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Supplementation of formulated diets for tilapia (*Oreochromis niloticus*) with selected exogenous enzymes: overall performance and effects on intestinal histology and microbiota

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12 Abstract

13 This study was conducted to evaluate the effects of exogenous enzymes on Nile tilapia (Oreochromis niloticus) growth and general health status. Tilapia (38.7 g) 14 were fed one of four plant-based diets (408 g kg⁻¹protein, 78 g kg⁻¹ lipid); one of 15 16 which was a control and the remaining three were supplemented with exogenous enzymes (phytase, protease and carbohydrase at 300 mg kg⁻¹, 200 mg kg⁻¹, and 300 17 mg kg⁻¹, respectively). Tilapia fed the phytase supplemented diet displayed higher 18 final body weight, FBW (94.9 g fish⁻¹) and specific growth rate, SGR (2.48 % day⁻¹) 19 compared to tilapia fed the control diet (82.6 g fish⁻¹ FBW and 2.11 % day⁻¹ SGR) (P 20 < 0.05). In terms of feed conversion ratio, FCR and protein efficiency ratio, PER, 21 22 tilapia fed diet supplemented with phytase (1.36 FCR and 1.08 PER) performed 23 better (P < 0.05) than tilapia fed the control diet (1.68 FCR and 0.80 PER). However, 24 the dietary treatments had no significant effect on tilapia somatic indices (P > 0.05). The level of circulatory red blood cells was higher (P < 0.05) in tilapia fed the 25 carbohydrase supplemented diet (1.98 X 10⁶ µL⁻¹) compare to those fed the control 26 27 diet. Dietary treatments did not affect the mid-intestinal perimeter ratio, goblet cell abundance and intraepithelial leucocytes abundance. However, the microvilli density 28

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of the mid-intestine was higher (P < 0.05) in tilapia fed the phytase (15.6) and carbohydrase (16.0) supplemented diets compared to those fed the control (10.4) and protease (11.5) supplemented diets. The intestinal bacterial community profile of tilapia fed the carbohydrase supplemented diet was significantly altered in contrast to those fed the control diet (P < 0.05). The supplementation of diets with phytase has the potential to enhance tilapia growth without detrimental impacts on intestinal health.

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37 **Keywords:** Phytase, protease, carbohydrase, histology, microbiota, microscopy

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Abbreviations: ANFs, anti-nutritional factors; NSPs, non-starch polysaccharides; 41 42 IBW, initial body weight (g); FBW, final body weight (g); FI, feed intake (g); T, duration of feeding (days); WG, wet weight gain (g); PI, protein ingested (g); FL, final 43 length (cm); LW, liver weight (g); VW, viscera weight (g); SGR, specific growth rate (% 44 day⁻¹); FCR, feed conversion ratio; PER, protein efficiency ratio; K, condition factor; 45 46 HSI, hepatosomatic index; VSI, viscero-somatic index; PCV, packed cell volume; RBC, red blood cells; WBC, white blood cells; MCV, mean corpuscular volume; MCH, 47 MCHC, 48 corpuscular haemoglobin; mean corpuscular haemoglobin mean concentration; MGG, May-Grünwald Giemsa; H&E, haematoxylin and eosin; AU, 49 arbitrary units; IELs, intraepithelial leucocytes; M, microvilli foreground; B, microvilli 50 background; MD, microvilli density; DNA, deoxyribonucleic acid; PCR, polymerase 51 52 chain reaction: DGGE, denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis; BLAST, basic local alignment search tool; ANOVA, analysis of variance; OTU, operational taxonomic 53 unit; SEM, pooled standard error of the mean. 54

56 Introduction

57 Aquaculture is recognized as the fastest growing agri-business sector and has thus become an important component of global food supply (FAO, 2014). However 58 59 the increased production of intensively reared fish species necessitates the supply of high quantity and sustainable feed ingredients in balanced formulated diets for 60 61 warmwater fish species. Tilapia production volumes rank second only to the carps, contributing significantly to global aquaculture supply (FAO, 2011; Wang and Lu, 62 2015). To support expanding tilapia production, there is a need for sustainable feed 63 64 production. Plant by-products are of particular relevance within commercial diets for tilapia; oilseed meals (e.g. soybean, copra, rapeseed, etc.), legumes and pulses (e.g. 65 peas, beans, etc.) as well as lupins and cereal by-products such as corn and gluten 66 67 are commonly used ingredients. However, there are limitations on the inclusion levels of plant ingredients for most fish species due to the presence of anti-nutritional 68 factors (ANFs) which impair utilisation of nutrients resulting in reduced growth, 69 70 nutrient utilisation and feed efficiency (Francis et al., 2001; Khattab and Arntfield, 2009). 71

72 For example, phytate, protease-inhibitors and non-starch polysaccharides (NSPs) are important anti-nutritional factors often present in plant ingredients. 73 74 Phytate is an indigestible form of phosphorus that has a low bioavailability for tilapia 75 (NRC, 2011) due to absence of an intestinal phytase. In addition, phytate is capable 76 of binding to positively charged proteins, amino acids and minerals in plants (Suhairin et al., 2010) thus reducing the bioavailability of nutrients. NSPs (typically 77 78 cellulose, arabinoxylan and mixed-linked β-glucans) are major components of plant cell walls and are indigestible to fish. They may cause increased viscosity in the gut 79 which consequently results in a reduced rate of digestion, nutrient absorption and 80

reduced feed intake (Zijlstra et al., 2010). Protease-inhibitors, abundant in seed and
storage tissues of plants, impairs protein digestibility thereby resulting in adverse
physiological effects and reduced growth in fish (Olli et al., 1994).

84 Supplementing tilapia diets with exogenous enzymes (phytases, NSPases and proteases) offers potential for better utilisation of nutrients from plant ingredients 85 86 based on findings of enzyme applications in swine and poultry diets (Adeola and Cowieson, 2011). The application of phytase has been successful in breaking down 87 phytate to increase mineral and nutrient digestibility in fish (Cao et al., 2007; Cao et 88 89 al., 2008; Kiarie et al., 2010; Kiarie et al., 2013). NSP-degrading enzymes (e.g. cellulase, xylanase, etc.) are capable of disrupting plant cell wall integrity thereby 90 91 reducing molecular size characteristics of NSPs. Consequently, this enhances rapid 92 digestion by reducing viscosity in the gut (Zijlstra et al., 2010; Bedford and Cowieson, 2012). Supplementing diets with proteases has the potential to increase utilisation of 93 crude proteins from plant ingredients by increasing crude protein digestibility. In 94 addition, the application of exogenous enzymes can allow flexibility in diet 95 formulation through incorporation of lower quality and less expensive plant 96 97 ingredients. Apart from the potential of exogenous enzymes to promote growth and nutrient utilisation (Adeola and Cowieson, 2011), they may alter substrates 98 99 availability for specific populations of gut microbes, thus, potentially altering bacterial 100 community composition or activities (Bedford and Cowieson, 2012; Kiarie et al., 2013; 101 Zhou et al., 2013; Jiang et al., 2014).

102 Although exogenous enzymes have been applied to enhance the utilisation of 103 plant nutrients in aquaculture diets, the reported results have been inconsistent as 104 reviewed by Adeola and Cowieson (2011), Kumar et al. (2012) and Castillo and 105 Gatlin (2015). Consequently, there is a need for further investigations to establish the 106 benefits of dietary enzyme supplementation for fish. To the authors' knowledge, previous studies have not investigated the effects of exogenous enzymes on the 107 intestinal microbiota and general health of tilapia. Given the growing body of 108 109 literature which demonstrates that feed ingredients can impact fish intestinal health and micro-ecology (Dimitroglou et al., 2011; Zhou et al., 2013; Jiang et al., 2014; 110 111 Merrifield and Carnevali, 2014), elucidating the effects of dietary enzymes on intestinal status is both timely and novel. Therefore, the objective of the present 112 113 study was to investigate the effects of selected exogenous enzymes (phytase, 114 protease and carbohydrase) on tilapia growth performance, haematoimmunology and intestinal health. 115

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117 2. Materials and methods

The experiment was conducted under the UK Home Office project license PPL30/2644 and personal license PIL30/10510. All investigation complied with the UK Animals (Scientific Procedure) Act 1986 and the Plymouth University Animal Welfare & Ethical Review Committee.

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123 2.1 Diet preparation

Four iso-nitrogenous and iso-lipidic diets were formulated (Table 1) according to the known nutritional requirements of tilapia (NRC, 2011). The three exogenous enzymes used for the trial were RONOZYME[®] Hiphos (phytase), RONOZYME[®] ProAct (protease), and ROXAZYME[®] G2 (carbohydrase) from DSM Nutritional Products. Three of the formulated diets were supplemented with the exogenous enzymes (phytase, protease, and carbohydrase at 300 mg kg⁻¹, 200 mg kg⁻¹ and 300 mg kg⁻¹, respectively) at the expense of corn starch and the basal diet served as control diet. The feed ingredients were thoroughly mixed, moistened with warm water
(400 mL kg⁻¹) and then cold press extruded to produce 2 mm pellets using a PTM
extruder system (model P6, Plymouth, UK). The diets were dried to ca. 5g kg⁻¹
moisture in an air convection oven set at 45°C and their proximate composition
analysed (Table 1) using AOAC protocols (AOAC, 1995). After drying, the diets were
stored in airtight containers prior to use.

- 137
- 138 2.2 Experimental design

139 Genetically male tilapia (Oreochromis niloticus) were obtained from North Moore Tilapia, Goxhill, UK and stocked in fibreglass tanks (72 L capacity each) for a 140 141 period of 4 weeks to acclimatize. Thereafter, three hundred and sixty fish were 142 randomly distributed into 12 tanks with three replicate tanks per dietary treatment (30 fish per tank; average weight = 38.7 ± 0.51 g) containing aerated recirculated 143 freshwater. Tilapia were fed the experimental diets at 20 - 50 g feed kg⁻¹ biomass per 144 145 day in equal rations at 09.00, 13.00 and 17.00 hours for six weeks. Daily feed was adjusted on a weekly basis by batch weighing following a 24-h starvation period. 146 Fish were held at 26.3 ± 0.8°C with a 12:12 h light: dark photoperiod. Water quality 147 parameters were monitored daily and maintained at pH 6.2 ± 0.7 (adjusted with 148 sodium bicarbonate as necessary) and dissolved oxygen $> 6.0 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$. Ammonium, 149 150 nitrite and nitrate levels were monitored weekly and water changes (~444.6 L, an equivalence of ~20% system volume) were undertaken weekly to minimise 151 accumulation of these compounds. 152

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154 2.3 Growth, feed utilisation and somatic indices

Growth performance, feed utilisation and somatic indices were assessed by specific growth rate (SGR), feed conversion ratio (FCR), protein efficiency ratio (PER), condition factor (K), hepatosomatic index (HSI) and viscera-somatic index (VSI). Calculations were carried out using the following formulae:

- 160 Where; FBW = final body weight (g) and IBW = initial body weight (g)
- 161 FCR = FI/WG
- 162 Where; FI = feed intake (g) and WG = wet weight gain (g)
- 163 PER = WG/PI
- 164 Where = WG = wet weight gain (g) and PI = protein ingested (g),

165
$$K = (100 \times FW)/FL^3$$

166 Where FL = FL = final length (cm)

168 Where; LW = liver weight (g) and BW = body weight (g)

169 VSI = 100 (VW/ BW)

170 Where; VW = visceral weight (g)

171 All fish were euthanized with an overdose of buffered tricaine methanesulfonate, MS222 (Pharmag Ltd. Hampshire, UK) at a concentration of 200 172 mg L⁻¹ followed by destruction of the brain prior to sampling. For proximate 173 composition analysis (AOAC, 1995), at the onset of the trial 12 fish were pooled to 174 175 constitute three samples and at the end of the trial, three fish per tank were sampled.

176 The fish were also used to record viscera weight and whole body weight in order to 177 calculate the hepatosomatic index (HSI) and visceromatic index (VSI).

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2.4 Haemato-immunological parameters

Blood from three fish per tank was taken from the caudal arch using a 25 180 gauge needle and a 1 mL syringe after fish were anaesthetized with MS222 181 (Pharmag Ltd. Hampshire, UK) at 150 mg L⁻¹. Blood smears were prepared for the 182 183 determination of differential leucocyte counts and additional blood was left to clot for 184 a period of 12 h (at 4°C) to isolate serum. Serum was isolated by centrifugation at 3600 g for 5 min and was stored at -80 °C. Haematocrit (measured and read as % 185 186 packed cell volume; PCV), haemoglobin, red blood cells (RBC), serum lysozyme 187 activity, white blood cells (WBC) and differential leucocyte proportions were determined according to standard methods as described by Rawling et al. (2009). 188

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190 2.5 Intestinal histology

At the end of the trial, three fish per tank were sampled for histological 191 appraisal (light and scanning electron microscopy) of the mid-intestine (n = 9). For 192 light microscopy examination, the samples were fixed in 10% formalin, dehydrated in 193 graded ethanol concentrations and embedded in paraffin wax. In each specimen, 194 195 multiple sets of sections (5mm thick) were stained with May-Grünwald Giemsa (MGG), haematoxylin and eosin (H&E) and Alcian-Blue-PAS (Dimitroglou et al., 196 2010; Ferguson et al., 2010). The intestinal perimeter ratios (arbitrary units, AU) 197 were assessed after Dimitroglou et al. (2009) and the numbers of intra epithelial 198 leucocytes (IELs) and goblet cells in the epithelium, across a standardized distance 199 of 100 µm (10 folds per specimen), was then calculated by averaging the cell 200

numbers from all specimens (Ferguson et al., 2010). For scanning electron microscopy examination, the samples were processed and analysed as described by (Merrifield et al., 2009a). The scanning electron microscope images were analysed for microvilli density (MD) of the enterocytes on top of the villi. The ratio between the microvilli covered area (M, foreground) to the gaps between the microvilli (B, background) was calculated (MD = M/B, AU). All images were analysed with ImageJ version 1.47 (National Institute of Health, USA).

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209 2.6 Intestinal microbiota: PCR - DGGE

210 The intestines from two fish per tank (n = 6) were aseptically excised and the 211 digesta from the posterior section removed. DNA extraction and PCR amplification of 212 V3 region of 16S rRNA gene was undertaken as described by Merrifield et al. (2009b). The PCRs was conducted using the forward primer P3 which include a GC 213 clamp (5'-CGC CCG CCG CGC GCG GCG GGC GGG GCG GGG GCA CGG GGG 214 GCC TAC GGG AGG CAG CAG-3') and the reverse primer P2 (5'-215 ATTACCGCGGCTGCTGG-3') (Muyzer et al., 1993). PCR reactions (50 µL) 216 contained 25 µL BioMix[™] Red Tag [Bioline, UK], 1 µL of each primer [50 pmol/µL 217 218 each MWG-Biotech AG, Germany], 1 µL DNA template and 23 µL sterile Milli-Q water). Positive and negative control templates were included in each assay; 219 220 negative control (sterile, using molecular grade water as template) and positive 221 control (DNA from cultured Pediococcus acidilactici). Touchdown thermal cycling was conducted using a GeneAmp® PCR System 9700 (Perkin-Elmer, CA, USA), 222 under the following conditions: 94 °C for 10 min, then 30 cycles starting at 94 °C for 223 1 min, 65 °C for 2 min, 72 °C for 3 min (Muyzer et al., 1993). The annealing 224 temperature decreased by 1 °C every second cycle until 55 °C and then remained at 225

226 55 °C for the remaining 10 cycles. The PCR products were used to obtain DNA fingerprints of the bacterial communities present in the fish intestines on a 40-60% 227 DGGE using a BioRad DGGE system (DCode[™] System, Italy) as described 228 229 elsewhere (Merrifield et al., 2009b). Selected dominant bands were then excised and DNA was eluted in TE buffer at 4 °C overnight before re-PCR. The PCR products 230 231 were purified using QIAquick PCR Purification Kit (Qiagen) according to manufacturer's instructions and sequenced by GATC laboratories (GATC-biotech 232 laboratories, Germany). In order to obtain the taxonomic classification from the 233 234 partial 16S rRNA sequences, a BLAST search in GenBank database (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/blast/Blast.cgi) was performed. The highest similarities 235 236 were used to assign the taxonomic description of each sequence.

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238 2.7 Statistical analysis

Data were analysed using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). Multiple 239 comparisons were performed using Tukey post-hoc test. Differences were 240 241 considered significant at a value of P < 0.05. The statistical analysis was carried out using SPSS for Windows (SPSS Inc., 22.0, Chicago, IL, USA). DGGE banding 242 243 patterns were transformed into presence/ absence matrices based on band peak intensities (Quantity One® version 4.6.3, Bio-Rad Laboratories, CA, USA). The band 244 245 intensities were measured (Quantity One® 1-D Analysis Software, Bio-Rad Laboratories Ltd., Hertfordshire, UK). Group differences for the microbiota were 246 calculated using PERMANOVA of Bray-Curtis distances using PRIMER V6 software 247 (PRIMER-E Ltd., Ivybridge, UK) (Anderson et al., 2008). 248

249

250 **3.** Results

251 3.1 Growth, feed utilisation and somatic indices

Growth, feed utilisation and somatic indices are presented in Table 2. Tilapia 252 fed the phytase supplemented diet performed significantly better (P < 0.05) than 253 254 those fed control and protease supplemented diets in terms of FBW. Tilapia fed the phytase supplemented diet also displayed better feed utilisation in terms of FCR and 255 PER when compared to tilapia fed the control and protease supplemented diets. The 256 fish fed phytase and carbohydrase supplemented diets have similar growth 257 performance; there was no significant difference (P < 0.05) in their FBW and SGR. 258 259 Good survival was recorded in all the treatments (i.e. \geq 90%) but higher in phytase and protease treatments. The dietary treatments did not affect (P > 0.05) the fish 260 261 somatic indices assessed.

- 262
- 263 3.2 Whole body composition

The whole body composition of tilapia fed the experimental diets is displayed in Table 3. The body moisture content of tilapia fed the protease supplemented diet was higher (P < 0.05) than those fed the control diet. However, there was no difference (P > 0.05) in the body moisture contents of tilapia fed the enzymes supplemented diets. The dietary treatment did not affect body lipid, protein or ash levels.

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3.3 Haemato-immunological parameters

Haematological and immunological parameters are displayed in Table 4. Haematocrit, haemoglobin, leucocyte levels, mean corpuscular haemoglobin, mean corpuscular haemoglobin concentration and serum lysozyme activity were unaffected by the dietary treatments. However, red blood cell levels were higher (P < 276 0.05) in the blood of tilapia fed the carbohydrase diet compare to fish fed the control 277 diet. There were no differences (P > 0.05) in the other haemato-immunological 278 parameters measured.

279

280 3.4 Intestinal histology

Light and scanning electron microscopy revealed a normal and healthy 281 morphology of the mid-intestines of tilapia fed the experimental diets. The intestines 282 of the fish showed intact epithelial barrier with well organised villi-like mucosal folds, 283 284 abundant IELs and goblet cells (Figures 1a-1h). The dietary treatments had no significant effects (P > 0.05) on the intestinal perimeter ratio, number of goblet cells 285 286 or IELs (per 100µm) of the fish fed the experimental diets (Table 5). The fish 287 intestines displayed healthy brush border with well organised and tightly packed microvilli revealing no signs of damage (Fig 1i-1I). However, the microvilli of the 288 brush border of tilapia fed control and protease supplemented diets appeared to be 289 less tightly packed (Figures 1i & 1k) compared to those fed phytase and 290 carbohydrase supplemented diets (Figures 1j & 1l). Consequently, the microvilli 291 density of the fish intestines was significantly different among tilapia fed the 292 293 experimental diets; the microvilli density of tilapia fed the phytase and carbohydrase supplemented diets were significantly higher (P < 0.05) than that of tilapia fed the 294 295 control and protease supplemented diets (Table 5).

296

297 3.5 Intestinal microbiota

The bacterial community of tilapia fed the experimental diets were analysed by PCR-DGGE. The DGGE banding patterns of the 16S rRNA V3 region from the fish intestinal digesta is displayed in Figure 2 and the taxonomic affiliation of the 301 DGGE bands is displayed in Table 6. A total of eleven OTUs (operational taxonomic units) were selected from the DGGE for sequencing. OTU #9 was detected in all 302 tilapia fed the experimental diets and had 100% sequence alignment to *Clostridium* 303 304 ghonii. OTU #5 was uniquely detected in tilapia fed carbohydrase supplemented diet and was identified as belonging to Acinetobacter schindleri (97%). OTU #7 was 305 common in tilapia fed phytase and protease supplemented diets and had 99% 306 sequence alignment to Arthrobacter russicus. OTU #8 was common in tilapia fed 307 protease and carbohydrase supplemented diets and had 99% sequence alignment 308 309 to Sporosarcina aquimarina. OTUs #10 and #11 were common in tilapia fed control and phytase supplemented diets and both had 99% sequence alignment to 310 311 Austwickia chelonae and Intrasporangium calvum, respectively. OTUs #1 and #3 312 were present in all tilapia fed the exogenous supplemented diets and had 96% and 83% sequence alignment to Aquisphaera giovannonii and uncultured bacterium 313 clone AMD-A65, respectively. OTUs #2, #4 and #6 were common in tilapia fed the 314 315 control diet and had 93%, 81% and 99% sequence alignment to Marinobacter hydrocarbonoclasticus, Desulforegula conservatrix, and Arthrobacter russicus, 316 respectively. Firmicutes was the most frequently identified phylum across all the 317 318 treatments and high frequency of the OTUs from the *Clostridium* genus was also evident. In terms of the number of OTUs, species richness and diversity, no 319 320 significant differences were observed among the treatments (Table 7). However, 321 high variability in the bacterial community structure was observed among individuals in the same group in all the treatments; the control group showed the greatest 322 differences (Figure 3). The dietary treatments did not affect (P > 0.05) the species 323 324 diversity of PCR-DGGE fingerprints. However, Permanova analysis revealed a

325 significant difference in bacterial community composition of fish fed the control and326 carbohydrase supplemented diets (Table 7).

327

328 4. Discussion

The potential of exogenous enzymes to enhance aquaculture production by 329 330 liberating potentially unavailable plant nutrients within specific plant feed ingredients warrants more study to validate their effectiveness in fish feed. To this end, the 331 present trial was conducted to establish and document the effects of dietary phytase, 332 333 protease and carbohydrase on Nile tilapia production and health when supplemented 334 to diets containing narrow-leafed lupin and soybean proteins. Diet supplementation 335 with exogenous enzymes, especially phytase and carbohydrase, may neutralise some of the negative effects of anti-nutritional factors, increase nutrient 336 bioavailability and consequently improve diet nutritional quality. In the present study, 337 338 improved growth (FBW and SGR) of fish fed the phytase supplemented diet infers 339 improved nutrient bioavailability. Confirming this, fish fed the phytase diet displayed significantly better FCR and PER values than the control group. This could be 340 341 attributed to better utilisation of previously sequestered nutrients released by the effect of phytase on phytate-bound nutrients such as phosphorus. Cao et al. (2008) 342 reported the same effect when Nile tilapia were fed with a phytase supplemented 343 diet; the phytase supplemented diet gave better growth performance, FCR and PER 344 compared with the control group. This is also in agreement with previous findings 345 346 from Portz and Liebert (2004) and Nwanna (2007) on improved digestibility and growth performance effects of phytase on plant-based diets fed to Nile tilapia. 347 348 However, there are some reports of non-effects of dietary phytase provision on growth performance and nutrient utilisation in fish (Cao et al., 2007). This could 349

possibly be due to the fact that removal of phytate could enhance the influence of other anti-nutritional factors and shield amino acids from degradation or reduce leaching of water soluble components (Cao et al., 2007). This could also be attributed to enzyme dosage (activity) and substrates available for enzymatic reaction. Although not undertaken in the present study, a future digestibility trial may validate this possibility for tilapia to provide more detailed information on nutrient and mineral availability.

357 Tilapia fed the carbohydrase supplemented diet had similar growth 358 performance (FBW & SGR) with tilapia fed the control diet which is in agreement with the findings by (Yigit and Olmez, 2011) who reported no benefits on growth 359 360 when tilapia were fed a carbohydrase supplemented diet. It was hypothesised by the 361 authors that protease supplementation could degrade complex proteins in the diet into usable amino acids and peptides thereby resulting in improved protein 362 digestibility and growth performance. In the current study however, growth 363 364 performance and nutrient utilisation of fish fed the protease supplemented diet were not significantly different from the fish fed control diet. Contrary to this, Dias et al. 365 (2014) reported a positive effect of protease on tilapia growth performance fed a 366 lower crude protein diet compared to the higher crude protein diet in the present 367 368 study. It could be inferred from this report that the protease effect is likely to be more 369 pronounced in a low crude protein and low fishmeal diet. The non-effect of protease in a relatively higher crude protein diet could be as a result of non-beneficial effects 370 of digestible protein when the level exceeds the requirement for fish maintenance 371 372 and growth.

373 Haematological parameters are useful for monitoring fish general health and 374 physiological responses to stress. In this study, an elevated red blood cell count was 375 observed in fish fed the carbohydrase supplemented diet. The increased red blood 376 cells could infer better immune response (Jiang et al., 2007). As there is no clear understanding of established interaction between exogenous enzymes and fish 377 378 haematological status, further study is required to establish the mode of action between exogenous enzymes and haematological parameters. In terms of 379 gastrointestinal morphology, there was no significant difference in mid-intestine with 380 respect to perimeter ratios, goblet cells levels and IELs levels, but significantly higher 381 382 microvilli density (a measure of absorptive intestinal surface area) was observed in 383 tilapia fed the phytase and carbohydrase supplemented diets. This is in line with improved growth performance and nutrient utilisation mentioned earlier and may 384 385 have been a contributory factor to the observed growth parameters.

386 To the authors' knowledge, this is the first study investigating the effect of exogenous enzymes (phytase, protease and carbohydrase) on the intestinal 387 microbiota of tilapia in a feeding trial. Previous studies have demonstrated that 388 389 different feed additives such as antibiotics (He et al., 2010), probiotics (He et al., 2013; Standen et al., 2013; Standen et al., 2015) and prebiotics (Qin et al., 2014) 390 391 can modulate the gut microbiota in tilapia. Zhou et al. (2013) reported significant changes in bacteria species and density of the intestinal microbiota of grass carp 392 393 (Ctenopharyngodon idella) fed cellulase supplemented duckweed-based diets. In the 394 present study, the predominant allochthonous bacterial species in the intestine of tilapia was Clostridium ghonii, which was the only phylotype found in all the 395 individual tilapia regardless of the dietary treatment. Other authors have also found 396 397 members of Family Clostridiaceae in tilapia's intestine suggesting that members of this family may be adapted to play an important role in the tilapia gut system (Zhou 398 399 et al., 2011). There were some phylotypes that were only present in the intestine of 400 fish fed with certain exogenous enzymes. For instance, OTU #1 which had 96% 401 similarity with Aquisphaera giovannonii was present in intestines of tilapia fed phytase, protease and carbohydrase supplemented diets but was not detected in the 402 403 intestine of tilapia fed control treatment. The occurrence of specific bacterial members of Proteobacteria and Actinobacteria were selectively associated to 404 405 particular dietary treatment. The Proteobacteria was present in the control and carbohydrase treatments while the Actinobacteria was detected in control, phytase 406 and protease treatments. The presence of Proteobacteria and Actinobacteria in the 407 408 intestine of tilapia is in agreement with previous research that used molecular techniques to assess gut microbiota in tilapia (Standen et al., 2015). Permanova 409 410 analysis revealed that inclusion of exogenous carbohydrase in diet of tilapia altered 411 significantly the bacterial community composition in the intestine of fish in contrast to that of tilapia fed the control diet. This finding suggests that this specific enzyme may 412 413 have a modulating effect on the diet substrate profile thereby promoting or 414 decreasing certain bacterial groups in the intestine.

In conclusion, tilapia fed diet supplemented with phytase exhibited superior 415 416 growth performance in contrast to fish fed the control diet. This change did not have 417 detrimental impacts on the haematological, intestinal morphological or intestinal 418 microbiological parameters investigated. A significant difference was observed in the 419 intestinal microbiota of tilapia fed the carbohydrase supplemented diet when compared to those fed the control diet. Although the microbiota species diversity 420 parameters were not affected by dietary treatment, Permanova analysis revealed 421 422 differences in the community profiles. Further quantitative studies are necessary to confirm how exogenous enzymes (especially carbohydrase) modulate intestinal 423

424 microbiota and if these modulations contribute towards the improved growth425 performance of the host.

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567 **Table 1** Formulation and composition of the experimental diets

J	U	'
5	6	8

Ingredients (g kg ⁻¹)	Control	Phytase	Protease	Carbohydrase
Soybean protein ^a	353.0	353.0	353.0	353.0
Narrow-leafed lupin meal ^b	250.0	250.0	250.0	250.0
Corn starch ^c	210.0	209.7	209.8	209.7
Herring meal LT94 ^d	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Corn oil	21.7	21.7	21.7	21.7
Fish oil	20.0	20.0	20.0	20.0
Lysamine pea protein ^e	20.0	20.0	20.0	20.0
Vitamin & mineral premix ^f	20.0	20.0	20.0	20.0
CMC-binder ^c	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00
Phytase ^g	0.00	0.30	0.00	0.00
Protease ^h	0.00	0.00	0.20	0.00
Carbohydrase ⁱ	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.30
BHT ^f (mg)	75.0	75.0	75.0	75.0
Ethoxyquin ^f (mg)	7.50	7.50	7.50	7.50
Alpha tocopherols ^f	0.20	0.20	0.20	0.20
Total	1000	1000	1000	1000
Composition (g kg ⁻¹ dry we	ight basis)			
Moisture	70.4	74.3	64.9	59.8
Crude protein	406.3	408.6	406.5	410.1
Lipid	77.7	74.9	82.4	78.5
Ash	63.5	64.8	65.0	64.6
Energy (MJ kg ⁻¹)	19.2	19.2	19.1	19.3
NFE ^j	190.3	185.7	190.3	193.6

^aHamlet HP100, Hamlet Protein, Denmark

570 ^bSoya UK

571 °Sigma- Aldrich Ltd., UK

^dHerring meal LT94 – United Fish Products Ltd., Aberdeen, UK

573 ^eRoquette Frêres, France

^f Premier nutrition vitamin/mineral premix contains: 121 g kg⁻¹ calcium, Vit A 1.0 μg kg⁻¹, Vit
D3 0.1 μg kg⁻¹, Vit E (as alpha tocopherol acetate) 7.0 g kg⁻¹, Copper (as cupric sulphate)
250 mg kg⁻¹, Magnesium 15.6 g kg⁻¹, Phosphorus 5.2 g kg⁻¹

⁹ RONOZYME[®] Hiphos (contains 10,000FYT g⁻¹) from DSM Nutritional Products

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

ⁱ ROXAZYME[®] G2 (contains 2700U g⁻¹ xylanase, 700U g⁻¹ β-glucanase and 800U g⁻¹ 580 cellulose) from DSM Nutritional Products

^jNitrogen - free extracts (NFE) = dry matter – (crude protein + crude lipid + ash).

	Control	Phytase	Protease	Carbohydrase	Pooled SEM	P-value
IBW (g fish ⁻¹)	38.6	38.9	38.6	38.9	0.16	0.88
FBW (g fish ⁻¹)	82.6 ^a	94.9 ^b	85.6 ^a	89.4 ^{ab}	1.61	0.001
SGR (% day⁻¹)	2.11 ^a	2.48 ^b	2.21 ^{ab}	2.31 ^{ab}	0.05	0.02
FCR	1.68 ^a	1.36 ^b	1.55 ^a	1.50 ^{ab}	0.04	0.00
PER	0.80 ^a	1.08± ^b	0.88 ^a	0.94 ^{ab}	0.04	0.01
HSI	1.65	1.50	1.68	1.73	0.05	0.48
K-factor	1.97	1.93	2.02	1.94	0.03	0.82
VSI	11.5	10.1	10.5	10.2	0.25	0.22
Survival (%)	90.0 ^a	100 ^b	100 ^b	97.8 ^{ab}	1.66	0.08

Table 2 Growth, feed utilisation and somatic indices of fish fed the experimental diets for 6 weeks

583 Means in the same row with different superscripts are significantly different (P < 0.05). IBW, initial mean body weight; FI, daily feed 584 intake; FBW, final mean body weight; WG, weight gain; SGR, specific growth rate; FCR, feed conversion ratio; PER, protein 585 efficient ratio; HIS, hepatosomatic index and VSI, viscera-somatic index

Table 3 Whole body composition of tilapia fed the experimental diets (g kg⁻¹ wet weight)

	Control	Phytase	Protease	Carbohydrase	Pooled SEM	P-value
Moisture	730.4ª	740.0 ^{ab}	747.0 ^b	738.3 ^{ab}	0.22	0.03
Protein	152.8	155.6	145.5	154.0	0.30	0.74
Lipid	87.6	70.5	74.1	81.6	0.27	0.13
Ash	23.2	30.4	25.7	27.3	0.28	0.08

588 Means in the same row with different superscripts are significantly different (P < 0.05).

	Control	Phytase	Protease	Carbohydrase	Pooled SEM	P-value
Haematocrit (%PCV)	40.5	41.1	41.4	40.9	1.81	0.78
Haemoglobin (g dL ⁻¹)	6.60	6.94	7.80	6.93	0.26	0.47
RBC (10 ⁶ µL ⁻¹)	1.50 ^a	1.66 ^a	1.64 ^a	1.98 ^b	0.06	0.01
WBC (10 ³ µL ⁻¹)	24.3	24.1	21.2	28.4	1.68	0.57
MCV (fL)	260.9	250.7	232.5	183.8	12.6	0.12
MCH (pg)	46.3	42.3	48.1	35.5	2.34	0.24
MCHC (g dL ⁻¹)	16.4	16.9	17.2	16.9	0.50	0.96
Serum lysozyme (U)	73.6	74.7	100.9	80.2	5.92	0.37
Lymphocytes (10 ³ µL ⁻¹)	22.6	21.9	19.5	25.9	1.53	0.59
Monocytes (10 ³ µL ⁻¹)	0.8	1.09	0.7	1.13	0.08	0.11
Granulocytes (10 ³ µL ⁻¹)	0.92	1.09	0.97	1.33	0.08	0.28

590 **Table 4** Haematological and immunological parameters of fish fed the experimental diets after 6 weeks

591 Figures in each row with similar superscript are not significantly different (P > 0.05). RBC, red blood cells; WBC, white blood cells;

592 MCV, mean corpuscular volume (haematocrit (%PCV)*10)/RBC 106 µL⁻¹); MCH, mean corpuscular haemoglobin (haemoglobin (g

593 dL⁻¹)*10)/RBC (106 μL⁻¹); MCHC, mean corpuscular haemoglobin concentration (haemoglobin (g dL⁻¹)*100)/haematocrit (%PCV); U,

594 lysozyme activity unit

Table 5 Intestinal histology of fish fed the experimental diets

	Control	Phytase	Protease	Carbohydrase	Pooled SEM	P-value
Perimeter ratio (AU)	4.86	6.22	5.84	5.84	0.39	0.70
Goblet cells (per 100µm)	7.35	6.87	7.26	7.75	0.17	0.34
IELs (per 100µm)	47.7	49.1	53.5	46.3	2.45	0.81
Microvilli density (AU)	10.4 ^a	15.6 ^b	11.5 ^a	16.0 ^b	0.77	0.00

597 Values with different superscripts indicate significant differences (*P* < 0.05). AU, arbitrary units and IELs, Intraepithelial leucocytes

599	Table 6 Taxonomic affiliation	of DGGE bands sequenced	from intestinal digesta of I	Nile tilapia fed the experimental diets
			0	

Band #	Phylum	Nearest neighbour identified by BLASTn	Similarity (%)	Treatment
1	Planctomycetes	Aquisphaera giovannonii	96	Protease (4)
				Carbohydrase (3)
2	Proteobacteria	Marinobacter hydrocarbonoclasticus	93	Control (4)
3	Unidentified bacteria	Uncultured bacterium clone AMD-A65	83	Phytase (3)
				Protease (1)
				Carbohydrase (3)
4	Proteobacteria	Desulforegula conservatrix	81	Control (2)
5	Proteobacteria	Acinetobacter schindleri	97	Carbohydrase (4)
6	Actinobacteria	Arthrobacter russicus	99	Control (4)
7	Actinobacteria	Arthrobacter russicus	99	Phytase (1)
				Protease (2)
8	Firmicutes	Sporosarcina aquimarina	99	Protease (2)
				Carbohydrase (3)
9	Firmicutes	Clostridium ghonii	100	Control (4)
		-		Phytase (5)
				Protease (3)
				Carbohydrase (6)
10	Actinobacteria	Austwickia chelonae	99	Control (5)
				Phytase (3)
				Protease (3)
11	Actinobacteria	Intrasporangium calvum	99	Phytase (4)

600 Numbers in parenthesis represents number of replicates, out of 6, where the respective OUT (operational taxonomic unit) was

601 detected

Treatment	OTUs ¹	Richness ²	Evenness ³	Diversitv ⁴	SIMPER (%)	R (%) Permanova	Similarity (%)
i outinoiti	0100		Lionnooo	Divolony		P (perm)	
Control	16.3 ± 2.36	3.3 ± 0.51	0.95 ± 0.00	2.6 ± 0.16	25.7		
Phytase	16.0 ± 2.21	3.2 ± 0.48	0.94 ± 0.01	2.5 ± 0.19	36.3		
Protease	20.2 ± 1.85	4.1 ± 0.40	0.94 ± 0.00	2.8 ± 0.10	39.4		
Carbohydrase	19.2 ± 1.65	4.0 ± 0.36	0.95 ± 0.01	2.8 ± 0.09	43.7		
Control vs phytase						0.260	28.5 ± 17.5
Control vs protease						0.187	27.6 ± 13.0
Control vs							
carbohydrase						0.029	24.8 ± 12.8
Phytase vs protease						0.464	34.8 ± 16.4
Phytase vs							
carbohydrase						0.086	34.7 ± 17.6
Protease vs							
carbohydrase						0.085	36.5 ± 17.1

603 **Table 7** Microbial community analysis from PCR-DGGE fingerprints of the intestinal bacteria of tilapia. n = 6

¹Operational taxonomic unit (OTU)

606 ²Margalef species richness: $d = (S - 1) / \log(N)$

- 607 ³Pielou's evenness: J' = H' / log(S)
- 608 ⁴Shannons diversity index: $H' = -\Sigma$ (pi(Inpi))



Figure 1 Light (a-h) and scanning electron (i-l) micrographs of the mid-intestine of tilapia fed the control (a, e and i), phytase (b, f
and j), protease (c, g and k) and carbohydrase (d, h and l) diets. Goblet cells (GO) are filled with abundant acidic mucins (blue; a-d)
in all treatments and abundant IELs (arrows) are present in the epithelia. Abbreviations are E enterocytes, LP lamina propria, L
lumen, GO goblet cell and, MV microvilli. Light microscopy staining: [a-d] Alcian Blue-PAS; [e-h] H & E. Scale bars = 100 µm (a-h)
or 1 µm (i-l).



Figure 2 40 - 60% DGGE banding patterns of V3 region of 16S rRNA fragmentsfrom tilapia distal intestinal digesta.



Figure 3 Cluster analysis based on the DGGE profiles of V3 region fragments of 16S rRNA from distal intestinal digesta of fish fed the experimental diets after 6 weeks. A. Cluster B. nMDS. Dietary treatments: C = control; PH = phytase; PR = Protease; CA Carbohydrase.