

1 **Comprehensive transcriptional profiling of the gastrointestinal tract of ruminants from**
2 **birth to adulthood reveals strong developmental stage specific gene expression**

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17 **Reference Numbers for Data in the Public Repositories**

18 The raw RNA-Sequencing data are deposited in the European Nucleotide Archive (ENA) under
19 study accessions PRJEB19199 (sheep) and PRJEB23196 (goat). Metadata for all samples is
20 deposited in the EBI BioSamples database under group identifiers SAMEG317052 (sheep) and
21 SAMEG330351 (goat).

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24 **Running Title:** RNASeq analysis of the ruminant GI tract

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27 development, macrophage, immunity, RNA-Seq, FAANG.

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32 **Abstract**

33 One of the most significant physiological challenges to neonatal and juvenile
34 ruminants is the development and establishment of the rumen. Using a subset of RNA-Seq
35 data from our high-resolution atlas of gene expression in sheep (*Ovis aries*) we have provided
36 the first comprehensive characterisation of transcription of the entire the gastrointestinal (GI)
37 tract during the transition from pre-ruminant to ruminant. The dataset comprises 168 tissue
38 samples from sheep at four different time points (birth, one week, 8 weeks and adult). Using
39 network cluster analysis we illustrate how the complexity of the GI tract is reflected in tissue-
40 and developmental stage-specific differences in gene expression. The most significant
41 transcriptional differences between neonatal and adult sheep were observed in the rumen
42 complex. Differences in transcription between neonatal and adult sheep were particularly
43 evident in macrophage specific signatures indicating they might be driving the observed
44 developmental stage-specific differences. Comparative analysis of gene expression in three
45 GI tract tissues from age-matched sheep and goats revealed species-specific differences in
46 genes involved in immunity and metabolism. This study improves our understanding of the
47 transcriptomic mechanisms involved in the transition from pre-ruminant to ruminant. It
48 highlights key genes involved in immunity, microbe recognition, metabolism and cellular
49 differentiation in the GI tract. The results form a basis for future studies linking gene
50 expression with microbial colonisation of the developing GI tract and will contribute towards
51 identifying genes that underlie immunity in early development, which could be utilised to
52 improve ruminant efficiency and productivity.

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56 **Introduction**

57 Sheep are an important source of meat, milk and fibre for the global livestock sector
58 and belong to one of the most successful species of herbivorous mammals, the ruminants.
59 Adult sheep have four specialized four specialized chambers comprising their stomach:
60 fermentative fore-stomachs encompassing the rumen, reticulum and omasum and the “true
61 stomach”, the abomasum (Dyce *et al.* 2010). The events surrounding the development of the
62 rumen are among the most significant physiological challenges to young ruminants (Baldwin
63 *et al.* 2004). As lambs transition from a milk diet to grass and dry pellet feed the
64 gastrointestinal (GI) tract undergoes several major developmental changes. In neonatal
65 lambs, feeding solely on milk, the fermentative fore-stomachs are not functional and the
66 immature metabolic and digestive systems function similarly to that of a young monogastric
67 mammal, with proteolytic digestion taking place inside the abomasum (Meale *et al.* 2017). At
68 this stage the rumen has a smooth, stratified squamous epithelium with no prominent
69 papillae (Baldwin *et al.* 2004). Suckling causes a reflex action that brings the walls of the
70 reticulum together to form an ‘oesophageal’ or ‘reticular’ groove transferring milk and
71 colostrum directly to the abomasum, where it is digested efficiently (Figure 1) (Dyce *et al.*
72 2010). In neonatal ruminants this is essential to ensure protective antibodies in the colostrum
73 are transported intact to the abomasum.

74 The introduction of grass and dry feed into the diet (which usually occurs in very small
75 amounts from one week of age) inoculates the rumen with microbes. These proliferate,
76 facilitating the digestion of complex carbohydrates which the adult ruminant relies upon to
77 meet its metabolic needs, and stimulating growth and development of the rumen and
78 reticulum (Bryant *et al.* 1958). The transition from pre-ruminant to ruminant occurs gradually

79 from around 4 weeks of age. The rumen and reticulum are usually fully functional by the time
80 the lamb reaches 8 weeks of age and has a completely grass and dry feed-based diet (Figure
81 1). The transition results in metabolic changes, as tissues shift from reliance on glucose
82 supplied from milk to the metabolism of short-chain fatty acids as primary energy substrates.
83 Whilst the most dramatic physical changes occurring during development are associated with
84 the rumen epithelium, changes in intestinal mass, immunity and metabolism also occur in
85 response to dietary changes (Baldwin *et al.* 2004).

86 Early development of the rumen complex and GI tract of sheep is of particular interest
87 due to the transition from pre-ruminant to ruminant, which occurs over the period 8 weeks
88 after birth. This period is crucial in the development of innate and acquired immunity, healthy
89 rumen growth and establishment of the microbiome. These processes are likely to be
90 intrinsically linked, as the GI tract protects the host from toxic or pathogenic luminal contents,
91 while at the same time as supporting the absorption and metabolism of nutrients for growth
92 and development (reviewed in (Steele *et al.* 2016; Meale *et al.* 2017)). Prior to the
93 development of next generation sequencing technologies many studies used quantitative
94 PCR to measure the expression of sets of candidate genes in ruminant GI tract tissues
95 (reviewed in (Connor *et al.* 2010)). RNA-Sequencing (RNA-Seq) technology now provides a
96 snapshot of the transcriptome in real-time to generate global gene expression profiles. This
97 allows us to measure the expression of all protein coding genes throughout the development
98 of the GI tract and associate these expression patterns with immunity, metabolism and other
99 cellular processes at the gene/transcript level. The availability of high quality, highly
100 contiguous, well annotated reference genomes for ruminant species, due in part to the efforts
101 of the Functional Annotation of Animal Genomes Consortium (FAANG) (Andersson *et al.*

102 2015), has helped significantly in this task, particularly for sheep (Jiang *et al.* 2014) and goat
103 (Bickhart *et al.* 2017; Worley 2017).

104 Previous studies characterising transcription in the GI tract throughout early
105 development in ruminants examined links between feed intake and bacterial diversity and
106 the development of the rumen (Connor *et al.* 2013; Wang *et al.* 2016; Xiang *et al.* 2016a).

107 Another recent study characterised transcription in the adult rumen complex and GI tract of
108 sheep, linking metabolic, epithelial and metabolic transcriptomic signatures (Xiang *et al.*
109 2016b). Similarly, Chao *et al.* 2017 performed transcriptional analysis of colon, caecum and
110 duodenum from two breeds of sheep highlighting key genes involved in lipid metabolism
111 (Chao *et al.* 2017). Others have linked diet to gene expression in the jejunal mucosa of young
112 calves, suggesting that early feeding can have a profound effect on the expression of genes

113 involved in metabolism and immunity (Hammon *et al.* 2018). The GI tract plays a significant
114 role in defence against infection, because due to its large surface area it is often a site of
115 primary infection via pathogen ingestion. This is particularly true in early development when
116 the maturing lamb is exposed both to a range of pathogens from the environment and the
117 rumen is colonised by commensal micro-organisms. Intestinal macrophages exhibit
118 distinctive properties that reflect adaptation to a unique microenvironment (Bain & Mowat
119 2011). The microenvironment of the sheep GI tract changes dramatically during the transition
120 from pre-ruminant to ruminant, and we hypothesise that the transcriptional signature of
121 intestinal macrophages will reflect these physiological changes.

122 To characterise tissue specific transcription in the GI tract during early development
123 we utilised a subset of RNA-Seq data, from Texel x Scottish Blackface (TxBF) lambs at birth,
124 one week and 8 weeks of age and TxBF adult sheep, from our high resolution atlas of gene
125 expression in sheep (Clark *et al.* 2017b). We characterise in detail the macrophage signature

126 in GI tract tissues at each developmental stage and link these to other key biological processes
127 occurring as the lamb develops. We also perform comparative analysis of transcription in the
128 rumen, ileum and colon of one-week old sheep with age-matched goats. One of the most
129 significant physiological challenges to neonatal and juvenile ruminants is the development
130 and establishment of the rumen. A clearer understanding of the transcriptomic complexity
131 that occurs during the transition between pre-ruminant and ruminant will allow us to identify
132 key genes underlying immunity in neonatal ruminants and healthy growth and development
133 of the rumen and other tissues. These genes could then be utilised as novel targets for
134 therapeutics in sheep and other ruminants and as a foundation for understanding rumen
135 development, metabolism and microbial colonisation in young ruminants to improve
136 efficiency and productivity.

137 **Materials and Methods**

138 **Animals**

139 Approval was obtained from The Roslin Institute and the University of Edinburgh
140 Protocols and Ethics Committees. All animal work was carried out under the regulations of
141 the Animals (Scientific Procedures) Act 1986. Full details of all the sheep used in this study are
142 provided in the sheep gene expression atlas project manuscript (Clark *et al.* 2017b) and
143 summarised in Table 1. GI tract tissues were collected from three male and three female adult
144 Texel x Scottish Blackface (TxBF) sheep and nine Texel x Scottish Blackface lambs. Of these
145 nine lambs, three were observed at parturition and euthanised immediately prior to their first
146 feed. Three lambs were euthanised at one week of age pre-rumination (no grass was present
147 in their GI tract) and three at 8 weeks of age once rumination was fully established. All the
148 animals were fed *ad libitum* on a diet of hay and sheep concentrate nuts (16% dry matter

149 without water), with the exception of the lambs pre-weaning (birth and one week of age) who
150 suckled milk from their mothers. Goat GI tract and alveolar macrophage samples from one-
151 week old un-weaned male goat kids were obtained from an abattoir (Table 1). We also
152 included available RNA-Seq data from a trio of Texel sheep (a ewe, a ram and their female
153 lamb) that was released with the sheep genome paper (Jiang *et al.* 2014). By incorporating
154 this data in the analysis, we were able to include tissues not included in the TxBF samples e.g.
155 omentum and an additional developmental stage (6-10 months) (Table 1).

156

157 **Tissue Collection**

158 In total thirteen different regions of the sheep GI tract were sampled, as detailed in
159 Table 1 and illustrated in Figure 1. All post mortems were undertaken by the same veterinary
160 anatomist and tissue collection from the GI tract was standardised as much as possible. All GI
161 tract tissue samples were washed twice in room temperature sterile 1x PBS (Mg^{2+} Ca^{2+} free)
162 (P5493; Sigma Aldrich) then chopped into small pieces <0.5cm and transferred to RNAlater
163 preservation solution (AM7021; Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, USA). To maintain RNA
164 integrity, all GI tract tissue samples were harvested within 30 minutes from the time of death.
165 Alveolar macrophages, liver, rectum and oesophageal muscle and tissue from the adult sheep
166 were also included as reference tissues for comparison in the analysis. Isolation of alveolar
167 macrophages from the adult sheep is described in detail in the sheep gene expression atlas
168 project manuscript (Clark *et al.* 2017b). The goat samples (Table 1) were collected using the
169 same methods as described for sheep.

170

171 **RNA Extraction and Library Preparation**

172 We used a TRIzol[®] (15596018; Thermo Fisher Scientific) based RNA extraction method

173 which is described in detail in the sheep gene expression atlas project manuscript (Clark *et al.*
174 2017b). RNA quantity was measured using a Qubit RNA BR Assay kit (Q10210; Thermo Fisher
175 Scientific) and RNA integrity estimated on an Agilent 2200 Tapestation System (Agilent
176 Genomics, Santa Clara, USA) using the RNA ScreenTape (5067-5576; Agilent Genomics) to
177 ensure RNA quality was of RIN^e > 7. RNA-Seq libraries were prepared by Edinburgh Genomics
178 (Edinburgh Genomics, Edinburgh, UK) and run on the Illumina HiSeq 2500 (sheep) and
179 Illumina HiSeq 4000 (goats) sequencing platform (Illumina, San Diego, USA). The GI tract
180 tissues collected from the 9 TxBF lambs were sequenced at a depth of >25 million strand-
181 specific 125bp paired-end reads per sample using the standard Illumina TruSeq mRNA library
182 preparation protocol (poly-A selected) (Illumina; Part: 15031047 Revision E). Depth refers to
183 the number of paired end reads, therefore a depth of >25 million reads represents ~25M
184 forward + ~25M reverse. The adult sheep GI tract tissues were also sequenced as above with
185 the exception of the ileum, reticulum and liver which were sequenced using the Illumina
186 TruSeq total RNA library preparation protocol (ribo-depleted) (Illumina; Part: 15031048
187 Revision E) at a depth of >100 million reads per sample. The ileum and rumen samples from
188 goats were sequenced at a depth of >30 million strand-specific 75p paired-end reads per
189 sample using the standard Illumina TruSeq mRNA library preparation protocol (poly-A
190 selected) (Illumina; Part: 15031047 Revision E). The RNA-Seq libraries for the Texel dataset
191 were also prepared by Edinburgh Genomics with RNA isolated using the method described in
192 the sheep gene expression atlas project manuscript (Jiang *et al.* 2014; Clark *et al.* 2017b).

193

194 **Data Quality Control and Processing**

195 The raw data for sheep, in the form of .fastq files, was previously released with the

196 sheep gene expression atlas (Clark *et al.* 2017b) and is deposited in the European Nucleotide

197 Archive (ENA) under study accession number PRJEB19199

198 (<http://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/data/view/PRJEB19199>). The goat data is also deposited in the

199 ENA under study accession number PRJEB23196

200 (<http://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/data/view/PRJEB23196>). Both sets of data were submitted to the

201 ENA with experimental metadata prepared according to the FAANG Consortium metadata

202 and data sharing standards. Details of all the samples for sheep and goat, with associated data

203 and metadata can also be found on the FAANG Data Portal (<http://data.faang.org/>) (FAANG

204 2017). The raw read data from the Texel samples incorporated into this dataset and

205 previously published (Jiang *et al.* 2014) is located in the ENA under study accession PRJEB6169

206 (<http://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/data/view/PRJEB6169>). The RNA-Seq data processing

207 methodology and pipelines used for this study are described in detail in (Clark *et al.* 2017b).

208 For each tissue a set of expression estimates, as transcripts per million (TPM), was obtained

209 using the high-speed transcript quantification tool Kallisto v0.43.0 (Bray *et al.* 2016) with the

210 Oar v3.1 reference transcriptome from Ensembl (Zerbino *et al.* 2018) as an index. Expression

211 estimates for the GI tract dataset were then filtered to remove low intensity signals (TPM<1)

212 and technical artefacts. To integrate expression estimates from the two different library types

213 we performed a ratio correction of the TPM values as described in (Bush *et al.* 2017).

214

215 **Network Cluster Analysis**

216 Network cluster analysis of the sheep GI tract dataset was performed using the
217 network visualisation tool Graphia Professional (Kajeka Ltd, Edinburgh, UK) (Theocharidis *et*
218 *al.* 2009; Livigni *et al.* 2018). To determine similarities between individual gene expression
219 profiles a Pearson correlation matrix was calculated, for both sample-to-sample and gene-to-
220 gene comparisons and filtered to remove relationships where $r < 0.81$ (sample-to-sample)
221 and $r < 0.85$ (gene-to-gene). Network graphs were constructed by connecting nodes (genes
222 or samples) with edges (where the correlation exceeded the threshold value). To interpret
223 each graph a Markov Cluster algorithm (MCL) (van Dongen & Abreu-Goodger 2012) was
224 applied at an inflation value (which determines cluster granularity) of 2.2. Visual examination
225 was then used to interrogate the local structure of the graph. Similar samples/tissue types
226 and genes with robust co-expression patterns formed clusters of highly interconnected
227 nodes, implying related functions. To determine if genes within a cluster shared a similar
228 biological function GO term enrichment based on gene ontology (Ashburner *et al.* 2000) was
229 performed using the Bioconductor package ‘topGO’ (Alexa & Rahnenfuhrer 2010). For the
230 gene-to-gene network analysis the top 20 largest clusters were assigned a functional class
231 and sub-class based on GO term enrichment, gene function and the ‘guilt-by-association’
232 principle (Oliver 2000). Alveolar macrophage, oesophageal muscle and mucosa, rectum and
233 liver from the adult sheep were included in the gene to gene network graph as ‘reference’
234 tissues for comparison, using a similar approach as described in (Xiang *et al.* 2016b). The Texel
235 dataset (Jiang *et al.* 2014) was also included in the gene-to-gene network graph to add
236 additional tissue samples and developmental stages not captured in the TxBF dataset. The
237 sample-to-sample network analysis was used to illustrate transcriptional changes in tissues
238 through each developmental stage (birth, one week, 8 weeks and adult) and included only
239 the dataset from the TxBF sheep.

240

241 **Principal component analysis of transcriptional signatures in the developing GI tract**

242 All statistical analysis was carried out in R (v >= 3.0.0) (R Core Team 2014) unless stated
243 otherwise. We used Principal Component Analysis (PCA) to determine whether there was any
244 strong age or tissue related transcriptional patterns observed in the GI tract. PCA was
245 performed using FactoMineR v1.41 (Lê *et al.* 2008) with a subset of genes (n = 490) (extracted
246 from the alveolar macrophage clusters (clusters 7 and 10) from the gene-to-gene network
247 graph), centre scaled for computation of the principle components (PCs). The categorical data
248 was excluded from the Eigen vector calculation (passed as qualitative variables). The top 5
249 and 10 PCs explained 62.6% and 76.9% of variability in the data respectively. In order to
250 compare exploratory and discriminative power of PCs, the categorical data (age and tissue of
251 origin) was overlaid on the PCs coordinate maps afterwards using centroid lines and colouring
252 the observations by groups.

253 The expression levels as TPM of a small subset of macrophage and immune marker
254 genes (*CD14*, *CD68*, *CD163* and *IL10*) were plotted as a HeatMap using 'gplots'.

255

256 **Developmental Stage Specific Differential Expression Analysis for Sheep**

257 Differential expression analysis was used to compare gene-level expression estimates
258 from the Kallisto output as transcripts per million (TPM) across GI tract tissues and
259 developmental time points, and between age-matched sheep and goats. The R/Bioconductor
260 package tximport v1.0.3 was used to import and summarise the transcript-level abundance
261 estimates from Kallisto for gene-level differential expression analysis using edgeR v3.14.0
262 (Robinson *et al.* 2010), as described in (Soneson *et al.* 2015; Love *et al.* 2017). For RNA-Seq
263 experiments with less than 6 replicates per time point edgeR may be considered the optimal

264 differential expression analysis package (Schurch *et al.* 2016). We selected three tissues
265 (abomasum, rumen and ileum) as representative samples from 3 of the major compartments
266 of the GI tract: the stomach, rumen complex and small intestine, respectively. Gene
267 expression patterns in each tissue were compared between birth and one week, and one
268 week and 8 weeks of age. To determine whether there was any tissue- and developmental
269 stage-specific overlap of differentially expressed genes we generated Venn diagrams using
270 the software tool Venny (Oliveros 2007). To investigate the function of the differentially
271 expressed genes we performed GO term enrichment (Ashburner *et al.* 2000) using ‘topGO’
272 (Alexa & Rahnenfuhrer 2010). Only GO terms with 10 or more associated genes were
273 included.

274

275 **Data Availability**

276 All data analysed during this study are included in this published article and its additional files.
277 The raw RNA-sequencing data are deposited in the European Nucleotide Archive (ENA) under
278 study accessions PRJEB19199 (sheep) (<https://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/data/view/PRJEB19199>)
279 and PRJEB23196 (goat) (<https://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/data/view/PRJEB23196>). Sheep data can
280 also be viewed and downloaded via BioGPS ([http://biogps.org/dataset/BDS_00015/sheep-](http://biogps.org/dataset/BDS_00015/sheep-atlas/)
281 [atlas/](http://biogps.org/sheepatlas)) where the gene expression estimates for each tissue are searchable by gene name
282 (<http://biogps.org/sheepatlas>). Sample metadata for all tissue and cell samples, prepared in
283 accordance with FAANG consortium metadata standards, are deposited in the EBI BioSamples
284 database under group identifiers SAMEG317052 (sheep) and SAMEG330351 (goat). All
285 experimental protocols are available on the FAANG consortium website
286 at <http://www.ftp.faang.ebi.ac.uk/ftp/protocols>. All supplementary material for this study
287 has been deposited in Figshare.

288

289 **Results and Discussion**

290

291 **Gene-to-gene network cluster analysis of the GI tract dataset**

292 The dataset includes 168 RNA-Seq libraries in total from the TxBF described above
293 sheep. Network cluster analysis of the GI tract data was performed using Graphia Professional
294 (Kajeka Ltd, Edinburgh UK) (Theocharidis *et al.* 2009; Livigni *et al.* 2018). TPM estimates from
295 Kallisto averaged across biological replicates (3 sheep per developmental stage) for the GI
296 tract dataset were used to generate the network cluster graph. The full version of this
297 averaged dataset was published with the sheep gene expression atlas and is available for
298 download through the University of Edinburgh DataShare portal
299 (<http://dx.doi.org/10.7488/ds/2112>). A version only including the TPM estimates for GI tract
300 tissues, alveolar macrophages, thoracic oesophagus and liver is included here as Table S1.

301 The dataset was clustered using a Pearson correlation co-efficient threshold of $r = 0.85$
302 and MCL (Markov Cluster Algorithm (Gough *et al.* 2001)) inflation value of 2.2. The gene-to-
303 gene network graph (Figure 2A) comprised 13,035 nodes (genes) and 696,618 edges
304 (correlations above the threshold value). The network graph (Figure 2A) was highly structured
305 comprising 349 clusters of varying size. Genes found in each cluster are listed in Table
306 S2. Genes in Table S2 labelled 'assigned to' were annotated using an automated pipeline for
307 the sheep gene expression atlas (Clark *et al.* 2017b). Clusters 1 to 20 (numbered in order of
308 size; cluster 1 being the largest including 1724 genes in total) were annotated visually and
309 assigned a broad functional 'class' (Table 2). Validation of functional classes was performed
310 using GO term enrichment (Alexa & Rahnenfuhrer 2010) for molecular function, cellular
311 component and biological process (Table S3). Figure 2B shows the network graph with the

312 nodes collapsed by class, and the largest clusters numbered 1 to 20, to illustrate the relative
313 number of genes proportional to the size of each cluster.

314

315 **Complexity of cell types within the GI tract is reflected in gene-to-gene network clustering**

316 The GI tract is a highly complex organ system in ruminants with region-specific cellular
317 composition. This complexity is illustrated by the highly structured gene-to-gene network
318 graph of GI tract tissues (Figure 2A). Other studies have characterised in detail the
319 transcriptional signatures in the GI tract of adult sheep (Xiang *et al.* 2016a; Xiang *et al.* 2016b)
320 and as such we will only broadly describe the clusters here and focus instead on
321 developmental stage-specific transcriptional patterns. As is typical of large gene expression
322 datasets from multiple tissues cluster 1, the largest cluster, was comprised largely of
323 ubiquitously expressed 'house-keeping' genes, encoding proteins that are functional in all cell
324 types. Enriched GO terms for genes within this cluster were for general cellular processes and
325 molecular functions performed by all cells including RNA-processing ($p=<1\times10^{-30}$) and histone
326 binding ($p=3.9\times10^{-8}$) (Table S3).

327 Although cluster 1 exhibited a general expression pattern the majority of the rest of
328 the clusters (with the exception of cluster 2, discussed below) exhibited some tissue/cellular
329 process specific gene expression pattern. The majority of clusters included genes associated
330 with more than one cell type/cellular process. This is because the lamina propria, one of the
331 three layers of the mucosa, which lies beneath the epithelium and lines the majority of the GI
332 tract, is made up of different cell types including endothelial, immune and connective tissues
333 (Takahashi-Iwanaga & Fujita 1985). As a consequence expression signatures of components
334 of the lamina propria were common across the network graph for sheep, as previously
335 reported from transcriptional analysis of the pig GI tract (Freeman *et al.* 2012).

336 The GI tract of the sheep is lined with epithelium, and the rumen in particular exhibits
337 a strong epithelial signature, which differentiates it transcriptionally from other tissues (Xiang
338 *et al.* 2016a; Xiang *et al.* 2016b). Genes in clusters 8 and 12, expressed in the rumen, exhibited
339 a typical epithelial signature, and included genes in the KRT superfamily e.g. *KRT15*, with
340 enriched GO terms for keratinocyte differentiation ($p=1.4\times 10^{-7}$ and $p=6.8\times 10^{-7}$, respectively).
341 The rumen papillae help to increase the surface area available for the absorption of nutrients.
342 The small intestine is also a major site of absorption and transport of nutrients. One small
343 intestine specific cluster (cluster 11) was comprised of genes involved both in nutrient uptake
344 and vesicle formation. Cluster 11 contained numerous genes in the solute carrier super family,
345 a group of membrane transport proteins including *SLC10A4* and *SLC16A11*. Genes encoding
346 water channel proteins were also found in cluster 11 including aquaporins *AQP7* and *AQP8*.
347 Significant GO terms for cluster 11 included acrosomal vesicle ($p=0.0033$) and peptidyl-
348 tyrosine autophosphorylation ($p=0.00209$).

349 Genes in cluster 5 were expressed in thoracic oesophageal skeletal muscle tissue and
350 associated with muscle fibre development ($p=1.3\times 10^{-10}$) and skeletal muscle tissue
351 development ($p=4.4\times 10^{-12}$). Several skeletal muscle specific genes were found within this
352 cluster including, *ACTA1*, which is associated with skeletal muscle function and encodes a
353 product belonging to the actin family of proteins (Clarke *et al.* 2007). Similarly, cluster 13
354 included genes associated with structural constituents of muscle ($p=0.00108$) but in this case
355 the smooth muscle that surrounds the GI tract. Genes in cluster 13 were predominantly
356 expressed in the rumen complex of adult and 8 week old sheep, and included several genes
357 related to smooth muscle function and regulation (Table 2). *CALD1* for example encodes a
358 calmodulin- and actin-binding protein that plays an essential role in the regulation of smooth

359 muscle and nonmuscle contraction (Huang *et al.* 2010). Intestinal motility, is the result of
360 contraction and relaxation of the smooth muscle, and a key function of the GI tract.

361 The numerous functions of the GI tract such as intestinal motility, exocrine and
362 endocrine secretion, immune function and circulation are under complex neural control.
363 Clusters 15 and 19 were associated with neuronal cells and included GO terms for synapse
364 ($p=0.000018$) and synaptic membrane ($p=4.9\times 10^{-7}$). However, overall expression of these
365 genes was low relative to other clusters, presumably because neurons comprise only a small
366 percentage of the cells that make up the GI tract, and therefore their expression level would
367 be reduced compared to other more abundant cell types. A similar trend was observed in
368 analysis of neuronal signatures in the pig GI tract (Freeman *et al.* 2012). This might also
369 account for an increased expression level at birth of genes in cluster 15 as there will be
370 comparatively fewer other cell types differentiated at this time point.

371 Several clusters in the top 20 largest clusters exhibited a strong immune signature and
372 are discussed in more detail below. Analysis of the gene-to-gene network graph revealed the
373 GI tract of the sheep comprises at least five major cell types: epithelia, immune cells, neuronal
374 cells and mesenchymal cells (muscle, connective tissue). Interrogation of the expression
375 profiles for each cluster in the gene-to-gene network graph revealed that cell type and tissue
376 specific expression signatures varied with developmental stage (discussed in more detail
377 below).

378

379 **Strong immune signatures highlight the role of the GI tract as an immune organ**

380 The GI tract has the largest surface area in the body in contact with the external
381 environment. The intestinal epithelium, a single-cell layer, is the barrier between the external
382 environment of the lumen (which contains pathogens, antigens and commensal bacteria) and

383 the body. As such it is not surprising that the second largest cluster of genes (cluster 2)
384 contained many genes associated with the immune response, their expression being two- to
385 three-fold higher in the ileum and Peyer's patches than other regions of the GI tract. This
386 pattern of expression was also observed in pig (Freeman *et al.* 2012). The lower small intestine
387 Peyer's patches (small masses of lymphatic tissue found throughout the ileum) form an
388 important part of the immune system by monitoring intestinal bacteria populations and
389 preventing the growth of pathogenic bacteria (Jung *et al.* 2010). Included in cluster 2 were
390 genes encoding many of the protein components of the B cell receptor complex
391 (*CD19*, *CD79B*, *CR2*) (Treanor 2012). Also evident in this cluster were many genes associated
392 with the cell cycle, for example cyclins, DNA polymerases and kinesins, which were identified
393 in the sheep gene expression atlas as a cell cycle specific cluster (Clark *et al.* 2017b). Significant
394 GO terms for cluster 2 include G2/M transition of mitotic cell cycle ($p=1.8\times10^{-9}$) and meiotic
395 cell cycle process ($p=6.9\times10^{-9}$). The high level of lymphocyte proliferation and replenishment
396 of intestinal macrophages by a high turnover of monocytes (Bain & Mowat 2011; Shaw *et al.*
397 2018), and therefore the frequency of cells undergoing mitosis in the Peyer's patches and
398 ileum, might explain the association of cell cycle genes with an immune signature (David *et*
399 *al.* 2003).

400 Other GI clusters with an immune signature included clusters 3, 7, 9 and 10. Cluster 3
401 exhibited a strong immune signature, particularly associated with T-cells, with significant GO
402 terms for positive regulation of T-cell activation ($p=2.1\times10^{-21}$) and cytokine receptor activity
403 ($p=5.4\times10^{-5}$). Genes within cluster 3 included the T-cell marker genes *CD3*, *CD4* and *CD6*, as
404 well as Toll-like receptor genes *TLR1* and *TLR10* (Akira & Takeda 2004). Expression was highest
405 for this cluster in the small intestine particularly the ileum and Peyer's patches. Cluster 9
406 exhibited a similar immune related expression pattern including genes involved in T-cell-B-

407 cell interactions such as *CD37*, and cytokine production such as *IL10* and *CD80*. Significant GO
408 terms for cluster 9 included B cell receptor signalling pathway ($p=4.9\times10^{-6}$) and regulation of
409 B-cell activation ($p=6.3\times10^{-6}$) as well as Toll-like receptor 4 signalling pathway ($p=2.8\times10^{-5}$).

410 Macrophages play an essential role in inflammation and protective immunity and in
411 the GI tract are important for local homeostasis, maintaining a balance between microbiota
412 and the host immune system (Mowat & Bain 2011). Clusters 7 and 10 contained many
413 macrophage specific marker genes including *CD68* and *ADGRE1* (*EMR1*) with enriched GO
414 terms for the immune response ($p=7.3\times10^{-6}$). Many of these genes are also commonly used
415 as marker genes for intestinal macrophages including, *CCRL1* (synonym *CX3CR1*), *ITGAX*
416 (synonym *CD11C*) and *ITGAM* (synonym *CD11B*) (Mowat and Bain 2011; Bain and Mowat
417 2011; Shaw et al. 2018). Other macrophage marker genes such as *CD14* and *CD163* were
418 found in a much smaller macrophage-specific cluster, cluster 154, indicating some tissue
419 specific differences in macrophage expression.

420 We included alveolar macrophages in the gene-to-gene network clustering of the GI
421 tract dataset to look specifically at the expression of C-type lectins, and other receptors
422 involved in bacterial recognition, in the GI tract relative to their expression in other
423 populations of macrophages. Upon initial encounter with pathogens, the immune system
424 needs to rapidly recognise these as potentially harmful. Innate immune cells, such as
425 macrophages, use a limited number of pattern recognition receptors (PRRs), including C-type
426 lectin receptors (CLRs), which activate immediate anti-microbial effectors or other
427 mechanisms for defence against pathogens (reviewed in (Akira & Takeda 2004)). Analysis of
428 the pig gene expression atlas revealed that there were a large number of genes for C-type
429 lectins that were highly-expressed in alveolar macrophages but appeared down-regulated in
430 the pig GI tract (Freeman et al. 2012). To determine if this was also the case in sheep we

431 examined the expression of six C-type lectin marker genes (*CD68*, *CLEC4D*, *CLEC4E*, *CLEC5A*,
432 *CLEC7A* and *SIGLEC1*) in sheep using the gene expression profiles for the sheep atlas dataset
433 on BioGPS (Clark *et al.* 2017a). In sheep, as in pig, the four C-type lectins and *SIGLEC1* all
434 exhibited very weak expression in the GI tract tissues. *CLEC4D*, *CD68*, *CLEC4E* and *CLEC7A*
435 were all highly expressed in sheep alveolar macrophages, as was observed in pig. *CLEC5A* and
436 *SIGLEC1* did not show the same upregulation in sheep alveolar macrophages as they did in
437 pigs indicating these genes exhibit a more species-specific expression pattern in alveolar
438 macrophages. To investigate whether these trends also applied to other ruminants, we
439 compared the expression of these genes in alveolar macrophages, ileum, large colon and
440 rumen from one-week old sheep with age-matched goats (Figure 3). Similar expression
441 patterns were observed for goat as for sheep, the only exception being *CLEC5A* which was
442 upregulated in goat alveolar macrophages, unlike in sheep. Generally, the high expression of
443 gene for C-type lectins in alveolar macrophages and down regulation in the GI tract appears
444 to be conserved between both ruminants and monogastric mammals.

445 The expression pattern of *CD68*, *CLEC4D*, *CLEC4E* and *CLEC7A*, which are upregulated
446 in alveolar macrophages and down regulated in the GI tract, indicate they are likely to be
447 necessary for the elimination of inhaled pathogens, where such inflammatory responses to
448 microbes would be undesirable in the intestine. *CLEC4E*, for example, has been shown to be
449 important in protective immunity against pneumococcal pneumonia in lung macrophages in
450 mice (Behler-Janbeck *et al.* 2016) and *CLEC7A* is involved in the innate immune respiratory
451 response to fungal pathogens (Saijo & Iwakura 2011). Although ruminants have a larger and
452 more diverse microflora in the GI tract compared to pigs, which are monogastric mammals
453 (O'Donnell *et al.* 2017), expression patterns of the C-type lectin marker genes appear to be
454 similar between the two species. Our findings generally support those observed in pig that

455 intestinal macrophages differ transcriptionally from lung and blood macrophage populations,
456 which might be because they have adapted to be hypo-responsive to food-derived
457 glycoproteins while alveolar macrophages need to utilise the receptors to both recognize and
458 engulf potential pathogens (Freeman *et al.* 2012).

459

460 **Network cluster analysis and principal component analysis of tissue samples reveals a**
461 **strong effect of developmental stage on tissue specific transcription**

462 Sample-to-sample network cluster analysis was used to visualise the effect of
463 developmental stage on tissue specific gene expression. To perform the sample-to-sample
464 network cluster analysis we used a version of the GI tract dataset that was not averaged
465 across individuals and did not include the Texel dataset or the alveolar macrophage (AM),
466 oesophagus and liver samples (Figure 4 A&B). The full version of this dataset was published
467 with the sheep gene expression atlas and is available for download through the University of
468 Edinburgh DataShare portal (<http://dx.doi.org/10.7488/ds/2112>). A version only including
469 the TPM estimates used for this analysis is included here as Table S4.

470 Developmental stage specific transcriptional patterns were reflected particularly
471 strongly in the rumen complex (reticulum, rumen and omasum) tissue samples (Figure 4A).
472 Rumen complex samples from lambs at birth and one week of age formed a distinct cluster
473 from rumen complex samples at 8 weeks of age and adult. This reflects the changes in tissue
474 structure, function and morphology of the reticulum, rumen and omasum in the transition
475 from pre-ruminant to ruminant (Figure 1). The close proximity of the adult oesophageal
476 samples and the pre-ruminant rumen complex samples in the network cluster analysis
477 indicate that tissue from the rumen complex at birth and one week of age is transcriptionally
478 similar to adult oesophageal tissue in comparison with tissue from the rumen of adult sheep

479 (Figure 4A). At birth and one week of age the walls of the reticulum join together to form an
480 'oesophageal' or 'reticular' groove transferring milk and colostrum directly to the abomasum,
481 where it is digested most efficiently bypassing the rumen (Figure 1) (Meale *et al.* 2017).
482 Rumen tissue of lambs at birth and at one week of age will therefore be functionally and
483 transcriptionally different to rumen tissue of adult sheep. The rumen of neonatal lambs, for
484 example, is essentially non-functional in ketogenic capacity and does not exhibit the same
485 high degree of keratinisation that is characteristic of the adult rumen (reviewed in (Baldwin
486 *et al.* 2004)). Consequently, the strong epithelial and metabolic signatures of the adult rumen
487 (Xiang *et al.* 2016b) are likely to be weaker at one week and birth driving some of the observed
488 cluster separation between the developmental stages (Figure 4A).

489 The sample-to-sample graph also illustrates the strong tissue specific differences in
490 transcription (Figure 4B). The pylorus and abomasum samples, for example, form distinct
491 clusters from the other regions, reflecting the fact that they have unique functions. The
492 pylorus and abomasum both have a glandular lining, with various glandular cell types involved
493 with enzyme secretion, lubrication, and endocrine control and specialized structures, such as
494 the pyloric and fundic glands of the stomach (Dyce *et al.* 2010). The large and small intestine
495 and rumen complex also form large separate clusters highlighting the transcriptional
496 similarities between tissues within and between these regions of the GI tract (Figure 4B).

497 Developmental stage- and tissue-specific transcriptional patterns observed in the
498 sample to sample graph were also reflected in principal component analysis (PCA) of the
499 dataset (Figure S1). Tissue specific clusters of samples were largely separated by organ system
500 (rumen complex, small and large intestine, oesophagus and stomach) (Fig S1 A&B). The effect
501 of age on transcription was particularly evident in PC2, with samples from newborn lambs
502 clustered separately from the other 3 time points (Figure S1 C&D).

503

504 **Developmental stage specific changes in immune gene signatures occur during the**
505 **transition from pre-ruminant to ruminant**

506 One of the largest macrophage populations in the body occupies the lamina propria
507 of the GI tract (Bain & Mowat 2011). Macrophages are so numerous that the expression of
508 macrophage-related genes can be detected within the total mRNA from GI tract samples.
509 Constant exposure to food and environmental antigens and a wide diversity of commensal
510 bacteria make the GI tract of developing sheep a primary site for pathogen infection
511 (Mantovani & Marchesi 2014). As a consequence, GI immune cells are involved in a balanced
512 immune response, focussed on controlling pathogen invasion while recognising commensal
513 colonising microbes. This response will change as the lambs age reflecting changes in diet (the
514 transition from milk to pellets and hay) and environment (transition from maternal
515 transmission of pathogens to those from the surrounding environment). Intestinal
516 mononuclear phagocytes, of which monocyte-derived macrophages form the most abundant
517 population play a key role in the maintenance of the intestinal immune response to
518 pathogens and homeostasis (Mantovani & Marchesi 2014). Macrophage specific genes are
519 therefore likely to be driving some of the observed transcriptional differences observed
520 between lambs at birth and one week of age and 8 week old and adult sheep, described in
521 the previous section (See Figure 4 and Figure S1).

522 We used PCA to examine the clustering pattern of a set of 490 macrophage associated
523 genes (extracted from the alveolar macrophage specific clusters 7 and 10 from the gene to
524 gene network graph, detailed in Table S2) (Figure 5). We looked at tissue specific
525 transcriptional patterns (Figure 5A) and found the small intestine and rumen complex
526 distinguished by components PC1 and PC2, respectively, indicating differences in the

527 macrophage expression profile in these tissues. A similar effect was observed between
528 components PC1 and PC3 (Figure 5B). Developmental stage specific transcriptional patterns
529 in macrophage specific genes were evident when comparing components PC1 and PC3 (Figure
530 5C), and particularly when comparing PC3 and PC4 (Figure 5D), where the samples from
531 newborn lambs are clearly distinct from the other developmental stages. These differences
532 perhaps reflect that pathogen challenge in the newborn lambs will be reduced immediately
533 at birth and therefore the inflammatory response would be less than at later developmental
534 stages. In addition, the newborn lambs would not have received any colostrum which is key
535 in the homologous transfer of passive immunity between the mother and neonate, and the
536 initial source of acquired immunity by the newborn lamb (Stelwagen *et al.* 2009). A wide
537 variety of immune components linked to the innate immune response have been identified
538 in colostrum and milk including neutrophils and macrophages as well immunomodulatory
539 factors (including numerous pro- and anti-inflammatory cytokines) and peptides and proteins
540 with direct antimicrobial activity (Stelwagen *et al.* 2009). Another potential driver of these
541 differences is that the GI tract will gradually become colonised with gut macrophages, and at
542 birth there will be a comparatively higher proportion of monocytes (Shaw *et al.* 2018). The GI
543 tract harbours multiple distinct populations of macrophages, monocytes and other immune
544 cells that exhibit some level of stochasticity over time (Bain & Mowat 2011; Shaw *et al.* 2018)
545 which is reflected in the observed transcriptional patterns. The macrophage populations that
546 are most numerous in neonatal lambs may be quite different from those that are prevalent
547 in the GI tract of adult sheep and this will vary according to tissue.

548 To look in more detail at developmental stage specific differences in expression of
549 monocyte and macrophage marker genes we compared the expression of *CD14*, *CD68*, *CD163*
550 and *IL10* across GI tract tissues at each developmental stage (including liver and alveolar

551 macrophage samples for reference) (Figure 6). *CD14*, *CD68* and *CD163* were upregulated in
552 alveolar macrophages as expected (Gordon *et al.* 2014). This is not immediately obvious from
553 the heatmap however due to high level of expression of *CD68* (2291 TPM) relative to the
554 levels of *CD14* (171 TPM) and *CD163* (168 TPM). Expression of *CD68* was highest in the ileum
555 relative to other GI tract tissues, which probably reflects the fact that ileum contains the
556 largest proportion of tissue macrophages relative to the other GI tract tissues sampled. The
557 expression of the monocyte marker gene *CD14* increased as the lambs aged across most of
558 the GI tract tissues sampled. This may reflect the lower number of monocytes in neonatal
559 lambs relative to juvenile and adult animals (Kramer *et al.* 2003) or the high turnover of blood
560 monocytes and continual replenishment of intestinal macrophages by monocytes that has
561 been reported in the GI tract (Bain *et al.* 2016). The effect was most obvious in the rumen
562 complex tissues in which *CD14* expression increased with development of the rumen. In
563 contrast *CD163* and *CD68* expression decreased as the lambs aged in the rumen complex but
564 increased in the developing small and large intestine. These differences in expression of
565 macrophage marker genes reflect tissue specific differences in macrophage colonisation with
566 age and the changing function of the rumen through these developmental stages. *CD163*, for
567 example, directly induces intracellular signaling leading to secretion of anti-inflammatory
568 cytokines (Moestrup & Moller 2004), and has been shown to be a macrophage receptor for
569 bacteria (Fabriek *et al.* 2009). During bacterial infection *CD163* on resident tissue
570 macrophages acts as an innate immune sensor, inducing local inflammation (Fabriek *et al.*
571 2009). Induction of *CD163* might therefore be less desirable in the rumen once colonisation
572 with intestinal microbes has been established, accounting for the decrease in expression of
573 *CD163* in the rumen complex. The increase in expression of *CD163* in the ileum and Peyer's

574 patches with age reflects the gradual colonisation of these tissues with intestinal
575 macrophages and their importance in the innate immune response.

576 The expression of *IL10* was very low across all the GI tract tissues which is in contrast
577 to other mammalian species where it has been shown to be constitutively expressed in
578 intestinal macrophages, reviewed in (Bain & Mowat 2011). For the majority of tissues TPM
579 was <3 with the exception of the ileum and Peyer's patch where expression ranged between
580 6 and 12 TPM. Interleukin 10 (*IL10*) is a key anti-inflammatory cytokine that can inhibit
581 proinflammatory responses of both innate and adaptive immune cells (Mantovani & Marchesi
582 2014; Shouval *et al.* 2014). A relative reduction in *IL10* expression in the GI tract could indicate
583 a suppressed macrophage response to intestinal microbes. This could be of potential benefit
584 for ruminant species, which have a different relationship with intestinal flora than
585 monogastric mammals and this would be interesting to explore further.

586

587 **588 Differential expression analysis reveals little overlap between stage-specific transcriptional
signatures**

589 To characterise which genes were driving transcriptional patterns, more broadly,
590 during the transition from pre-ruminant to ruminant we chose three regions of the GI tract
591 (rumen complex, stomach and small intestine) and selected one tissue per region (rumen,
592 abomasum and ileum) to perform differential expression analysis using pairwise comparisons
593 between birth and one week and one week and 8 weeks of age (Table S5 – Rumen, Table S6
594 – Abomasum and Table S7 – Ileum). Differentially expressed genes are detailed in S5 Table
595 (rumen), S6 Table (abomasum) and S7 Table (ileum); those of particular interest are shown in
596 Table 3. To determine the main functions of genes exhibiting differential expression in each
597 comparison we used GO term enrichment (Table S8). GO terms related to immunity were

598 common across all three tissues but particularly the rumen and ileum between birth and one
599 week of age. In the ileum between birth and one week of age enriched GO terms were
600 predominantly associated with immunity and included 'immune response', 'chemokine
601 activity', 'chemokine production involved in the inflammatory response' as well as others
602 related to metabolism. In contrast between one and 8 weeks of age GO terms were associated
603 predominantly with metabolic processes, and vesicle formation. A similar but less
604 exaggerated trend was also observed in the rumen, with GO terms for 'defense response to
605 other organisms', 'immune response' and more generally for metabolism enriched between
606 birth and one week of age and then a shift towards metabolic and muscle and epithelial
607 differentiation between one and 8 weeks. In the abomasum enriched GO terms between both
608 sets of time points were more similar than for the other two tissues which probably reflects
609 the fact that the functional changes in the abomasum are comparatively less than the other
610 two tissues throughout the transition from pre-ruminant to ruminant.

611 Using Venn diagrams (Figure S2) we compared whether any differentially expressed
612 genes were shared across tissues and developmental stages. Relatively few genes were
613 shared between developmental stages (0-1 week and 1-8 weeks), fifty genes were shared
614 between the rumen time points, 19 between the ileum and 13 between the abomasum
615 (Figure S2). A greater number of differentially expressed genes were shared between the
616 rumen and ileum than either of these two tissues and the abomasum, which reflects the
617 different functional roles of these three tissues. Relatively few genes were differentially
618 expressed in two or more tissues and time points, the most notable being *HERC6* which is
619 involved in ubiquitin ligase activity and *ISG15* an IFN-gamma-inducing cytokine playing an
620 essential role in antimycobacterial immunity (Table 3).

621 The structural composition of the rumen and ileum changes significantly during the
622 transition from pre-ruminant to ruminant, with the most dramatic physical changes
623 associated with the rumen epithelium (Baldwin *et al.* 2004). Several genes associated with
624 connective tissue and collagen were differentially expressed between one week and 8 weeks
625 of age. Genes exhibiting greater than 2-fold up-regulation included *COL1A1* and *COL1A2*
626 (Table 3). Genes associated with keratinocytes and the epithelial signature of the rumen
627 exhibited differential expression patterns according to developmental stage. *KRT36*, for
628 example, showed a more than 4-fold increase in expression between one and 8 weeks of age
629 (Table 3). *KRT36* has been shown to exhibit significant transcriptional responses to changes
630 in diet in dairy cattle (Li *et al.* 2015) and the change in diet between one and 8 weeks of age
631 is likely to be driving at least a proportion of the observed expression patterns.

632 Similarly, the mitochondrial enzyme encoding gene *HMGCS2*, which belongs to the
633 HMG-Co synthase family and catalyses the first reaction in ketogenesis (Lane *et al.* 2002) was
634 8-fold up-regulated in the rumen between birth and one week of age (Table 3). *HMGCS2* has
635 also been shown to be differentially expressed in the calf rumen during the transition from
636 pre-ruminant to ruminant (Connor *et al.* 2013; Kato *et al.* 2016) and in the rumen of
637 developing lambs (Lane *et al.* 2002; Wang *et al.* 2016). It has been suggested that dietary
638 changes through early development are likely to promote ketogenesis in rumen epithelial
639 cells via PPAR- α -mediated activation of *HMGCS2* to promote papillary development, as well
640 as activation of genes promoting fatty acid beta-oxidation to support cellular differentiation
641 (Connor *et al.* 2013). *SLC14A1* has also been shown to be differentially expressed in the calf
642 rumen during the transition from pre-ruminant to ruminant (Connor *et al.* 2013) and was
643 differentially expressed in the rumen of lambs between birth and one week of age (Wang *et*
644 *al.* 2016). It encodes the protein *SLC14A1* which mediates the basolateral cell membrane

645 transport of urea, a key process in nitrogen secretion into the ruminant GI tract (Abdoun *et*
646 *al.* 2009). A characteristic of ruminants is a high level of nitrogen recycling in the GI tract.
647 Recycling of nitrogen via urea secretion into the rumen allows ruminants to survive on low-
648 protein diets whilst at the same time producing milk and meat for human
649 consumption (Abdoun *et al.* 2009).

650

651 **Large differences in developmental stage specific expression patterns are associated with**
652 **the immune response**

653 Several genes involved in the immune response were differentially expressed in the
654 rumen, ileum and abomasum of developing lambs during the transition from pre-ruminant to
655 ruminant. Many of these genes are likely to be part of the acute phase immune response, by
656 regulating production of key cytokines such as *IL-6* and thus mediating activation of the NF-
657 κ B signaling pathways. Nuclear factor (NF)- κ B and inhibitor of NF- κ B kinase (IKK) proteins
658 regulate innate- and adaptive-immune responses and inflammation (Perkins 2007).
659 *IL36A* and *IL36B* are thought to influence the skin inflammatory response by acting directly
660 on keratinocytes and macrophages and indirectly on T-lymphocytes to drive tissue infiltration,
661 cell maturation and cell proliferation (Foster *et al.* 2014). *IL36A* is a cytokine that can activate
662 the NF- κ B and MAPK signaling pathways to generate an inflammatory response and
663 shows almost a 4-fold increase in expression between one and 8 weeks of age in the rumen.
664 Other C-type lectins and genes involved in cytokine signalling also showed differential
665 expression between the different developmental stages. *CLEC4E*, for example, was more than
666 2-fold upregulated in the ileum between one and 8 weeks of age. *JAK3*, which encodes a
667 member of the Janus kinase (JAK) family of tyrosine kinases is involved in cytokine receptor-

668 mediated intracellular signal transduction (Yeh & Pellegrini 1999), and was more than 5-fold
669 upregulated in the rumen between birth and one week of age.

670 Other immune genes, including *PIP* (Prolactin Induced Protein), were upregulated 3-fold in the rumen of lambs between one and 8 weeks of age. *PIP* has been shown to be
671 preferentially expressed in the rumen of adult sheep (Xiang *et al.* 2016a), and is thought to
672 play a role in mucosal immunity in ruminants (Hassan *et al.* 2008). Multiple IFN-inducible
673 genes, including *IFIT2*, *IFIT3*, *MX1*, *MX2* and *ISG15*, were differentially expressed in the
674 abomasum, rumen and ileum during the transition from pre-ruminant to ruminant (Table 3).

675 Three of these genes - *IFIT2*, *IFIT3* and *MX1* - have recently been shown to be differentially
676 expressed in sheep fibroblast cells in a type I IFN-induced antiviral state (Shaw *et al.* 2017).

677 The expression pattern of some of these genes varied through development. *MX2* for
678 example, is up-regulated in the rumen between birth and one-week of age and down-
679 regulated between one and eight weeks of age (Table 3). The differential expression patterns
680 of these genes throughout the development of the rumen, abomasum and ileum highlights
681 both their importance in the innate immune response and the role of the GI tract as an
682 immunologically active site.

683 Several genes involved in both metabolism and immunity were differentially
684 expressed during the transition from pre-ruminant to ruminant. *DUOXA2*, for example is
685 involved in thyroid hormone synthesis and lactoperoxidase-mediated antimicrobial defense
686 at the surface of mucosa (Bae *et al.* 2010). The rumen is the main site of colonisation by micro-
687 organisms as the lamb develops. *DUOX2* and *DUOXA2*, which encode subunits of dual oxidase
688 have previously been shown to be upregulated in the rumen of adult sheep (Xiang *et al.*
689 2016a; Xiang *et al.* 2016b) and here we found expression of *DUOXA2* 4-fold up-regulated in
690 the rumen between birth and one week of age. *DUOXA2* might be involved in controlling

692 microbial colonization as the lamb transitions from pre-ruminant to ruminant. Similarly, *IDO1*
693 was more than 4-fold upregulated in the ileum of lambs between birth and one week of age
694 and has been implicated in immune modulation through its ability to limit T-cell function and
695 engage mechanisms of immune tolerance (Grohmann *et al.* 2003; Plain *et al.* 2011). *IDO1*
696 encodes indoleamine 2,3-dioxygenase (IDO) which is a heme enzyme that catalyzes the first
697 and rate-limiting step in tryptophan catabolism to N-formyl-kynurenone (Grohmann *et al.*
698 2003). Through its expression in monocytes and macrophages this enzyme modulates T-cell
699 behaviour by its peri-cellular catabolization of the essential amino acid tryptophan (Munn &
700 Mellor 2013). It has also been shown to be highly expressed in the jejunal mucosa of pre-
701 weaning calves (Hammon *et al.* 2018).

702

703 **Comparative analysis of the rumen, colon and ileum of one week old age-matched sheep**
704 **and goats reveals differences in expression of genes involved in metabolism and immunity**

705 We performed a comparative analysis of the gene expression estimates for age-
706 matched one week old sheep and goats for three GI tract tissues: rumen, ileum and colon.
707 The goat gene expression estimates as transcripts per million (TPM) both for these tissues
708 and alveolar macrophages are included in Table S9. Full lists of all differentially expressed
709 genes between sheep and goat are included in Table S10 (rumen), Table S11 (ileum) and Table
710 S12 (colon). The top 25 differentially expressed genes between sheep and goat in either
711 direction for each of the three tissues are shown in Figure 7. Differentially expressed genes
712 between the rumen of sheep and goats included several solute carrier genes (*SLC5A8*, *SLC9A4*,
713 *SLC14A1*, and *SLC27A6*), a myosin V heavy chain gene *MYO5A* associated with connective
714 tissue, and *KRT3* which is involved in the simple and stratified differentiation of epithelial
715 tissues. Other genes within these super-families were also differentially expressed between

716 the ileum and colon of sheep and goats. Similarly, genes associated with immunity and
717 metabolism were differentially expressed between sheep and goat GI tract tissues. For
718 example, C-C motif chemokine ligands *CCL5* and *CCL20* were upregulated, respectively, in the
719 goat ileum and colon. Chemokines form a superfamily of genes involved in immunoregulatory
720 and inflammatory processes (Griffith *et al.* 2014). *CCL5* is one of the predominant cytokines
721 expressed during damage and inflammation of epithelial keratinocytes (Wetzler *et al.* 2000).
722 In contrast, *CSF3R* was down regulated in the colon of goats relative to sheep (Figure 7).
723 *CSF3R* (also known as *GCSF*) encodes a protein that controls the production, differentiation
724 and production of granulocytes (Nagata & Fukunaga 1991). Differences in expression
725 between the two species might therefore reflect variation in the density of granulocyte cells.
726 *CSF3R* has been shown to undergo changes in anatomical distribution during human fetal
727 development in the intestine (Calhoun *et al.* 1999), and similar trends could also occur in
728 neonatal animals.

729 Other genes with key roles in metabolic pathways and immune regulation were
730 differentially expressed between goats and sheep, including *IDO2*, which was upregulated in
731 the colon of one-week old goats relative to age-matched sheep. *IDO2*, with its parologue
732 *IDO1*, mentioned above, catalyses the first and rate-limiting step of the catabolism of the
733 essential amino acid tryptophan along the kynurenine pathway (Grohmann *et al.* 2003) and
734 is involved in the metabolic control of immune responses (Munn & Mellor 2013). IDO has
735 been implicated in downregulating immune responses to *Mycobacterium*
736 *avium* subsp. *paratuberculosis*, the causative agent of Johne's disease (Plain *et al.* 2011). In
737 sheep and cattle an increase in IDO expression correlates with progression to clinical
738 mycobacterial disease (Plain *et al.* 2011) with the small intestine the primary site of infection
739 (Koets *et al.* 2015). Since the GI tract contains important regions related to immunity

740 differences in the expression of genes with immune and metabolic function in the tissues
741 analysed might underlie differences in disease susceptibility and response to pathogens
742 between the two species. Interestingly, *SLC14A1* which was differentially expressed in the
743 rumen of sheep between birth and one week of age, was also up-regulated in the rumen of
744 goats relative to sheep (Figure 7). As mentioned above the protein encoded by *SLC14A1*
745 mediates the basolateral cell membrane transport of urea, a key process in nitrogen secretion
746 into the ruminant GI tract (Abdoun *et al.* 2009). Nitrogen recycling is an important topic in
747 ruminant management because movements of nitrogen across the GI tract can more than
748 double nitrogen intake and have major effects on nitrogen metabolism (Lapierre & Lobley
749 2001). Nitrogenous content of urea between sheep and goats has been shown to vary
750 (Bristow Andrew *et al.* 1992), which may be influenced by species specific differences in
751 expression of key genes involved in iodine and nitrogen recycling pathways in ruminants.

752 The results from our differential expression analysis of the three GI tract tissues in
753 age-matched sheep and goats indicate that there are basal differences in the expression of
754 some key genes involved in pathways related to immunity and metabolism between the two
755 species. These genes would be candidates for further analysis to elucidate the functional
756 significance of species specific differences in gene expression e.g. (Young *et al.* 2018).

757

758 **Conclusions**

759 By characterising tissue specific transcription in the GI tract through the transition
760 from pre-ruminant to ruminant we have shown that there are significant developmental stage
761 specific differences in gene expression particularly between neonatal lambs and 8 week and
762 adult sheep. These differences were most obvious in the rumen complex where significant
763 morphological and physiological changes occur as the lamb transitions from a milk-based to

764 a grass and pellet diet. Differences in the expression of protein coding genes with age were
765 observed both when the whole transcriptome was included in the analysis, and also when
766 only a subset of macrophage specific genes were analysed.

767 We focused only on protein-coding genes in this study, and have presented a wider
768 characterisation of non-coding transcripts elsewhere (Bush *et al.* 2018). A low level, highly
769 tissue specific expression pattern is characteristic of lncRNAs in sheep and goats (Bush *et al.*
770 2018). Further characterisation of the lncRNAs and other non-coding transcripts expressed
771 specifically in the GI tract through development, might help to infer something about their
772 function and would be an interesting direction for future work. Similarly, analysis of isoform
773 regulation using RNA-Seq data, as in (Katz *et al.* 2010), in the GI tract tissues would also be
774 interesting, although both this and analysis of the non-coding transcriptome would require
775 further sequencing to generate high depth total RNA-Seq libraries.

776 Other studies have examined links between feeding regime, the host transcriptome
777 and bacterial diversity in sheep using sequencing analysis of 16S rRNA genes (Wang *et al.*
778 2016). A full characterisation linking tissue- and developmental stage-specific microbial
779 colonisation of the GI tract would require a detailed 16S sequencing metagenomic approach
780 e.g. (Wallace *et al.* 2015). Further work would ideally examine this link further to profile in
781 parallel transcription in the GI tract and microbial colonisation to provide information as to
782 how microbial colonisation influences transcription during development. An additional area
783 to explore further would be the relative *IL10* insufficiency in the GI tract of the lambs – which
784 suppresses the macrophage response to intestinal microbes – as this could potentially be
785 beneficial to ruminant species which, compared to monogastric mammals, have a quite
786 different relationship with gut microbes.

787 The results we present in this study lay a foundation for further work, providing
788 baseline estimates of gene expression in the GI tract at the whole tissue level from healthy
789 lambs. In their 2002 review of gene expression in the ruminant GI tract Connor *et al.* indicated
790 that the use of techniques such as laser-capture microdissection will be needed to further
791 characterize expression profiles of individual cell types within the GI tract, and to remove
792 expression biases that may occur in studies evaluating whole tissue samples (Connor *et al.*
793 2010). Cutting edge single cell RNA-Seq technology provides the solution to this, allowing a
794 cell specific level of resolution of gene expression profiles. Single cell messenger RNA-Seq has
795 already been applied to cells from mouse GI tract organoids revealing rare cell types (Grün *et*
796 *al.* 2015) and the technology will hopefully be applied in the future to cells from the GI tract
797 of ruminants, since *in vitro* systems are now available (Hamilton *et al.* 2018).

798 One of the most significant physiological challenges to neonatal and juvenile
799 ruminants is the development and establishment of the rumen. The transition from pre-
800 ruminant to ruminant involves not only growth of the rumen and cellular differentiation but
801 also has a major effect on metabolism, immunity and physiological processes in other GI tract
802 tissues (Baldwin *et al.* 2004), which is reflected in the extensive transcriptional complexity
803 observed in this study. Using this sub-set of RNA-Seq data, from our high resolution of atlas
804 of gene expression in sheep (Clark *et al.* 2017b) we have improved our understanding of the
805 genetic and genomic mechanisms involved in the transition between pre-ruminant and
806 ruminant in sheep and highlighted key genes underlying healthy growth and development
807 that could be utilised to improve productivity in sheep and other ruminants.

808

809 **Author's Contributions**

810 ELC coordinated and designed the study with assistance from MEBM, ALA and DAH. DAH
811 acquired the funding with ALA. MEBM, ILF and ELC performed sample collection from sheep.
812 CM, ELC and ZML performed sample collection from goats. GMD and CM performed the RNA
813 extractions. ELC performed the network cluster and gene expression analysis. MS performed
814 the Principal Component Analysis and created Figure 1. CM performed the comparative
815 analysis of sheep and goat. DAH and ZML provided guidance on interpretation of the gut
816 macrophage transcriptional signatures. SJB performed all bioinformatic analyses. ELC wrote
817 the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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Table 1: Details of animals and samples from the GI tract included in this study

| Species | Breed | Developmental Stage | Sex | GI Tract Tissues | Reference & ENA Study Accession |
|--------------|----------------------------|---|--------------------|---|-----------------------------------|
| Sheep | Texel x Scottish Blackface | Birth (neonate/pre-ruminant) | 1 male, 2 females | Stomach Abomasum, Pylorus | Clark et al. 2017 (PRJEB19199) |
| Sheep | Texel x Scottish Blackface | One Week (transition from pre-ruminant to ruminant) | 1 male, 2 females | Large Intestine Caecum, Colon Spiral, Colon Large | |
| Sheep | Texel x Scottish Blackface | 8 Weeks (ruminant) | 2 males, 1 female | Small Intestine Duodenum, Ileum, Jejunum, | |
| Sheep | Texel x Scottish Blackface | Adult (GI tract) | 3 males, 3 females | Rumen Complex Omasum, Reticulum, Rumen | |
| Sheep | Texel x Scottish Blackface | Adult (reference tissues) | 3 males, 3 females | Oesophageal mucosa, Oesophageal muscle, Rectum, Liver, Alveolar Macrophages | Clark et al. 2017 (PRJEB19199) |
| Sheep | Texel | 6 – 10 Months | 1 female | Abomasum, Colon, Caecum, | Jiang et al. 2014 |
| Sheep | Texel | Adult | 1 male, 1 female | Rectum, Rumen, Omentum, Peyer's Patch | (PRJEB6169) |
| Goat | Crossbred | One Week | 3 male | Ileum, Rumen, Colon Large, Alveolar Macrophages | This Study (PRJEB23196) |

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1079 **Table 2: Functional annotation of the top 20 clusters for the sheep GI tract dataset including liver, oesophagus and alveolar macrophages as**
1080 **reference samples.**

| Cluster | Functional Class | Tissue Specific Expression | Marker Genes |
|-----------|-----------------------------------|--|--|
| 1 | House-Keeping (1) | Ubiquitous | <i>ATM, CDK9, CEP63</i> |
| 2 | Cell-Cycle & Immune | Peyer's Patch, Ileum | <i>CBX2, CD19, CDK1, CKLF</i> |
| 3 | Immune (T-Cells) | Small and Large Intestine | <i>CD4, CD8A, IL16, IL2RA, PARP8</i> |
| 4 | Metabolism | Liver | <i>SERPINA10, SLC10A1, FGF12, IGF1, IGF2</i> |
| 5 | Muscle - skeletal muscle | Thoracic Oesophagus | <i>MYH4, MYL2, OXCT1, ACTA1</i> |
| 6 | Lipids | Omentum, Rectum | <i>PLIN1, ADIPOQ</i> |
| 7 | Immune - Macrophages | Alveolar Macrophages | <i>CLEC4E, CD68, CCL4, CSF1, TLR4, CCR1, ITGAX, ITGAM, ADGRE1, MERTK, ICAM-1</i> |
| 8 | Epithelial - Rumen | Rumen Complex - General | <i>KRT15, N4BP3, NOD1, SOX2</i> |
| 9 | Immune | Ileum, Peyer's Patch, Alveolar Macrophages | <i>IL10, CD73, CLEC10A</i> |
| 10 | Immune - Macrophages | Alveolar Macrophages | <i>CD83, CD44, TNF-alpha, VSIG4, P2RY12, JUNB</i> |
| 11 | Vesicle Formation/Nutrient Uptake | Small Intestine (at birth) | <i>SLC10A4, SLC16A11, AQP7, AQP8</i> |
| 12 | Epithelial/Immune - Rumen | Rumen Complex (increasing with age) | <i>KRT5, PIP, IL19, VSIG8, IL36A, IL36B</i> |
| 13 | Smooth Muscle | Adult Reticulum and Rumen | <i>FIBIN, MYL, FMOD, CALD1, MYH11, ACTG2, CNN1</i> |
| 14 | Ribosomal | Ubiquitous | <i>RPS3, RPL32</i> |
| 15 | Neuronal | Large and small intestine (up-regulation at birth) | <i>IGF2BP1, MAPK10, FBXL16, VIP</i> |
| 16 | Oxidative Phosphorylation | Ubiquitous | <i>ATP5B, COX10, NDUFA3</i> |
| 17 | Mitochondria | Ubiquitous | <i>PLAG1, F3, ESR2</i> |
| 18 | Connective Tissue | Rectum | <i>COL6A6, GDF6</i> |
| 19 | Neuronal | True stomach, large and small intestine | <i>CPS1, DEPCR2</i> |
| 20 | Ribosomal | Ubiquitous | <i>RPL5, RPL15</i> |

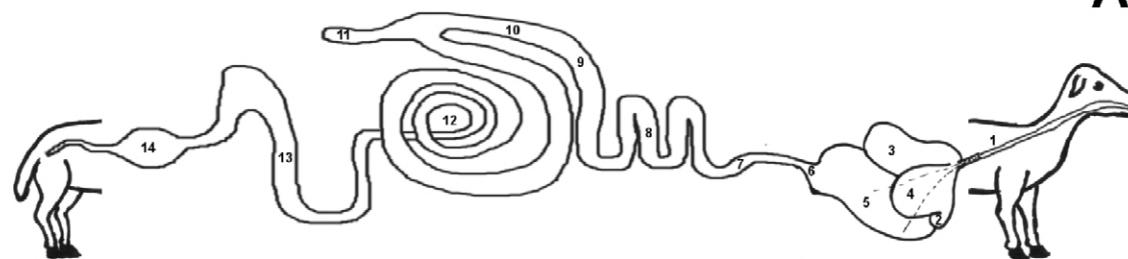
1081 **Table 3: Examples of differentially expressed genes identified using pairwise comparison of abomasum, rumen and ileum samples from sheep**

1082 **at birth vs one week and one-week vs 8 weeks.**

1083

| Gene | Tissue | Developmental Stage | Role | Fold Change | P-Value | Direction | TPM 1 | TPM 2 |
|----------------|----------|---------------------|----------------------------------|-------------|-----------------------|-----------|-------|-------|
| <i>PIP</i> | Rumen | 1 vs 8 Weeks | Mucosal Immunity | 3.1 | 5.1×10^{-7} | Up | 375 | 2113 |
| <i>CLEC4E</i> | Ileum | 1 vs 8 Weeks | Inflammatory and Immune Response | 2.4 | 2.7×10^{-4} | Up | 15 | 76 |
| <i>IL36A</i> | Rumen | 1 vs 8 Weeks | Inflammatory Response | 3.7 | 1.4×10^{-5} | Up | 275 | 2647 |
| <i>JAK3</i> | Rumen | 0 vs 1 Week | Cytokine signalling | 5.5 | 2.1×10^{-83} | Up | 115 | 4311 |
| <i>ISG15</i> | Abomasum | 1 vs 8 Weeks | IFN response | 3.1 | 1.1×10^{-67} | Up | 524 | 602 |
| | Abomasum | 0 vs 1 Week | IFN response | 2.6 | 1.2×10^{-36} | Up | 15 | 99 |
| | Rumen | 0 vs 1 Week | IFN response | 6.2 | 1.4×10^{-9} | Up | 10 | 625 |
| | Ileum | 0 vs 1 Week | IFN response | 3.4 | 5.5×10^{-8} | Up | 18 | 167 |
| <i>IFIT3</i> | Abomasum | 1 vs 8 Weeks | IFN-induced antiviral protein | 3.1 | 5×10^{-20} | Up | 337 | 439 |
| <i>IFIT2</i> | Ileum | 0 vs 1 Week | IFN-induced antiviral protein | 2.0 | 7.7×10^{-31} | Up | 76 | 275 |
| <i>MX2</i> | Abomasum | 0 vs 1 Week | IFN-induced protein | 2.1 | 7×10^{-7} | Up | 19 | 86 |
| | Rumen | 0 vs 1 Week | IFN-induced protein | 5.4 | 8×10^{-7} | Up | 13 | 443 |
| | Rumen | 1 vs 8 Weeks | IFN-induced protein | -2.8 | 4.3×10^{-3} | Down | 443 | 47 |
| <i>MX1</i> | Abomasum | 1 vs 8 Weeks | IFN-induced antiviral protein | 2.1 | 5.5×10^{-21} | Up | 1048 | 1307 |
| | Rumen | 0 vs 1 Week | IFN-induced antiviral protein | 3.6 | 2×10^{-5} | Up | 220 | 2256 |
| <i>IDO1</i> | Ileum | 0 vs 1 Week | Amino acid catabolism | 4.2 | 2×10^{-8} | Up | 88 | 1467 |
| <i>COL1A1</i> | Rumen | 1 vs 8 Weeks | Collagen - connective tissue | 2.1 | 3.3×10^{-5} | Up | 29269 | 92501 |
| | Ileum | 1 vs 8 Weeks | Collagen - connective tissue | -2.3 | 8.5×10^{-15} | Down | 35506 | 6919 |
| <i>COL1A2</i> | Rumen | 1 vs 8 Weeks | Collagen - connective tissue | 2.1 | 7.3×10^{-5} | Up | 25919 | 80206 |
| | Ileum | 1 vs 8 Weeks | Collagen - connective tissue | -2.1 | 5.6×10^{-14} | Down | 33384 | 7541 |
| <i>HERC6</i> | Rumen | 1 vs 8 Weeks | Ubiquitin ligase activity | -3.9 | 4.3×10^{-3} | Down | 319 | 16 |
| | Ileum | 0 vs 1 Week | Ubiquitin ligase activity | 3.2 | 7.7×10^{-11} | Up | 25 | 211 |
| | Abomasum | 1 vs 8 Weeks | Ubiquitin ligase activity | 3.0 | 1.1×10^{-11} | Up | 357 | 636 |
| <i>KRT36</i> | Rumen | 1 vs 8 Weeks | Keratin | 3.9 | 6.5×10^{-8} | Up | 6384 | 69503 |
| <i>HMGCS2</i> | Rumen | 0 vs 1 Week | Ruminal ketone body synthesis | 8.4 | 2.3×10^{-50} | Up | 66 | 19467 |
| <i>DUOXA2</i> | Rumen | 0 vs 1 Week | Thyroid hormone synthesis | 4.1 | 3.2×10^{-5} | Up | 12 | 168 |
| <i>SLC14A1</i> | Rumen | 0 vs 1 Week | Nitrogen and Iodine Recycling | 2.4 | 9.3×10^{-16} | Up | 2181 | 10158 |

A



Large intestine

- 11. Caecum
- 12. Colon Spiral
- 13. Colon Large
- 14. Rectum

Small intestine

- 7. Duodenum
- 8. Jejunum
- 9. Ileum
- 10. Peyer's patch

Rumen complex

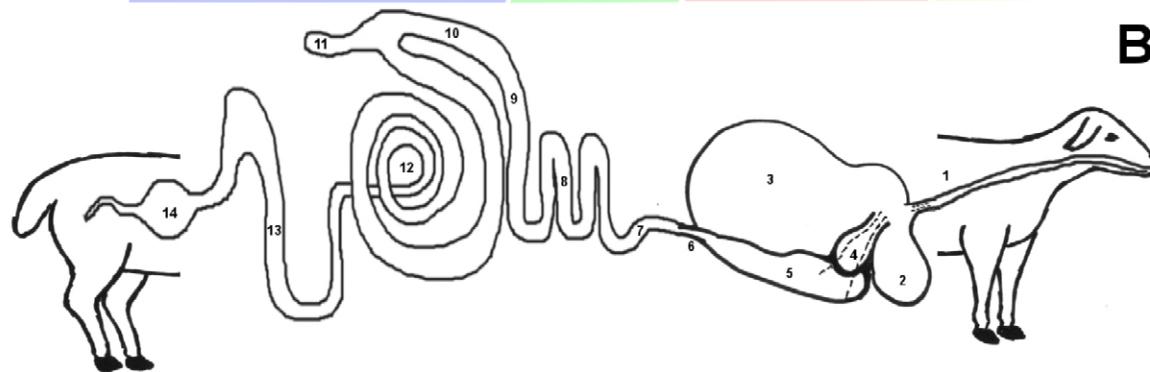
- 2. Reticulum
- 3. Rumen
- 4. Omasum

Stomach

- 5. Abomasum
- 6. Pylorus

1. Oesophagus

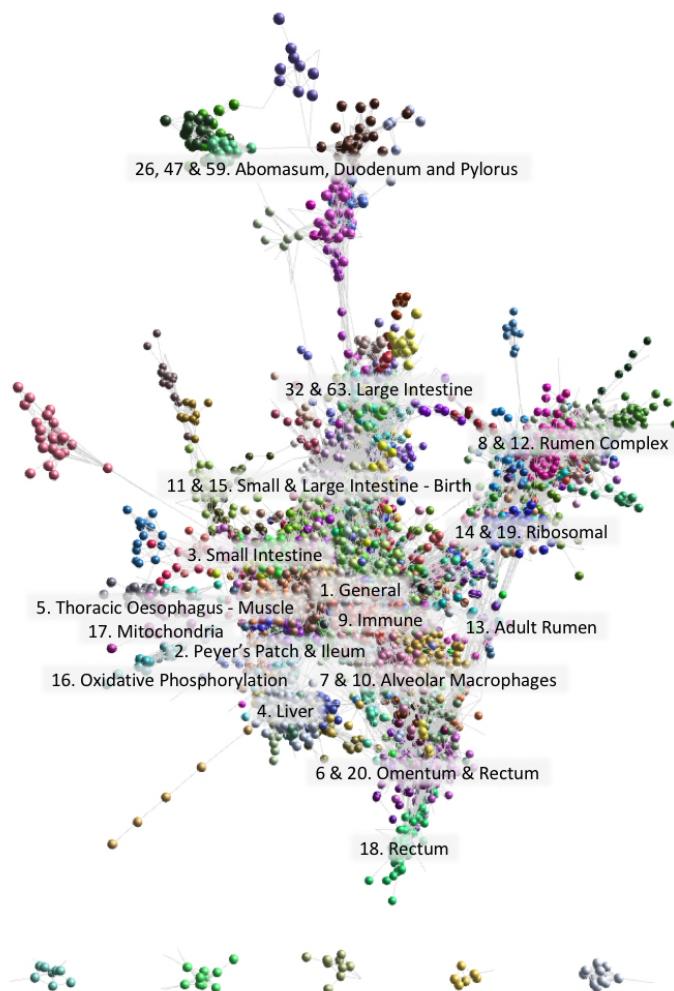
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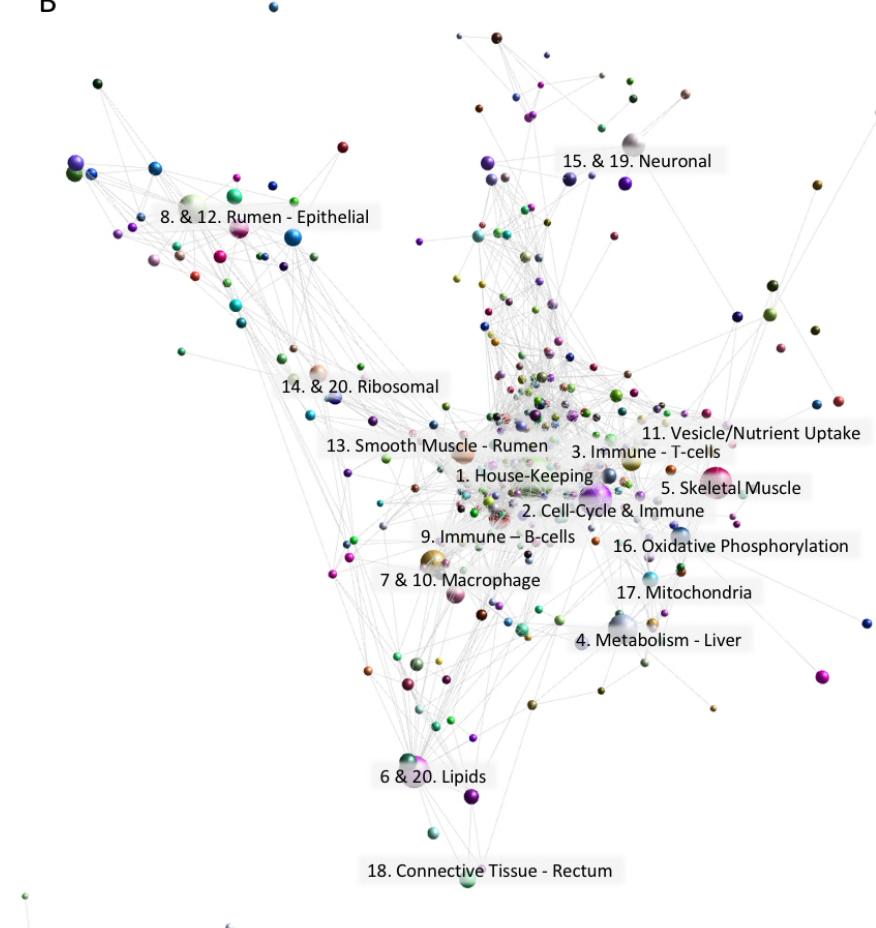
1085 **Figure 1: Diagrammatic representation of the morphological changes that occur in the gastrointestinal tract of a sheep during the transition**
1086 **from (A) pre-ruminant to (B) ruminant. The 14 regions sampled for this study are numbered. The oesophageal groove is indicated with dotted**
1087 **lines.**

1088

A



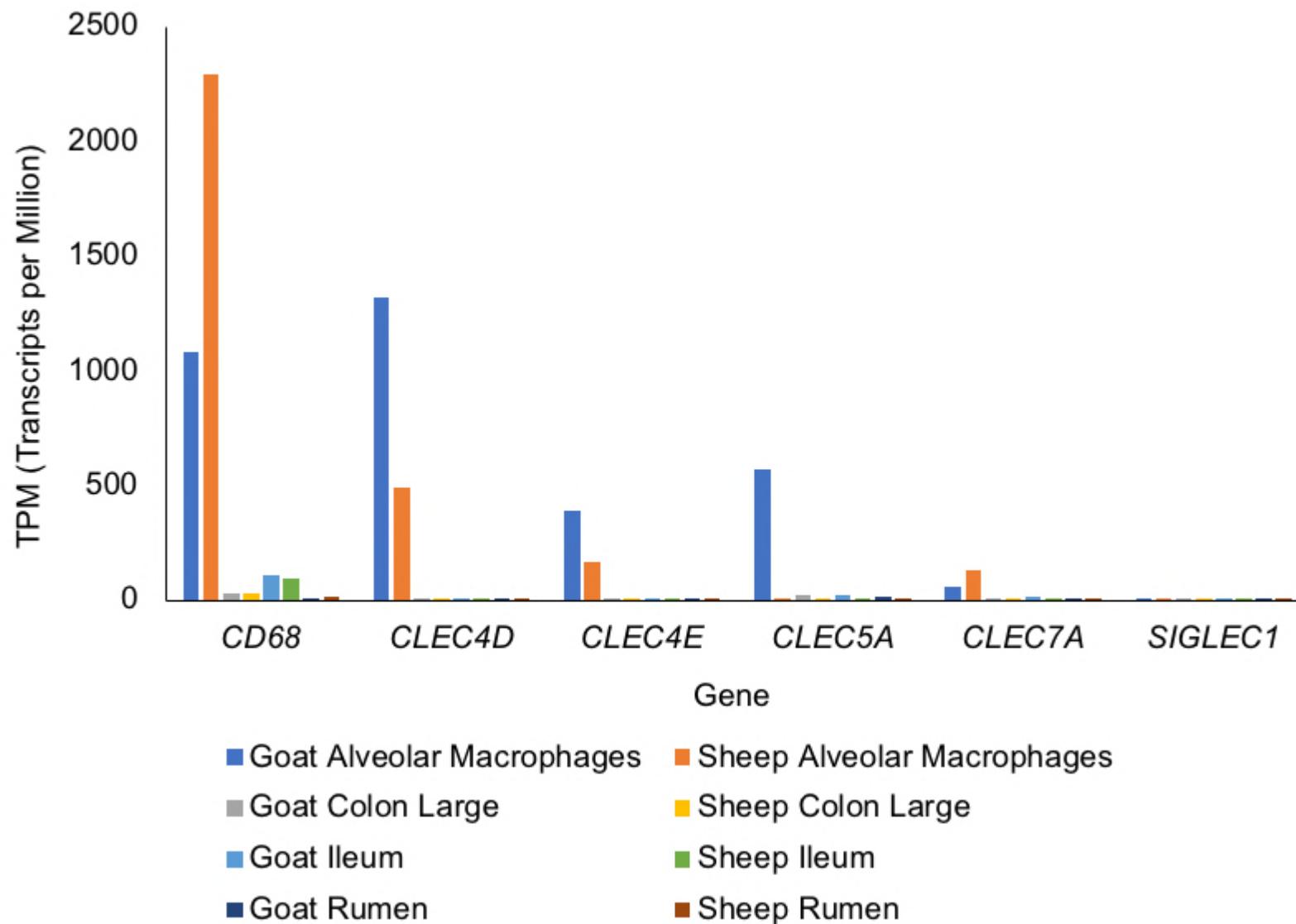
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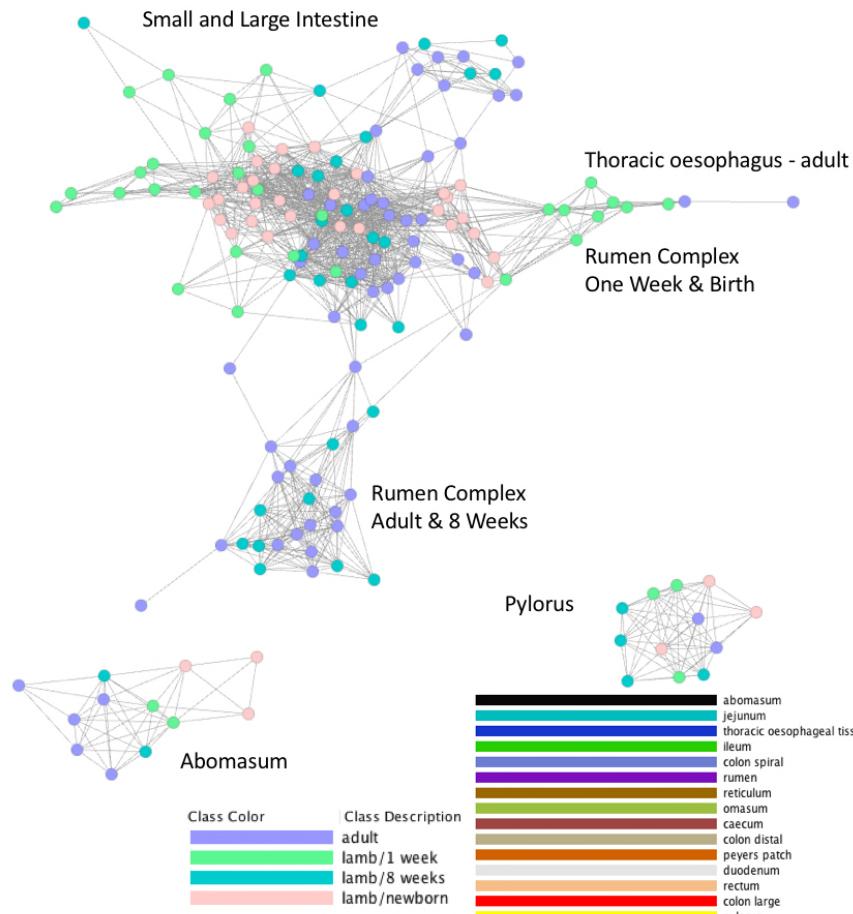
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1091 **Figure 2 A: Gene-to-gene network graph of sheep GI tract tissues and including alveolar macrophages, oesophageal tissue and liver. The top**
1092 **20 largest clusters are annotated by functional class. B: Gene-to-gene network graph with the nodes collapsed by class to illustrate the relative**
1093 **size of each cluster. Created using Graphia Professional with parameters Pearson's R=0.85, MCLi=2.2, Minimum Component Size=2, Minimum**
1094 **Cluster Size=2.**
1095

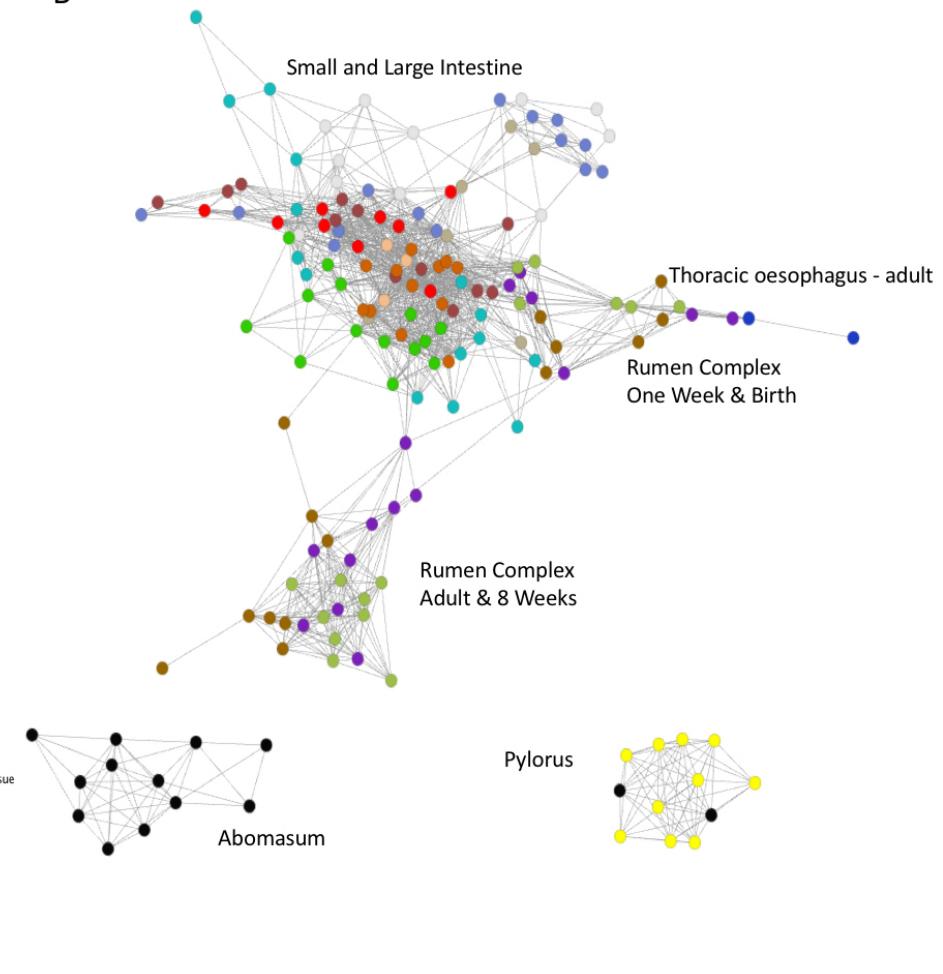


1097 **Figure 3: Comparative analysis of the expression of five C-type lectin genes, measured as transcripts per million (TPM), across three GI tract**
1098 **tissues (Large Colon, Ileum and Rumen) and alveolar macrophages in sheep and goats.**
1099

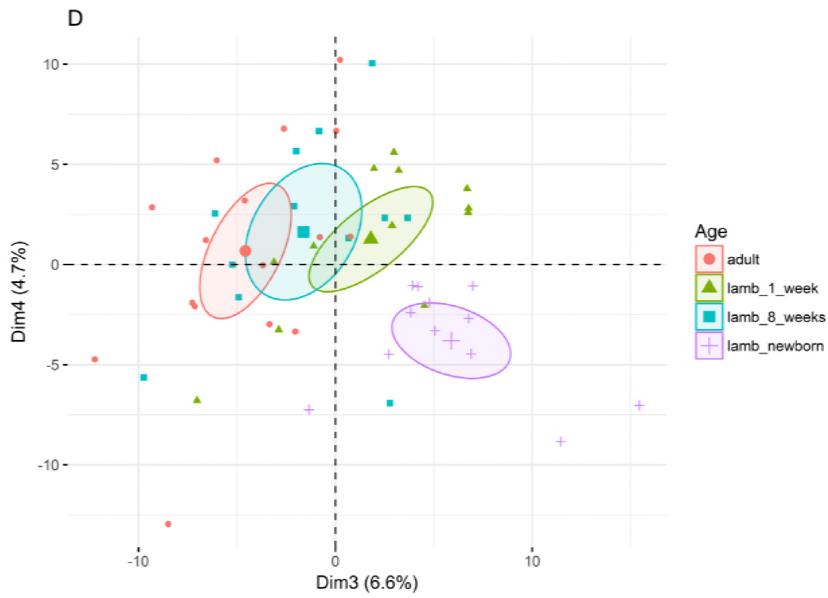
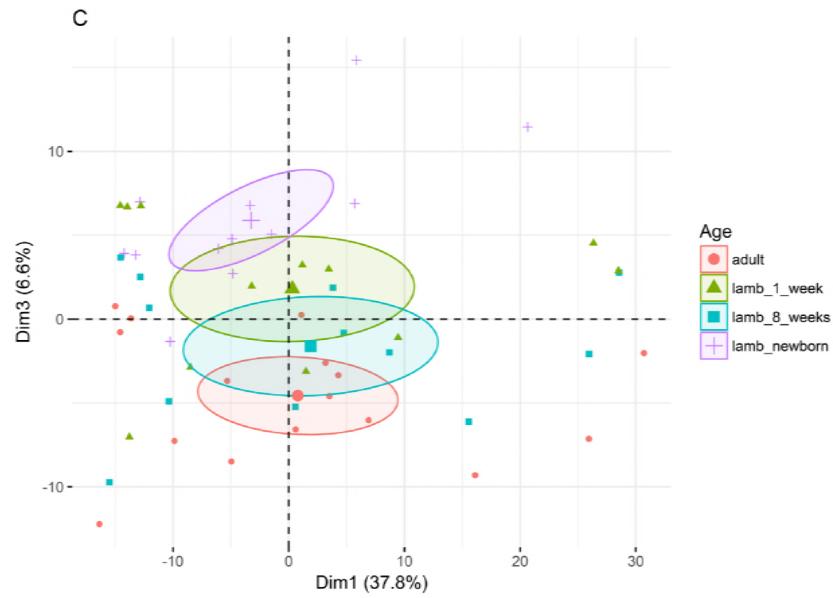
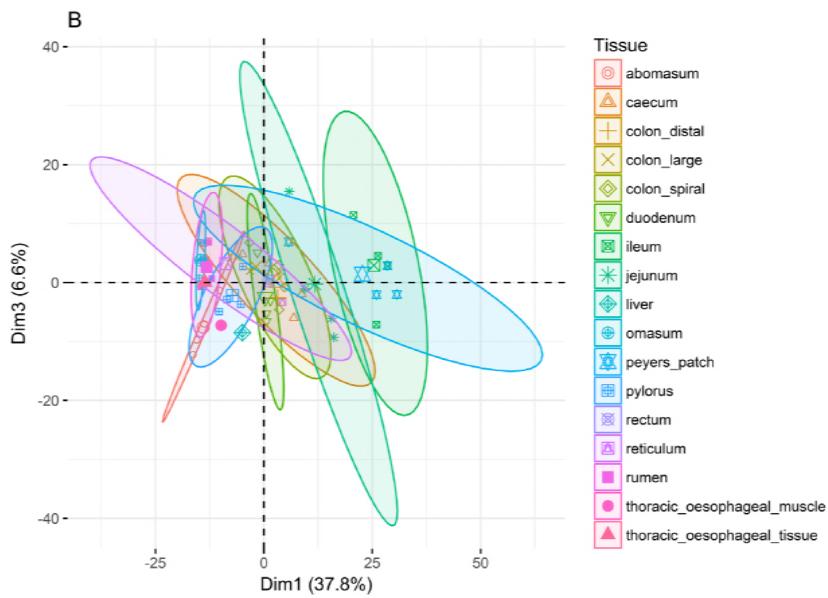
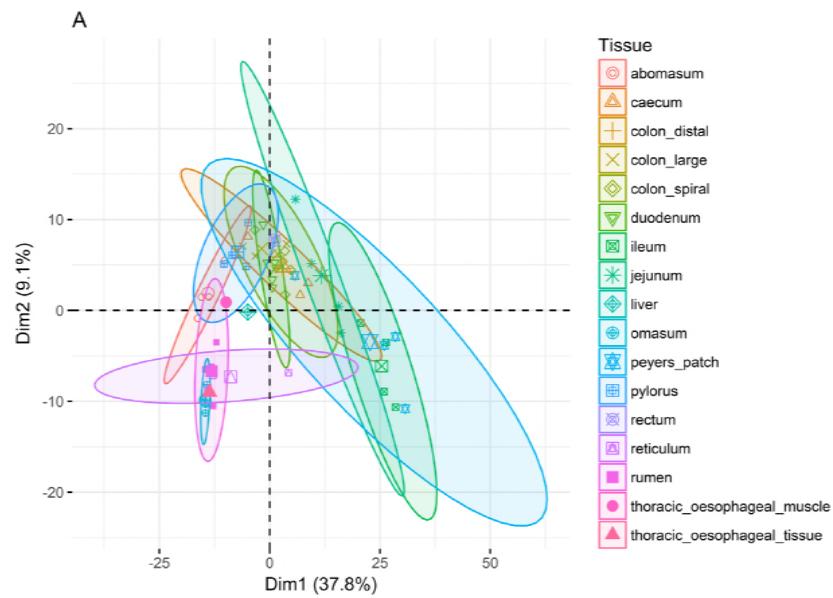
A



B



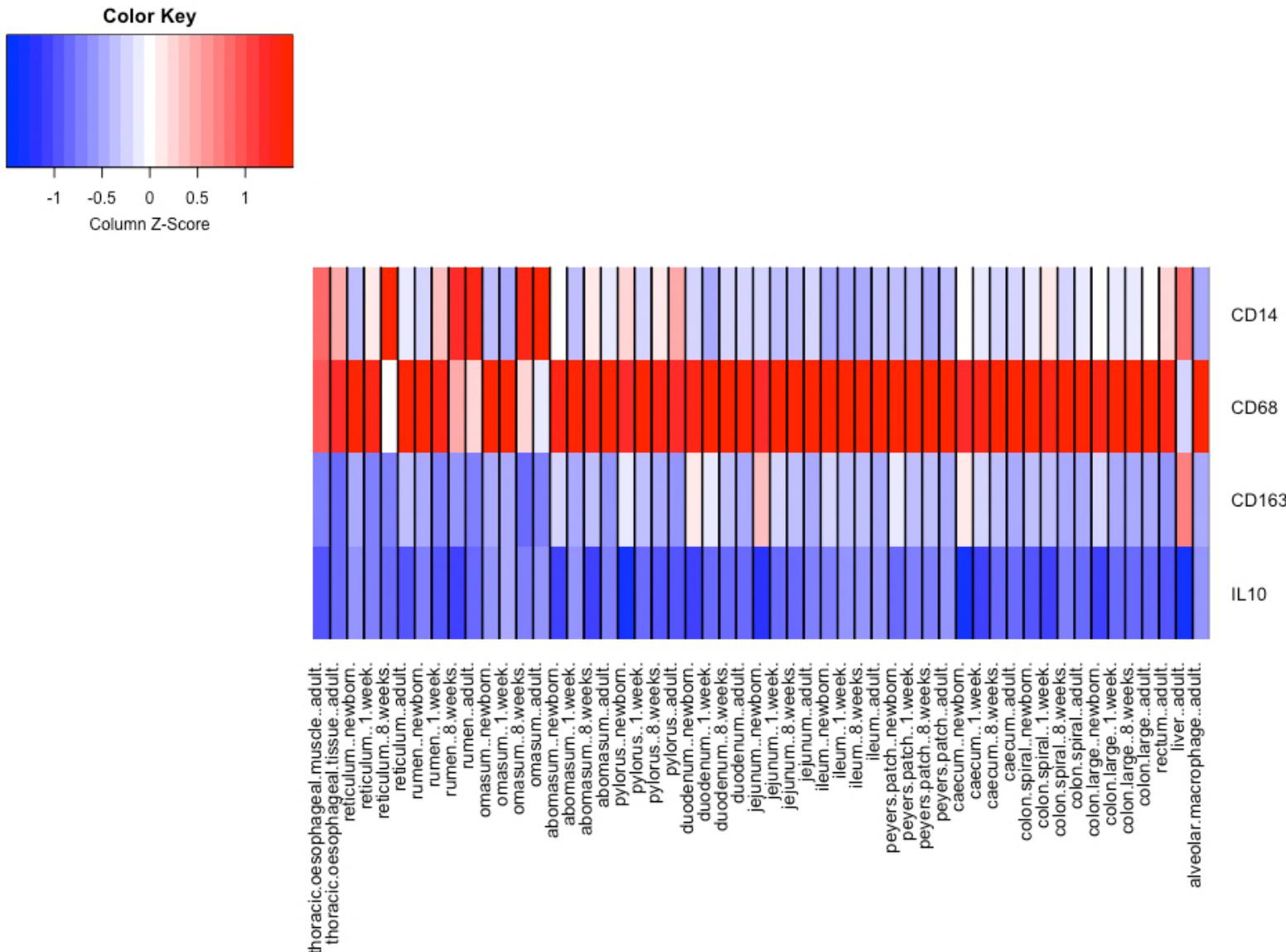
1101 **Figure 4: Sample-to-sample network graph of sheep GI tract samples coloured according to developmental stage (A) and tissue (B). Created**
1102 **using Graphia Professional with parameters Pearson's R=0.85, MCLi=2.2, Minimum Component Size=2, Minimum Cluster Size=2.**
1103



1105 **Figure 5: Principal Component Analysis of macrophage specific signatures in the sheep GI tract illustrating separation by tissue (A & B) and**

1106 **developmental stage (C & D) in three and four components, respectively.**

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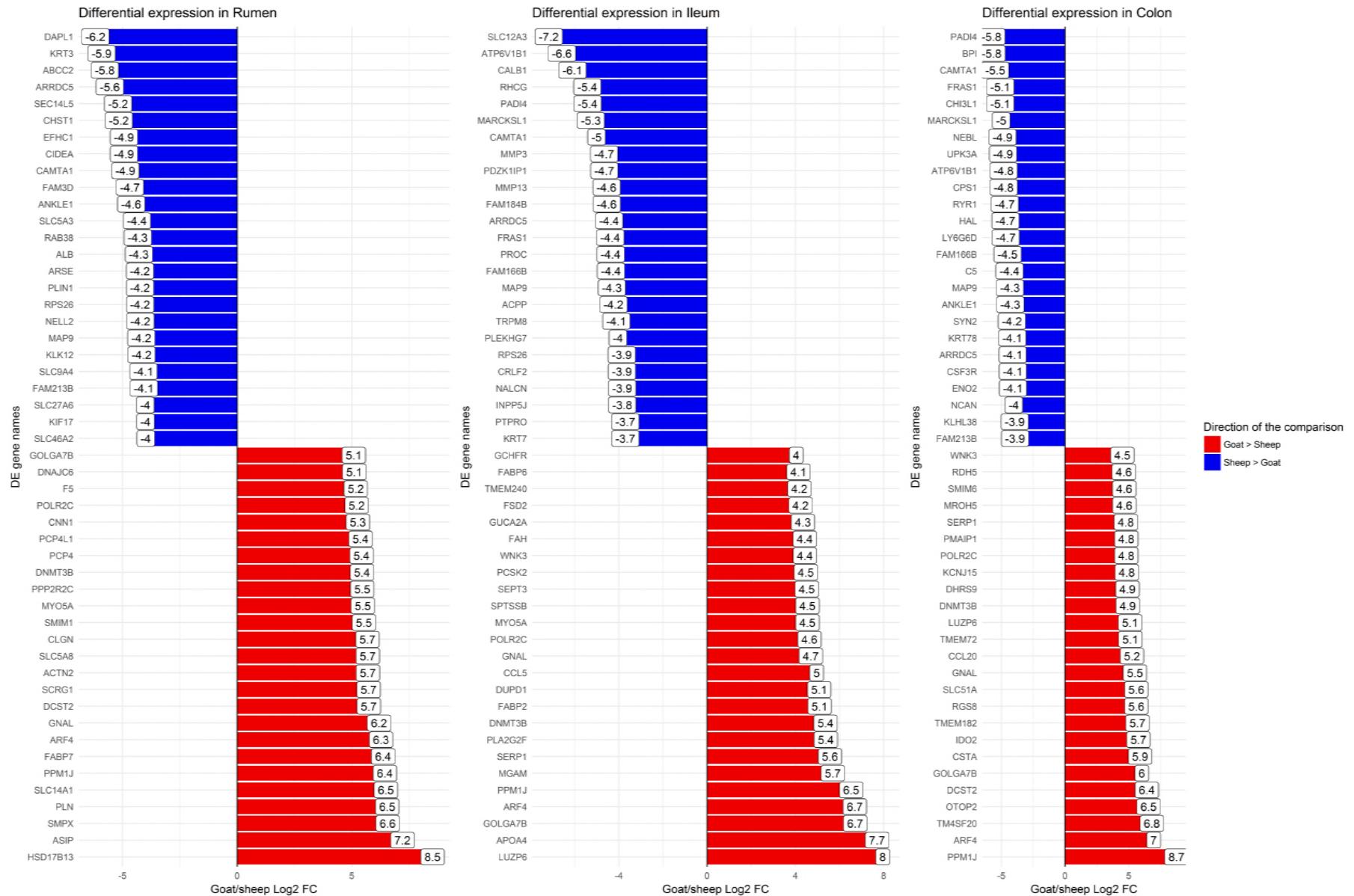


1109 **Figure 6: Red/blue heat map visualisation of the expression of a set of four immune marker genes (*CD14*, *CD68*, *CD163* and *IL10*) across sheep**

1110 **GI tract tissues at each developmental stage (including thoracic oesophagus, liver and alveolar macrophage samples for reference). Red**

1111 **indicates up-regulation of genes and blue down-regulation using z-score normalisation of TPM values for each gene.**

1112



1114 **Figure 7: The top 25 differentially expressed genes up-regulated and top 25 down-regulated genes between goat and sheep in the rumen,**

1115 **ileum and colon of age-matched one-week old animals.**

1116

1117 **Supplemental Material**

1118 **Table S1:** Averaged TPM expression estimates for sheep GI tract tissues, alveolar
1119 macrophages, thoracic oesophagus and liver, including the TxBF and Texel data.

1120 **Table S2:** List of genes within each cluster from the gene-to-gene network graph (Figure 2)
1121 including sheep GI tract tissues, alveolar macrophages, thoracic oesophagus and liver.

1122 **Table S3:** GO term enrichment for molecular function, cellular component and biological
1123 process for each cluster from the gene-to-gene network graph for sheep (Figure 2).

1124 **Table S4:** Individual sheep GI tract TPM expression estimates used for this analysis, which is
1125 a subset of data from the TxBF sheep atlas.

1126 **Table S5:** Differentially expressed genes in the sheep rumen using pairwise comparisons
1127 between birth and one week and one week and 8 weeks of age.

1128 **Table S6:** Differentially expressed genes in the sheep ileum using pairwise comparisons
1129 between birth and one week and one week and 8 weeks of age.

1130 **Table S7:** Differentially expressed genes in the sheep abomasum using pairwise comparisons
1131 between birth and one week and one week and 8 weeks of age.

1132 **Table S8:** GO term enrichment of differentially expressed genes in the rumen, ileum and
1133 abomasum of sheep between two developmental stages birth and one week and one week
1134 and 8 weeks of age.

1135 **Table S9:** Individual TPM expression estimates for rumen, ileum and colon from one-week old
1136 goats.

1137 **Table S10:** Differentially expressed genes in rumen samples from one-week old sheep and
1138 goats.

1139 **Table S11:** Differentially expressed genes in ileum samples from one-week old sheep and
1140 goats.

1141 **Table S12:** Differentially expressed genes in colon samples from one-week old sheep and

1142 goats.

1143

1144 **Figure S1: Principal Component Analysis of sheep GI tract samples illustrating separation by**

1145 **tissue (A & B) and developmental stage (C & D) in three components.**

1146 **Figure S2: Visualisation of differentially expressed genes within and between ileum, rumen**

1147 **and abomasum tissues at two developmental stages (0-1 week) and (1-8 weeks) in sheep**

1148 **using Venn diagrams.**

1149

1150