Combined effects of exogenous enzymes and probiotic on Nile tilapia (*Oreochromis niloticus*) growth, intestinal morphology and microbiome

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15 Abstract

16 A study was carried out to investigate the combined effect of exogenous enzymes and 17 probiotic supplementation on tilapia growth, intestinal morphology and microbiome composition. Tilapia $(34.56 \pm 0.05 \text{ g})$ were fed one of four diets (35% protein, 5% lipid); one 18 19 of which was a control and the remaining three diets were supplemented with either enzymes 20 (containing phytase, protease and xylanase), probiotic (containing Bacillus subtilis, B. 21 licheniformis and B. pumilus) or enz-pro (the combination of the enzymes and probiotic). 22 Tilapia fed diet supplemented with enz-pro performed better (P < 0.05) than tilapia fed the 23 control and probiotic supplemented diets in terms of final body weight (FBW), specific 24 growth rate (SGR), feed conversion ratio (FCR) and protein efficiency ratio (PER). The 25 dietary treatments did not affect somatic indices. The serum lysozyme activity was significantly higher (P < 0.05) in tilapia fed the probiotic supplemented diet than of those fed 26 27 the remaining experimental diets. The intestinal perimeter ratio was higher (P < 0.05) in 28 tilapia fed enz-pro supplemented diet when compared to those fed with the control and probiotic supplemented diets. Goblet cells abundance, microvilli diameter and total 29

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30 enterocyte absorptive surface was higher (P < 0.05) in tilapia fed diet supplemented with 31 enz-pro than those fed the control diet. High-throughput sequencing revealed that majority of 32 reads derived from the tilapia digesta belonged to members of Fusobacteria (predominantly Cetobacterium) distantly followed by Proteobacteria and Firmicutes. The alpha and beta 33 34 diversities did not differ among dietary treatments indicating that the overall microbial community was not modified to a large extent by dietary treatment. In conclusion, 35 supplementation of the diet with a combination of enzymes and probiotic is capable of 36 improving tilapia growth and intestinal morphology without deleterious effect on the 37 intestinal microbial composition. 38

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40 Keywords: Enzymes, probiotic, histology, microbiome, high-throughput sequencing, tilapia

41 **1.0 Introduction**

The growth of aquaculture, the world's fastest growing food production sector, is linked to 42 population increase and consequently the intensification and diversification of aquaculture 43 44 operations (Msangi et al., 2013). The rearing technologies for the intensive operations in 45 aquaculture under poor management can be accompanied by sub-optimum environmental 46 conditions as a result of overcrowding and overfeeding. These conditions may be stressful for 47 fish, leading to decreased performance and subsequently compromised immune responses which leave fish prone to infection and disease by opportunistic pathogens. However, with 48 49 the need to meet global animal protein demand and the growing pressure on fish farmers to 50 reduce production cost without necessarily transferring the cost to the consumers, the 51 stressful conditions associated with the intensive aquaculture operation is likely to continue in 52 many parts of the world. The growing concept of immune-nutrition (production of high quality feed with optimal growth and immune boosting effects) could be of benefit to 53 intensive aquaculture operations (Nakagawa et al., 2007, Kiron, 2012). 54

The gastro-intestinal (GI) microbiota of fish has been reported to play a key role in nutrition 55 and immunity. According to Navak (2010), GI microbiota are involved in major nutritional 56 57 functions which include digestion, nutrient utilisation and the production of specific amino acids, enzymes, short-chain fatty acids, vitamins and mineral availability. The nutritional role 58 of GI microbiota includes the production of vitamins and the secretion of digestive enzymes 59 60 that promote nutrient digestion as well as synthesise nutrients and metabolites required by 61 fish (Okutani et al., 1967, Saha et al., 2006, Li et al., 2010, Liu et al., 2016). In addition, GI microbiota are capable of influencing immune status, disease resistance, survival, feed 62 63 utilisation and may have a role in preventing pathogens from colonising the host (Denev et al., 64 2009, Ringø et al., 2015). Apart from nutrition and immunological effects, fish GI microbiota

have important functions in host metabolism, mucosal development and promote gut
maturation (Bates et al., 2006, Rawls et al., 2004, Round and Mazmanian, 2009).

It is well established that GI microbial communities are sensitive to rearing environment, 67 68 seasonal and diet changes including the supplementation with probiotic (Dimitroglou et al., 69 2011, Merrifield et al., 2010, Romero et al., 2014) and exogenous digestive enzymes (Bedford and Cowieson, 2012, Geraylou et al., 2012, Zhou et al., 2013, Jiang et al., 2014, 70 71 Adeoye et al., 2016, Hu et al., 2016). Research into the use of exogenous digestive enzyme 72 and probiotic supplements is increasing since aquafeed manufacturers are increasingly 73 interested in producing 'functional and environmentally friendly aquafeeds'. The potential 74 effects of exogenous digestive enzymes (Kumar et al., 2012, Castillo and Gatlin, 2015, 75 Lemos and Tacon, 2016) and probiotic (Pérez - Sánchez et al., 2014) on fish have been 76 reviewed as individual supplement. To the authors' understanding, there is no previous report 77 on combined used of exogenous digestive enzymes and probiotic as supplement in fish. However, the combined supplementation of exogenous enzymes and probiotic could result in 78 79 a complimentary mode of actions: ability to produce fibre-degrading enzymes by probiotic 80 may complement endogenous enzyme activity. On the other hand, exogenous digestive 81 enzymes may increase availability of suitable substrate for probiotic as well as promote the growth of other beneficial bacteria (GI microbiota). 82

Given the potential complimentary mode of actions of exogenous digestive enzymes and probiotic, the two products could improve the growth performance and health status of farmed fish when fed diets supplemented with both the enzymes and probiotic as a cocktail; Nile tilapia (*Nile tilapia*) is an important freshwater fish species of considerable economic value globally. Therefore, the objective of this study was to evaluate the combined effects of exogenous digestive enzymes and probiotic on growth, intestinal morphology and microbiome composition of Nile tilapia.

90 **2.0** Materials and methods

91 2.1 *Experimental design and diets preparation*

All experimental work involving fish was in accordance with the principles of the Animals(Scientific Procedures) Act 1986 and the Plymouth University Ethical Committee.

94 The trial was conducted in a flow – through aquaculture system in King Mongkut's Institute 95 of Technology Ladkrabang - Thailand. The flow - through system contains 12 square concrete tanks (508 L capacity each) and were supplied with freshwater sourced from a local 96 river system. Three hundred and sixty all male Nile tilapia (Oreochromis niloticus) of mean 97 weight 34.56 ± 0.05 g obtained from Charoen Pokphand farm in Thailand were randomly 98 distributed (30 fish per tank) into the 12 tanks after two weeks of acclimatization. The 99 photoperiod and water temperature (30.34±0.15 °C) was maintained at ambient condition. 100 The water pH (6.20 \pm 0.22) and dissolved oxygen levels (>5.0 mg L⁻¹) were monitored daily 101 using a HO40d pH meter and dissolved oxygen multi-parameter meter (HACH Company, 102 Loveland, USA). NH₃ (0.304 \pm 0.08 mg L⁻¹), NO₂ (0.016 \pm 0.002 mg L⁻¹) and NO₃ (1.46 \pm 0.19 103 mg L^{-1}) were also monitored on a weekly basis using a nutrient analyser (SEAL AQ2) 104 Analyser, Hampshire, UK). A constant water flow of 4.9 L min⁻¹ (per tank) was used during 105 106 the experiment to maintain the water quality and ensure optimum conditions for the fish.

107 A commercial diet (No. 461; 35% protein, 5% lipid) was obtained from INTEQC Feed Co. 108 Ltd., Thailand and was used as basal formulation. The commercial diet was ground in a 109 blender to powder and sieved to remove large particles. An enzyme cocktail (containing 110 phytase, protease and xylanase), Sanolife PRO-F (a mixture of *Bacillus subtilis*, *B*. 111 *licheniformis* and *B. pumilus*) and a combination of the enzyme cocktail and Sanolife PRO-F 112 were added to the diets separately as stated in Table 1. The diets were coded as control (zero 113 supplementation), enzymes (phytase, protease and xylanase supplementation), probiotic 114 (probiotic supplementation) and enz-pro (enzymes and probiotic supplementation as a 115 cocktail). The diets were mixed thoroughly for 15 min to ensure homogeneity. Warm water 116 was added to form a consistency suitable for subsequent cold press extrusion. Afterwards, the diets were dried in an air convection oven set at 45 °C for 24 h. The basal diet served as the 117 118 control and was prepared in the same way as those supplemented with the enzymes cocktail and probiotic, with the exception of the supplementation. Tilapia were fed the experimental 119 diets for seven weeks at 3 % biomass day⁻¹ in three equal rations. Daily feed was adjusted on 120 121 a weekly basis by batch weighing following a 24 h deprivation period.

122 2.2 Growth performance, feed utilisation and somatic indices

- 123 Growth performance, feed utilisation and somatic indices were assessed by final body weight
- 124 (FBW), specific growth rate (SGR), feed conversion ratio (FCR), protein efficiency ratio
- 125 (PER), hepatosomatic index (HSI), viscero-somatic index (VSI) and condition factor (K),
- 126 Calculations were carried out using the following formulae:
- SGR = 100 ((ln FBW ln IBW)/T), where FBW = final body weight (g) and IBW = initial
 body weight (g)
- 129 FCR = FI/WG, where FI = feed intake (g) and WG = wet weight gain (g)
- 130 PER = WG/PI, where WG = wet weight gain (g) and PI = protein ingested (g),
- 131 $K = (100 \text{ x FW})/\text{ FL}^3$, where FL = FL = final length (cm)
- HSI = 100 (LW/FBW), where LW = liver weight (g) and FBW = final body weight (g)
- 133 VSI = 100 (VW/FBW), where VW = visceral weight (g)
- 134 All fish were euthanized with buffered tricaine methanesulfonate, MS222 (Pharmaq Ltd.
- Hampshire, UK) at a concentration of 200 mg L^{-1} followed by destruction of the brain prior
- to sampling. For proximate composition analysis (AOAC, 1995), at the onset of the trial 12

fish were pooled to constitute three samples; at the end of the trial, three fish per tank were
sampled. The fish were also used to record viscera weight and whole body weight in order to
calculate the HSI and VSI.

140 2.3 *Haemato – immunological parameters*

At the end of the feeding trial, blood from three fish per tank (n = 9) was taken from the 141 142 caudal arch using a 25 gauge needle and a 1 mL syringe after fish were anaesthetized with MS222 (Pharmaq Ltd. Hampshire, UK) at 150 mg L⁻¹. Blood smears were prepared for 143 144 determination of differential leucocyte counts and additional blood was left to clot for a 145 period of 12 h (at 4°C) to isolate serum. Serum was isolated by centrifugation at 3600 g for 5 146 min and was stored at -80 °C until further analysis. Haematocrit (measured and read as % packed cell volume; PCV), haemoglobin, red blood cells (RBC), serum lysozyme activity, 147 148 white blood cells (WBC) and differential leucocyte proportions were determined according to 149 standard methods as described by Rawling et al. (2009).

150 2.4 Intestinal histology

151 At the end of the trial, three fish per tank were sampled for histological appraisal (light, scanning electron and transmission electron microscopy) of the mid-intestine (n = 9). For 152 light microscopy examination, the samples were fixed in 10% formalin, dehydrated in graded 153 ethanol concentrations and embedded in paraffin wax. In each specimen, multiple sets of 154 sections (5 mm thick) were stained with May-Grünwald Giemsa (MGG), haematoxylin and 155 156 eosin (H&E) and Alcian-Blue-PAS (Dimitroglou et al., 2010, Ferguson et al., 2010). The intestinal perimeter ratios (arbitrary units, AU) were assessed after Dimitroglou et al. (2009) 157 158 and the numbers of intraepithelial leucocytes (IELs) and goblet cells in the epithelium, across a standardized distance of 100 µm (10 folds per specimen), was then calculated by averaging 159 the cell numbers from all specimens (Ferguson et al., 2010). For scanning electron 160

161 microscopy (SEM) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM), samples were washed in 1 % S-carboxymethyl-L-cysteine for 30 seconds (SEM only) to remove mucus before fixing in 162 2.5 % glutaraldehyde in sodium cacodylate buffer (0.1 M pH 7.2). samples were processed as 163 164 described elsewhere (Dimitroglou et al., 2009) and screened with a JSM 6610 LV (Jeol, Tokyo, Japan) SEM or JEN 1400 (Jeol, Tokyo, Japan) TEM. The SEM images were analysed 165 to assess microvilli count per μm^2 (MCVT) and enterocyte apical area (EAA), μm^2 . The 166 TEM images were analysed for microvilli length and diameter. All images were analysed 167 with ImageJ version 1.47 (National Institute of Health, USA). 168

169 Enterocyte total absorptive surface (ETAS), μm^2 was calculated according to the following:

170 ETAS =
$$((2\pi \times \frac{1}{2} \text{ MVD} \times \text{ MVL}) + (\pi \times \frac{1}{2} \text{ MVD}^2)) \times \text{ MVCT} \times \text{ EAA}$$

171 Where ETAS = enterocyte total absorptive surface (μm^2); π = pie constant = 22/7; MVD =

172 microvilli diameter (μ m); MVL = microvilli length (μ m); MVCT = microvilli count (No. 173 / μ m²); and EAA = enterocyte apical area.

174 2.5 Intestinal microbiology

The GI tract was aseptically removed and faecal matter from the mid-intestine was isolated
and processed on an individual fish basis. DNA was extracted from 100 mg faecal matter
after lysozyme (50 mg mL⁻¹ in TE buffer) incubation for 30 min at 37 °C using PowerFecal[®]
DNA Isolation Kit according to the manufacturer's instructions.

DNA extractions from the faecal matter were prepared for high-throughput sequencing as
described by Standen et al. (2015). In brief, PCR amplification of the 16S rRNA V1-V2
region was conducted using primers 27F (5' -AGA GTT TGA TCM TGG CTC AG-3')
and 338R (5' -GCW GCC WCC CGT AGG WGT-3'). Each PCR contain 0.5 μL primer

27F and 338R (50pmol µL-1; Eurofins MWG, Germany), 25 µL MyTaq[™] Red Mix 184 (Bioline), 22 µL molecular grade water (Ambion) and 2 µL DNA template. Thermal cycling 185 186 was conducted using a TC-512 thermal cycler (Techne, Staffordshire, UK) under the 187 following conditions: initial denaturation at 94 °C for 7 minutes, then 10 cycles at 94 °C for 30 seconds, touchdown of 1 °C per cycle from 62-53 °C for 30 seconds and 72 °C for 30 188 seconds. Furthermore, 20 cycles were performed at 94 °C for 30 seconds, 53 °C for 30 189 190 seconds and 72 °C for 30 seconds before a final extension for 7 minutes at 72 °C. The quality of the PCR products was checked using agarose gel electrophoresis. PCR products were 191 purified (QIAquick PCR Purification Kit; Qiagen) and quantified using a Qubit[®] 2.0 192 193 Fluorometer (Invitrogen). Before sequencing, the amplicons were assessed for fragment 194 concentration using an Ion Library Quantitation Kit (Life Technologies TM, USA), the 195 concentrations were then adjusted to 26 pM. Amplicons were attached to Ion Sphere Particles 196 using Ion PGM Template OT2 400 kit (Life Technologies[™], USA) according to the 197 manufacturer's instructions. Multiplexed sequencing was conducted using Ion Xpress Barcode Adapters (Life TechnologiesTM) and a 318TM chip (Life TechnologiesTM) on an Ion 198 Torrent Personal Genome Machine (Life TechnologiesTM). The sequences were binned by 199 200 sample and filtered within the PGM software to remove low quality reads. Data were 201 exported as FastQ files.

Phylogenetic analyses were performed after the removal of reads with low quality scores (Q
< 20) with FASTX-Toolkit (Hannon Laboratory, USA). Sequences were concatenated and
sorted by sequence similarity into a single fasta file, denoised and analysed using the QIIME
1.8.0 pipeline (Caporaso et al., 2010b). The USEARCH quality filter pipeline (Edgar, 2010)
was used to filter out putative chimeras and noisy sequences and carry out OTU picking on
the remaining sequences. The taxonomic affiliation of each OTU was determined based on
the Greengenes database (DeSantis et al., 2006) using the RDP classifier (Wang et al., 2007)

209 clustering the sequences at 95 % similarity with a 0.80 confidence threshold and a minimum 210 sequence length of 150 base pairs. Non-chimeric OTUs were identified with a minimum 211 pairwise identity of 95 %, and representative sequences from the OTUs were aligned using 212 PyNAST (Caporaso et al., 2010a). To estimate bacterial diversity, the number of OTUs 213 present in the samples was determined and a rarefaction analysis was performed by plotting 214 the number of observed OTUs against the number of sequences. Good's coverage, Shannon-Wiener (diversity) and Chao1 (richness) indices were calculated. The similarities between the 215 216 microbiota compositions of the intestinal samples were compared using weighted principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) and unweighted pair group method with arithmetic mean 217 (UPGMA). 218

219 2.7 *Statistical analysis*

220 All data are presented as mean ± standard deviation. Statistical analysis (except high-221 throughput sequencing) was carried out using SPSS for Windows (SPSS Inc., 22.0, Chicago, 222 IL, USA). Data were checked for normality and equality of variance using Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Bartlett's test, respectively. Where normal assumptions were met, data were 223 224 analysed using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by a post-hoc Duncan test 225 to determine significant differences. Where data violated these conditions after log 226 transformation, a Kruskal- Wallis test was used. Differences between treatments were then 227 determined using a Mann-Whitney U-test. For high-throughput sequence data, a Kruskal-228 Wallis test was performed followed by pairwise comparison to compare alpha diversity metrics, and Vegan and ape packages of R were used to analyse the beta diversity of the 229 230 groups. STAMP v2.1.3 and PRIMER V7 software (PRIMER-E Ltd., Ivybridge, UK) were 231 used to distinguish differences at each taxonomic level for high-throughput sequence data. In 232 all cases significance was accepted at P < 0.05.

233 **3.0 Results**

234 3.1 *Growth performance, feed utilisation and somatic indices*

Growth performance and feed utilisation was assessed using tilapia FBW, SGR, FCR and PER (Table 2). Tilapia fed the diet supplemented with enz-pro performed better (P < 0.05) than tilapia fed the control and probiotic supplemented diets in term of FBW, SGR, FCR and PER. However, there was no difference (P > 0.05) in the performance of tilapia fed the diet supplemented with the enzymes and those fed diet supplemented with enz-pro in terms of FBW, SGR and FCR. The dietary treatment did not have a significant effect on the tilapia somatic indices. A 100% survival was recorded in all the treatments.

242 3.2 *Haemato – immunological parameters*

The haemato-immunological parameters of tilapia fed the experimental diets are displayed in Table 3. Serum lysozyme activity was significantly higher (P < 0.05) in tilapia fed the probiotic supplemented diet compared to serum lysozyme activity in tilapia fed the control and enz-pro treatments. No differences were observed between treatments in any other haematological parameter measured.

248 3.3 Intestinal histology

249 The mid-intestine of tilapia fed each of the experimental diets was examined by light microscopy (Figure 1), scanning and transmission electron microscopy (Figure 2). Tilapia 250 251 from all treatments showed intact epithelial barriers with extensive mucosal folds extending into the lumen. Each fold consisted of simple lamina propria with abundant IELs and goblet 252 253 cells (Figure 1). Tilapia fed the diet supplemented with enz-pro had significantly higher 254 perimeter ratio and microvilli count (density) compared to tilapia fed probiotic supplemented and control diets (Table 4). Goblet cells abundance was significantly higher (P < 0.05) in 255 256 tilapia fed the diet supplemented with enz-pro than those fed the control diet. Microvilli diameter of tilapia fed a diet supplemented with enz-pro was larger (P < 0.05) than tilapia fed the control diet. This translated to higher (P < 0.05) enterocyte absorptive area in tilapia fed diets supplemented with enzymes and a combination of both enzymes and probiotic than tilapia fed with the control diet.

261 3.4 Intestinal microbiology

A total of 536,602 sequence reads from the tilapia digesta were retained after trimming; after removing low quality reads, $24,521\pm14,451$, $25,588\pm12,901$, $32,708\pm10,388$ and $24,503\pm12,255$ sequences for control, enzymes, probiotic and enz-pro treatments, respectively, were used for downstream analyses. Good's coverage rarefaction curves for the treatments reached a plateau close to 1 (0.9994 – 0.9996) (Figure 1a and Table 5), an indication that sufficient coverage was achieved and that the OTUs detected in the samples are representative of the sampled population.

269 The majority of reads derived from the tilapia digesta belonged to members of Fusobacteria (> 270 89%) distantly followed by Proteobacteria (> 7%) and Firmicutes (> 0.4%) (Figure 3c). 271 Table 6 shows the most abundant genera in tilapia digesta. Cetobacterium, Aquaspirillum, 272 Edwardsiella and Plesiomonas as well as unknown genera from the order Clostridiales, 273 family Clostridiaceae, class Gammaproteobacteria and order Aeromonadales were present in all treatments with *Cetobacterium* being dominant (> 84%) in all treatments. *Cetobacterium* 274 accounted for 92.1%, 89.3%, 84.2% and 91% 16S rRNA reads in tilapia fed the control, 275 276 enzymes, probiotic and enz-pro diets, respectively. Unknown genera from the families Leuconostocaceae and Methylocystaceae were present in the control, enzymes and probiotic 277 278 treatments but absent in the enz-pro treatment. Weissella and an unknown genus from the 279 family *Methylocystaceae* were present in the enzymes and probiotic treatments. *Balneimonas* 280 was present in enzymes and enz-pro treatments. An unknown genus from the class

Betaproteobacteria was also present in the control, probiotic and enz-pro treatments.
However, *Corynebacterium, Bacillus, Staphylococcus* and *Rhodobacter* were only detected in
probiotic treatment.

The alpha diversity parameters are presented in Table 5. There was no significant difference between the treatments for the alpha diversity metrics assessed. Figure 3b shows the beta diversity of the digesta through PCoA plots (based on Bray-Curtis dissimilarity matrix). The PCoA plot shows a spatial differentiation among the treatments.

288 **4.0 Discussion**

The previous reports on the use of exogenous digestive enzymes (Cao et al., 2007, Kumar et 289 290 al., 2012, Castillo and Gatlin, 2015, Lemos and Tacon, 2016) and probiotic (Pandiyan et al., 2013, Pérez - Sánchez et al., 2014) as individual supplement in fish diet abounds. However, 291 292 to the authors' knowledge no research has been conducted previously on the combined 293 effects of exogenous digestive enzymes and probiotic on growth, intestinal morphology and 294 microbiome of Nile tilapia. In this study, Nile tilapia were fed diet supplemented with 295 enzymes, probiotic or a combination of both the enzymes and probiotic. Given the potential complimentary modes of actions of exogenous digestive enzymes and probiotic, the two 296 297 products (when used in combination) could offer more benefits than when used alone. This is confirmed in this study with improved growth performance in terms of FBW, SGR, FCR and 298 299 PER observed in tilapia fed diet supplemented with enz-pro a combination of enzymes and 300 probiotic. The enhanced growth performance could be attributed to the ability of probiotic to 301 produce fibre-degrading enzymes that may complement endogenous enzyme activity for digestion in fish (Roy et al., 2009, Ray et al., 2010, Ray et al., 2012) as well as the external 302 303 exogenous enzyme capacity to increase the availability of suitable substrates for probiotic action (Bedford and Cowieson, 2012). In addition, the enzymes could positively affect the gut 304

microbiota through improved digestibility and enhanced nutrient absorption and assimilation.
The indigestible NSPs and trypsin inhibitors that appear to induce necrotic enteritis in certain
fish species are well known substrates for xylanase and protease enzymes respectively.
Furthermore, xylanase may increase the digestion of NSPs (e.g. arabinoxylans) which could
provide substrates for utilisation by gut bacteria (Bedford, 2000).

The use of enzymes and probiotic as individual supplements in this study did not have 310 significant effects on the growth performance of tilapia. This is somewhat contrary to the 311 results of Hlophe - Ginindza et al. (2015) who observed significantly improved growth 312 313 performance in tilapia (Oreochromis mossambicus) when an exogenous enzyme cocktail, 314 Natuzyme[®] (containing protease, lipase, α -amylase, cellulase, amyloglucosidase, β -glucanase, 315 pentosonase, hemicellulose, xylanase, pectinase, acid phosphatase and acid phytase) was 316 added to a plant-based diet. The inconsistency in the findings may be due to lower application dosage of enzymes (75 mg kg⁻¹ phytase, 300 mg kg⁻¹ protease and 250 mg kg⁻¹ xylanase) 317 used in the current study compared to 500 mg kg⁻¹ used by Hlophe - Ginindza et al. (2015), 318 in addition to the broader diversity of enzymes in Natuzyme[®] or the different tilapia species. 319 320 On the other hand, the lack of effect on tilapia growth fed probiotic supplemented diet in the 321 current study is similar to the findings of Ng et al. (2014) who reported that dietary probiotic 322 (B. subtilis, B. licheniformis or Pediococcus sp.) had no effect on growth or feeding efficiencies of tilapia. Shelby et al. (2006) also observed a non-effect of dietary Enterococcus 323 324 faecium and Pediococcus acidilactici or mixtures of B. subtilis and B. licheniformis on 325 growth of tilapia. However, B. subtilis when used solely as a dietary supplement was reported 326 to be an effective growth promoter in tilapia (Aly et al., 2008), yellow croaker, Larimichthys 327 crocea (Ai et al., 2011) and rohu, Labeo rohita (Nayak and Mukherjee, 2011).

328 The improvement in intestinal morphology in the current study could be the result of 329 complimentary changes to meet the increased rates of digestion and absorption after exposure 330 to the diets. In this study, tilapia fed the diet supplemented with probiotic and enzymes 331 presented a higher perimeter ratio, microvilli count (density) and larger diameter which 332 translated to increased enterocyte absorptive area and subsequently resulted in the improved 333 growth performance when compared with tilapia fed the control diet. This could be attributed 334 to the combined effect of enzymes and probiotic to confer a superior beneficial effect than 335 when used alone. However, there was no significant difference between intestinal histology 336 of tilapia fed the control and probiotic supplemented diets. This is contrary to Standen et al. (2015) who reported increased population of IELs, a higher absorptive surface area index and 337 338 higher microvilli density in the intestine of tilapia fed a diet supplemented with AquaStar® 339 Growout, a multi-species probiotic containing Lactobacillus reuteri, Bacillus subtilis, 340 Enterococcus faecium and Pediococcus acidilactici. This difference could be attributed to different probiotic composition as well as application dosage which is 20 mg kg⁻¹ in the 341 present study compared to 5 g kg⁻¹ used by Standen et al. (2015). 342

In this study, the dietary treatment did not have significant effect on the tilapia 343 344 haematological parameters. Emadinia et al. (2014) also reported that supplementation of poultry diets with an enzyme cocktail (xylanase, β -glucanase, cellulase, pectinase, phytase, 345 346 protease, lipase, and α -amylase) had no effects on haemato-immunological parameters. 347 However, in the present study the serum lysozyme activity was significantly higher in tilapia 348 fed the probiotic supplemented diet compared to those fed the control and enz-pro supplemented diets respectively. This is similar to the findings of Mandiki et al. (2011) who 349 350 reported that dietary Bacillus probiotic have a stimulating effect on lysozyme activity in Eurasian perch, Perca fluviatilis. Standen et al. (2013) also reported that dietary probiotic are 351 352 able to stimulate innate immune response in tilapia.

353 Gut microbiota may function to prevent pathogens from colonization of the intestinal tract. 354 The importance of commensal gut microbiota is highly important for normal functioning of 355 the immune apparatus of the GI tract in fish (Rawls et al., 2004, Pérez et al., 2010, Ringø et 356 al., 2015). The population size and composition of intestinal microbiota could influence the extent of nutrient digestion and absorption by the host (Merrifield et al., 2010, Dimitroglou 357 358 et al., 2011, Bedford and Cowieson, 2012, Ray et al., 2012). In addition, GI microbiota are 359 understood to influence disease resistance, development, survival and feed utilisation (Denev 360 et al., 2009). Jiang et al. (2014) reported that dietary supplementation of xylanase affected the 361 abundance of Lactobacillus, Escherichia coli and Aeromonas in the intestine of juvenile Jian carp. The intestinal microbiota of grass carp fed dietary cellulase changed in respect to 362 363 bacteria species and density (Zhou et al., 2013). Adeoye et al. (2016) also reported alteration 364 in the intestinal bacterial community profile of tilapia fed carbohydrase supplemented diet. 365 Similarly, several studies have reported the modulating effect of probiotic on fish GI 366 microbiota (Dimitroglou et al., 2011, Pandiyan et al., 2013, Pérez - Sánchez et al., 2014, 367 Standen et al., 2015). However, in the present study exogenous enzymes and probiotic did not 368 modify to a large extent microbial community of tilapia fed the experimental diets. 369 Regardless of the dietary treatments, certain OTUs such as Clostridiales, Cetobacterium, 370 Aquaspirillum, Gammaproteobacteria, Aeromonadales, Edwardsiella and Plesiomonas were 371 found in the intestinal tract of tilapia, forming core microbiome. This is similar to findings by 372 Larsen et al. (2014) who reported dominance of genus Cetobacterium in the gut of warm 373 water fish species. Similarly, shared core gut microbiota was observed in zebrafish 374 irrespective of geographical locations (Roeselers et al., 2011). Wong et al. (2013) also 375 reported core intestinal microbiota in rainbow trout being resistant to variation in diet and rearing density. Similarly, the tilapia microbiome was quite stable and resistant to potential 376 changes in community abundance and diversity in response to the dietary supplements used 377

in this study. However, the functionality of the microbiome may have been altered and this
may have contributed towards the improved performance of the tilapia fed the enzymes and
probiotic cocktail. Future studies should include metagenomics and metatranscriptomics of
the gut microbiome to investigate this hypothesis.

In conclusion, supplementation of tilapia diets with a combination of enzymes and probiotic is capable of improving tilapia growth and intestinal histology without deleterious effect on the fish health or intestinal microbiota. It is pertinent therefore to consider these finding for the future development of diets specific for tilapia under a variety of culture conditions and stages of growth from fry to fingerlings and on-growing to production (harvest) size.

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567 Tables

	Control	Enzymes	Probiotics	Enz-pro			
Commercial feed ^a	1000	999.94	999.98	998.92			
Phytase ^b (mg)	0	7.5	0	7.5			
Protease ^c (mg)	0	30	0	30			
Xylanase ^d (mg)	0	25	0	25			
Probiotics ^e (mg)	0	0	20	20			
Total	1000	1000	1000	1000			
Proximate composition (%	Proximate composition (% as fed basis)						
Moisture	8.03±0.04	6.87±0.14	8.06 ± 0.06	6.63±0.09			
Protein	34.32±0.28	34.78±0.09	34.43±0.13	34.56±0.08			
Lipid	5.49±0.04	5.33±0.10	5.38±0.70	5.22±0.08			
Ash	13.13±0.11	13.13±0.17	13.16±0.04	13.4±0.04			
Energy (MJ kg ⁻¹)	17.06±0.00	17.56±0.1	17.31±0.4	17.66±2.1			
Fibre	3.65±0.06	3.15±0.12	3.15±0.07	3.21±0.05			

Table 1. Dietary formulation and proximate composition (g kg⁻¹) of experimental diets

^aNo. 461, INTEQC Feed Co Ltd., Thailand

570 ^bRONOZYME[®] Hiphos (contains 10,000FYT g⁻¹) from DSM Nutritional Products

571 ^cRONOZYME[®] ProAct (contains 75,000 PROT g⁻¹) from DSM Nutritional Products

^dRONOZYME[®] WX (contains 1000 FXU g⁻¹) from DSM Nutritional Products

^eSanolife PRO-F (contains 1 x 10¹⁰ CFU g⁻¹ *B. subtilis, B. licheniformis* and *B. pumilus*) from

574 INVE Aquaculture

	Control	Enzymes	Probiotics	Enz-pro
IBW (g fish ⁻¹)	34.5±0.18	34.54±0.05	34.6±0.13	34.61±0.29
FBW (g fish ⁻¹)	138.04±2.44 ^a	139.49±2.83 ^{ab}	136.61±1.34 ^a	143.42±3.06 ^b
SGR (% day ⁻¹)	3.30±0.05 ^a	3.32±0.04 ^{ab}	3.27 ± 0.02^{a}	3.38±0.04 ^b
FI (g fish ⁻¹)	92.24±0.92	92.83±1.22	92.35±0.27	93.00±1.39
FCR	$0.94{\pm}0.02^{a}$	0.93±0.02 ^{ab}	0.96 ± 0.02^{a}	0.9 ± 0.01^{b}
PER	$2.49{\pm}0.06^{ab}$	$2.53{\pm}0.06^{b}$	$2.42{\pm}0.05^{a}$	2.63±0.02 ^c
HSI	3.19±0.23	3.18±0.26	2.86±0.46	3.10±0.02
VSI	21.72±0.66	21.44±2.96	23.40±1.31	21.83±1.61
K-factor	2.11±0.08	2.06±0.05	2.10±0.07	2.06±0.04
Survival (%)	100	100	100	100

576 Table 2. Growth performance, feed utilisation and somatic indices of tilapia fed the577 experimental diets

578 Means in the same row with different superscripts are significantly different (P < 0.05). IBW, 579 initial mean body weight; FI, daily feed intake; FBW, final mean body weight; SGR, specific 580 growth rate; FCR, feed conversion ratio; PER, protein efficient ratio; HSI, hepatosomatic 581 index and VSI, viscera-somatic index.

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	Control	Enzymes	Probiotics	Enz-pro
Haematocrit, (%PCV)	40.11±3.34	39.11±1.35	41.67±3.48	39.66±1.53
Haemoglobin, (g dL ⁻¹)	11.35±1.21	10.66±0.91	11.93±2.50	11.33±0.22
RBC $(10^6 \ \mu L^{-1})$	1.74±0.10	2.02±0.47	1.92±0.32	1.87±0.09
RBC $(10^3 \ \mu L^{-1})$	20.28±1.34	20.37±4.00	20.59±0.08	20.64±2.82
MCV (fL)	232.53±12.95	207.97±36.80	223.30±34.69	213.04±12.66
MCH (pg)	66.10±4.60	56.25±6.66	62.76±7.18	61.00±4.19
MCHC (g dL^{-1})	28.29±1.59	27.25±1.59	28.75±3.98	28.62±0.97
Lymphocytes (%)	90.43±2.57	91.40±2.38	91.77±1.30	89.43±3.54
Monocytes (%)	5.14±1.87	4.26±2.06	3.94±0.54	5.74±1.97
Granulocytes (%)	4.42±0.70	4.34±0.33	4.29±0.76	4.83±1.62
Serum lysozyme (U)	115.31±22.87 ^a	154.21±24.93 ^{ab}	170.39 ± 22.98^{b}	127.97±6.43 ^a

Table 3. Haemato – immunological parameters of tilapia fed the experimental diets

587 Figures in each row with different superscript are significantly different (P < 0.05).

588 RBC, red blood cells; WBC, leucocytes; MCV, mean corpuscular volume (haematocrit 589 (%PCV) x 10)/RBC 106 μ L⁻¹); MCH, mean corpuscular haemoglobin (haemoglobin (g dL⁻¹) 590 x 10)/RBC (106 μ L⁻¹); MCHC, mean corpuscular haemoglobin concentration (haemoglobin 591 (g dL⁻¹) x 100)/haematocrit (%PCV); %, mean percentage of total leucocytes; U, lysozyme 592 activity mL⁻¹ min⁻¹

594 **Table 4.** Intestinal histology of tilapia fed the experimental diets

	Control	Enzymes	Probiotics	Enz-pro
Perimeter ratio	5.30±0.7 ^a	$5.84{\pm}0.4^{ab}$	5.22±0.5 ^a	6.72 ± 0.8^{b}
Goblet cells (per 100µm)	3.85±0.6 ^a	4.66±0.6 ^{ab}	4.55±0.6 ^{ab}	5.11 ± 0.2^{b}
IELs (per 100µm)	29.16±5	29.48±2	29.85±5	28.68±4
Microvilli count (per μm^2)	91.82±4 ^a	110.30±2.2 ^{bc}	103.75±5.9 ^b	115.17±6.5 ^c
Enterocyte apical area (μm^2)	11.30±1.3	12.39±1.4	12.06±1	12.47±2.1
Microvilli length (µm)	1.24±0.04	1.35±0.03	1.32±0.2	1.27 ± 0.04
Microvilli diameter (µm)	0.117 ± 0.01^{a}	$0.123{\pm}0.01^{ab}$	0.123±0.01 ^{ab}	0.130 ^b
$ETAS(\mu m^2)$	499.9±82 ^a	$762.17{\pm}85^b$	674.55 ± 145^{ab}	773.7 ± 151^{b}

595 Values with different superscripts indicate significant differences (P < 0.05). IELs,

596 Intraepithelial leucocytes; ETAS = enterocyte total absorptive surface (μm^2).

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Table 5. Number of reads, reads assigned to OTUs, Good's coverage and alpha diversity indices of allochthonous intestinal microbiota
composition between control, enzymes, probiotics and enz-pro treatments after 7 weeks of experimental feeding

	Reads (pre-trimming)	Reads assigned (post trimming)	Good's coverage	Observed species	Shanon's diversity index	Chao1 (Richness) Index
Control	41,748±22,108	24,521±14,451	0.9994±0.0001	75.90±9.54	2.82±0.10	92.00±11.19
Enzymes	42,898±20,096	25,588±12,901	0.9995±0.0007	75.18±14.54	2.78±0.14	88.77±12.04
Probiotics	57,638±15,492	32,708±10,388	0.9996±0.0002	76.95±17.94	3.20±0.60	87.28±16.15
Enz-pro	40,244±18,342	24,503±12,255	0.9994±0.0001	72.12±7.10	2.94±0.25	88.04±8.18

601 There were no significant differences between the treatments

602

604 Table 6. Abundance of the OTUs present in digesta samples (expressed as %). General level605 identification is presented where possible

OTU Control Enzymes **Probiotics Enz-Pro** 89.3 ± 4.8 84.21±4.3 Cetobacterium 92.1±3.8 91.0±3.4 Plesiomonas 4.0 ± 2.5 7.7±4.4 5.6±1.9 4.0 ± 2.2 Unknown genus from order Aeromonadales 1.0 ± 0.5 3.1 ± 2.4 2.7 ± 2.4 2.4 ± 2.4 Aquaspirillum 0.9 ± 0.4 0.4 ± 0.3 1.2 ± 1.3 0.7 ± 0.7 Unknown genus from family Leuconostocaceae 0.1 ± 0.1 0.2 ± 0.3 1.5 ± 2.9 0.0 ± 0.0 Unknown genus from family Leuconostocaceae 0.1 ± 0.2 0.2 ± 0.3 2.0 ± 3.9 0.0 ± 0.0 Edwardsiella 0.2 ± 0.1 0.6 ± 0.7 1.2 ± 1.4 0.3 ± 0.1 Unknown genus from order Clostridiales 0.1 ± 0.1 0.2 ± 0.1 0.1 ± 0.0 0.1 ± 0.1 Unknown genus from family Clostridiaceae 0.1 ± 0.1 0.1 ± 0.1 0.1 ± 0.1 0.1 ± 0.1 Unknown genus from class Gammaproteobacteria 0.1 ± 0.0 0.1 ± 0.1 0.3±0.2 0.1 ± 0.1 Unknown genus from class Betaproteobacteria 0.2 ± 0.3 0.0 ± 0.0 0.6 ± 1.2 0.1 ± 0.0 Weissella 0.0 ± 0.0 0.1 ± 0.2 0.7 ± 1.4 0.0 ± 0.0 Unknown genus from family Methylocystaceae 0.1 ± 0.1 0.2 ± 0.4 0.3 ± 0.6 0.0 ± 0.0 **Balneimonas** 0.1 ± 0.1 0.0 ± 0.0 0.0 ± 0.0 0.6 ± 1.2 Unknown genus from family Methylocystaceae 0.0 ± 0.0 0.1 ± 0.1 0.2 ± 0.3 0.0 ± 0.0 Rhodobacter 0.0 ± 0.0 0.0 ± 0.0 0.4 ± 0.9 0.0 ± 0.0 Leuconostoc 0.0 ± 0.0 0.1 ± 0.1 0.1 ± 0.2 0.0 ± 0.0 *Staphylococcus* 0.0 ± 0.0 0.0 ± 0.0 0.2 ± 0.4 0.0 ± 0.0 Corynebacterium 0.0 ± 0.0 0.0 ± 0.0 0.1 ± 0.2 0.0 ± 0.0 Bacillus 0.0 ± 0.0 0.0 ± 0.0 0.1 ± 0.2 0.0 ± 0.0

606 There was no significant difference across the treatments



Figure 1. Light micrograph of the mid-intestine of tilapia fed control (a & b), enzymes (c & d), probiotics (e & f) and enz-pro (g & h) diets. Goblet cells (arrows) and abundant IELs (arrowheads) are present in the epithelia. Abbreviations are E enterocytes, LP lamina propria and L lumen. Light microscopy staining: [a, c, e & g] H & E; [b, d, f & h] Alcian Blue-PAS. Scale bars = $100 \mu m$.



Figure 2. Scanning electron (a, c, e & g) and transmission electron (b, d, f & h) micrographs of the mid-intestine of tilapia fed control (a & b), enzymes (c & d), probiotics (e & f) and enz-pro (g & h) diets. Abbreviations are L lumen, TJ tight junction, MV microvilli. Scale bars = 1 μ m (a, c, e & g), 2 μ m (b, d, f & h).



Figure 3. 16S rRNA V1-V2 high-throughput sequencing libraries of digesta from the tilapia intestine. (a) Good's coverage rarefaction curves of the tilapia digesta; (b) PCoA plots using Bray-Curtis dissimilarity matrix where data points represent samples from tilapia fed a control diet (red triangles), enzymes diet (blue squares), probiotic diet (green triangles) and enz-pro diet (orange circles); and (c) proportion of 16S rRNA reads from the tilapia digesta by dietary treatment assigned at the phylum level.