scientific reports



OPEN Gut microbiota dynamics in carnivorous European seabass (Dicentrarchus labrax) fed plant-based diets

Cláudia R. Serra¹, Aires Oliva-Teles^{1,2}, Paula Enes^{1,2} & Fernando Tavares^{2,3}

A healthy gastrointestinal microbiota is essential for host fitness, and strongly modulated by host diet. In aquaculture, a current challenge is to feed carnivorous fish with plant-feedstuffs in substitution of fish meal, an unsustainable commodity. Plants have a limited nutritive value due to the presence of non-starch polysaccharides (NSP) which are not metabolized by fish. In this work we assessed the effects of NSP-enriched diets on European seabass gut microbiota and evaluate the selective pressure of plant feedstuffs towards gut microbes with NSP-hydrolytic potential, i.e. capable to convert indigestible dietary constituents in fish metabolites. Triplicate groups of European seabass juveniles were fed a fish meal-based diet (control) or three plant-based diets (SBM, soybean meal; RSM, rapeseed meal; SFM, sunflower meal) for 6 weeks, before recovering intestinal samples for microbiota analysis, using the Illumina's MiSeg platform. Plant-based diets impacted differently digesta and mucosal microbiota. A decrease (p = 0.020) on species richness, accompanied by a decline on the relative abundance of specific phyla such as Acidobacteria (p = 0.030), was observed in digesta samples of SBM and RSM experimental fish, but no effects were seen in mucosa-associated microbiota. Plantbased diets favored the Firmicutes (p = 0.01), in particular the Bacillaceae (p = 0.017) and Clostridiaceae (p = 0.007), two bacterial families known to harbor carbohydrate active enzymes and thus putatively more prone to grow in high NSP environments. Overall, bacterial gut communities of European seabass respond to plant-feedstuffs with adjustments in the presence of transient microorganisms (allochthonous) with carbohydrolytic potential, while maintaining a balanced core (autochthonous) microbiota.

The gastrointestinal tract is one of the most crowded bacterial communities on earth. Gut microbe's existence and influence on host physiology has been acknowledged for decades 1-4. In healthy conditions, a mutually beneficial relationship is established between the host and its gut microbiota: the host provides a favorable niche for bacterial growth, with stable nutrient supply, while gut-bacteria perform or facilitate a series of digestive, metabolic, and immune-stimulating processes vital for host fitness⁵. Disturbances on this equilibrium leading to an imbalanced gut microbiota, also called dysbiosis, are linked to the development of multifactorial diseases in humans⁶⁻⁸, but also in farm animals^{9,10}, including cattle¹¹⁻¹⁵, swine^{16,17}, poultry^{18,19}, and farmed fish^{20,21}. Diet has a tremendous influence on gut-microbiota composition and equilibrium $^{22-26}$. This is particularly important in animal nutrition and production, where industry trends dictate a continuous evolution of raw materials, feedstuffs, and supplements used to feed farmed animals^{27,28}.

Such tendencies are also verified in aquaculture, with the further attempt to feed carnivorous fish with plantfeedstuffs^{27,29,30}. Traditionally, aquaculture production of carnivorous fish relies on fishmeal, which is an excellent protein source³¹, but also an unsustainable commodity, mainly provided by fisheries, whose availability for a rapidly growing aquaculture is decreasing. Plant feedstuffs, with world-wide production and attractive prices, are considered sustainable alternatives to fishmeal³⁰. Despite their high availability, plant feedstuffs nutritive value

¹CIMAR/CIIMAR - Centro Interdisciplinar de Investigação Marinha e Ambiental, Terminal de Cruzeiros do Porto de Leixões, Universidade do Porto, Av. General Norton de Matos s/n, 4450-208 Matosinhos, Portugal. ²Departamento de Biologia, Faculdade de Ciências, Universidade do Porto, Rua do Campo Alegre S/N, Ed. FC4, 4169-007 Porto, Portugal. ³CIBIO - Centro de Investigação em Biodiversidade e Recursos Genéticos, InBIO - Laboratório Associado, Universidade do Porto, Campus Agrário de Vairão, 4485-661 Vairão, Portugal. ⊠email: cserra@ciimar.up.pt

Diets ¹	CTR	SBM	RSM	SFM
Final body weight (g)	73.4 ± 5.2	70.0 ± 2.6	73.9 ± 4.2	71.4 ± 0.9
Daily growth index ²	2.07 ± 0.22	1.93 ± 0.11	2.10 ± 0.18	1.99 ± 0.04
Feed intake ³ (g kg ⁻¹ ABW day ⁻¹)	17.7 ± 1.4	19.8 ± 1.5	18.4 ± 1.6	20.7 ± 0.3
Feed efficiency ⁴	1.01 ± 0.11	0.85 ± 0.06	0.93 ± 0.16	0.82 ± 0.05
Protein efficiency ratio ⁵	2.15 ± 0.24	1.82 ± 0.13	2.02 ± 0.35	1.78 ± 0.12
N Intake ³ (g kg ⁻¹ ABW day ⁻¹)	1.22 ± 0.09	1.35 ± 0.10	1.25 ± 0.11	1.41 ± 0.02

Table 1. Growth performance and feed utilization efficiency of European sea bass fed the experimental diets. Values presented as means \pm standard deviation (\pm SD) (n = 3 per treatment pooled from 6 fish). ¹CTR, control fishmeal based diet; SBM, soybean meal based diet; RSM, rapeseed meal based diet; SFM, sunflower meal based diet. ²DGI: ([final body weight^{1/3} – initial body weight^{1/3}]/time in days) × 100. ³ABW: average body weight (initial body weight + final body weight)/2. ⁴Feed efficiency (FE) = (wet weight gain/dry feed intake). ⁵PER: (wet weight gain/crude protein intake).

for carnivorous fish is limited by the presence of anti-nutritional factors, including high levels of non-starch polysaccharides^{30,32-34}.

As for other animal species, also in fish, ecology and diet are strongly correlated with digestive capacity^{20,35–37}. While herbivorous fish possess longer intestines and strong carbohydrolytic capacity, carnivorous fish digestive systems are shorter and more proteolytic. Fish do not possess the necessary carbohydrate-active enzymes to hydrolyze non-starch polysaccharides³⁸, that remain indigestible, interacting with fish gut epithelium and gut-microbiota, contributing to fish physiological and inflammatory imbalances^{20,39}.

Recently, we were able to isolate several bacterial isolates, two of them patented (PCT/IB2019/059131), with a broad and potent carbohydrolytic activity from the gut of European seabass (*Dicentrarchus labrax*), a carnivorous marine fish species, fed with plant-based diets⁴⁰. In that work, we hypothesized that the plant-based diets used acted as a selective pressure to modulate the fish gut microbiota towards enrichment of bacteria capable of digesting those non-starch polysaccharides. To confirm that hypothesis, here we analyze, through 16S rRNA amplicon sequencing, the dynamics of gut microbiota of European seabass juveniles fed the same challenging plant-based diets to elucidate putative selective pressures favoring a gut microbiota more fit to metabolize non-starch polysaccharides. This knowledge might contribute to identify new probiotics and improve aquaculture practices of carnivorous fish fed with plant-based diets.

Results

The European seabass mucosa-associated gut microbiota is more stable than the digesta-associated microbiota. The dietary inclusion of SBM, SFM, or RSM had no effect on European seabass growth performance, feed intake, feed efficiency, protein efficiency ratio and N intake (Table 1). Digesta and mucosa gut microbiota assessed by 16S rRNA amplicon sequencing provided at least 190 000 read counts per sample. After pre-processing, a total of 427 284 high-quality reads were clustered into 2849 OTUs at 97% identity threshold (Tables S1 and S2).

Contaminant sequences of chloroplasts, common in NGS studies, in particular in those analyzing herbivores guts or plants-associated microbiota, due to their 16S high homology to that of bacteria, were removed from the downstream analysis, as previously reported in similar studies⁴¹⁻⁴³.

Taxa showing a mean proportion of 1% or higher in any experimental feeding condition (CTR, SBM, RSM & SFM) or intestinal sample (Digesta & Mucosa) were considered as the most abundant. Proteobacteria was the predominant phylum, accounting for more than 45% of the sequencing reads in both digesta and mucosa samples (Fig. 1). The Firmicutes were equally represented in both digesta and mucosa samples. On the contrary, Acidobacteria and Actinobacteria phyla showed a 6% difference in their representation, with Actinobacteria being more abundant in digesta and Acidobacteria in mucosa samples (Fig. 1). Other phyla, including Cyanobacteria, Bacteroidetes, Verrucomicrobia, Planctomycetes and Chloroflexi were less represented in both digesta and mucosa samples (below 5% each). Regarding individual OTUs, digesta and mucosa samples shared 520, while 378 OTUs were digesta-specific and 57 OTUs were mucosa-specific (Table S2 and Table S3). These later included organisms from *Brevimena, Gardnerella, Nakamurella, Pasteurella, Emticicia, Schlesneria, Kingella, Azotobacter, Solitalea, Alkanibacter, Anaerospora, Megasphaera* and Candidatus_Entotheonella genera.

The variations on microbial richness, diversity, and evenness indices, obtained from the NGS data, are presented in Table 2. Dietary replacement of FM by SBM or RSM decreased (p = 0.020) the *Chao1* species richness estimator index of the digesta-associated microbiota. The other diversity indices did not significantly differ between the experimental diets, but a tendency to their decrease was visible in the digesta samples from plantbased diets when compared to the FM-based control diet. On the contrary, mucosa-associated microbiota was stable, with its diversity indices remaining unaffected upon the inclusion of plant-feedstuffs on European seabass diets (Table 2). Such higher stability of mucosal microbiota relative to digesta-associated microbiota was observable independently of the taxonomic level analyzed (Fig. 2). For instance, the relative abundance of the different phyla in response to the dietary incorporation of RSM, SBM or SFM, despite observable variations (e.g. RSM & SBM diets favor the Firmicutes, while the dietary incorporation of SFM raised the Actinobacteria levels) was more stable in mucosal microbiota than in the luminal (digesta) microbiota, which seems to be more variable

Diets ¹	CTR	SBM	RSM	SFM				
DIGESTA								
Richness ²	836 ± 14^b	333 ± 13^a	317 ± 3^a	667 ± 214^{ab}				
Diversity ³	8.6 ± 0.04	4.4 ± 0.4	5.4 ± 0.2	6.5 ± 2.8				
Evenness ⁴	1 ± 0.0003	0.8 ± 0.02	0.9 ± 0.02	0.9 ± 0.2				
MUCOSA								
Richness ²	433 ± 143	556 ± 26	490±21	573 ± 25				
Diversity ³	7 ± 0.2	7.3 ± 0.1	6.8 ± 0.1	7.1 ± 0.6				
Evenness ⁴	1 ± 0	1±0	1 ± 0	1 ± 0				

Table 2. Ecological parameters obtained from NGS analysis of the intestinal and mucosal microbiota recovered from European sea bass at 45 days after feeding the experimental diets (CTR, fishmeal based diet; SBM, soybean meal based diet; RSM, rapeseed meal based diet; SFM, sunflower meal based diet). Values presented as means ± standard deviation (±SD) (n = 3 per treatment pooled from 6 fish). One-way ANOVA: * p < 0.05. Different letters stand for significant differences between diets. ¹CTR, control fishmeal based diet; SBM, soybean meal based diet; RSM, rapeseed meal based diet; SFM, sunflower meal based diet; ²*Chao1* species richness: $S_{Chao1} = S_{obs} + n_1^{2}/2n_2$, where S_{obs} is nr of species, n_1 singletons , and n_2 doubletons. ³Shannon's diversity index: $H' = - \Sigma(Pi(InPi))$, whereas *Pi* is the nr of individuals of the ith species. ⁴Simpson's Evenness Index: $E = (1/\Sigma Pi2)/S$, where S is ty number of species.



Figure 1. Bacterial phyla diversity obtained from digesta (**A**) and mucosa (**B**) samples of European sea bass fed the experimental diets for 45 days, after NGS analysis by Illumina MiSeq. There are no significant differences between both intestinal compartments, although the Acidobacteria are more abundant at the mucosal level while the Actinobacteria show higher values at the luminal level.

and diet-dependent. Such a trend is maintained at the other taxonomic levels analyzed (Class, Order, Family, and Genus). Regardless of their location (intestinal lumen or intestinal mucosa), Alphaproteobacteria, Betaproteobacteria, Gammaproteobacteria, Bacilli, and Actinobacteria were the predominant Classes (Fig. 2). Also, the Acidobacteria_DA052 was present at high and constant levels in all samples tested, with the exception of digesta from SBM and RSM diets. The most abundant Orders and Families fall within the previously mentioned most abundant Classes, namely: (1) Rhizobiales_Xanthobacteraceae (Alphaproteobacteria); (2) Burkholderiales_Burkholderiaceae (Betaproteobacteria); (3) Pseudomonadales_Pseudomonadaceae and Xanthomonadales_Sinobacteraceae, both Gammaproteobacteria; (4) the Bacilli Bacillales_Bacillaceae (in digesta SBM and RSM samples), Bacillales_Staphylococcaceae and Lactobacillales_Streptococcaceae. It is also worth noticing the high amount of Propionobacteriales_Propionibacteriaceae (Actinobacteria) found in digesta samples from fish fed the SFM diet. The predominant genera were mainly uncultured bacteria from the Families identified above, but Burkholderia, Pseudomonas, Staphylococcus and Streptococcus could be found at high levels in all samples (Fig. 2; Table S4). Additionally, Bacillus and Virgibacillus were the identified predominant genera among digesta samples of fish fed the SBM and RSM diets, while in SFM an uncultured Propionibacterium dominated. As observed in the superior taxonomic levels, an uncultured genus from Class Acidobacteria_DA052, was present at high and constant levels in all samples tested, with the exception of digesta from SBM and RSM diets.

Plant-based diets favor plant-associated bacterial taxa. The statistical analysis of the mean relative frequency within each taxonomic level in both mucosal and digesta samples is presented in Supplementary Tables S5—Digesta, and S6—Mucosa. Dietary incorporation of plant ingredients (SBM, RSM or SFM) signifi-

Diets ^a	CTR	SBM	RSM	SFM				
Ingredients (% dry weight)								
Fish meal ^b	60.2	38.7	45.2	48.1				
Soy bean meal ^c	-	30.0	-	-				
Rapeseed meal ^d	-	-	30.0	-				
Sunflower meal ^e	-	-	-	30.0				
Pregelatinized maize starch ^f	23.2	11.6	8.0	4.8				
Fish oil	12.1	13.6	12.4	13.0				
Bicalcium phosphate ^g	1.0	2.6	1.0	0.6				
Choline chloride (50%)	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5				
Vitamin premix ^h	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0				
Mineral premix ⁱ	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0				
Binder ^j	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0				
Proximate analysis (% dry weight)								
Dry matter	91.5	92.4	92.7	93.5				
Crude protein	46.9	46.5	46.3	46.4				
Crude lipids	17.3	16.1	16.6	16.8				
Ash	11.3	11.7	11.3	11.1				

Table 3. Ingredients composition and proximate analysis of experimental diets. *DM* dry matter, *CP* crude protein, *CL* crude lipid. ^aCTR, control fishmeal based diet; SBM, soybean meal based diet; RSM, rapeseed meal based diet; SFM, sunflower meal based diet. ^bSteam Dried LT fish meal, Pesquera Diamante, Austral Group, S.A Perú (CP: 74.7% DM; GL: 9.8% DM). ^cSorgal, S.A. Ovar, Portugal (CP: 53.7% DM; GL: 2.1% DM). ^dSorgal, S.A. Ovar, Portugal (CP: 30.3% DM; GL: 1.0% DM). ^fC-Gel Instant-12016, Cerestar, Mechelen, Belgium. ^gPremix, Portugal (Calcium: 24%; Total phosphorus: 18%). ^hVitamins (mg kg⁻¹ diet): retinol acetate, 18,000 (IU kg⁻¹ diet); cholecalciferol, 2000 (IU kg⁻¹ diet); alfa tocopherol acetate, 35; sodium menadione bisulphate, 10; thiamine-HCl, 15; riboflavin, 25; calcium pantothenate, 50; nicotinic acid, 200; pyridoxine HCl, 5; folic acid, 10; cyanocobalamin, 0.02; biotin, 1.5; ascorbic acid, 50; inositol, 400. ⁱMinerals (mg kg⁻¹ diet): cobalt sulphate, 1.91; copper sulphate, 19.6; iron sulphate, 200; sodium fluoride, 2.21; potassium iodide, 078; magnesium oxide, 830; manganese oxide, 26; sodium selenite, 0.66; zinc oxide, 37.5; dibasic calcium phosphate, 8.02 (g kg⁻¹ diet); potassium chloride, 1.15 (g kg⁻¹ diet); sodium chloride, 0.44 (g kg⁻¹ diet). ⁱAquacube (guar gum, polymethyl carbamide, manioc starch blend, hydrate calcium sulphate) Agil, UK.

.....

cantly affected (increased or decreased) the abundance of 5 Phyla, 23 Classes, 34 Orders, 53 Families, and 74 Genera at digesta level. In mucosal samples, the number of affected taxa was smaller (0 Phyla, 3 Classes, 4 Orders, 7 Families, and 11 Genera). Regarding taxa with a mean proportion of 1% or higher (represented in bold in Supplementary Tables S5 and S6), while in Mucosa there was only 1 Family (Pseudomonadaceae) and 1 Genus (*Ralstonia*) affected by the experimental feeding conditions, both increasing with dietary incorporation of plant ingredients (SBM, RSM or SFM) relative to the CTR diet (Table S5), in Digesta, 40 taxa (3 Phyla, 6 Classes, 10 Orders, 11 Families, and 10 Genera) significantly differed between experimental groups. A decrease in phyla Acidobateria (p=0.030), Nitrospirae (p=0.019), Elusimicrobia (p=0.028), and Chlorofloxi (p=0.007), and an increase (p=0.010) of Firmicutes was observed when any of the plant ingredients were incorporated in the diet (Fig. 3A; Table S5).

Within the Firmicutes phylum, diets SBM and RSM favored in particular the Bacillaceae (p = 0.017) and Clostridiaceae (p = 0.007) (Fig. 3B; Table S5). Other families whose representation was increased upon plant-feedstuffs incorporation in the diets included the Bifdobacteriaceae (p = 0.005) (Phylum Actinobacteria); the Alteromonadaceae (p = 0.001), Pseudomonadaceae (p = 0.008), and Rhodocyclaceae (p = 0.007), all Proteobacteria (Table S5); and the Flavobaceriaceae (p = 0.036) (Phylum Bacteroidetes).

Regardless of the diets provided, a core microbiota could be identified in both digesta and mucosa samples (Fig. 4; Table S7). While in Mucosa samples the great majority of genera (206) were present in all diets, in Digesta samples different genera could be assigned to samples of different experimental diets, confirming the higher stability of mucosal microbiota versus digesta microbiota.

Discussion

Fish digestive system anatomy and functioning are adapted to feeding habits³⁵, with omnivorous and herbivorous fish having longer digestive tract and higher carbohydrolytic enzyme activity than carnivorous fish, thus being more adapted to deal with plant feedstuffs. However, current industry trends dictate feeding carnivorous fish with plant-based diets. This practice not only impacts on fish gastrointestinal health, since plants carry antinutritional factors that might impair carnivorous fish digestive function^{33,34}, but also strongly modulate fish gut microbiota^{20,35,44,45}. Because gut microbiota composition is diet-dependent and influences host health and well-being, assessing what impact feeding carnivorous fish with plant-based diets has on fish gut microbiota is



Figure 2. Relative bacterial abundance (*y*-axis) at Phylum, Class, Order, Family and Genus Taxonomic levels (from top to bottom), in Digesta and Mucosa samples of European sea bass feed the experimental diets for 45 days (*x*-axis): CTR, control fishmeal based diet; SBM, soybean meal based diet; RSM, rapeseed meal based diet; SFM, sunflower meal based diet. Presented are taxa with a mean proportion $\geq 1\%$ in any experimental feeding condition.



Figure 3. Relative proportion of sequences (*y*-axis) derived from the NGS data, in digesta samples of European sea bass fed the experimental diets for 45 days (*x*-axis): CTR, control fishmeal based diet; SBM, soybean meal based diet; RSM, rapeseed meal based diet; SFM, sunflower meal. Incorporation of SBM and RSM diminishes the *Acidobacteria* (p = 0.030), *Elusimicrobia* (p = 0.028) and *Nitrospirae* (p = 0.010) phyla. On contrary, SBM and RSM PF-based diets favor the *Firmicutes* (p = 0.01), in particular the Bacillaceae (p = 0.017) and Clostridiaceae (p = 0.007).

essential to fully evaluate current aquaculture feeding strategies. This theme has been recently addressed, through high-throughput sequencing, in a few carnivorous aquaculture fish species, mainly in the salmonids Atlantic



Figure 4. Venn diagram representation of shared and unique genera across the experimental feeding groups CTR (control fishmeal based diet), SBM (soybean meal based diet), RSM (rapeseed meal based diet) and SFM (sunflower meal, based diet), in Digesta and Mucosa samples, using Venny (https://bioinfogp.cnb.csic.es/tools/venny_old/venny.php).

salmon (*Salmo salar*), brown trout (*Salmo trutta*), or rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*)^{41,46-49}, but also in other teleosts such as gilthead seabream (*Sparus aurata*)⁵⁰⁻⁵², Senegalese sole (*Solea senegalensis*)⁵³ or sablefish (*Anoplopoma fimbria*)⁵⁴. Regarding our target-species, the European seabass, its gut microbiota has been characterized through high-throughput sequencing in a few studies, focused on the development of fish tracing tools⁵⁵, on fish geographical location⁵⁶, on fish feeding with functional diets containing immunostimulants (B-glucans⁵⁷, poly- β -hydroxybutyrate⁵⁸), different salt concentrations⁵⁹, and unbalanced diets⁶⁰. No high-throughput study done on European seabass has so far addressed the impact of plant-based diets on gut microbiota. The only culture-independent approach to such characterization has been through Denaturing Gradient Gel Electrophoresis

or DGGE⁶¹ that, although sufficient to clarify differences in bacterial community gross composition, fails in characterizing phylogenetic diversity in detail⁶².

In the present study, we describe how plant-based diets modulate both digesta and mucosal microbiota of European seabass. The data showed that plant-based diets, namely SBM, RSM, and SFM, impact differently digesta and mucosa microbiota. While a decrease of Shannon's diversity index characterized by a lower microbial richness and a decrease of microbial diversity was observed in digesta samples, mucosal microbiota was shown to be less-diet dependent and disclose a larger diet-independent core microbiota. In mucosa, 44% (206 out of 466) of the identified genera were present in all fish samples, independently of the feeding group, while only 11% (80 out of 695) genera were common to all diets in digesta samples. A core microbiota less sensible to dietary changes has been reported previously in other carnivorous species, namely rainbow trout⁶³ and Atlantic salmon⁶⁴, but those studies did not separately analyze mucosal and digesta samples of the same fish. On the contrary, Gajardo et al.⁴³ made a distinction between mucosal and digesta compartments, describing a richer and more diverse digesta-associated microbiota in Atlantic salmon, but without using different diets (all fish were fed the same commercial diet fulfilling the species requirements). Similarly, to Atlantic salmon, we also observed a higher total number of OTUs in digesta samples, and of digesta-specific OTUs indicating that in European seabass, under our experimental conditions, only a fraction of digesta-associated bacteria is capable of effectively colonize the fish gut, by associating with its mucosa. Nevertheless, such fraction is not negligible, since from 967 OTUs, 529 were shared between digesta and mucosa and 57 were mucosa-specific OTUs. The observation that European seabass mucosa-associated gut microbiota is more stable (less diet-dependent) than the digesta-associated one, suggests that bacterial gut communities of European seabass respond to dietary changes by maintaining a balanced core (autochthonous microbiota), with adjustments in the presence of transient microorganisms (allochthonous microbiota). Taking this observation in consideration, to further understand European sea bass response to the incorporation of plant-feedstuffs, we focused our analysis in the dynamics of digesta-associated microbiota. Nevertheless, as recently highlighted by Berg et al.⁶⁵ "defining the core microbiota facilitates discrimination of the stable and permanent members of a microbiome from populations that may be intermittent, associated only with specific microbiome states, or restricted to specific environmental conditions". Also, although the importance of rare taxa to host and microbiota functions is increasingly recognized, the identification of a common core microbiota (highly prevalent taxa found across the majority of hosts within a population) might reveal key members of the gut community with particular relevance to host biological functions and fitness⁶⁶. A core microbial community composed of 7 bacterial genera persistant across different habitats, diets, gut parts, and importantly, across different fish species including the carnivorous European seabass, salmon, trout, three-spined stickleback and perch, the herbivorous tilapia and the omnivorous zebrafish was recently described⁶⁷. Five of those genera (Pseudomonas, Acinetobacter, Stenotrophomonas, Aeromonadaceae genus and Comamonadaceae genus) were also found as part of the European seabass core microbiota identified in our study, while one (Janthinobacterium) was only detected in the digesta of fish fed the CTR diet and another (Morganella) was not detected in any sample.

The overall microbial composition of the European seabass gut was similar to that recently described in other teleosts^{20,41-43} and in particular in other studies on European seabass^{56,60}. Gut microbiota was dominated by Proteobacteria, Firmicutes, Acidobacteria, and Actinobacteria and their relative abundances were not significantly different between digesta and mucosa intestinal samples. Recently a comprehensive assessment of over 200 bacterial isolates has shown that bacteria with a broad and potent carbohydrolytic activity are present in the gut of European seabass fed plant-based diets⁴⁰, suggesting that plant-based diets could act as a selective pressure to modulate the carnivorous fish gut microbiota towards an enrichment of carbohydrolytic bacteria. While this former study was culture-based and focused on sporeformers, therefore unable to disclose all bacterial diversity, the current work provides new insights about the total bacterial diversity and predominant bacterial genera selectively promoted by the diets used, unbiased by culturability. Carnivorous fish were reported to have less diverse microbiota⁶⁸ than herbivorous fish and dominant genera were shown to be different between carnivorous and herbivorous fish^{35,69}. Some authors suggested that increasing herbivory in fish could lead to gut microbiota diversification, as seen in mammals⁶⁸, but under our experimental conditions, feeding carnivorous European seabass with plant-based diets resulted in a decrease in gut bacterial richness (at digesta level), accompanied by a decline on the relative abundance of specific phyla such as Acidobacteria, Elusimicrobia, and Nitrospirae. Because contradictory effects (both null, positive and negative) of fish-meal substitution by plant-feedstuffs on gut microbiota richness and diversity have been previously reported in other aquaculture carnivorous fish species, including gilthead seabream, rainbow trout or Atlantic salmon^{47,48,52,63}, any interpretation of such observation would be merely speculative. Interestingly, only Firmicutes increased in digesta samples of European seabassfed plant-based diets. The Firmicutes are a phylum of highly diverse and widespread organisms with more than 250 genera, whose presence in animals gut in general, and in the fish gut in particular, has been extensively acknowledged^{5,20,21}. In humans and mammals' gut, Firmicutes abundance and the relation to Bacteroidetes numbers (where both represent 90% of the total gut microbiota) has been used as a measure of microbiota balance. Briefly, it has been suggested that the lower the Firmicutes: Bacteroidetes ratio is, the healthier is the gut⁵. In fish, Bacteroidetes are not as relevant as in mammals, but instead, Proteobacteria are repeatedly described as the most abundant Phylum in microbiota characterization studies^{20,21,70}. A recent study done in rainbow trout, found out Firmicutes and Proteobacteria to be "particularly discriminatory for diet type", with plant-based diets favoring a higher Firmicutes: Proteobacteria ratio than animal-based diets⁴². Although no significant changes in Proteobacteria abundance were observed in the current work, the fact that Firmicutes increased in gut digesta of fish challenged with any of the plant-based diets tested (SBM, RSM, and SFM) raised the Firmicutes: Proteobacteria ratio. Within the Firmicutes, plant-based diets favored, in particular, the Bacillaceae and Clostridiaceae, two bacterial families that are known to harbor carbohydrate-active enzymes, and thus putatively more prone to grow in high fiber environments^{71,72}. Species of both families have the particularity of producing endospores that assure the survival of the species under potentially fatal insults (e.g. radiation, desiccation, high pressure, high temperatures)⁷³. Bacillaceae are mostly aerobic or microaerophilic organisms, while Clostridiaceae are mainly anaerobic.

In the present work, sporulating Firmicutes are mainly represented by the genus *Bacillus* together with *Virgibacillus* whatever the digesta sample. These data are aligned with the culture-based assessment of aerobic endosporeformers to isolate carbohydrolytic bacteria from European seabass gut fed with plant-based diets⁴⁰. Regarding highly represented genera from other phyla, besides *Pseudomonas* (Gammaproteobacteria), *Burkholderia* (Betaproteobacteria), uncultured organisms from Gammaproteobacteria, Acidobacteria and Actinobacteria (assigned to the genus *Propionibacterium*), were the predominant genera among digesta samples of SBM and RSM. This later genus was also the most abundant in SFM digesta samples. However, within those highly abundant genera, only *Pseudomonas* (a Proteobacteria) significantly increased in the gut of plant-fed fish, with exception of those fed SFM. *Pseudomonas* genus contains well-known pathogenic species, such as *P aeruginosa*, but also potential probiotics for the aquaculture industry, being abundant in aquatic environments and in fish gut, including that of European seabass^{20,43,53,56,60}. Some *Pseudomonas* spp. have been described to have carbohydrolytic activity⁷⁴, and were reported to also increase in gilthead seabream fed plant-based diets⁵².

Genera within the Bacillaceae and Clostridiaceae significantly affected by plant-based diets belonged to less representative OTUs, namely Oceanobacillus, Pausicalibacillus, and Lentibacillus from the first family, and Clostridium from the latest. Oceanibacillus, Pausicalibacillus, and Lentibacillus are all halophilic Bacillaceae, commonly found in high salt ecosystems such as salterns, whose carbohydrolytic activity has been poorly characterized⁷⁵⁻⁷⁸. In agreement, in our previous work, the best carbohydrolytic strains belonged to the *Bacillus* genus, and not to less abundant genera such as Oceanobacillus⁴⁰. On the contrary, Clostridium spp. carbohydrolytic capacity has been acknowledged previously^{74,79,80}. *Clostridium* is a genus with problematic pathogenic species both for humans and animals, such as C. difficile, C. botulinum, and C. perfringens, and although no Clostridial disease has been described in fish, their presence in the fish gut, both in freshwater and marine species, is repeatedly reported^{20,69,81,82}. Estruch et al.⁵², observed their presence in gilthead seabream fed plant-based diets but not fish-meal based-diets, and in European seabass, their numbers increased in fish fed a low-fish meal/ high non-starch-polysaccharide diets⁶¹. Clements et al.⁸¹ and Liu et al.⁶⁹ even reported Clostridia to dominate the gut of herbivorous marine and fresh-water fish species, respectively. Although Clostridium was not one of the prevalent genera in our study, its significant increase upon plants incorporation into European seabass diets might indicate that they play a key role in helping carnivorous fish to tolerate plant feedstuffs. A similar trend was seen in salmon⁴¹, where increasing dietary carbohydrates mostly affected low-abundance bacteria, favoring those groups with carbohydrolytic potential. Altogether this study details how plant-based diets affect the gut microbiota of European seabass and elucidate the predominant bacterial taxa that might inform culture-based studies to isolate novel strains with carbohydrolytic potential. As the utilization of low-cost plant feedstuffs with high level of non-digestible carbohydrates including NSP, is a tendency in carnivorous fish aquafeeds production, the potential of such bacterial strains might be very important and deserves to be further exploited.

Plant-feedstuffs used in this study (SBM, RSM, and SFM) contain circa 22-24% of NSP components, most of which are pectic polysaccharides⁸³. Galactose is the predominant sugar residue in SBM, arabinose in RSM, and xylose in SFM⁸³. As recently described in zebrafish⁸⁴, and extensively in mice and humans (reviewed in⁸⁵), different polysaccharides, including different NSP, have different effects on gut microbiota. Some contribute to the maintenance of gut microbial homeostasis, while others potentiate gut dysbiosis. This microbiota modulation is dependent on the polysaccharide structure, its fermentation by the gut bacteria and its direct interaction with the gut epithelium and mucus, which ultimately might result in physiological and inflammatory imbalances⁸³⁻⁸⁵. Although carbohydrates-metabolism has been exhaustively studied in different microorganisms, including gut ones, and there is enough genomic information (both from individual microorganisms and metagenomics studies) confirming that gut microorganisms possess the necessary enzymatic tools to metabolize different NSPs, it is not known which of these organisms are indeed capable of such metabolizing jobs within the complex context of natural gut communities and if metabolic pathways, capabilities and preferences determined in vitro will be replicated inside the gut. A sophisticated and targeted-approach was recently employed to reveal microbes within the mouse complex gut community with the capacity to utilize mucosal sugars⁸⁶. Similar studies are needed to exploit specific NSP-microbiota interactions in aquaculture fish to fully unveil the underlying mechanisms determining the fate of specific NSP and its effect on fish performance, fish health and nutrient digestibility³⁹.

In conclusion, feeding carnivorous fish species, such as European seabass, with plant-based diets, favors the presence of transient microorganisms with carbohydrolytic potential, without affecting the autochthonous microbiota. The question whether such microbiota modulation is temporary or could become permanent/established (at autochthonous level) if the dietary challenge would be prolonged enough, remains to be answered and is worth of investigating by long term studies.

Materials and methods

All methods were carried out in accordance with relevant guidelines and regulations, namely in the construction of figures and their compliance with the digital image and integrity policies. All animal experiments were approved by the Animal Welfare Committee of the Interdisciplinary Centre of Marine and Environmental Research (CIIMAR) and carried out in a registered installation (N16091.UDER) and were performed by trained scientists (following FELASA category C recommendations) in full compliance with national rules and following the European Directive 2010/63/EU of the European Parliament and the European Union Council on the protection of animals used for scientific purposes.

Diets composition. Four experimental diets (Table 3) were formulated, based on the ones we previously used⁴⁰, to be isonitrogenous (47% crude protein) and isolipidic (17% crude lipid) and to contain 30% of soybean

meal (SBM diet), 30% of rapeseed meal (RSM diet) or 30% of sunflower meal (SFM diet). A fish meal-based diet was used as the control diet (CTR diet). Fish oil and pregelatinized maize starch were used as the main lipid and carbohydrate sources, respectively. Bicalcium phosphate was added to adjust dietary phosphorus level. All diet ingredients were thoroughly mixed and dry-pelleted in a laboratory pellet mill (California Pellet Mill, CPM Crawfordsville, IN, USA), through a 3.0 mm die. Pellets were dried in an oven at 50 °C for 24 h, and then stored at -20 °C until used. Ingredients and proximate composition of the experimental diets are presented in Table 3.

Animals and experimental conditions. The experiment was performed following procedures previously described⁴⁰, at CIIMAR, Porto University, Portugal, with European seabass (*Dicentrarchus labrax*) juveniles obtained from a commercial fish farm (Maresa S.A., Ayamonte, Huelva, Spain). After transportation to the experimental facilities fish were submitted to a quarantine period of 30 days and then transferred to the experimental system for adaptation to the experimental conditions for 15 days. Before the experimental period, fish were fed a commercial diet (48% protein, 11% lipids, 5% starch). The trial was performed in a recirculating water system equipped with 12 cylindrical fiberglass tanks of 100 l water capacity and thermo-regulated to 22.0 ± 1.0 °C. Tanks were supplied with a continuous flow of filtered seawater ($2.5-3.5 \ lmin^{-1}$) of $34.0 \pm 1.0 \ g \ l^{-1}$ salinity and dissolved oxygen was kept near saturation (7 mg l⁻¹). Thereafter, 20 European seabass with an initial mean body weight of $34.4 \ g$ were distributed to each tank and the experimental diets randomly assigned to triplicate groups. The trial lasted 45 days and fish were fed by hand, twice daily, 6 days a week, until apparent visual satiation. Utmost care was taken to avoid feed losses. The experiment was performed by accredited scientists (following FELASA category C recommendations) and was conducted according to the European Union directive 2010/63/EU on the protection of animals for scientific purposes.

Sampling. Fish sampling was done essentially as previously described⁴⁰. Briefly, fish in each tank were bulk weighed at the beginning and at the end of the trial, after one day of feed deprivation. For that purpose, fish were lightly anesthetized with $0.3 \text{ ml} \text{ }^{-1}$ ethylene glycol monophenyl ether. After the final weighting, fish were fed for 3 more days, to minimize manipulation stress. Then, 3 fish per tank were randomly sacrificed 4 h after the first meal, to guarantee that intestines were full at sampling time, with an overdose of ethylene glycol monophenyl ether, for collection of biological samples under aseptic conditions.

To overcome inter-fish variation the resulting material was pooled into one sample per tank. Intestines (without pyloric caeca) were aseptically excised and digesta and intestinal mucosal tissue removed. Digesta was obtained by squeezing the entire intestine. Mucosa was obtained by scraping the internal intestinal mucosa after opening the intestines in their longitudinal axis. Both digesta and mucosa samples were immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80 °C until further analysis.

DNA extraction. DNA extraction from digesta and mucosa samples was performed according to a previously described methodology⁸⁷ with some modifications. Briefly, approximately 250 mg of digesta or mucosa samples were resuspended in 500 μ l STE buffer (0.1 M NaCl, 10 mM Tris, 1 mM EDTA, pH 8) containing 0.4 g of glass beads (Sigma-Aldrich, G8772) and homogenized for 1 min at 6000 rpm on a Precellys 24 homogenizer (Bertin Instruments). Following 15 min incubation at 75 °C, with gentle agitation every 5 min, glass beads were removed by centrifugation and DNA extraction continued by incubating for 1 h at 37 °C, in the presence of 50 mg ml⁻¹ lysozyme and 10 mg ml⁻¹ RNAse, followed by a 30 min incubation at 55 °C with 20 mg ml⁻¹ Proteinase K and 10% SDS. After 10 min on ice, in the presence of 500 μ l of GES⁸⁷ and 250 μ l of ammonium acetate (7.5 M), a phenol-chloroform extraction was performed by adding 500 μ l phenol-chloroform-isoamyl alcohol (25:24:1). The aqueous phase was re-extracted with 500 μ l of chloroform-isoamyl alcohol (24:1) and the DNA of the subsequent aqueous phase was precipitated with 0.6 vol of isopropanol. After 10 min centrifugation at 13,000g, the DNA pellet was washed with ice-cold 80% ethanol and dried at room temperature. DNA was resuspended in 50 μ l ultrapure water and stored at 4 °C.

16S rRNA genes sequencing and analysis. The taxonomic diversity of the European seabass allochthonous (digesta) and autochthonous (mucosa) gut microbiota concerning each feeding condition was comprehensively assessed by next-generation sequencing (NGS) technology. A total of 16 samples [8 digesta + 8 mucosa, being each sample a pool of 3 fish/tank] were sequenced using the Illumina MiSeq platform (Macrogen Inc., Seoul, Rep. of Korea), targeting the V3–V4 hypervariable region of the 16S rRNA gene, to obtain a sequence informative length of 300 bp. The paired-end (PE) reads were merged to produce longer reads using the Flash program⁸⁸. Pre-processing (e.g. removal of low-quality reads) and Clustering was done using the CD-HIT-OTU program⁸⁹. Initially, the filtered sequences were clustered at 100% identity into operational taxonomic units (OTU) identifying chimeric reads, and after removal of noise sequences (small size) the remaining representative reads from non-chimeric clusters were clustered into OTU at a 97% ID to species level cut-off. Singletons and low abundant (<8) OTUs were removed from the analysis. Taxonomy assignment and diversity statistics were done using the Quantitative Insights Into Microbial Ecology (QIIME) software⁹⁰ and SILVA⁹¹ 16S reference database.

Statistical analysis. Data are presented as mean ± standard deviation. Statistical analysis was done by oneway ANOVA (growth performance, feed efficiency, and NGS data with Storey FDR correction for multiple testing) using the SPSS 21 software package for Windows (IBM SPSS Statistics, New York, USA) and STAMP v2.1.3 software⁹² for metagenomic profiles analysis. Data were tested for normality and homogeneity of variances by the Shapiro–Wilk and Levene's test, respectively. When normality was not verified, data were transformed prior to ANOVA. Significant differences among groups were determined by the Tukey's multiple range test. The probability level of 0.05 was used for rejection of the null hypothesis.

Data availability

Raw sequences for this study can be found at NCBI Sequence Read Archive database (SRA; https://www.ncbi. nlm.nih.gov/sra) under the Bioproject accession number PRJNA606810.

Received: 14 May 2020; Accepted: 15 December 2020 Published online: 11 January 2021

References

- Savage, D. C. Associations and physiological interactions of indigenous microorganisms and gastrointestinal epithelia. Am. J. Clin. Nutr. 25, 1372–1379. https://doi.org/10.1093/ajcn/25.12.1372 (1972).
- 2. Davis, C. P., Mulcahy, D., Takeuchi, A. & Savage, D. C. Location and description of spiral-shaped microorganisms in the normal rat cecum. *Infect. Immun.* 6, 184–192 (1972).
- Lamanna, C. Needs for illuminating the microbiology of the lumen. Am. J. Clin. Nutr. 25, 1488–1494. https://doi.org/10.1093/ ajcn/25.12.1488 (1972).
- 4. Brown, W. R. *et al.* Intestinal microflora of immunoglobulin-deficient and normal human subjects. *Gastroenterology* **62**, 1143–1152 (1972).
- Rinninella, E. et al. What is the healthy gut microbiota composition? A changing ecosystem across age, environment, diet, and diseases. Microorganisms 7, 14. https://doi.org/10.3390/microorganisms7010014 (2019).
- Malla, M. A. *et al.* Exploring the human microbiome: the potential future role of next-generation sequencing in disease diagnosis and treatment. *Front. Immunol.* 9, 2868. https://doi.org/10.3389/fimmu.2018.02868 (2019).
- Nie, P. et al. Gut microbiome interventions in human health and diseases. Med. Res. Rev. 39, 2286–2313. https://doi.org/10.1002/ med.21584 (2019).
- Shirazi, M. S. R., Al-Alo, K. Z. K., Al-Yasiri, M. H., Lateef, Z. M. & Ghasemian, A. Microbiome dysbiosis and predominant bacterial species as human cancer biomarkers. J. Gastrointest. Cancer https://doi.org/10.1007/s12029-019-00311-z (2019).
- Kraimi, N. et al. Influence of the microbiota-gut-brain axis on behavior and welfare in farm animals: a review. Physiol. Behav. 210, 112658. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.physbeh.2019.112658 (2019).
- Brugman, S. et al. A comparative review on microbiota manipulation: lessons from fish, plants, livestock, and human research. Front. Nutr. 5, 80. https://doi.org/10.3389/fnut.2018.00080 (2018).
- Gomez, D. E., Galvao, K. N., Rodriguez-Lecompte, J. C. & Costa, M. C. The Cattle microbiota and the immune system: an evolving field. Vet. Clin. N. Am. Food Anim. Pract. 35, 485–505. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cvfa.2019.08.002 (2019).
- 12. Clemmons, B. A., Voy, B. H. & Myer, P. R. Altering the gut microbiome of Cattle: considerations of host-microbiome interactions for persistent microbiome manipulation. *Microb. Ecol.* **77**, 523–536. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00248-018-1234-9 (2019).
- Zeineldin, M. et al. Synergetic action between the rumen microbiota and bovine health. Microb. Pathog. 124, 106–115. https://doi. org/10.1016/j.micpath.2018.08.038 (2018).
- Zeineldin, M., Aldridge, B. & Lowe, J. Dysbiosis of the fecal microbiota in feedlot cattle with hemorrhagic diarrhea. *Microb. Pathog.* 115, 123–130. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.micpath.2017.12.059 (2018).
- Zeineldin, M., Lowe, J. & Aldridge, B. Contribution of the mucosal microbiota to bovine respiratory health. Trends Microbiol. 27, 753–770. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tim.2019.04.005 (2019).
- Gresse, R. et al. Gut microbiota dysbiosis in postweaning piglets: understanding the keys to health. Trends Microbiol. 25, 851–873. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tim.2017.05.004 (2017).
- Maltecca, C., Bergamaschi, M. & Tiezzi, F. The interaction between microbiome and pig efficiency: a review. J. Anim. Breed. Genet. https://doi.org/10.1111/jbg.12443 (2019).
- Maki, J. J., Klima, C. L., Sylte, M. J. & Looft, T. The microbial pecking order: utilization of intestinal microbiota for poultry health. *Microorganisms* 7, 376. https://doi.org/10.3390/microorganisms7100376 (2019).
- Ducatelle, R. et al. Biomarkers for monitoring intestinal health in poultry: present status and future perspectives. Vet. Res. 49, 43. https://doi.org/10.1186/s13567-018-0538-6 (2018).
- Egerton, S., Culloty, S., Whooley, J., Stanton, C. & Ross, R. P. The gut microbiota of marine fish. Front. Microbiol. 9, 873. https:// doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2018.00873 (2018).
- Butt, R. L. & Volkoff, H. Gut microbiota and energy homeostasis in fish. Front. Endocrinol. 10, 9. https://doi.org/10.3389/fendo .2019.00009 (2019).
- Kolodziejczyk, A. A., Zheng, D. & Elinav, E. Diet-microbiota interactions and personalized nutrition. Nat. Rev. Microbiol. https:// doi.org/10.1038/s41579-019-0256-8 (2019).
- Yadav, M., Verma, M. K. & Chauhan, N. S. A review of metabolic potential of human gut microbiome in human nutrition. *Arch. Microbiol.* 200, 203–217. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00203-017-1459-x (2018).
- Sanchez-Tapia, M., Tovar, A. R. & Torres, N. Diet as regulator of gut microbiota and its role in health and disease. Arch. Med. Res. 50, 259–268. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.arcmed.2019.09.004 (2019).
- 25. Rinninella, E. *et al.* Food components and dietary habits: keys for a healthy gut microbiota composition. *Nutrients* **11**, 2393. https://doi.org/10.3390/nu11102393 (2019).
- Gentile, C. L. & Weir, T. L. The gut microbiota at the intersection of diet and human health. *Science* 362, 776–780. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.aau5812 (2018).
- Naylor, R. L. et al. Feeding aquaculture in an era of finite resources. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 106, 15103–15110. https://doi. org/10.1073/pnas.0905235106 (2009).
- 28. FEFAC. FEFAC 2030 Animal Feed Industry Vision. European Feed Manufacturers' Federation (2016).
- Tsikliras, A. C., Stergiou, K. I., Adamopoulos, N., Pauly, D. & Mente, E. Shift in trophic level of Mediterranean mariculture species. Conserv. Biol. 28, 1124–1128. https://doi.org/10.1111/cobi.12276 (2014).
- 30. Gatlin, D. M. *et al.* Expanding the utilization of sustainable plant products in aquafeeds: a review. *Aquac. Res.* **38**, 551–579 (2007).
- Ween, O., Stangeland, J. K., Fylling, T. S. & Aas, G. H. Nutritional and functional properties of fishmeal produced from fresh byproducts of cod (*Gadus morhua* L.) and saithe (*Pollachius virens*). *Heliyon* 3, e00343. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2017.e0034 3 (2017).
- 32. Kaushik, S. & Hemre, G. I. In *Improving Farmed Fish Quality and Safety* (ed. Lie, Ø.) 300–327 (Woodhead Publishing Ldt, Singapore, 2008).
- Francis, G., Makkar, H. P. S. & Becker, K. Antinutritional factors present in plant-derived alternate fish feed ingredients and their effects in fish. Aquac. Res. 199, 197–227 (2001).
- Krogdahl, A., Penn, M., Thorsen, J., Refstie, S. & Bakke, A. M. Important antinutrients in plant feedstuffs for aquaculture: an update on recent findings regarding responses in salmonids. *Aquac. Res.* 41, 333–344 (2010).

- Li, J. et al. Comparative study on gastrointestinal microbiota of eight fish species with different feeding habits. J. Appl. Microbiol. 117, 1750–1760. https://doi.org/10.1111/jam.12663 (2014).
- Karasov, W. H., Martinez del Rio, C. & Caviedes-Vidal, E. Ecological physiology of diet and digestive systems. Annu. Rev. Physiol. 73, 69–93. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-physiol-012110-142152 (2011).
- Karasov, W. H. & Douglas, A. E. Comparative digestive physiology. Compr. Physiol. 3, 741–783. https://doi.org/10.1002/cphy.c1100 54 (2013).
- 38. Rust, M. B. In Fish Nutrition 3rd edn (eds Halver, J. E. & Hardy, R. W.) 367-505 (Academic Press, Cambridge, 2002).
- Sinha, A. K., Kumar, V., Makkar, H. P. S., De Boeck, G. & Becker, K. Non-starch polysaccharides and their role in fish nutrition—a review. Food Chem. 127, 1409–1426 (2011).
- Serra, C. R. et al. Selection of carbohydrate-active probiotics from the gut of carnivorous fish fed plant-based diets. Sci. Rep. 9, 6384. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-019-42716-7 (2019).
- Villasante, A. et al. Effect of dietary carbohydrate-to-protein ratio on gut microbiota in Atlantic Salmon (Salmo salar). Animals (Basel) 9, 89. https://doi.org/10.3390/ani9030089 (2019).
- 42. Rimoldi, S., Terova, G., Ascione, C., Giannico, R. & Brambilla, F. Next generation sequencing for gut microbiome characterization in rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) fed animal by-product meals as an alternative to fishmeal protein sources. *PLoS ONE* **13**, e0193652. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0193652 (2018).
- Gajardo, K. et al. A high-resolution map of the gut microbiota in Atlantic salmon (Salmo salar): a basis for comparative gut microbial research. Sci. Rep. 6, 30893. https://doi.org/10.1038/srep30893 (2016).
- 44. Ringø, E. *et al.* Effect of dietary components on the gut microbiota of aquatic animals. A never-ending story?. *Aquac. Nutr.* 22, 219–282 (2016).
- Limborg, M. T. et al. Applied hologenomics: feasibility and potential in aquaculture. Trends Biotechnol. 36, 252–264. https://doi. org/10.1016/j.tibtech.2017.12.006 (2018).
- Schmidt, V., Amaral-Zettler, L., Davidson, J., Summerfelt, S. & Good, C. Influence of fishmeal-free diets on microbial communities in Atlantic Salmon (*Salmo salar*) recirculation aquaculture systems. *Appl. Environ. Microb.* 82, 4470–4481. https://doi.org/10.1128/ aem.00902-16 (2016).
- 47. Desai, A. R. *et al.* Effects of plant-based diets on the distal gut microbiome of rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*). Aquaculture **350**, 134–142 (2012).
- Green, T. J., Smullen, R. & Barnes, A. C. Dietary soybean protein concentrate-induced intestinal disorder in marine farmed Atlantic salmon, Salmo salar is associated with alterations in gut microbiota. *Vet. Microbiol.* 166, 286–292. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.vetmi c.2013.05.009 (2013).
- Geurden, I. *et al.* High or low dietary carbohydrate:protein ratios during first-feeding affect glucose metabolism and intestinal microbiota in juvenile rainbow trout. *J. Exp. Biol.* 217, 3396–3406. https://doi.org/10.1242/jeb.106062 (2014).
- Castro, C. *et al.* Vegetable oil and carbohydrate-rich diets marginally affected intestine histomorphology, digestive enzymes activities, and gut microbiota of gilthead sea bream juveniles. *Fish Physiol. Biochem.* 45, 681–695. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10695-018-0579-9 (2019).
- Piazzon, M. C. *et al.* Under control: how a dietary additive can restore the gut microbiome and proteomic profile, and improve disease resilience in a marine teleostean fish fed vegetable diets. *Microbiome* 5, 164. https://doi.org/10.1186/s40168-017-0390-3 (2017).
- Estruch, G. et al. Impact of fishmeal replacement in diets for gilthead sea bream (Sparus aurata) on the gastrointestinal microbiota determined by pyrosequencing the 16S rRNA gene. PLoS ONE 10, e0136389. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0136389 (2015).
- Tapia-Paniagua, S. T. *et al.* Modulation of intestinal microbiota in solea senegalensis fed low dietary level of Ulva ohnoi. Front. Microbiol. 10, 171. https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2019.00171 (2019).
- Rhodes, L. D., Johnson, R. B. & Myers, M. S. Effects of alternative plant-based feeds on hepatic and gastrointestinal histology and the gastrointestinal microbiome of sablefish (*Anoplopoma fimbria*). *Aquaculture* 464, 683–691 (2016).
- Pimentel, T., Marcelino, J., Ricardo, F., Soares, A. & Calado, R. Bacterial communities 16S rDNA fingerprinting as a potential tracing tool for cultured seabass *Dicentrarchus labrax*. Sci. Rep. 7, 11862. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-017-11552-y (2017).
- Nikouli, E., Meziti, A., Antonopoulou, E., Mente, E. & Kormas, K. A. Gut bacterial communities in geographically distant populations of farmed sea bream (*Sparus aurata*) and sea bass (*Dicentrarchus labrax*). *Microorganisms* 6, 92. https://doi.org/10.3390/microorganisms6030092 (2018).
- Carda-Dieguez, M., Mira, A. & Fouz, B. Pyrosequencing survey of intestinal microbiota diversity in cultured sea bass (*Dicentrarchus labrax*) fed functional diets. *FEMS Microbiol. Ecol.* 87, 451–459. https://doi.org/10.1111/1574-6941.12236 (2014).
- Franke, A. *et al.* Poly-beta-hydroxybutyrate administration during early life: effects on performance, immunity and microbial community of European sea bass yolk-sac larvae. *Sci. Rep.* 7, 15022. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-017-14785-z (2017).
- 59. Sun, H., Jami, E., Harpaz, S. & Mizrahi, I. Involvement of dietary salt in shaping bacterial communities in European sea bass (*Dicentrarchus labrax*). Sci. Rep. 3, 1558. https://doi.org/10.1038/srep01558 (2013).
- Gatesoupe, F. J. *et al.* The highly variable microbiota associated to intestinal mucosa correlates with growth and hypoxia resistance of sea bass, *Dicentrarchus labrax*, submitted to different nutritional histories. *BMC Microbiol.* 16, 266. https://doi.org/10.1186/ s12866-016-0885-2 (2016).
- 61. Gatesoupe, F.-J. et al. The effects of dietary carbohydrate sources and forms on metabolic response and intestinal microbiota in sea bass juveniles Dicentrarchus labrax. Aquaculture 422-423, 47–53 (2014).
- Fukuda, K., Ogawa, M., Taniguchi, H. & Saito, M. Molecular Approaches to studying microbial communities: targeting the 16S ribosomal RNA gene. J. UOEH 38, 223–232. https://doi.org/10.7888/juoeh.38.223 (2016).
- 63. Wong, S. et al. Aquacultured rainbow trout (Oncorhynchus mykiss) possess a large core intestinal microbiota that is resistant to variation in diet and rearing density. Appl. Environ. Microb. **79**, 4974–4984. https://doi.org/10.1128/aem.00924-13 (2013).
- Rudi, K. *et al.* Stable core gut microbiota across the freshwater-to-saltwater transition for farmed Atlantic Salmon. *Appl. Environ. Microb.* 84, e01974-e1917. https://doi.org/10.1128/aem.01974-17 (2018).
- Berg, G. *et al.* Microbiome definition re-visited: old concepts and new challenges. *Microbiome* 8, 103. https://doi.org/10.1186/ s40168-020-00875-0 (2020).
- 66. Risely, A. Applying the core microbiome to understand host-microbe systems. J. Anim. Ecol. 89, 1549–1558. https://doi.org/10.1111/1365-2656.13229 (2020).
- Kokou, F. et al. Core gut microbial communities are maintained by beneficial interactions and strain variability in fish. Nat. Microbiol. 4, 2456–2465. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41564-019-0560-0 (2019).
- Ward, N. L., Steven, B., Penn, K., Methe, B. A. & Detrich, W. H. 3rd. Characterization of the intestinal microbiota of two Antarctic notothenioid fish species. *Extremophiles* 13, 679–685. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00792-009-0252-4 (2009).
- 69. Liu, H. *et al.* The gut microbiome and degradation enzyme activity of wild freshwater fishes influenced by their trophic levels. *Sci. Rep.* **6**, 24340. https://doi.org/10.1038/srep24340 (2016).
- Piazzon, M. C. *et al.* Sex, age, and bacteria: how the intestinal microbiota is modulated in a protandrous hermaphrodite fish. *Front. Microbiol.* 10, 2512. https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2019.02512 (2019).
- Mandic-Mulec, I., Stefanic, P. & van Elsas, J. D. Ecology of bacillaceae. Microbiol. Spectr. 3, TBS-0017-2013. https://doi.org/10.1128/ microbiolspec.TBS-0017-2013 (2015).

- 72. Wust, P. K., Horn, M. A. & Drake, H. L. Clostridiaceae and Enterobacteriaceae as active fermenters in earthworm gut content. *ISME J.* 5, 92–106. https://doi.org/10.1038/ismej.2010.99 (2011).
- 73. Setlow, P. Spore resistance properties. Microbiol. Spectr. https://doi.org/10.1128/microbiolspec.TBS-0003-2012 (2014).
- Helbert, W. et al. Discovery of novel carbohydrate-active enzymes through the rational exploration of the protein sequences space. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 116, 6063-6068. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1815791116 (2019).
- Wang, J. L. et al. Complete genome sequence of strain Lentibacillus amyloliquefaciens LAM0015(T) isolated from saline sediment. J. Biotechnol. 220, 88–89. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbiotec.2016.01.019 (2016).
- Menasria, T. et al. Culturable halophilic bacteria inhabiting Algerian saline ecosystems: a source of promising features and potentialities. World J. Microbiol. Biotechnol. 35, 132. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11274-019-2705-y (2019).
- Lee, S. Y., Oh, T. K., Kim, W. & Yoon, J. H. Oceanobacillus locisalsi sp. nov., isolated from a marine solar saltern. Int. J. Syst. Evol. Microbiol. 60, 2758–2762. https://doi.org/10.1099/ijs.0.021907-0 (2010).
- Nunes, I., Tiago, I., Pires, A. L., da Costa, M. S. & Verissimo, A. Paucisalibacillus globulus gen. nov., sp. nov., a gram-positive bacterium isolated from potting soil. Int. J. Syst. Evol. Microbiol. 56, 1841–1845. https://doi.org/10.1099/ijs.0.64261-0 (2006).
- Hemme, C. L. *et al.* Sequencing of multiple clostridial genomes related to biomass conversion and biofuel production. *J. Bacteriol.* 192, 6494–6496. https://doi.org/10.1128/JB.01064-10 (2010).
- Munir, R. I. et al. Comparative analysis of carbohydrate active enzymes in Clostridium termitidis CT1112 reveals complex carbohydrate degradation ability. PLoS ONE 9, e104260. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0104260 (2014).
- Clements, K. D., Pasch, I. B. Y., Moran, D. & Turner, S. J. Clostridia dominate 16S rNNA gene libraries prepared from the hindgut of temperate marine herbivorous fishes. *Mar. Biol.* 150, 1431–1440. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00227-006-0443-9 (2007).
- Parris, D. J., Morgan, M. M. & Stewart, F. J. Feeding rapidly alters microbiome composition and gene transcription in the clownfish gut. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. https://doi.org/10.1128/AEM.02479-18 (2019).
- Knudsen, K. E. B. Carbohydrate and lignin contents of plant materials used in animal feeding. Anim. Feed Sci. Technol. 67, 319–338 (1997).
- Zhang, Z. et al. Ability of prebiotic polysaccharides to activate a HIF1alpha-antimicrobial peptide axis determines liver injury risk in zebrafish. Commun. Biol. 2, 274. https://doi.org/10.1038/s42003-019-0526-z (2019).
- Ho Do, M., Seo, Y. S. & Park, H.-Y. Polysaccharides: bowel health and gut microbiota. Crit. Rev. Food Sci. Nutr. https://doi. org/10.1080/10408398.2020.1755949 (2020).
- Pereira, F. C. et al. Rational design of a microbial consortium of mucosal sugar utilizers reduces Clostridiodes difficile colonization. Nat. Commun. 11, 5104. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-020-18928-1 (2020).
- Pitcher, D. G., Saunders, N. A. & Owen, R. J. Rapid extraction of bacterial genomic DNA with guanidium thiocyanate. *Lett. Appl. Microbiol.* 8, 151–156 (1989).
- Magoc, T. & Salzberg, S. L. FLASH: fast length adjustment of short reads to improve genome assemblies. *Bioinformatics* 27, 2957–2963. https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btr507 (2011).
- Li, W. & Godzik, A. Cd-hit: a fast program for clustering and comparing large sets of protein or nucleotide sequences. *Bioinformatics* 22, 1658–1659. https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btl158 (2006).
- Caporaso, J. G. et al. QIIME allows analysis of high-throughput community sequencing data. Nat. Methods 7, 335–336. https:// doi.org/10.1038/nmeth.f.303 (2010).
- Quast, C. et al. The SILVA ribosomal RNA gene database project: improved data processing and web-based tools. Nucl. Acids Res. 41, D590-596. https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gks1219 (2013).
- Parks, D. H., Tyson, G. W., Hugenholtz, P. & Beiko, R. G. STAMP: statistical analysis of taxonomic and functional profiles. *Bioinformatics* 30, 3123–3124. https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btu494 (2014).

Acknowledgements

This work has been supported by the European Union's Horizon 2020 Research and Innovation Programme under the Grant Agreement Number 857251. This research was also financed by national funds through FCT - Foundation for Science and Technology under the project PROFISH (EXPL/MAR-BIO/0351/2013) and co-financed by the European Regional Development Fund (ERDF) through the axis I of the Competitiveness Operational Programme (COP) - COMPETE (FCOMP-01-0124-FEDER- 041383) from the National Strategic Reference Framework (NSRF) (EXPL/MAR-BIO/0351/2013), and by the Strategic Funding to UID/Multi/04423/2019 (POCI-01-0145-FEDER-007621), through national funds provided by FCT and European Regional Development Fund (ERDF), in the framework of the programme PT2020. CRS and PE have a scientific employment contract supported by national funds through FCT.

Author contributions

Conceived and designed the experiments: C.R.S., A.O.T., P.E., F.T. Performed the fish trial: C.R.S., P.E. Collected and processed fish samples: C.R.S., P.E. Performed the experiments and analyzed the data: C.R.S., P.E. Critically evaluated all the data and edited the manuscript: C.R.S., A.O.T., P.E., F.T. Wrote the paper: C.S., F.T. All authors approved the final version of the manuscript.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Additional information

Supplementary Information The online version contains supplementary material available at https://doi. org/10.1038/s41598-020-80138-y.

Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to C.R.S.

Reprints and permissions information is available at www.nature.com/reprints.

Publisher's note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

Open Access This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License, which permits use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons licence, and indicate if changes were made. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons licence, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons licence and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this licence, visit http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/.

© The Author(s) 2021