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Next-generation sequencing characterization of the gut bacterial community of gilthead sea bream (Sparus aurata, L.) fed low fishmeal based diets with increasing soybean meal levels

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- 1 Next-generation sequencing characterization of the gut
- 2 bacterial community of gilthead sea bream (Sparus aurata,
- 3 L.) fed low fishmeal based diets with increasing soybean
- 4 meal levels

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- 24 Keywords: Sparus aurata, Soybean meal, Gut bacterial
- 25 community, Next-generation sequencing, Growth, Gut

26 histology.

Abstract

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29 The present study was carried out to evaluate growth, gut histology and gut bacterial community of gilthead sea bream 30 31 (Sparus aurata) fed with increasing dietary soybean meal (SBM) levels in a low fishmeal (FM) based diet, in comparison 32 with a control diet. Five isoproteic and isolipidic experimental 33 34 diets were formulated to contain increasing levels of SBM (0, 100, 200, and 300 g kg⁻¹ named S0, S10, S20 and S30, 35 respectively) with 150 g kg⁻¹ of FM, and one control diet (C) 36 without SBM and containing 350 g kg⁻¹ of FM. Sixty sea bream 37 (initial body weight 75.9 ± 1.9 g, n = 900) per tank were reared 38 39 in a recirculation system at 23.0 \pm 1.0 °C and fed to satiation. The trial was run in triplicate and lasted 100 days. At the end of 40 the trial fish fed the S30 diet showed a higher $(P \le 0.05)$ 41 42 specific growth rate (SGR) compared to S0 (SGR, 1.17 ± 0.03 , 1.20 ± 0.01 , 1.22 ± 0.01 , 1.25 ± 0.01 and 1.21 ± 0.04 for S0, 43 S10, S20, S30 and C, respectively), and a higher feed intake 44 (FI) compared to S0, S10 and S20. Sea bream fed the C diet 45 had a higher ($P \le 0.05$) FI compared to S0 (FI, 1.40 \pm 0.01, 46 47 1.45 ± 0.01 , 1.44 ± 0.03 , 1.51 ± 0.03 and 1.46 ± 0.02 for S0, S10, S20, S30 and C, respectively). No significant differences 48 in feed conversion rate, protein efficiency ratio, gross protein 49 efficiency and gross lipid efficiency among the treatments were 50 51 detected. No specific histopathological changes indicative of 52 soy-induced enteritis were observed in the intestine of any fish 53 examined. Gut bacterial community of the distal intestine content was analyzed by Next-Generation Sequencing. At the 54 phylum level, the gut bacterial community was dominated by 55 abundance 71%), while 56 *Firmicutes* (relative the represented family was Lactobacillaceae (26%). Even if no 57 significant differences $(P \leq 0.05)$ in the gut bacterial 58 community α and β -diversity according to the different diets 59 were detected, Cyanobacteria and Lactobacillaceae 60 progressively increased from diet C to diet S30. In conclusion 61 results of growth, nutrient utilization, gut histology and gut 62 bacterial community indicate that SBM can be successfully 63 incorporated up to a level of 300 g kg⁻¹ with the inclusion of 64 150 g kg⁻¹ of FM, without any deleterious effects on growth, 65 66 protein utilization and gut health during the on-growing of sea 67 bream.

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1. Introduction

79	Gilthead sea bream is one of the most important species for
80	European aquaculture, representing around 51% of the total
81	finfish marine production in the Mediterranean area (FAO,
82	2010). Due to the current economic downturn and the
83	fluctuation of the gilthead sea bream market, a reduction in
84	feed costs while ensuring optimal growth and fish health is
85	essential to maintain the profitability of its farming (Martinez-
86	Llorens et al., 2009; Mongile et al., 2014). In this context, the
87	importance of vegetable protein is well recognized by feed
88	industry operators due to the growing pressure for alternative
89	fishmeal (FM) substitutes in fish diets. Among the different
90	ingredients, soybean meal (SBM) is one of the most interesting
91	alternative FM because of the advantages of supply, price, and
92	protein and amino acid composition (Bonaldo et al., 2008).
93	However this ingredient may induce a variety of histological
94	and functional changes in the gastrointestinal tracts of fish,
95	especially in salmonids, including morphological alterations
96	and inflammation (Krogdahl et al., 2003, 2010). These changes
97	may be due to direct effects of anti-nutritional factors in plant
98	ingredients and/or the indirect result of diet-induced changes in
99	the structure and function of the intestinal bacterial community
100	(Olsen et al., 2001; Ringø et al., 2006).

101 Previous studies on gilthead sea bream have shown that the optimum dietary SBM levels, using a dietary FM content 102 higher than 200 g kg⁻¹, were 205 g kg⁻¹ for maximum growth 103 (Martinez-Llorens et al., 2009). Further increasing the level of 104 SBM up to 300 g kg⁻¹ of the diet had no significant effects on 105 106 the specific growth rate (SGR), feed intake (FI) and feed conversion rate (FCR) in juvenile specimens of the same 107 species, although high SBM level led to some changes in the 108 109 distal intestine, with the presence of cellular infiltration of the submucosa and lamina propria (Bonaldo et al., 2008). 110 111 In this context the exploration of fish gut bacterial 112 community can represent an emerging tool to evaluate the 113 application of vegetal ingredients in fish feed formulations. 114 Increased knowledge of the human gut microbiota is driving 115 research into development, immunity, disease, lifestyle and nutrition (Furusawa et al., 2013). Similarly, the knowledge and 116 117 manipulation of the gut microbiome in teleosts, especially in aquaculture, could be potentially addressed through nutrient 118 119 digestion, synthesis, absorption, pathogen resistance, growth, 120 sexual maturation, morphogenesis and survivorship (Llewellyn et al., 2014). To date, our understanding of the teleost gut 121 bacterial community and of its functional significance has 122 123 lagged well behind that of humans and other terrestrial vertebrates (Ray et al., 2012). Most understanding of the 124 intestinal microbiota of fish is largely derived from culture-125

126 based approaches and 16S rRNA gene fingerprinting methods 127 such as denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis (DGGE). However, these methods usually reveal only a limited range of 128 129 microbial diversity (Desai et al., 2012; Carda-Diéguez et al., 2014). Next-Generation Sequencing (NGS) has been used in 130 recent years to examine the gut microbiome of humans, 131 132 terrestrial and marine vertebrate including some fish species as recently reviewed by Ghanbari et al. (2015). However, only for 133 134 a few species such as rainbow trout Oncorhynchus mykiss, 135 Siberian sturgeon Acipenser baerii and zebrafish Danio rerio, was this technique applied to explore the impact of diet on the 136 137 gut bacterial community (Desai et al., 2012; Semova et al., 2012; Geraylou et al., 2013). In sea bream, Sparus aurata, data 138 on gut bacterial community using NGS have been recently 139 140 published regarding fish fed exclusively fishmeal or vegetable protein based diets (Estruch et al., 2015), while no data are 141 142 available for this species fed increasing SBM levels in practical diet formulations. 143 Furthermore few studies have explored in this species the 144 145 effects of increasing levels of SBM on performance using low FM based diets as the only animal protein source and most of 146 147 the data on literature were restricted to replace FM with SBM. 148 At this regards, we evaluated the effects of SBM by replacing a 149 mixture of vegetal ingredients, wheat meal (WM), wheat gluten 150 (WG), corn gluten (CG) and sunflower meal (SM) which are

currently used in practical formulation at industrial level to
determine the optimal inclusion rate in practical low fish meal
diet.

The aims of this study were: 1) to evaluate the effects of dietary inclusion of SBM and a low FM content in practical diet formulations on growth, nutrient utilization and gut histology of gilthead sea bream; 2) to evaluate changes in the gut bacterial community of gilthead sea bream fed practical diets with increasing levels of SBM and a low FM content, in comparison to a control diet.

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2. Materials and methods

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164 *2.1. Diets*

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Ingredients and proximate composition of the experimental 166 diets are presented in Table 1. Four isoproteic and isolipidic 167 diets were formulated with practical ingredients to contain 168 increasing levels of SBM (0, 100, 200, and 300 g kg⁻¹, named 169 S0, S10, S20, and S30, respectively) with a low FM content 170 (150 g kg⁻¹), while a control diet (C) was formulated to contain 171 0 g kg^{-1} SBM and 350 g kg^{-1} FM content. SBM was replaced 172 173 by adding WM, WG, CG and SM. The diets were manufactured by Skretting Aquaculture Research Centre 174 (Stavanger, Norway) using extrusion technology. According to 175

the feed manufacturer, the protein and lipid levels were within
the range of the commercial diets for sea bream as well as the
FM level in the C group which was chosen as optimal standard
level for commercial diet of this species. All feeds were
produced as extruded sinking pellets (specific gravity 1.15)
with a diameter of 4 mm.

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183 *2.2. Fish, experimental set-up and sampling*

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The experiment was carried out at the Laboratory of Aquaculture, Department of Veterinary Medical Sciences of the University of Bologna, Cesenatico, Italy. Sea bream with an initial average weight of 75.9 ± 1.9 g were obtained from the hatchery Panittica Italia, Fasano, Italy. Before the experiment, fish were acclimated for 2 weeks to the experimental tanks and fed a mix of the experimental diets. At the beginning of the trial, 60 fish per tank were randomly distributed into 15, 1000 L square conical bottom tanks to obtain five triplicate fish groups, each per dietary treatment. Tanks were provided with natural seawater and connected to a closed recirculation system consisting of a mechanical sand filter (Astralpool, Spain), an ultraviolet light (Philips, the Netherlands) and a biofilter (Astralpool, Spain). The water exchange rate within each tank was 100% every hour. The water renewal of the total system was 5 % daily. Mean water temperature was maintained at 23.0

201 ± 1.0 °C throughout the experiment; photoperiod was held 202 constant at a 12 h day length through artificial light (300 lux at the water surface — Delta Ohm luxmeter HD-9221; Delta-203 204 Ohm, Padua, Italy). The oxygen level was kept constant (8.0 \pm 1.0 mg L⁻¹) by a liquid oxygen system connected to a software 205 206 controller (B&G Sinergia snc, Chioggia, Italy). Ammonia (total ammonia nitrogen, TAN ≤ 0.1 mg L⁻¹), nitrite (NO₂ ≤ 0.2 mg 207 L^{-1}) and nitrate (NO₃ \leq 50 mg L^{-1}) were determined 208 209 spectrophotometrically once a day (Spectroquant Nova 60, Merk, Lab business) at 12.00 p.m. At the same time, pH (7.8-210 8.2) and salinity (28-33 g L^{-1}) were determined. The feeding 211 212 trial lasted a total of 100 days. Fish were overfed by automatic 213 feeders twice a day with a 5-10 % overfeeding ration for six 214 days a week, while one meal was supplied on Sundays. Each 215 meal lasted 1 hour and after that the uneaten feed was trapped by a feed collector at the water output of tanks, dried overnight 216 217 at 105°C and the weight deducted from the feed intake for overall calculations. 218 At the beginning and at the end of the experiment, all the 219 220 fish of each tank were individually weighed. At the end of the 221 trial digesta samples from 3 fish per tank were collected individually. The gastrointestinal tract was dissected under 222 223 sterile conditions and the distal gut content was squeezed out into an Eppendorf tube (one per fish) and placed at -80 °C until 224 225 DNA extraction (Desai et al., 2012).

Carcass proximate composition was determined on a pooled sample of ten fish collected at the beginning of the trial and on pooled samples of five fish per tank collected at the end of the trial. Furthermore, at the end of the trial, wet weight of viscera and liver was individually recorded from five fish per tank to determine visceral (VSI) and hepatosomatic (HSI) indices.

All experimental procedures were evaluated and approved
by the Ethical-scientific Committee for Animal
Experimentation of the University of Bologna, in accordance
with the European directive 2010/63/UE on the protection of
animals used for scientific purposes.

2.3. Gut histology

At the end of the trial 15 animals per treatment were randomly sampled. After euthanasia with a lethal dose of 2-phenoxyethanol, the gut was removed and the intestine was divided into two segments, proximal and distal; from each segment a 5 mm-long piece was sectioned and fixed in 10% buffered formalin. Samples were then processed for routine histology to obtain 3 µm thick transverse sections, which were stained with haematoxylin-eosin (H&E). Sections were evaluated under a light microscope (Nikon Eclipse 80i).

250 2.4. Gut bacterial community 16S sequencing

252 Total bacterial DNA was extracted from a pool of distal 253 intestine content obtained from 3 fish per tank (100 mg of distal 254 intestine content per fish) as reported by Schnorr et al. (2014). PCR amplifications of the V3-V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene 255 256 were carried out in 25 µl volumes with 25 ng of microbial 257 DNA, 2x KAPA HiFi HotStart ReadyMix (KAPA Biosystems), and 200 nM of the primers S-D-Bact-0341-b-S-17/S-D-Bact-258 259 0785-a-A-21 (Klindworth et al., 2013) including Illumina overhang adapters. Reaction conditions were as follows: initial 260 261 denaturation at 98°C for 3 min, followed by 30 cycles of 262 denaturation at 95°C for 30 sec, annealing at 55°C for 30 sec, 263 and extension at 72°C for 30 sec, with a final extension step at 264 72°C for 5 min. Amplicons were purified using Agencourt 265 AMPure XP magnetic beads. This magnetic bead-based system is recommended in the Illumina protocol "16S Metagenomic 266 267 Sequencing Library Preparation" for the MiSeq system, and has been used in several other publications (Soverini et al., 2016). 268 According to the Illumina protocol, 20% PhiX control was 269 used. Indexed libraries were prepared by using Nextera 270 271 technology and cleaned up with Agencourt® magnetic beads. The final libraries were pooled at equimolar concentrations, 272 273 denatured and diluted to 6 pM before loading onto the MiSeq flow cell. Sequencing was performed on Illumina MiSeq 274 275 platform using a 2 × 300 bp paired end protocol, according to

276 the manufacturer's instructions (Illumina, San Diego, CA). 277 Raw sequences were processed using the QIIME pipeline 278 (Caporaso et al., 2010). After length (minimum/maximum = 279 300/600 bp) and quality filtering with default parameters, reads were binned into OTUs at a 0.97 similarity threshold using 280 281 UCLUST (Edgar, 2010). Assignment was carried out by using 282 the RDP classifier against Greengenes database (May 2013 version). Alpha-diversity rarefaction curves were performed 283 284 using the Faith's phylogenetic diversity, Chao1, observed 285 species, and Shannon index metrics. Beta-diversity was estimated by weighted and unweighted UniFrac distances, 286 287 which were used as input for principal coordinates analysis 288 (PCoA).

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2.5. Analytical methods

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Diets and whole body samples were analyzed for proximate composition. Moisture content was obtained by weight loss after drying samples in a stove at 105 °C until a constant weight was achieved. Crude protein was determined as total nitrogen (N) by using the Kjeldahl method and multiplying N by 6.25. Total lipids were determined according to Bligh and Dyer's (1959) extraction method. Ash content was estimated by incineration to a constant weight in a muffle oven at 450 °C.

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301 2.6. Calculations
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303 The formulae employed were as follows:

- Specific growth rate (SGR) $(day^{-1}) = 100 * (ln FBW-ln)$
- 305 IBW)/days (where FBW and IBW represent the final and the
- 306 initial body weights).
- Feed intake (FI) (% day^{-1}) = 100 * (crude feed intake/
- 308 ABW/day) (where ABW (g) = average body weight = (FBW +
- 309 IBW)/2).
- Feed conversion ratio (FCR) = feed intake/weight gain.
- 311 Visceral somatic index (VSI) (%) = 100 * (viscera
- 312 weight/body weight).
- 313 Hepatosomatic index (HSI) (%) = 100 * (liver weight/body
- 314 weight).
- 315 Protein efficiency ratio (PER) = (FBW IBW)/protein
- 316 intake.
- Gross protein efficiency (GPE) (%) = 100 * [(% final body
- 318 protein * FBW) (% initial body protein *IBW)]/total protein
- 319 intake $fish^{-1}$.
- 320 Gross lipid efficiency (GLE) (%) = 100 * [(% final body
- 321 lipid * FBW) (% initial body lipid * IBW)]/total lipid intake
- 322 $fish^{-1}$.

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324 *2.7. Statistics*

326 Data of growth performance, VSI, HSI, and nutritional indices are presented as mean ± standard deviation (SD) of 327 328 three replicate groups and were analyzed by a one-way 329 ANOVA followed by a Tukey's multiple comparison test. Statistical analysis of gut bacterial community was carried out 330 by using R packages Stats and Vegan. Significant differences in 331 332 the relative abundance of gut bacterial community components were obtained by Kruskall-wallis test. Data separation in the 333 334 PCoA was tested using a permutation test with pseudo F-ratios 335 (function Adonis in the Vegan package).

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3. Results

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3.1. Growth and histology

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Growth performance is summarized in Table 2. At the end 341 of the trial fish fed the S30 diet showed a higher $(P \le 0.05)$ 342 SGR compared to S0 and a higher FI compared to S0, S10 and 343 S20. Sea bream fed the C diet had a higher $(P \le 0.05)$ FI 344 compared to S0, while no significant differences in FCR among 345 treatments 346 were detected (Table 2). No significant differences in VSI, HSI, whole body composition and the 347 348 nutritional indices PER, GPE, GLE, were observed among the treatments (Table 3). No specific histopathological changes 349

indicative of soy-induced enteritis were observed in the intestine of any fish examined (Fig. 1).

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353 *3.2. Gut bacterial community characterization*

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Fifteen pools of distal intestine content were analyzed by 355 NGS of the V3 and V4 regions of the 16S rDNA gene. A total 356 of 5,584,914 high quality reads were obtained from the starting 357 358 15,956,896 reads obtained, ranging from a minimum of 93,673 to a maximum of 687,596 reads per sample, with an average of 359 360 372,327 reads per sample. Further information about the 361 number of reads for each sample and the coverage are reported 362 in Supplementary Table 1. The number of reads across samples was normalized basing on the sample with the lowest number 363 364 of reads and singletons were omitted from the analysis. Reads were clustered into 13,099 operational taxonomic units (OTUs) 365 366 at 97% of identity, of which a total of 5,525 diet-specific OTUs were found (1,082 for diet S30; 1,016 for diet S20; 1,038 for 367 diet S10; 833 for diet S0; 1,556 for control diet). Different 368 369 metrics have been utilized to calculate α-diversity, including 370 phylogenetic diversity, OTU species count, Chao 1 index for microbial richness and Shannon index for biodiversity (Fig. 371 372 2a). Rarefaction of phylogenetic curves the diversity approximated saturation, indicating a good coverage of the gut 373 bacterial community. No differences in the gut bacterial 374

- community α -diversity according to the different diets were detected (Fig. 2b).
- 377 At the phylum level, the average sea bream gut bacterial
- 378 community is dominated by Firmicutes (relative abundance
- 379 (rel. ab.) 71%), Actinobacteria (rel. ab. 9%), Bacteroidetes (rel.
- ab. 7%) and *Proteobacteria* (rel. ab. 6%), while *Cyanobacteria*
- 381 (rel. ab. 3%) and Verrucomicrobia (rel. ab. 3%) were
- 382 subdominant (Fig. 3a). The most represented families are:
- 383 Lactobacillaceae (rel. ab. 26%), Ruminococcaceae (rel. ab.
- 384 12%), Lachnospiraceae (rel. ab. 10%) and Clostridiales
- families (rel. ab. 7%) (Fig. 3b). Among the subdominant
- families the most represented were, Streptococcaceae (rel. ab.
- 3%), Cyanobacteria (rel. ab. 3%), Staphylococcaceae (rel. ab.
- 388 3%), Verrucomicrobia (rel. ab. 3%) and Enterobacteriaceae
- 389 (rel. ab. 2 %).
- 390 In order to highlight the impact of the different diets (S0, S10,
- 391 S20, S30 and C) on the gut bacterial ecology of sea bream, we
- 392 performed the PCoA analysis of the UniFrac distances among
- 393 the gut bacterial community profiles (Fig. 4). Even though no
- 394 significant differences among dietary groups were detected,
- 395 both weighted and unweighted PCoA showed a tendency
- 396 toward a samples separation according to the different diets.
- Fig. 5 shows the relative abundance of bacteria composition per
- sample at phylum (a) and family (b) levels, while in Fig. 6 we
- 399 report the gut bacterial community components which showed

400 a different abundance in the different dietary groups. In 401 particular, the abundance of Cyanobacteria progressively increased from diet C to diet S30 (Fig. 6a), while Synergistetes 402 403 tend to show an opposite trend (Fig. 6b). Differently, Actinobacteria showed a higher abundance in diets S0 and S30 404 (Fig. 6c). Although there were no statistically significant 405 effects, the Lactobacillaceae family was highly represented in 406 fish fed S30 (Rel. ab. 43.3%) compared to those fed C diet 407 408 (Rel. ab. 11.2%) (Fig. 6d).

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4. Discussion

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The inclusion of SBM at 100, 200 and 300 g kg⁻¹ (S10-S30) of the diet with a low FM content (150 g kg⁻¹) led to equal growth and protein utilization in comparison to a control diet without SBM and having 350 g kg⁻¹ of FM. The present results in with previous studies are agreement which have demonstrated the feasibility of including up to 300, 390 and 395 g kg⁻¹ SBM in diets for on-growing sea bream without negative effects on growth and nutritive efficiency (Bonaldo et al., 2008; Martinez-Llorens et al., 2009; Kokou et al., 2012), although FM levels in these studies were higher than in the present trial or amino acid supplements were used. In the present study the lack of differences in the SGR, FCR, PER and GPE between S10, S20, S30, the C diet suggests that the

inclusion of 150 g kg⁻¹ of FM in combination with SBM, WG 425 and CG will supply sufficient protein quality for this species. 426 Dias. et al. (2009), showed that the growth 427 428 performance of sea bream towards the end of the grow-out phase can be sustained by a practical dietary formulation 429 containing plant protein-derived and as little as 13% of marine-430 431 derived proteins. However, in that study AA supplementation and haemoglobin powder were also incorporated in the feed 432 433 while in the present study FM was the only animal protein source. Focusing on the diets at low FM level (S0, S10, S20, 434 435 S30), fish fed S30 showed a higher SGR compared to those fed 436 S0. This seems mainly due to an increment of FI with 437 increasing dietary content of SBM. The reduced FI commonly observed in fish given feeds containing plant protein may be 438 439 related to a reduced feed palatability and, in this regard, the use of several mixtures of plant protein should reduce the potential 440 441 inhibition of feed consumption due to the specific effect of a single ingredient (Fournier et al., 2004). Other studies reported 442 443 an increased feed consumption with increasing dietary levels of 444 SBM assuming that fish to meet their energy needs would have increased the FI for a reduced available energy content as SBM 445 inclusion increased (Venou et al., 2006; Kokou et al., 2012). 446 447 SBM contains about 20% of non-starch polysaccharides (NSP) and 10% oligosaccharides (Snyder and Kwon, 1987; Bach 448 449 Knudsen, 1997), which are considered indigestible by fish 450 compared to wheat and glutens. Therefore, despite the isoenergetic content of the diets, a reduction of available energy 451 content would be expected at higher SBM inclusion level 452 453 (Kokou et al., 2012). However, possible action of the gut bacterial community could allow part of SBM energy 454 originating from NSP to be available to the fish in the form of 455 456 low molecular weight fatty acids (Kihara and Sakata, 2002; Mountfort et al., 2002; Refstie et al., 2005; Kokou et al., 2012). 457 458 Gut histology revealed no specific histopathological changes 459 indicative of soy-induced enteritis in the intestines of any fish examined. In a previous study on sea bream the inclusion of 460 461 30% SBM seemed to cause moderate and diffused expansion of 462 lamina propria in the distal intestine due to an increase of mononuclear infiltration compared 463 cell when other 464 treatments with 18 and 0% of SBM (Bonaldo et al., 2008). A dilatation of the submucosa by eosinophilics cells infiltration 465 was also found in the distal intestine of sea bream fed diet 466 containing bioprocessed SBM at the 40 and 60% levels (Kokou 467 468 et al., 2012). However both studies were conducted at juveniles stage (weight range, 17.4 - 96.0 g and 15.7 - 48.9 g, 469 470 respectively) compared to the on-growing stage of the present study (weight range 75.1 - 259.5 g). The inclusion levels of 471 472 SBM seem to be better tolerated by fish at on-growing phase as 473 supported by Martinez-Llorens et al. (2007) which concluded 474 that dietary SBM might be included in the diets up to 30% in

475 juveniles and up to 50% in grow-out fish without affecting 476 animal performance. In addition sea bream in grow-out phase 477 showed high tolerance for soy saponins while in juvenile sea 478 bream fed diets containing phytosterols and soy saponins some disturbances of the intestinal mucosa were observed (Couto et 479 al., 2014 a, b); however, the histomorphological changes 480 481 observed were very mild and, although statistically significant, 482 the differences were judged to be minor and to represent 483 normal adaptation to changes in diet composition (Couto et al., 2014a). 484 In the present study the gut bacterial community was 485 486 characterized. According to our findings, the gut bacterial 487 community is widely dominated by Firmicutes (rel. ab. 71%), showing Actinobacteria as the second dominant phyla (rel. ab. 488 489 9%). Bacteroidetes, Proteobacteria and Cyanobacteria were subdominant components with a relative abundance ranging 490 491 from 3 to 7 % of the bacterial community. Our data are in 492 general agreement with the previous Next Generation Sequencing-based survey of the gut bacterial community in sea 493 494 (Estruch et al., 2015). Further, pyrosequencing of the V1-V3 region of the 16S rDNA, the 495 Authors showed a co-dominace of Actinobacteria (rel. ab. 496 497 35%), Proteobacteria (rel. ab. 32%) and Firmicutes (rel. ab. 24%) in the hindgut bacterial community. The dominance of 498 499 Firmicutes we observed in the sea bream analyzed in the

500 present study may be imputed to their specific dietary regimen 501 and rearing conditions, which represent environmental variables known to mold the compositional structure of the gut 502 503 bacterial community. According to our findings, the gut bacterial community of sea bream was enriched in several 504 fibrolytic such 505 Firmicutes, as Ruminococcaceae, 506 Lachnospiraceae and Clostridiales. By producing butyrate 507 from indigestible complex polysaccharides, these 508 microorganisms may provide important beneficial functions for the host (Nicholson et al., 2012). Indeed, butyrate plays 509 510 multiple roles in host physiology, being strategic for the 511 amelioration of energy extraction from diet, for the 512 reinforcement of the gut epithelium barrier as well as for 513 modulation of the host immune function (Petersson et al., 2011; 514 Arpaia et al., 2013; Russell et al., 2013). In addition, our 515 finding of Cyanobacteria in the sea bream gut bacterial 516 community is of particular interest in the context of the recent findings by Di Rienzi et al. (2013). The Authors performed the 517 518 first whole genome reconstruction of Cyanobacteria detected in 519 the gut and proposed their specific designation as a new 520 candidate sibling phylum named Melainabacteria. Differently from environmental Cyanobacteria, gut Melainabacteria are 521 522 non-photosynthetic and non-respiratory, while, according to the 523 authors, these microorganisms are obligate anaerobic 524 fermenters capable to relay on the different carbon sources

525 present in the gut. Analogous to certain Firmicutes, 526 Melainabacteria can ferment plant polysaccharides in the gut, and being able to provide the host with B and K vitamins, these 527 528 microorganisms have been included among the mutualistic components of the gut bacterial community (Di Rienzi et al., 529 2013). 530 531 Our finding showed only a subtle impact for the different 532 diets on the overall gut bacterial composition of sea bream, as 533 shown by PCoA analysis. However, evidence suggesting the impact of different levels of SBM on specific components of 534 the gut bacterial community was obtained. At phylum level, 535 536 increasing SBM dietary levels seem to favor the increase of Cyanobacteria and a correspondent decrease in Synergistetes. 537 538 While the first is considered as a mutualistic gut bacterial 539 community component able to provide the host with essential 540 vitamins, Synergistetes act as opportunistic pathogens in the gut 541 (Marchandin et al., 2010). Moreover, within the phylum of Firmicutes the fish fed a high level of SBM (S30) were 542 543 enriched with the family of Lactobacillaceae, compared to 544 those fed the control diet. The functional impact of lactic acid 545 bacteria on fish intestine is still unclear, but potentially they may have beneficial effects on the immune system, could 546 547 fish against pathogenic invasion through the protect the intestinal surface, are probiotic candidates and are generally 548 549 considered as organisms associated with a healthy intestinal 550 epithelium (Cai et al., 1998; Nayak, 2010; Salinas et al., 2008; 551 Dimitroglou et al., 2009; Ingerslev et al., 2014). Interestingly, in rainbow trout, Wong et al. (2013) described a trend of taxa 552 553 within the phylum *Firmicutes* that were significantly discriminatory for diet type in which the relative abundance of 554 Lactobacillaceae was enriched in fish fed a grain-based diet. 555 556 Also the cichlid, Astatotilapia burtoni, which mostly feeds on 557 plants and algae, exhibited most of the gut microbial 558 biodiversity seen in cichlids with several nearly exclusive bacterial taxa such as Lactobacillales and gut Melainabacteria 559 (Baldo et al., 2015). 560 561 What favors the presence of Lactobacillaceae in fish fed a plant 562 diet is not well known, but some studies have shown that polyunsaturated fatty acids depress the intestinal lactobacilli 563 564 population in fish (Ringø, 1993) in accordance with the more recent finding of Ingerslev et al. (2014), where a significantly 565 566 lower amount of lactic acid bacteria was found in rainbow trout fed a marine-based diet compared to the fish fed a plant-based 567 568 diet containing rape seed oil and pea meal. In contrast, in sea 569 bream total fishmeal replacement with plant protein had a 570 negative effect on the relative abundance of Firmicutes throughout the gut, particularly on the lactic acid bacteria 571 572 Lactobacillus Streptococcus (Estruch et al., 2015). and equipped to 573 Lactobacillus species are well metabolize 574 oligosaccharides that occur in their habitats, such as sucrose,

575 stachyose and raffinose which are contained in soybeans at approximately 10 % (Espinosa-Martosy and Rupérez, 2006; 576 2011; Gänzle 577 and Follador, 2012). 578 Lactobacillus can benefit from simple sugars derived from primary degraders in the gut, establishing syntrophic networks. 579 Thus, in the context of our research, it is reasonable to 580 581 hypothesize that the Lactobacillaceae growth could be 582 supported by these oligosaccharides.

583

5. Conclusion

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587 histology indicate that SBM can be successfully incorporated up to a level of 300 g kg⁻¹ with the inclusion of 150 g kg⁻¹ of 588 589 FM as the only animal protein source, without any deleterious effects on growth, protein utilization and gut health during the 590 591 on-growing phase. A deep sequencing of the gut bacterial community of sea 592 593 bream during the on-growing phase was successfully obtained. 594 For the first time in this species, the gut bacterial community was analyzed by NGS in fish fed increasing SBM levels using 595 practical current formulations. overall 596 The gut bacterial 597 community was largely dominated by Firmicutes, several fibrolytic bacteria, supporting the hypothesis that this 598

In conclusion results of growth, nutrient utilization and gut

species could be predisposed to digest plant-based ingredients.

600	A minimal impact of increasing dietary SBM levels on the
601	overall gut bacterial community was observed. However SBM
602	seems to favor positively specific components of the gut
603	bacterial community such as Cyanobacteria and
604	Lactobacillaceae which may provide important beneficial
605	functions for the host and be associated with a healthy intestinal
606	epithelium.
607	
608	Conflicts of interest
609	
610	The authors declare no conflicts of interest.
611	
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863 Figure captions

- Figure 1: histology of sea bream foregut (a,c,e,g,i) and hindgut
- 865 (b,d,f,h,l). Control diet, C (a,b); 0 g kg⁻¹ SBM diet, S0 (c,d);
- 866 100 g kg⁻¹ SBM diet, S10 (e,f); 200 g kg⁻¹ SBM diet, S20 (g,h)
- and 300 g kg⁻¹ SBM diet, S30 (I,l). Intestine does not show any
- 868 differences in terms of inflammatory or degenerative changes
- among diets (H&E, 20x objective).
- 870 Figure 2 a, b: OTUs rarefaction curves carried out with
- 871 different α-diversity metrics (Faith's phylogenetic diversity
- 872 (PD whole tree), observed OTUs, the Chao1 measure of
- 873 microbial richness, and the Shannon index of biodiversity.
- 874 Figure 3: sea bream gut bacterial community composition at
- phylum (a) and family levels (b).
- 876 Figure 4: weighted and unweighted UniFrac distance PCoA of
- 877 the gut bacterial community of sea bream treated with different
- diets, color code: S30 diet red, S20 diet green, S10 diet yellow,
- 879 S0 diet blue, C diet purple. MDS1 and MDS1 represent the
- 880 15.4 and 2.6 % of the total variability, respectively.
- Permutation test with pseudo F-ratios: P = 0.107 and P = 0.091
- for weighted and unweighted UniFrac, respectively.
- 883 Figure 5: relative abundance of bacteria composition per
- sample at phylum (a) and family levels (b).
- 885 Figure 6: box plot showing the relative abundance of (a)
- 886 Cyanobacteria, (b) Synergistetes, (c) Actinobacteria and (d)

887 Lactobacillaceae in different diets. Significance of the
888 differences was obtained by Kruskall-Wallis test.
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Table 1. Formulation and proximate composition of the experimental diets

Ingredients (g kg ⁻¹)	S0	S10	S20	S30	С
FM North Atlantic	150	150	150	150	350
Hi Pro SBM	0	100	200	300	0
Wheat meal	206.4	165.6	125.8	84.0	229.3
Wheat gluten	226	199.1	175.9	150	127.7
Corn gluten	200	185	165	150	130
Sunflower meal	80	60	40	20	40
Fish oil North Atlantic	132.5	135.3	138.3	141	118
Vit/Min premix*	5	5	5	5	5
Proximate composition (g kg ⁻¹)					
Moisture	77	76	78	80	60
Crude protein	466	466	479	478	460
Crude fat	194	192	199	209	197
Ash	45	47	48	57	69

FM, fishmeal; SBM, soybean meal; S0, 0 g kg⁻¹ SBM diet; S10, 100 g kg⁻¹ SBM diet; S20, 200 g kg⁻¹ SBM diet; S30, 300 g kg⁻¹ SBM diet; C, control diet. *Vitamin and mineral premix; Skretting, Stavanger, Norway (fulfilling recommendations for marine fish species given by NRC, 2011).

Table 2. Growth performance of sea bream fed the experimental diets

Tuble 2. Growin performance of sea orealistica and emperational dieds						
	Experimental diet					
	S0	S10	S20	S30	C	
Growth						
IBW(g)	76.0 ± 1.6	75.1 ± 0.6	77.1 ± 3.1	76.7 ± 1.9	74.4 ± 0.9	
FBW (g)	249.1 ± 6.1	249.2 ± 3.9	257.6 ± 6.2	259.5 ± 5.9	256.2 ± 5.8	
SGR (day ⁻¹)	1.17 ± 0.03^{a}	1.20 ± 0.01^{ab}	1.22 ± 0.01^{ab}	1.25 ± 0.01^{b}	1.21 ± 0.04 ab	
FI (% day ⁻¹)	1.40 ± 0.01^{a}	1.45 ± 0.01^{ab}	1.44 ± 0.03^{ab}	$1.51 \pm 0.03^{\circ}$	1.46 ± 0.02^{bc}	
FCR	1.33 ± 0.03	1.35 ± 0.01	1.33 ± 0.01	1.36 ± 0.04	1.36 ± 0.05	

S0, 0 g kg⁻¹ soybean meal SBM diet; S10, 100 g kg⁻¹ SBM diet; S20, 200 g kg⁻¹ SBM diet; S30, 300 g kg⁻¹ SBM diet; C, control diet. IBW, initial body weight; FBW, final body weight; SGR, specific growth rate, 100 * (ln FBW - ln IBW) / days; FI, feed intake, 100 * (crude feed intake / ((FBW + IBW) / 2) / days; FCR, feed conversion rate, (feed intake / weight gain).

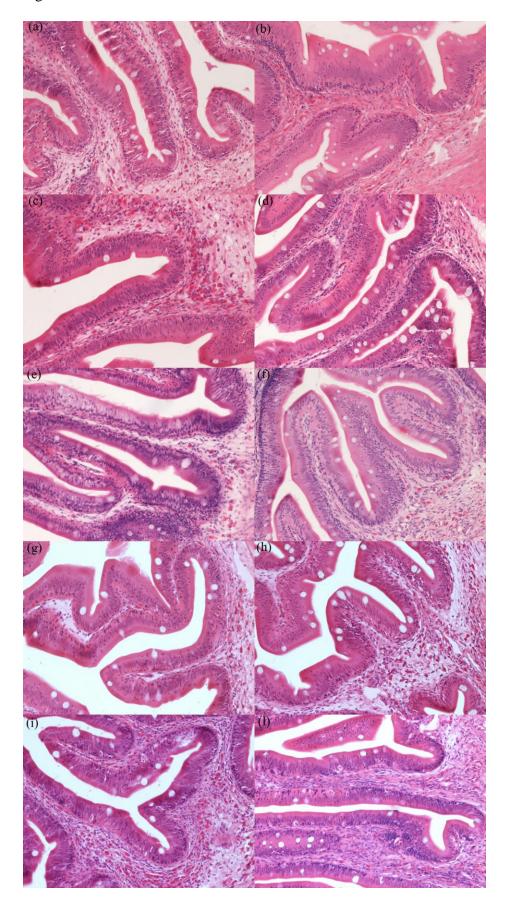
Data are given as the mean (n=3; n=60 for IBW and FBW) \pm SD. In each line, different superscript letters indicate significant differences among treatments ($P \le 0.05$).

Table 3. Viscerosomatic index, hepatosomatic index, body composition and nutritional indices of sea bream fed the experimental diets.

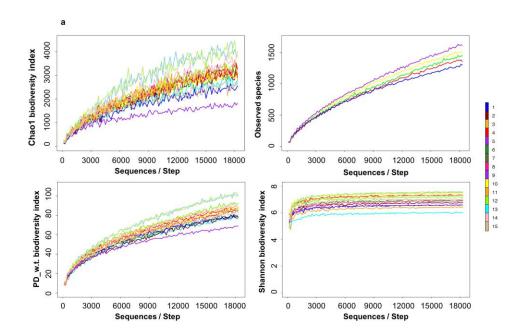
Experimental diet					
	S0	S10	S20	S30	С
VSI	5.62 ± 0.83	5.98 ± 0.95	5.99 ± 0.93	5.72 ± 0.70	5.78 ± 1.03
HSI	1.70 ± 0.34	1.60 ± 0.31	1.64 ± 0.33	1.59 ± 0.32	1.59 ± 0.35
Whole body composition (g kg ⁻¹)					
Moisture	619 ± 4.7	626 ± 6.2	628 ± 4.6	632 ± 1.3	615 ± 5.1
Crude protein	174 ± 2.4	174 ± 2.6	175 ± 2.6	179 ± 0.9	173 ± 0.7
Total lipids	173 ± 9.3	175 ± 7.1	175 ± 9.2	180 ± 5.6	174 ± 6.0
Ash	33 ± 2.1	33 ± 1.3	32 ± 2.5	30 ± 0.7	33 ± 2.0
Nutritional indices					
PER	1.62 ± 0.04	1.59 ± 0.01	1.58 ± 0.03	1.54 ± 0.04	1.60 ± 0.06
GPE	28.8 ± 0.92	28.2 ± 0.50	28.4 ± 1.07	28.3 ± 0.86	28.2 ± 1.21
GLE	69.6 ± 4.14	70.1 ± 3.98	69.8 ± 5.26	67.2 ± 4.10	70.3 ± 4.92

S0, 0 g kg⁻¹ soybean meal SBM diet; S10, 100 g kg⁻¹ SBM diet; S20, 200 g kg⁻¹ SBM diet; S30, 300 g kg⁻¹ SBM diet; C, control diet. VSI, viscerosomatic index; HSI, hepatosomatic index; PER, protein efficiency ratio; GPE, gross protein efficiency; GLE, gross lipid efficiency.

Data are given as the mean (n=3; n=15 for VSI and HSI) \pm SD. In each line, different superscript letters indicate significant differences among treatments ($P \le 0.05$). PER, ((final body weight – initial body weight) / protein intake); GPE, (100*[(% final body protein * final body weight) – (% initial body protein * initial body weight)] / total protein intake fish⁻¹); GLE, (100*[(% final body lipid * final body weight) – (% initial body lipid * initial body weight)] / total lipid intake fish⁻¹).



943 Figure 2a



947 Figure 2b

