025-02216704) and
572 was supported by the Chung-Ang University Research Grants in 2024.

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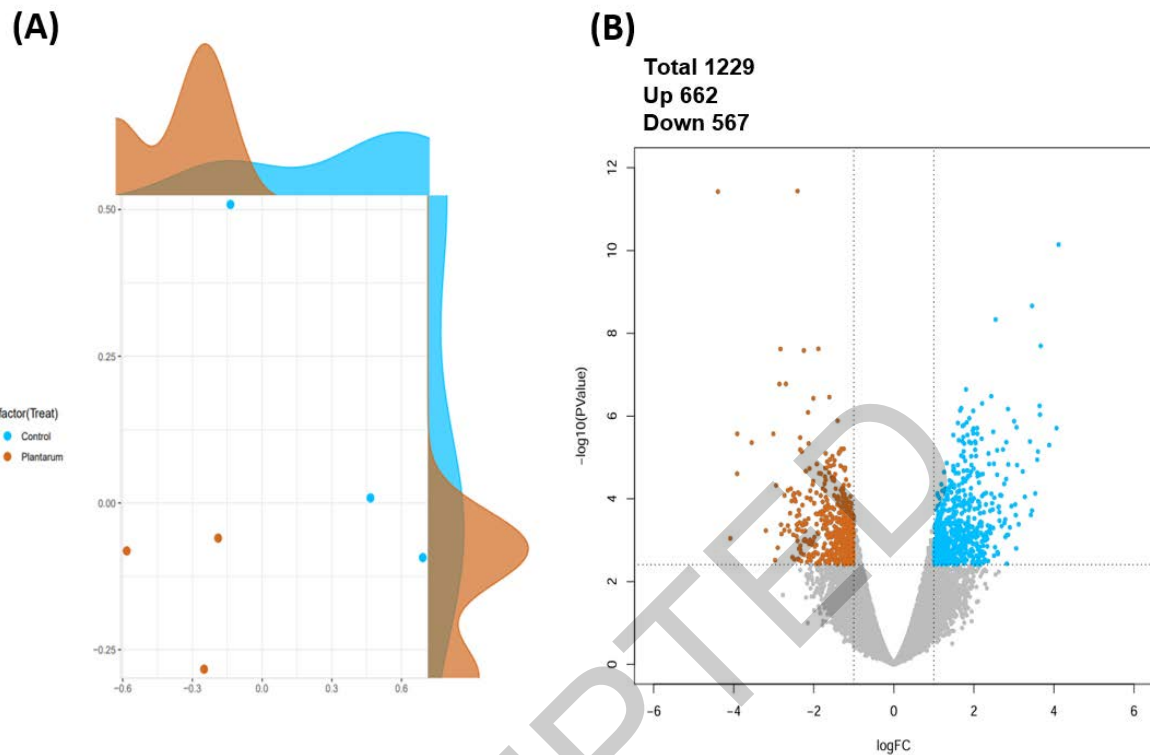
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674 **Table 1.** A summary of RNA-seq preprocessing data

No	Sample name	Treat	Tissue	Raw Data		After Trimmomatic		Trimming	Mapping data	
				reads	%GC	reads	%GC	Rate (%)	Uniquely mapped read (%)	Overall alignment rate (%)
1	PC2_1	Control	Ileum	20,193,852	46	20,159,089	46	0.17	72.49%	83.24%
2	PC2_2	Control	Ileum	20,193,852	47	19,606,972	46	2.91		
3	PC55_1	Control	Ileum	18,998,585	45	18,966,193	45	0.17	71.27%	82.39%
4	PC55_2	Control	Ileum	18,998,585	45	18,431,225	45	2.99		
5	PC168_1	Control	Ileum	19,337,119	45	19,304,289	44	0.17	75.96%	86.98%
6	PC168_2	Control	Ileum	19,337,119	46	18,714,497	44	3.22		
7	T475_1	Plantarum	Ileum	19,594,243	44	19,562,994	44	0.16	72.94%	83.53%
8	T475_2	Plantarum	Ileum	19,594,243	44	19,072,770	44	2.66		
9	T478_1	Plantarum	Ileum	20,664,445	44	20,633,310	43	0.15	76.59%	86.62%
10	T478_2	Plantarum	Ileum	20,664,445	44	20,105,695	45	2.70		
11	T4175_1	Plantarum	Ileum	18,005,442	43	17,978,103	45	0.15	75.90%	86.12%
12	T4175_2	Plantarum	Ileum	18,005,442	44	17,519,393	44	2.70		

675

Figure legends



677

678 **Figure 1.** Transcriptional profiling in the weaned piglet ileum and functional
 679 differentially expressed gene (DEG) analysis.

680 (A) Multidimensional scaling; each point represents an individual sample. Blue and
 681 brown dots indicate control and plantarum groups. (B) DEGs volcano plot overview.

682 log₂FCs in Control-to-Plantarum gene expression ratios and $-\log_{10}(\text{P-value})$ are indicated

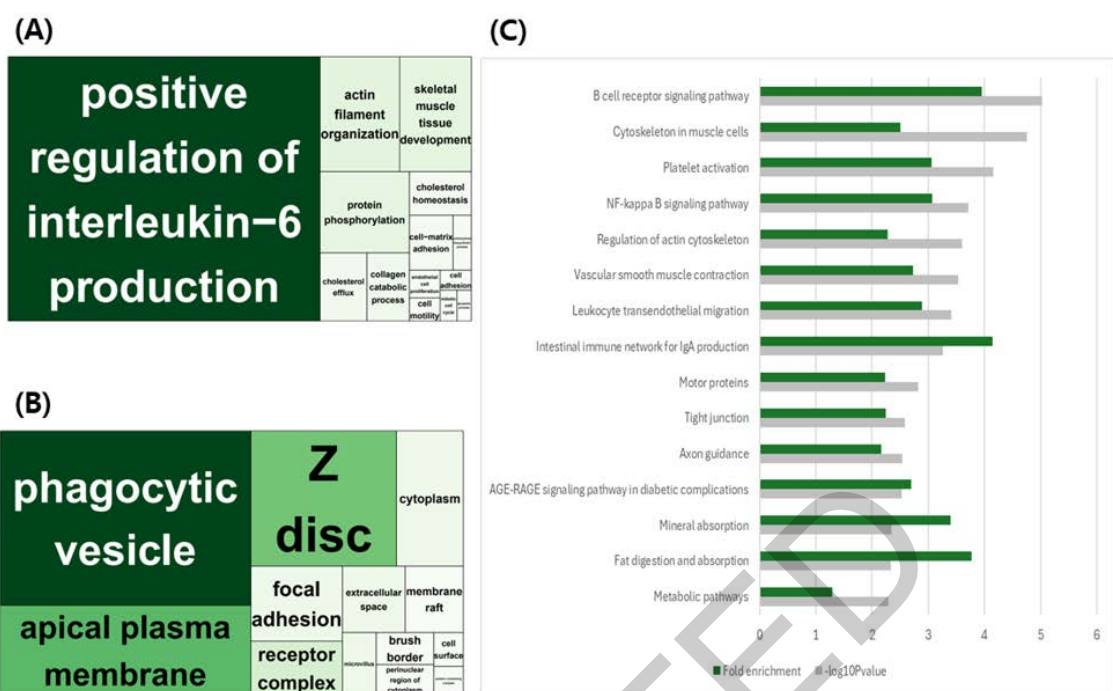
683 on the x and y axes. Blue dots denote 662 significantly upregulated DEGs and brown dots

684 denote 567 significantly down regulated DEGs (false discovery rate < 0.05), and vertical

685 lines establish the two FC thresholds (absolute log₂ FC ≥ 1). Key genes discussed in the

686 manuscript (*CYP1A2*, *PHGDH*, *SPHK2*, and *B4GALT6*) are labeled.

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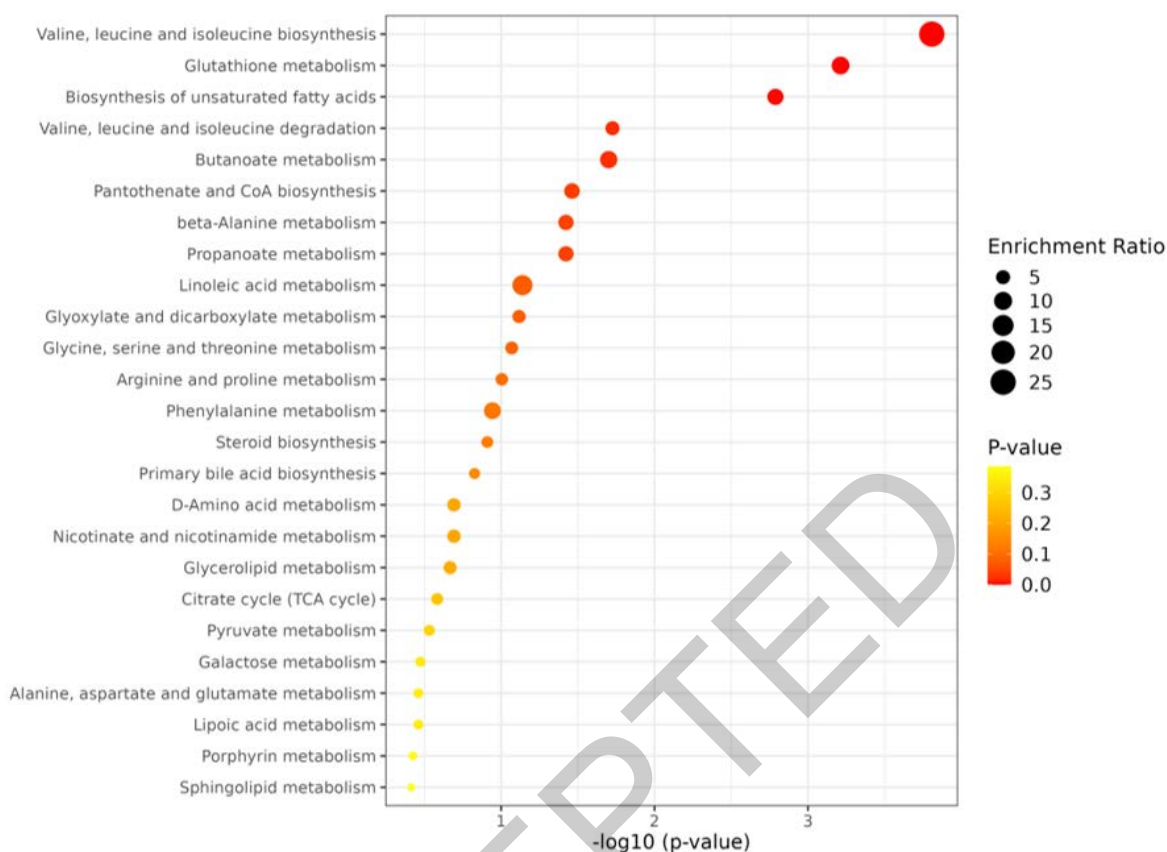
689 **Figure 2.** Gene Ontology (GO) tree map and Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes
 690 (KEGG) pathways of Total differentially expressed gene (DEGs).

691 (A–B) Tree maps showing GO enrichment in ileal tissue. The size of each box
 692 corresponds to the $-\log_{10}(P\text{-value})$ of the GO term, with larger boxes indicating more

693 significant enrichment. (A) Biological Process (BP); (B) Cellular Component. (C) KEGG
 694 pathway analysis of all DEGs. The x-axis represents the fold enrichment and the $-\log_{10}$

695 $(P\text{-value})$, using the original $P\text{-values}$ returned by the enrichment analysis.

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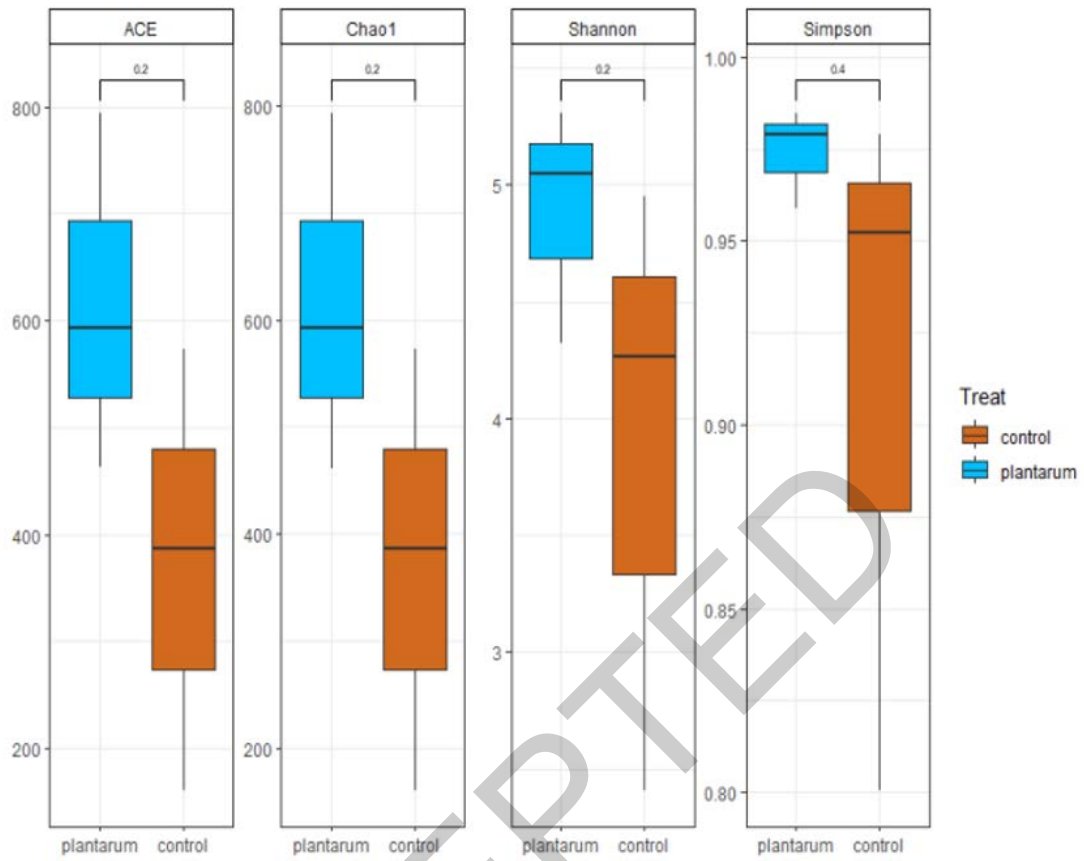


697

698 **Figure 3.** Overview of enriched metabolic pathways based on fecal metabolomic
 699 profiling.

700 Bubble plot showing the top 25 enriched metabolite sets identified using MetaboAnalyst 6.0. The
 701 x-axis represents the statistical significance of pathway enrichment ($-\log_{10}(P\text{-value})$), using the
 702 original P-values returned by the enrichment analysis), and the y-axis lists the associated
 703 metabolic pathways. The size of each circle indicates the enrichment ratio, while the color
 704 gradient from yellow to red reflects increasing statistical significance (i.e., lower P-values).

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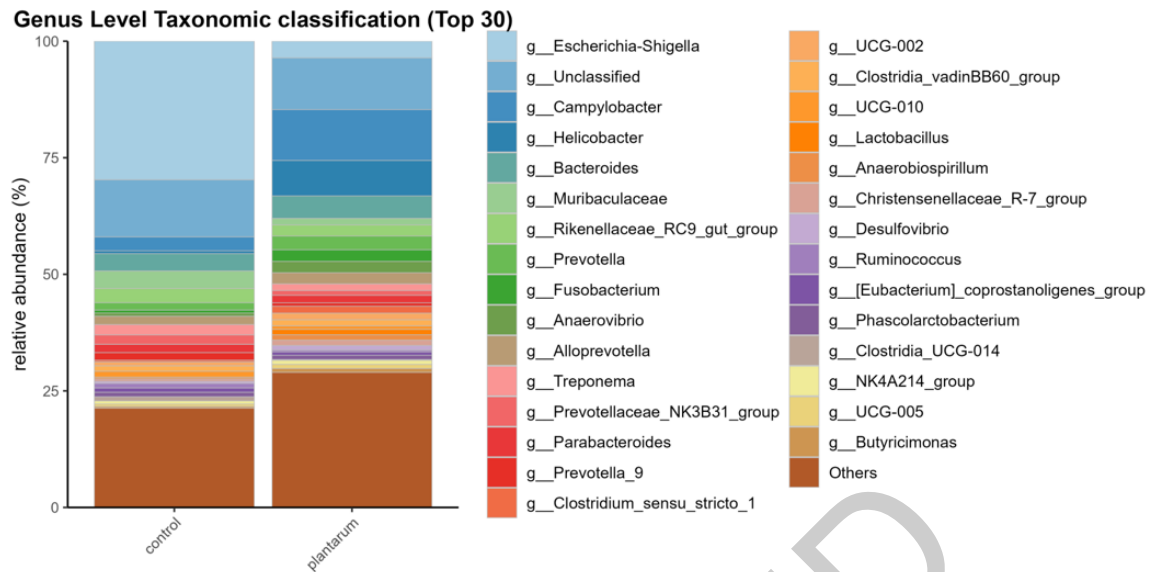


706

707 **Figure 4.** Comparison of alpha diversity indices between control and *Lactobacillus*
 708 *plantarum*-treated piglets.

709 Box plots show microbial diversity metrics based on ACE, Chao1, Shannon, and
 710 Simpson indices in fecal samples (n = 3 per group).

711



712

713 **Figure 5.** Genus-level composition of the fecal microbiota in control and *Lactobacillus*
 714 *plantarum*-treated piglets.

715 The stacked bar chart illustrates the relative abundance (%) of bacterial genera identified
 716 in fecal samples from the control (n = 3) and *L. plantarum*-supplemented (n = 3) groups.

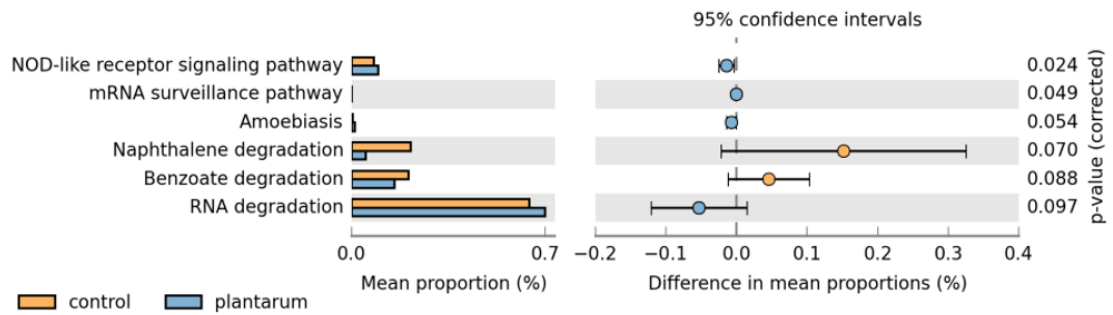
717 Dominant taxa include *Escherichia-Shigella*, *Prevotella*, *Bacteroides*, and *Treponema*.

718 Notably, *Lactobacillus* and *Helicobacter* showed increased proportions in the *L.*

719 *plantarum* group, while *Escherichia-Shigella* was more prominent in the control group.

720 “Others” includes genera with low abundance (< 1%) or unclassified taxa.

721

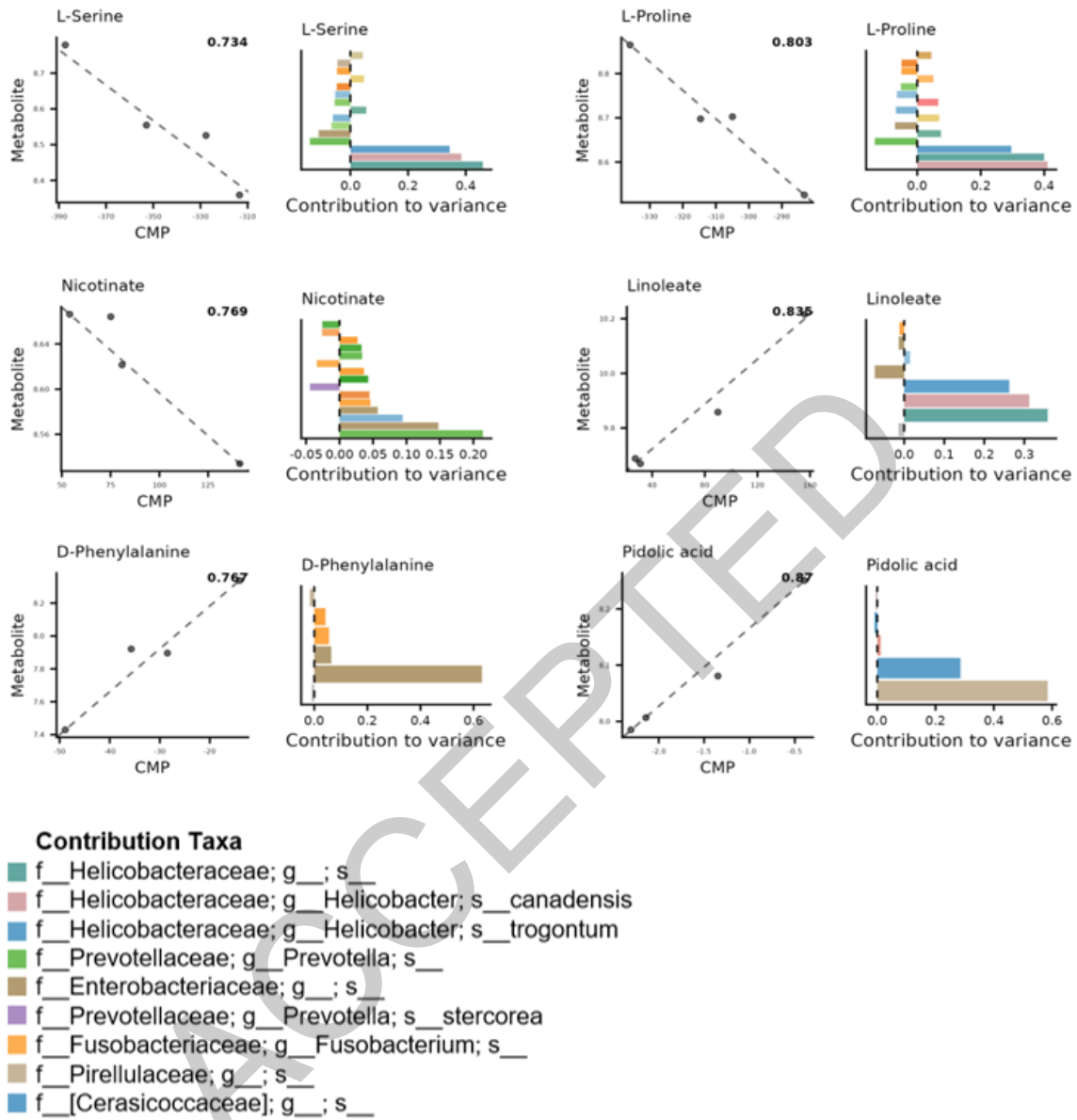


722

723 **Figure 6.** Functional analysis of fecal microbiota based on Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes
 724 and Genomes (KEGG) pathway predictions.

725 Statistically significant microbial pathways ($p < 0.1$), inferred from KEGG annotations,
 726 are shown using statistical analysis of taxonomic and functional profiles generated bar
 727 plots. Orange bars indicate pathways enriched in the Control group, while blue bars
 728 indicate those enriched in the *Lactobacillus plantarum* treated group. The difference in
 729 mean proportions reflects the predicted contribution difference of each pathway between
 730 groups.

731



733

734 **Figure 7.** Integrative analysis of microbial taxa and associated fecal metabolites. The left

735 panels display the relationship between metabolite concentrations and corresponding

736 community metabolic potential (CMP) scores, with trend lines and R^2 values indicating

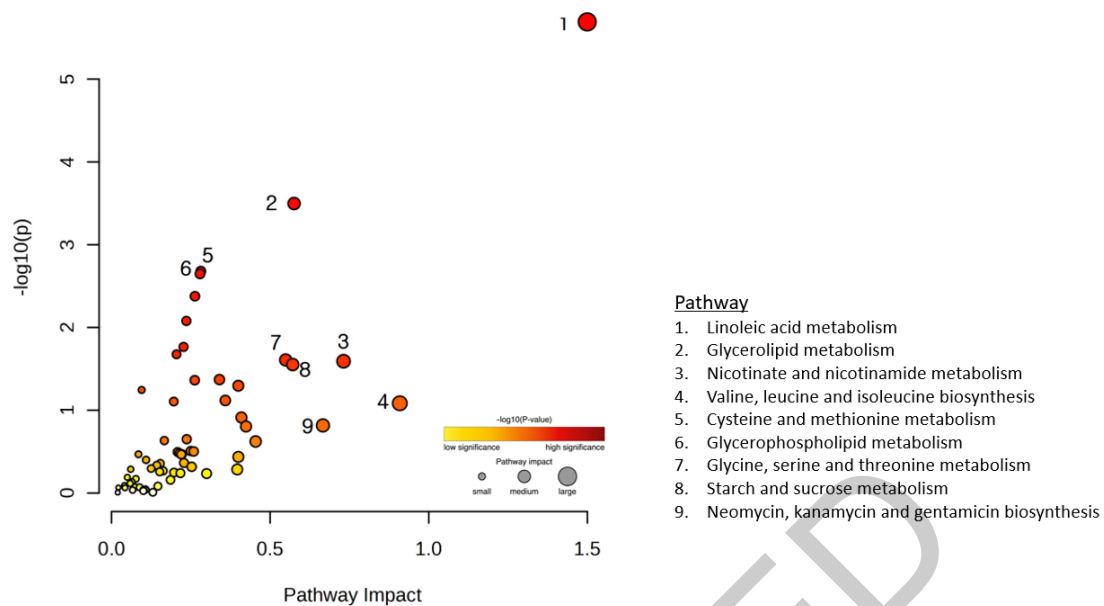
737 the strength of the model fit. The right panels present the contribution of individual

738 microbial taxa to the observed variance in metabolite levels. Bars extending to the right

739 of the vertical axis represent taxa contributing to metabolite production, whereas those to

740 the left indicate taxa associated with metabolite consumption. Color-coded bars
741 correspond to specific bacterial taxa, as indicated in the legend.
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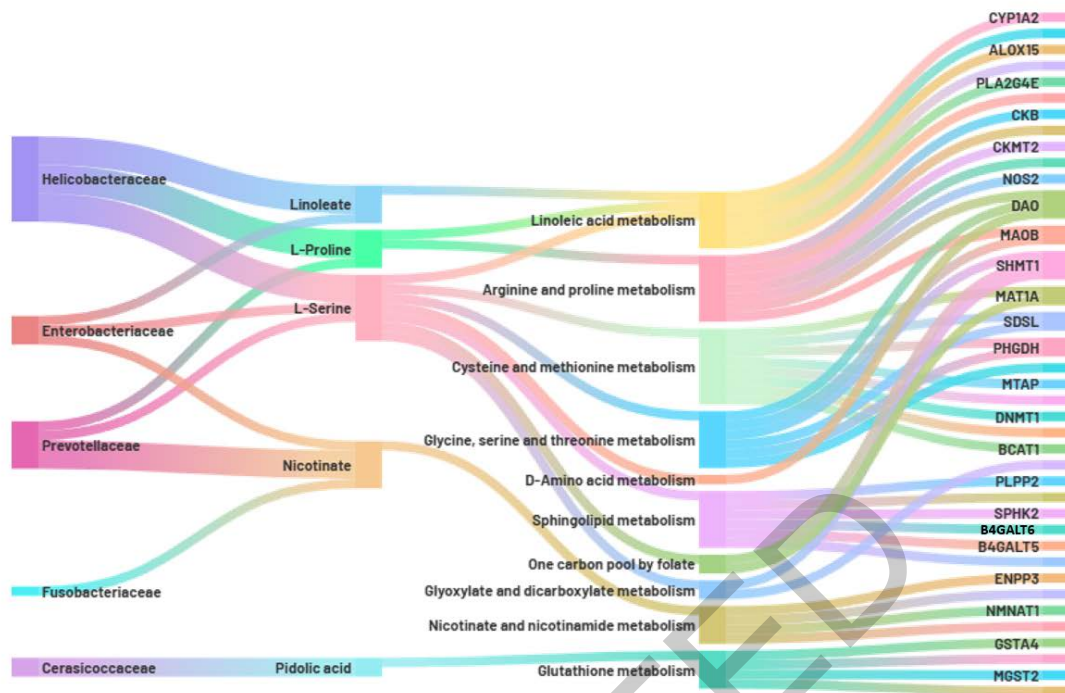
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744 **Figure 8.** Integrated pathway analysis of ileal gene expression and microbial metabolite
745 profiles.

746 This bubble plot illustrates the outcome of joint pathway analysis combining host
747 transcriptomic and microbial metabolomic data using MetaboAnalyst 6.0
748 (<https://www.metaboanalyst.ca/>). The x-axis represents the pathway impact score
749 calculated through topological analysis (degree centrality), and the y-axis corresponds to
750 the statistical significance expressed as $-\log_{10}(P\text{-value})$, using the original P -values
751 returned by the enrichment analysis. Each circle (node) represents a metabolic pathway,
752 with its color indicating significance level (red = high significance, yellow = moderate
753 significance, white = low significance) and its size reflecting the relative pathway impact.
754 Enrichment analysis was conducted using the hypergeometric test, and integration was
755 performed via the combined queries method. The eight most significantly enriched
756 pathways are labeled, reflecting key overlaps between microbial metabolite changes and
757 host transcriptional responses during the postweaning phase.



758

759 **Figure 9.** Integrated network of fecal microbiota, microbially derived metabolites, and
 760 host gene expression during the weaning.

761 This figure provides an integrated overview of host–microbiome interactions during the
 762 weaning period, illustrating the connections among fecal microbial taxa, microbially
 763 derived metabolites, host metabolic pathways, and differentially expressed host genes.
 764 Associations were identified through combined analysis using community metabolic
 765 potential scores obtained from MIMOSA2, and pathway influence scores derived from
 766 joint pathway analysis. The resulting network highlights putative functional linkages
 767 between microbial activity and host gene regulation. Visualization was generated using
 768 Flourish.