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Abstract

The aquaculture industry is currently looking for alternative, sustainable diets that provide similar or better growth for the reared species. We investigated whether replacing fishmeal with insect meal (*Tenebrio molitor*) in the supplied diets of *Sparus aurata*, *Dicentrarchus labrax* and *Oncorhynchus mykiss* causes similar shifts in the bacterial gut communities of these farmed fish species. The diversity of the gut bacterial 16S rRNA gene revealed the presence of most major phyla known to exist in the gut of these three fish species. However, there was a differential shift in the gut bacterial community structure of each species before and after the dietary meal replacement. *S. aurata* and *D. labrax* had more pronounced changes compared to *O. mykiss*, based on analysis of the most dominant and/or the shared vs. unique phylotypes before and after the replacement, suggesting that insect meal replacement resulted in new nutritional niches in the gut of these two fish compared to *O. mykiss*. Our results indicate that the most desirable fish diet substitution differentially affects the gut microbiota in different hosts, implying that a species-specific tailor-made approach in diet manipulations should be considered in the future.

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| Corresponding Author | Konstantinos Kormas |
| Corresponding Author's Institution | University of Thessaly |
| Order of Authors | Efthimia Antonopoulou, Eleni Nikouli, Giovanni Piccolo, Laura Gasco, Francesco Gai, Stavros Chatzifotis, Elena Mente, Konstantinos Kormas |
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- Insect meal could be an alternative for fishmeal replacement in aquaculture.
- There is little information on the effect of such replacement to the fish gastrointestinal microbiota (GITM).
- We concomitantly investigated the impact of fishmeal replacement by insect meal in two marine and one freshwater farmed fish species.
- Our results showed that a similar amount of diet replacement results in more pronounced GITM changes in the marine fish than in the freshwater depicting, thus, the need for considering gut ecophysiology in diet replacement practices.

**Reshaping gut bacterial communities after dietary *Tenebrio molitor* larvae meal
supplementation in three different fish species**

Efthimia Antonopoulou¹, Eleni Nikouli², Giovanni Piccolo³, Laura Gasco^{4,5}, Francesco Gai⁵,
Stavros Chatzifotis⁶, Eleni Mente², Konstantinos Ar. Kormas^{2*}

¹ Laboratory of Animal Physiology, Department of Zoology, School of Biology, Aristotle
University of Thessaloniki, 541 24 Thessaloniki, Greece

² Department of Ichthyology and Aquatic Environment, School of Agricultural Sciences,
University of Thessaly, 384 46 Volos, Greece

³ Department of Veterinary Medicine and Animal Production, University of Naples Federico II,
Via F. Delpino 1, 80137 Naples, Italy

⁴Department of Agricultural, Forest and Food Sciences, University of Turin, Largo P. Braccini 2,
10095 Grugliasco, TO, Italy

⁵ Institute of Science of Food Production, National Research Council, Largo P. Braccini 2, 10095
Grugliasco (TO), Italy

⁶ Institute of Marine Biology, Biotechnology and Aquaculture, Hellenic Centre for Marine
Research, Gournes Pediados P.O. Box 2214, 71003 Heraklion, Crete, Greece

* Corresponding author; Tel.: +30-242-109-3082, Fax: +30-242109-3157, E-mail:
kkormas@uth.gr, kkormas@gmail.com

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Running title: Effect of insect meal on fish gut bacteria

32 **ABSTRACT**

34 The aquaculture industry is currently looking for alternative, sustainable diets that provide similar
or better growth for the reared species. We investigated whether replacing fishmeal with insect
36 meal (*Tenebrio molitor*) in the supplied diets of *Sparus aurata*, *Dicentrarchus labrax* and
Oncorhynchus mykiss causes similar shifts in the bacterial gut communities of these farmed fish
38 species. The diversity of the gut bacterial 16S rRNA gene revealed the presence of most major
phyla known to exist in the gut of these three fish species. However, there was a differential shift
40 in the gut bacterial community structure of each species before and after the dietary meal
replacement. *S. aurata* and *D. labrax* had more pronounced changes compared to *O. mykiss*,
42 based on analysis of the most dominant and/or the shared vs. unique phylotypes before and after
the replacement, suggesting that insect meal replacement resulted in new nutritional niches in the
44 gut of these two fish compared to *O. mykiss*. Our results indicate that the most desirable fish diet
substitution differentially affects the gut microbiota in different hosts, implying that a species-
46 specific tailor-made approach in diet manipulations should be considered in the future.

48 INTRODUCTION

50 The aquafeed production industry relies mainly on raw ingredients, such as fish meal
supplied from wild fish, as protein sources. However, the replacement of fish meal in fish diets is
52 a major objective towards achieving sustainability in both sectors, fisheries and aquaculture.
Recently, much attention has been paid to insect meals due to their interesting nutritional value
54 and sustainability (Henry et al., 2015; van Huis, 2013), and recent researches have highlighted
their potential in fish feeds as substitute for conventional protein sources (Belforti et al., 2015;
56 Gasco et al., 2016, Lock et al., 2016; Piccolo et al., 2017; Iaconisi et al., 2017; Renna et al.,
2017). Such substitutes need to at least retain the growth and health features of the host
58 unchanged, if not improving them.

Fishmeal replacement can affect the growth and health of the reared fish (e.g. Estruch et
60 al. 2015, Parma et al. 2017, Schmidt et al 2016). However, whether these effects are induced by
changes in the probiotics and the gastrointestinal microbiota (GITM) remains elusive and
62 understudied compared to humans (Li et al. 2016, Mu e al. 2016). Such replacements can result
in the intake of feed with dubious digestibility and absorption by the host (e.g. Santigosa et al.
64 2011, Baeza-Ariño et al. 2016) with largely unknown effects on its GITM in relation to the
attachment, development and function of microbial symbionts. While the major beneficial roles
66 of GITM on their hosts have been recognized (Mu et al. 2016, Sanchez et al. 2017), the origin,
distribution, cosmopolitanism and host-specificity of these microorganisms remain largely
68 unknown for most of the animals. Nonetheless, knowing these parameters is crucial to unraveling
the exact mechanisms underlying their symbiotic relationships with the host. Although fish
70 harbour less diverse gastrointestinal tract (GIT) bacterial communities than endothermic animals
and humans (Ringø et al. 1995), these communities can form complex biological relationships
72 (Sullam et al. 2012, Givens et al. 2013, Llewelyn et al. 2014, Ghanbari et al. 2015, Wang et al.
2017) that critically influence the host's nutrition, growth and health (Ringø et al. 2016).

74 Due to the complexity of the induced changes in the microbial community structure and
the interactions of the potential metabolic benefits, many studies of these diet replacements tend
76 to assess only major growth and/or health-related factors. One of the most understudied factors, is
the effect of the new diets on the fish GITM (Ringø et al. 2016, Wang et al. 2017). There are even
78 fewer studies that investigate the ecological features of the GITM in hosts undergoing feed

substitution such as co-occurrence and distribution patterns. Some of these features, such as
80 abundance distributions, are pivotal for explaining niche partitioning, environmental selection,
fitness, etc., (Magurran2004, Kirchamn2012) and could reflect the suitability and importance of a
82 specific GITM for a particular host. Specifically, for the gut environment, the microbiota remains
largely a deterministic characteristic driven by the nutritional background of the gut and the
84 interplay between the members of the GITM (Pereira & Berry 2017).

In this paper, we hypothesized that the replacement of fishmeal with alternative proteins
86 of insect origin is not equally beneficial to all fish species as far as the community structure of
their GITM is concerned. To test this hypothesis, the major shifts in the GITM of three
88 commercially important farmed fish species were evaluated after substituting the fish meal to
achieve $\geq 50\%$ *Tenebrio molitor* larvae meal (TM) inclusion in the feed. The changes in the GIT
90 bacterial community structure were investigated by analyzing the 16S rRNA gene diversity by
next generation sequencing analysis in the midgut of sea bream (*Sparus aurata*), sea bass
92 (*Dicentrarchus labrax*) and rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) individuals before and after the
fish meal substitution in feeds.

94

MATERIALS AND METHODS

96

Experimental growth of fish and sampling. All experimental protocols applied in this
98 work were designed according to the guidelines of the current European Directive (2010/63/EU)
on the protection of animals used for scientific purposes. For all trials, the same full-fat TM
100 larvae meal was used and purchased from the Gaobeidian Shannong Biology CO. LTD
(Shannong, China). TM larvae meal was imported by the Department of Agricultural, Forest, and
102 Food Sciences (DISAFA) of the University of Torino (Italy) (DGSFA 0019960-P (02/11/2012))
and used for the preparation of three distinct experimental diets based on the nutritional needs of
104 each experimental fish species used in the present study. Thus, three independent dietary
experiments were performed. The rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) trial was carried out in
106 the experimental facility of DISAFA (Torino, Italy) (DM n. 182/2010). The European sea bass
(*Dicentrarchus labrax*) trial was conducted at the Institute of Marine Biology, Biotechnology and
108 Aquaculture (IMBBC) of the Hellenic Center for Marine Research (Crete, Greece) (EL91-
BIOexp-04). The gilthead sea bream (*Sparus aurata*) trial took place at the Department of

110 Veterinary Medicine and Animal Production (University of Naples Federico II, Italy). The
European sea bass and gilthead sea bream trials protocols were also evaluated and approved by
112 the Aquaexcel Ethic committee (Ref 0013/03/05/15B and Ref. 0125/08/05/15/TNA).

In each trial, diets were formulated to cover the fish nutritional requirements which
114 differed due to fish species and age. Nevertheless, within the species, diets were formulated to be
isonitrogenous, isolipidic and isoenergetic. Therefore, comparisons of the GITM are based
116 between control and their respective replacement treatment for each species separately. *S. aurata*
juveniles (105.2±0.17g initial body weight) were fed two isoenergetic and isoproteic diets for 163
118 days: a control diet (TM0) contained 100% fishmeal (FM) and a 50% partial substitution of
fishmeal with TM (TM50). *D. labrax* juveniles (initial body weight: 5.2±0.82g) were fed two
120 isonitrogenous, isolipidic and isoenergetic diets (TM0 and TM50) for 70 days. *O. mykiss*
(115.2±14.21g initial body weight) were fed two experimental diets for 90 days, having 0% or
122 60% of TM. Fish were fed daily to apparent satiation for 90 days and reared in triplicate tanks
per treatment, for all trials. Detailed description of experiments can be found in Piccolo et al.
124 (2017) and Gasco et al. (2016).

For all trials, fish were fed to apparent satiation every day. The TM composition is
126 reported in Table 1. Moreover, TM was used as partial substitute of FM that represented the main
protein source in the control diet (0% TM). Ingredients and proximate composition of
128 experimental diets are reported in Table 1. To keep the diets isoproteic and isoenergetic, the
quantities of the other ingredients used in diets formulation were slightly modified (Table 1).
130 Since the used TM had a high fat content, the level of fish oil was dramatically reduced in TM
diets.

132 At the end of each growth trial fish were starved for 24 hrs and 10 healthy fish from each
dietary group of the examined species were removed and sacrificed by anaesthesia overdose
134 (tricaine methanesulfonate-MS222, Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA). After fish body weight
measurements, the midgut was removed under sterile conditions. As most of the studies don't
136 consider sample preparation for distinguishing indigenous (resident) from transient gut bacteria
(Ghanbari et al. 2015), the digesta -if present- was removed by gentle mechanical force with flat
138 forceps. The emptied midgut samples were rinsed thrice in sterile particle free distilled water,
were flash-frozen in liquid nitrogen and kept at -80°C. Stable rearing conditions were kept during
140 the trials, thus, no or little effect was expected from the recirculating water (Meziti et al. 2012,

Estruch et al. 2015, Borsodi et al. 2017) and the effect of water microbiota on the midgut
142 bacterial community composition was not assessed as the origin of the GITM was out of the
scope of this paper

144 **Molecular and sequencing analysis.** Bulk DNA was extracted from each individual fish
gut sample with the PowerMax Soil DNA Isolation kit (MoBio, Carlsbad, CA, USA) following
146 the manufacturer's protocol. Tag pyrosequencing was performed on the Roche 454 FLX titanium
platform, by targeting the V3–V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene with the primer pair S-DBact-
148 0341-b-S-17 (5'-CCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG-3') and S-D-Bact-0785-a-A-21 (5'-
GACTACHVGGGTATCTAATCC-3') (Klindworth et al. 2013) according to Dowd et al. (2008)
150 (MRDNA Ltd., Shallowater, TX, USA). Raw pyrosequencing data were processed by the
MOTHUR platform (v. 1.35.0) (Schloss et al. 2009). Quality control of data analysis included
152 denoising of the flowgrams by PyroNoise software (Quince et al. 2009); sequences with ≥ 250 bp
and no homopolymers of ≥ 8 bp were excluded for further analysis. The remaining sequences
154 were aligned in the SILVA 126 database (Pruesse et al., 2007), binned into operational
taxonomic units (OTUs) and clustered based on averageneighbour algorithm at 97% the sequence
156 similarity cut-off (Kunin et al. 2010, Stackebrandt & Goebel 1994). The unique OTUs were
taxonomically classified by using the SILVA 126 database (Pruesse et al., 2007). All sequences
158 from this study are available in the Short Reads Archive (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/sra>) with
accession number SRR5161931.

160

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

162

In this paper, multiple pieces of evidence are provided showing that a high ($\geq 50\%$)
164 replacement of fishmeal with insect (*Tenebrio molitor*) meal has a differential effect on the
structure and possibly on the subsequent gut ecophysiology of gilthead sea bream (*Sparus*
166 *aurata*), European sea bass (*Dicentrarchus labrax*) and rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*). As
the level of TM inclusion and consequent substitution of fishmeal substitution was high (71.5 –
168 85.7%), we hypothesize that any observed shifts in the gut bacterial communities would be
attributed mainly to insect meal as the major dietary ingredient.

170 Individual variability has occurred in similar studies (Desai et al. 2012) mostly due to the
feeding practices of massively reared fish where not all individuals consumed the same amount

172 of food. The majority of the replicated samples per treatment in our study were variable with low
similarity regarding the relative abundances of the found operational taxonomic units (OTUs)
174 (Fig. S1); individual variability has been proposed for the human gut microbiota (Bashan et al.
2016) but has not yet been shown for fish gut microbiota. Since a comparable number of
176 sequence reads per treatment (Tab. 2) were obtained, we used the average sequence reads per
treatment for our analyses.

178 The first evidence for the differential effect of fishmeal replacement comes from the
increased number of OTUs after the replacement for *S. aurata* and *D. labrax*, which contrasts
180 with the decreased number of OTUs for *O. mykiss* (Tab. 2). In gut microbial communities that
undergo some kind of perturbation, more novel species are introduced due to the novel niches
182 introduced to the ecosystem (Zelezniak et al. 2015, Pereira & Berry 2016). The insect meal
replacement is most likely a deviation for the standard GIT microbiota, at least for *S. aurata* and
184 *D. labrax* and their fishmeal containing diet. The newly created nutritional niches in the *S. aurata*
and *D. labrax* gut after the replacement are also evidenced by the fact that the majority of the
186 newly appearing OTUs represent unique bacteria (62.2% and 60.0% for *S. aurata* and *D. labrax*,
respectively), i.e., species that were not detected in the 0% insect meal diet (Fig. 1). For *O.*
188 *mykiss*, only 33.0% of novel OTUs were detected after the replacement, indicating that the
nutritional background in this species was altered to a lesser degree than the two other species.

190 The meal replacement also impacted the dominant OTUs. When fed on a specific diet
each species is usually characterized by a gut bacterial community with usually a few dominant
192 species (Ringø et al. 2016, Wang et al. 2017) but this changes when there is an increased number
of bacterial species associated with more diverse diets, i.e., more nutritional niches or changing
194 environmental conditions (Givens et al. 2015); these changes have also been observed in
comparisons of farmed and wild fish GITM (Kormas et al. 2014, Ramírez & Romero 2017a, b).
196 The dominance by a few bacterial species is indicative of a more specialized habitat (e.g. Lowrey
et al. 2015, Lyons et al. 2017). In this study, although 598 OTUs were detected in total, only 8 –
198 20 of them composed >80% of the community's population in the 100% fishmeal diet; after
fishmeal replacement, the dominant OTUs dropped to 5 – 12 in the three fish species (Tab. 2).
200 However, not only very few of the shared OTUs were found before the replacement but also they
were found after the replacement for *S. aurata* and *D. labrax*, but the shared OTUs between the
202 two treatments had incomparable relative abundances (Fig. 2). For *S. aurata*, five of the eight

dominant OTUs were detected after the replacement, but the most dominant one OTU (OTU-
204 0004) before the replacement (26.8%) was not detectable in the insect meal treatment. The most
dominant OTU in *D. labrax*, OTU-0002, decreased from 17.9% to 3.6% dominance, while a total
206 of eight out of 14 dominant OTUs appeared after the replacement in *D. labrax*, when OTU-0009
was dominant (13.6%). In the *O. mykiss* midgut, 11 of the 21 dominant OTUs found before the
208 replacement were also found afterwards. The dominant OTU-0009 (10.0%) before the
replacement was the second most dominant OTU (33.3%) after the replacement, indicating that it
210 represents a bacterium that is probably favoured by the insect meal addition. This OTU is related
to a Tenericutes-associated species originating from chicken caeca (Tab. S1). The Tenericutes,
212 are amongst the protagonists of gut symbionts in fish (Lowrey et al. 2015, Gatesoupe et al. 2016,
Lyons et al. 2016, Dehler et al. 2017, Ringø et al. 2016, Wang et al. 2017) and other aquatic
214 animals with a chitin exoskeleton (Demiri et al. 2009, Meziti et al. 2012, Givens et al. 2013,
Hakim et al. 2016), indicating that they are possibly related to the metabolism of this compound.
216 OTU-0009 was also found to be the most abundant in the insect meal fed to *D. labrax* but not in
the *S. aurata*, where it might be outcompeted in the latter by another Tenericutes related
218 bacterium, OTU-0001, which is also associated with fish GIT (Tab. S1). The higher affinity of
the *O. mykiss* midgut bacteria to the insect meal diet is also supported by the fact that the relative
220 importance of the abundant, common and rare OTUs showed a different response in the three
species after the replacement (Fig. S2), with only *O. mykiss* again showing increased abundant
222 OTUs and the lowest change in new rare OTUs. Recently, it has been proposed that the transition
from rarity to abundance in bacterial populations could be related to substrate availability and
224 lability (Newton & Shade 2016) and, thus, such gut bacterial community changes might impose
some effect on fish nutrition that remains to be investigated.

226 The dominant and/or shared OTUs could be considered to be true GIT residents as their
inferred phylogeny depicts fast growers that could take over the GIT habitat; additionally, in this
228 study, most of the midgut faecal material was removed and, thus, almost exclusively the epi- and
endobionts of the GIT tissue were detected. The fast-growing capability of these bacteria is
230 suggested by their high 16S rRNA gene copy number (Tab. S1) which corresponds to high
maximum growth rates (μ_{\max}) according to Roller et al. (2016). However, as not all OTUs can be
232 safely assigned to known taxa and available genomes do not equally cover all taxa, this
speculation requires further confirmation.

234 The differential response of the three fish gut communities is not only shown in the
structural changes (above) but also in their inferred ecophysiological roles as dictated by the
236 different major taxonomic groups. Although all major bacterial phyla known to occur in other
fish gut (Sullam et al. 2012, Llewellyn et al. 2014, Estruch et al. 2015, Ringø et al. 2016, Tarnecki
238 et al. 2017, Wang et al. 2017) were also found in our study (Fig. 3, Tab. S2), the lowest number
of novel taxa (families) appearing in the gut after the meal replacement occurred in *O. mykiss*
240 (25.0% of all families before and after the meal substitution), compared to *S. aurata* (48.4%) and
D. labrax (44.0%) (Fig. 4). Although functional redundancy is common among bacterial taxa, it
242 is expected that the accumulation of new taxa appearing in a community are due to an increase in
the novel niches that are available after a perturbation (Maguran 2004). The prevalence of
244 differently expected ecophysiological roles is also shown by using the ratios between the major phyla to
which the OTUs belong (e.g. Desai et al. 2012, Givens et al. 2015, Zhu et al. 2015, Dehler et al.
246 2017), that occurred in the different treatments (Fig. 4). Based on the ratios of
Proteobacteria:Firmicutes, Proteobacteria:Bacteroidetes and Firmicutes:Bacteroidetes, only in the
248 case of *O. mykiss* did these ratios remained practically unchanged, suggesting that the changes
caused by the insect meal replacement affected the dominant phyla in this animal less compared
250 to the other two species and, therefore, fewer differences are expected. However, even in *O.*
mykiss, the ratio of Proteobacteria:Actinobacteria was nearly halved. In the human gut, for
252 example, the dominance of Proteobacteria vs. Firmicutes and/or Bacteroidetes has been suggested
to be an indication of gut dysbiosis (Shin et al. 2015). In fish GITM, Proteobacteria usually
254 dominate (Llewellyn et al. 2014, Wang et al. 2017). However, the observed changes in their
relative abundance in *S. aurata* and *D. labrax* but not in *O. mykiss*, might indicate gut imbalances
256 that need to be further investigated by comparing omics approaches and physiological assays.

The prevalence of a “natural” gut microbiota is of crucial importance for the host (Pereira
258 & Berry 2016). Our reported imbalanced gut microbiota in *S. aurata* after fish meal replacement
corroborates the findings by Piccolo et al. (2017) who in the same experiments as ours, they
260 found a lower digestibility coefficient in fish with 50% TM inclusion (78.46% for dry matter
digestibility coefficients in the TM50 group compared to 87.02% in the TM0 fish group),
262 although TM50 fish showed a similar final weight and growth performance compared to the
control group. Additionally, it is known that fish meal replacements with other ingredients
264 (Estruch et al. 2015, Parma et al. 2016, Rico et al. 2016) or other diet changes (Silva et al. 2011,

Cerezuela et al. 2013) induces gut microbiota changes in *S. aurata*, which can be reflected on fish
266 growth parameters. Kormas et al. (2014) have recently shown that the gut of organically reared *S.*
aurata more closely resembles that of wild populations than the guts of conventionally reared
268 fish. All of the above findings, lead to the conclusion that seabream is sensitive to dietary fish
meal replacements and more research is needed to elucidate the effect of dietary ingredient on gut
270 microbiom as has also been suggested by Estruch et al. (2015) and Parma et al. (2016).

Similarly, for *D. labrax*, Gasco et al. (2016) reported that for the same experiment as in
272 our study, *D. labrax* fed with 50% insect meal inclusion resulted in statistically significantly
lower dry matter intake, weight gain, specific growth rate and protein efficiency ratio, as well as a
274 higher mortality (Table 4 of Gasco et al. 2016). In this experiment the dominant microbes from
the control (100% fish meal) treatment were not detected in the 50% insect meal inclusion
276 treatment (Fig. 3) and the different taxonomic groups of bacteria observed between the two
treatments (Fig. 4) indicate different metabolisms. Even if functional redundancy is the case,
278 more time might be required for the selection of the new (unique) microbes to be established and
form fully functional communities. Torrecillas et al. (2017) reported gut microbiota alterations
280 after the exclusion of fish meal and the sensitivity of the *D. labrax* gut microbiota to diet
alterations was also shown by Carda-Diéguez et al. (2014).

A different picture is presented for *O. mykiss*, as this species showed the fewest changes
282 in all investigated GITM parameters after dietary MT inclusion. Most of the known bacterial taxa
found in this species' gut (Navarrete et al. 2012, Ingerselv et al. 2014, Lowrey et al. 2015, Lyons
284 et al. 2017) were also present in the current study. Similarly, Lyons et al. (2017) found an almost
invariable gut microbiota before and after microalgal material feed supplementation in the same
286 species, coupled with increased growth effects. However, fish meal replacements by soy bean
based meals have impacted the gut microbiota of *O. mykiss* either negatively, i.e. more novel
288 phylotypes (Heikkinen et al. 2006, Desai et al. 2012) or positively, i.e. fewer novel bacteria
appearing after the replacement (Dimitroglou et al. 2009). In our study, the lower number of
290 novel OTUs appearing in the *O. mykiss* after meal replacement, could be related to the animal's
natural diet. A chitin-enriched diet -like the one used in the present study- probably imposes little
292 gut microbiota changes because this species' natural diet includes insects (Power 1990).

294 In conclusion, the differential impact of the fish meal replacement by *Tenebrio molitor*
meal on the gut bacterial community structure of the three commercially important fish species of

296 *S. aurata*, *D. labrax* and *O. mykiss*, suggests that any such feed substitutions should include an
assessment of the GITM, as these symbiotic microorganisms are inseparable from the growth-and
298 health-related metabolic features of the species. Our data also depicts that insect meal, at least in
terms of GITM changes, is more suitable for species whose natural diet includes such ingredients.

300

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508

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

510

512 LG, GP, FG, SC, EA: performed the fish growth experiments; EN: contributed to
molecular and bioinformatics analysis, EM: contributed to data analysis, KAK: analysed bacterial
diversity data, wrote the first draft of the summary on which the rest of authors contributed.

514

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

516

All authors declare no financial/commercial conflicts of interest.

518

520 **Table 1.** Ingredients and proximate composition of *Tenebrio molitor* larvae meal (TM) and
 experimental diets using $\geq 50\%$ TM meal inclusion in *Sparus aurata*, *Dicentrarchus labrax* and
 522 *Oncorhynchus mykiss*.

| | <i>S. aurata</i> ¹ | | <i>D. labrax</i> ² | | <i>O. mykiss</i> ³ | | |
|---------------------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------|-------------------------------|-------|-------------------------------|-------|-------|
| | TM | TM0 | TM50 | TM0 | TM50 | TM0 | TM60 |
| Ingredients (g kg⁻¹) | | | | | | | |
| Fish meal | | 500 | 130 | 700 | 200 | 700 | 100 |
| <i>Tenebrio molitor</i> larvae meal | | 0 | 500 | 0 | 500 | 0 | 600 |
| Corn gluten meal | | 150 | 130 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 37 |
| Wheatglutenmeal | | 0 | 0 | 50 | 150 | 0 | 0 |
| Wheat bran | | 0 | 0 | 55 | 25 | 57 | 50 |
| Wheat meal | | 0 | 0 | 92 | 80 | 40 | 40 |
| Gelatinized starch | | 180 | 150 | 0 | 12 | 33 | 100 |
| Fish oil | | 140 | 60 | 90 | 20 | 150 | 53 |
| Vit-min | | 20 | 20 | 4 | 4 | 20 | 20 |
| Amino acids | | 0 | 0 | 9 | 9 | 0 | 0 |
| Carboximethylcellulose | | 10 | 10 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Chemical composition³ | | | | | | | |
| DM (g kg ⁻¹) | 939 | 951 | 952 | 920 | 917 | 956 | 949 |
| Ash (g kg ⁻¹ , as fed) | 47 | 89 | 50 | 115 | 57 | 107 | 82 |
| CP (g kg ⁻¹ , as fed) | 519 | 438 | 430 | 548 | 546 | 424 | 413 |
| EE (g kg ⁻¹ , as fed) | 236 | 193 | 194 | 152 | 157 | 213 | 211 |
| Gross Energy (MJ kg ⁻¹ , as fed) | 24.4 | 21.81 | 21.10 | 21.29 | 22.62 | 22.82 | 23.13 |

524 Abbreviations: DM, dry matter; CP, crude protein; EE, ether extract

526 ¹: from Piccolo et al., 2017; ²: from Gasco et al., 2016; ³ Values are reported as mean of duplicate
 analyses

528

530 **Table 2.** Cumulative bacterial sequence reads and operational taxonomic units (OTUs) in the
 midgut of *Sparus aurata*, *Dicentrarchus labrax* and *Oncorhynchus mykiss* after a dietary
 inclusion of 50% or 60% of *Tenebrio molitor* larvae meal (TM).

532

| <i>TM</i> | <i>No. of reads</i> | <i>No. of OTUs</i> | <i>Average relative abundance (%) of the most abundant OTU</i> | <i>No. of dominant OTUs*</i> |
|------------------|---------------------|--------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| <i>S. aurata</i> | | | | |
| 0% | 1977 | 28 | 26.8 | 8 |
| 50% | 2093 | 55 | 30.2 | 5 |
| <i>D. labrax</i> | | | | |
| 0% | 4114 | 28 | 17.9 | 10 |
| 50% | 4923 | 54 | 13.6 | 12 |
| <i>O. mykiss</i> | | | | |
| 0% | 832 | 69 | 10.0 | 20 |
| 60% | 1411 | 54 | 46.0 | 8 |

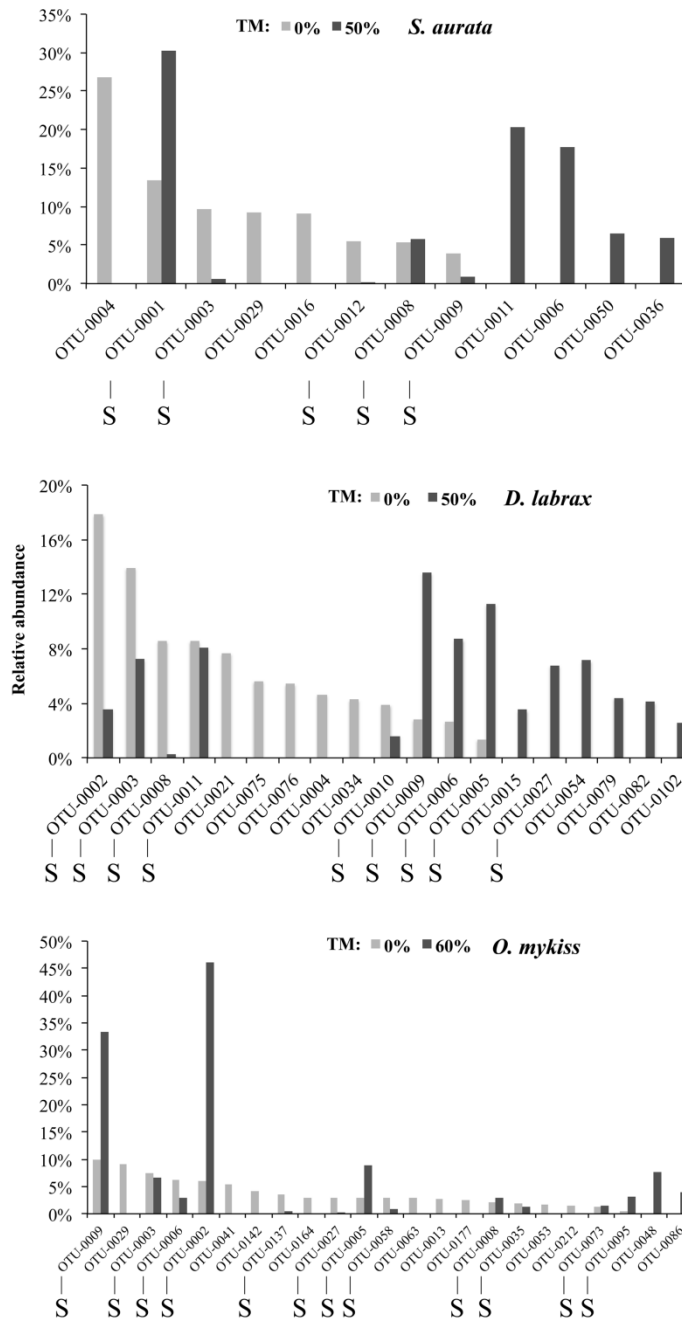
* Cumulative relative abundance $\geq 80\%$ per treatment.

534



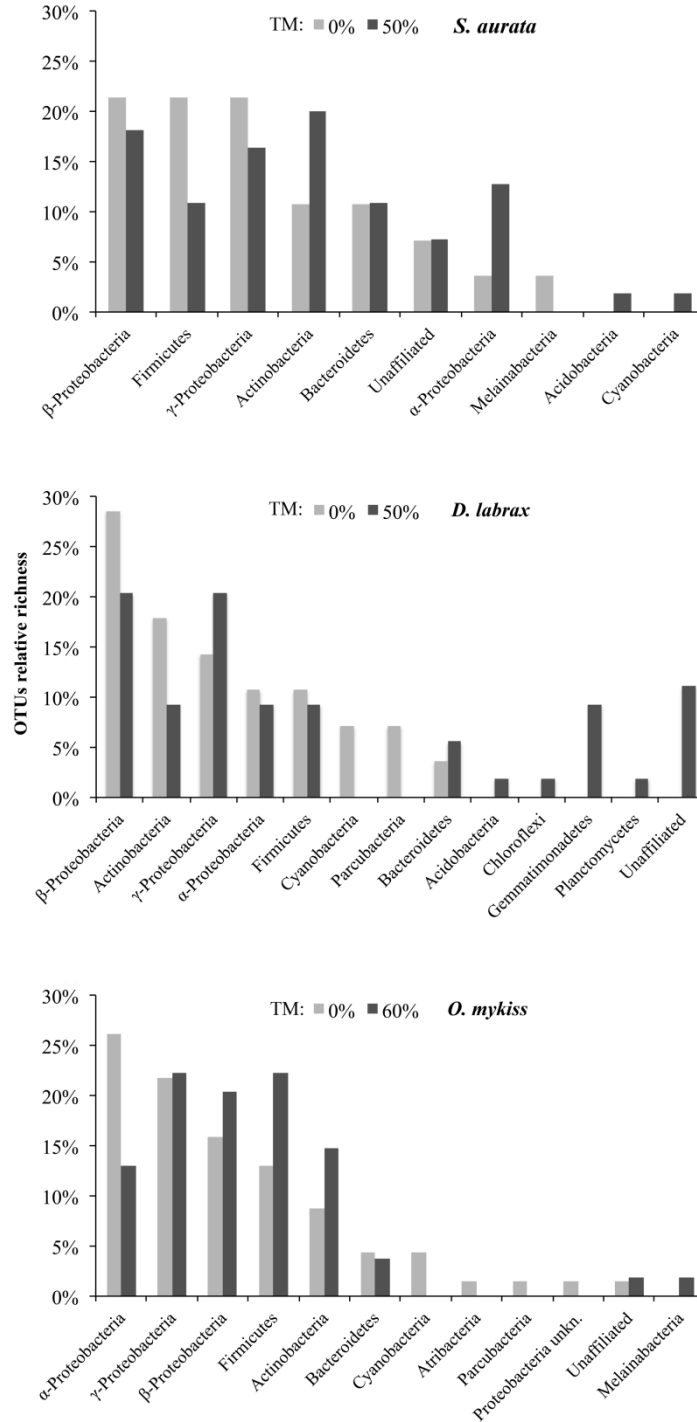
536

Figure 1. Number of shared operational taxonomic units in the midgut of *Sparus aurata*,
 538 *Dicentrarchus labrax* and *Oncorhynchus mykiss* after a dietary inclusion of 50% or 60% of
Tenebriomolitor larvae meal.



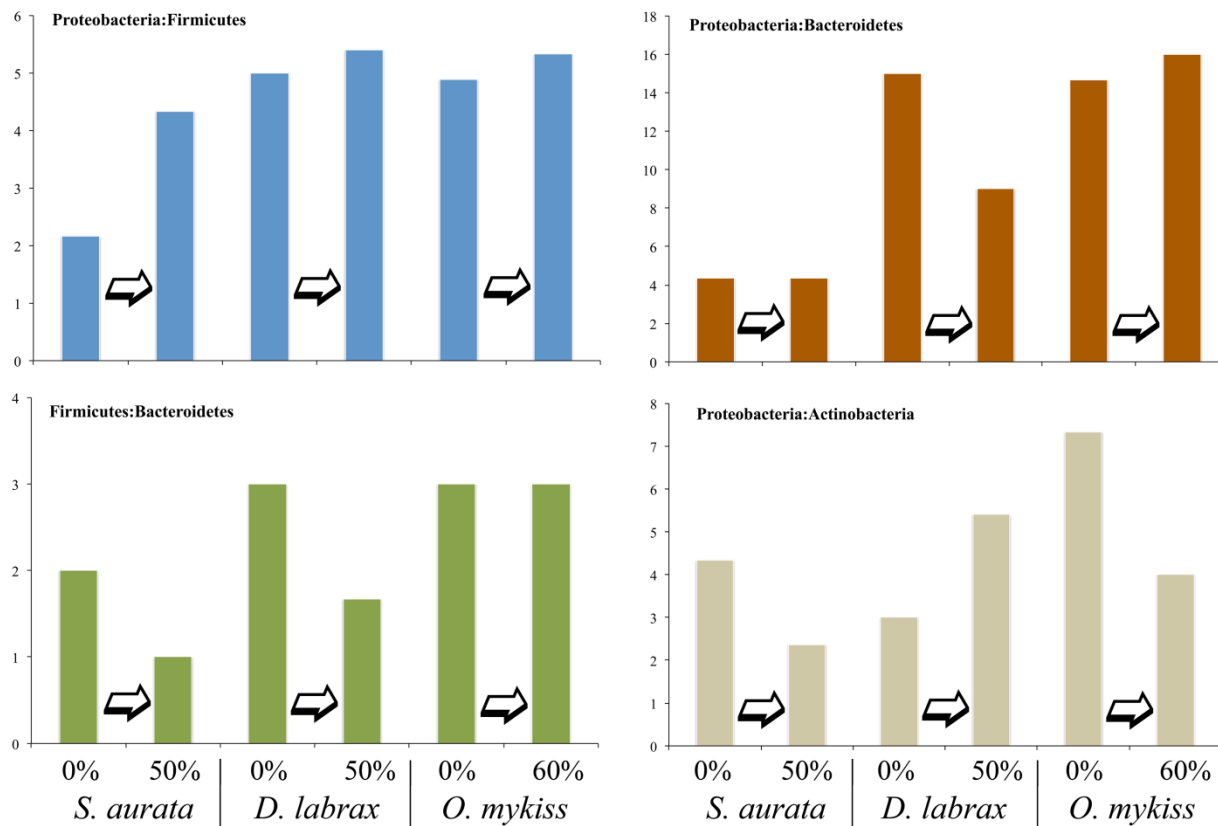
540

542 **Figure 2.** Changes of the most abundant (cumulative abundance $\geq 80\%$ per treatment) operational
 544 taxonomic units (OTUs) in the midgut of *Sparus aurata*, *Dicentrarchus labrax* and
 546 *Oncorhynchus mykiss* after a dietary inclusion of 50% or 60% of *Tenebrio molitor* larvae meal
 (TM). S: shared between the two treatments. Note that OTUs are placed in decreasing order of
 relative abundance of the 0% TM treatment.



548

550 **Figure 3.** Taxonomic affiliation of the operational taxonomic units (OTUs) found in the midgut
 of *Sparus aurata*, *Dicentrarchus labrax* and *Oncorhynchus mykiss* after a dietary inclusion of
 552 50% or 60% of *Tenebriormolitor* larvae meal (TM). Note that phyla are placed in decreasing
 order of their relative abundance of the 0% TM treatment.



554

556 **Figure 4.** Change of the most abundant bacterial phyla occurring in the midgut of *Sparus aurata*,
 558 *Dicentrarchus labrax* and *Oncorhynchus mykiss* after a dietary inclusion of 50% or 60% of
Tenebriormolitor larvae meal (TM).

Reshaping gut bacterial communities after dietary *Tenebrio molitor* larvae meal supplementation in three different fish species

Efthimia Antonopoulou¹, Eleni Nikouli², Giovanni Piccolo³, Laura Gasco^{4,5}, Francesco Gai⁵, Stavros Chatzifotis⁶, Eleni Mente², Konstantinos Ar. Kormas^{2*}

¹ Laboratory of Animal Physiology, Department of Zoology, School of Biology, Aristotle University of Thessaloniki, 541 24 Thessaloniki, Greece

² Department of Ichthyology and Aquatic Environment, School of Agricultural Sciences, University of Thessaly, 384 46 Volos, Greece

³ Department of Veterinary Medicine and Animal Production, University of Naples Federico II, Via F. Delpino 1, 80137 Naples, Italy

⁴ Department of Agricultural, Forest and Food Sciences, University of Turin, Largo P. Braccini 2, 10095 Grugliasco, TO, Italy

⁵ Institute of Science of Food Production, National Research Council, Largo P. Braccini 2, 10095 Grugliasco (TO), Italy

⁶ Institute of Marine Biology, Biotechnology and Aquaculture, Hellenic Centre for Marine Research, Gournes Pediados P.O. Box 2214, 71003 Heraklion, Crete, Greece

* Corresponding author; Tel.: +30-242-109-3082, Fax: +30-242109-3157, E-mail: kkormas@uth.gr, kkormas@gmail.com

Supplementary information

Table S1. Most abundant (cumulative relative abundance per treatment >80%) operational taxonomic units (OTU) found in the midgut of commercially reared *Sparus aurata* (*Sa*), *Dicentrarchus labrax* (*DI*) and *Oncorhynchus mykiss* (*Om*).

| OTU | Found in | Closest relative | Similarity (%) | GenBank accession No | Habitat of origin | Average \pm SD number of 16S rRNA gene copies* |
|------|-----------------|-----------------------------------------------------|----------------|----------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------|
| 0001 | <i>Sa</i> | Clone TP-2 (Tenericutes) | 95.8 | DQ340193 | <i>Gillichthys mirabilis</i> (mudsucker, estuarine fish) gut | - |
| 0002 | <i>DI/Om</i> | TTGE gel band N123 (\approx Firmicutes) | 100.0 | JN185158 | <i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i> gut | - |
| 0003 | <i>Sa/DI/Om</i> | <i>Pseudomonas</i> sp. (Pseudomonadales) | 100.0 | KF366100 | <i>Danaus plexippus</i> (overwintering butterflies) midgut | <i>Pseudomonas</i> spp. (N=208) ?? = 4.9 ± 1.25 |
| 0004 | <i>Sa</i> | Clone 25 | 100.0 | DQ889971 | Juvenile Atlantic salmon (<i>Salmo salar</i>) digestive tract | - |
| 0005 | <i>DI/Om</i> | <i>Cetobacterium somerae</i> 23 (Fusobacteriales) | 97.9 | HG326498 | <i>Siganus canaliculatus</i> (rabbitfish, coral reef) gut | <i>Cetobacterium</i> spp. (N=2): ?? = 1 ± 0 |
| 0006 | <i>Sa/DI/Om</i> | Bio-material L100 | 99.6 | HG966676 | <i>Pisum sativum</i> subsp. <i>elatius</i> (wild pea) chloroplast | - |
| 0008 | <i>Sa/DI/Om</i> | <i>Weissella confuse</i> (Lactobacillales) | 100.0 | LC127180 | Human faeces | <i>Weissella</i> spp. ?? = 7.6 ± 1.94 |
| 0009 | <i>Sa/DI/Om</i> | Clone T-RFLP_clone_K44 (\approx Tenericutes) | 100.0 | KP780113 | Chicken caeca | - |
| 0010 | <i>DI</i> | <i>Pseudomonas brenneri</i> (Pseudomonadales) | 100.0 | KU750791 | Rhizosphere from <i>Lepidium meyenii</i> (maca) | <i>Pseudomonas</i> spp. (N=208) ?? = 4.9 ± 1.25 |
| 0011 | <i>Sa/DI</i> | Clone Sch1000_2 | 99.6 | HE586962 | Freshwater fish gut | - |
| 0012 | <i>Sa</i> | Clone FecI096 (Lactobacillales) | 100.0 | KM244870 | Faecal matter of pigs under indoor system | - |
| 0015 | <i>DI</i> | Clone OTU0162 (Pseudomonadales) | 100.0 | KM059059 | <i>Bactrocera minax</i> (Chinese citrus fly) gut and reproductive organ | - |
| 0016 | <i>Sa</i> | <i>Plesiomonas shigelloides</i> (Enterobacteriales) | 100.0 | DQ822763 | Intestinal bacteria of freshwater salmon <i>Salmo salar</i> and sea trout <i>Salmo trutta trutta</i> and diet | <i>P. shigelloides</i> NCTC10360 ?? = 11 |

| | | | | | | |
|------|--------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------|----------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------|
| 0021 | <i>Dl</i> | <i>Streptococcus equinus</i> (Lactobacillales) | 100.0 | LC145574 | Cow faces | <i>Streptococcus</i> spp. (N=220) ?? = 5.1 ± 1.26 |
| 0027 | <i>Dl/Om</i> | Clone A292_NCI | 100.0 | FJ456668 | <i>Notothenia coriiceps</i> (Southern Ocean fish) intestinal content | |
| 0029 | <i>Sa/Om</i> | <i>Streptococcus oralis</i> (Lactobacillales) | 100.0 | CP019562 | <i>Homo sapiens</i> blood | <i>Streptococcus oralis</i> (N=1) ?? = 4 |
| 0034 | <i>Dl</i> | <i>Acinetobacter johnsonii</i> (γ -Proteobacteria) | 99.7 | AB859672 | Human duodenum | <i>Acinetobacter johnsonii</i> (N=1) ?? = 7 |
| 0035 | <i>Om</i> | <i>Diaphorobacter polyhydroxybutyrativorans</i> (β -Proteobacteria) | 100.0 | KU041595 | <i>Holotrichia serrata</i> gut | - |
| 0036 | <i>Sa</i> | <i>Bacillus circulans</i> (Firmicutes) | 100.0 | LT223624 | Human stool | <i>Bacillus</i> spp. ?? = 10.5 ± 2.46 |
| 0041 | <i>Om</i> | Clone YZ19 | 100.0 | KJ457337 | Intestinal tract of three spotted seahorse | - |
| 0048 | <i>Om</i> | Clone SEVICE011 | 100.0 | JQ407962 | Horizontal subsurface flow constructed wetland treating domestic wastewaters | - |
| 0050 | <i>Sa</i> | <i>Saccharopolyspora gloriosae</i> (Actinobacteria) | 99.7 | JX007996 | Marine sponge | <i>Saccharopolyspora erythraea</i> (N=1) ?? = 1 |
| 0053 | <i>Om</i> | <i>Bacillus niabensis</i> (Firmicutes) | 100.0 | LT223631 | Human stool | <i>Bacillus</i> spp. (N=292) ?? = 10.5 ± 2.46 |
| 0054 | <i>Dl</i> | Clone C77 | 100.0 | KC633566 | Activated sludge of a full-scale wastewater treatment plant | - |
| 0058 | <i>Om</i> | <i>Acidovorax</i> sp. (β -proteobacteria) | 100.0 | KF003188 | Grass carp gut mucus | <i>Acidovorax</i> spp. (N=6) ?? = 3 ± 0.00 |
| 0063 | <i>Om</i> | <i>Chryseobacterium pallidum</i> (Flavobacteriales) | 99.6 | KU362282 | Soil | <i>Chryseobacterium</i> spp. (N=4): ?? = 6.3 ± 0.50 |
| 0073 | <i>Om</i> | <i>Brevundimonas naejangsanensis</i> (α -Proteobacteria) | 100.0 | KX223755 | Sludge of an anaerobic digestion reactor | <i>Brevundimonas</i> spp. (N=4) ?? = 2 ± 0.00 |
| 0075 | <i>Dl</i> | Clone AquaspiC | 100.0 | AY322153 | Micromanipulated cells from activated sludge | - |

| | | | | | | |
|------|-----------|-------------------------------------------------------|-------|----------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------|
| 0076 | <i>DI</i> | Clone T0-An-20C-25 | 100.0 | JX105530 | Ornamental fish aquaria | - |
| 0079 | <i>DI</i> | Clone TX2_4J13 | 92.7 | JN178241 | Extreme saline-alkaline soil of the former lake Texcoco | - |
| 0082 | <i>DI</i> | Clone BF2E04 | 100.0 | JN820212 | ferromanganese deposit | - |
| 0086 | <i>Om</i> | Clone RII-AN118 | 99.7 | JQ580497 | Sediments from Rodas Beach polluted with crude oil | - |
| 0095 | <i>Om</i> | Clone ELU0062-T425-S-NIPCRAMgANa_000345 | 99.5 | HQ768070 | <i>Homo sapiens</i> gastrointestinal specimens | - |
| 0102 | <i>DI</i> | Clone TX5A_63 | 100.0 | FJ152771 | Alkaline saline soils of the former lake Texcoco | - |
| 0137 | <i>Om</i> | <i>Hyphomicrobium</i> sp. (α -Proteobacteria) | 99.4 | FJ536930 | Waste-activated sludge from municipal waste water treatment plant | <i>Hyphomicrobium</i> spp. (N=4) ?? = 1 ± 0.00 |
| 0142 | <i>Om</i> | Clone nby369a03c1 | 100.0 | HM810474 | Back swab from shaved skin or wound of mouse deficient in the leptin receptor | - |
| 0164 | <i>Om</i> | Clone SIN1595 | 99.2 | HM126967 | Chaerhan Lake | - |
| 0177 | <i>Om</i> | Clone D32 | 99.5 | KJ808142 | Activated sludge | - |
| 0212 | <i>Om</i> | Clone ML71101eO6 | 95.6 | JN615992 | White microbial mat from lava cave wall | - |

* From Microbial Genome Resources (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genomes/MICROBES/microbial_taxtree.html) or *rrnDB* (<https://rrndb.umms.med.umich.edu/>), accessed, 31/03/2017.

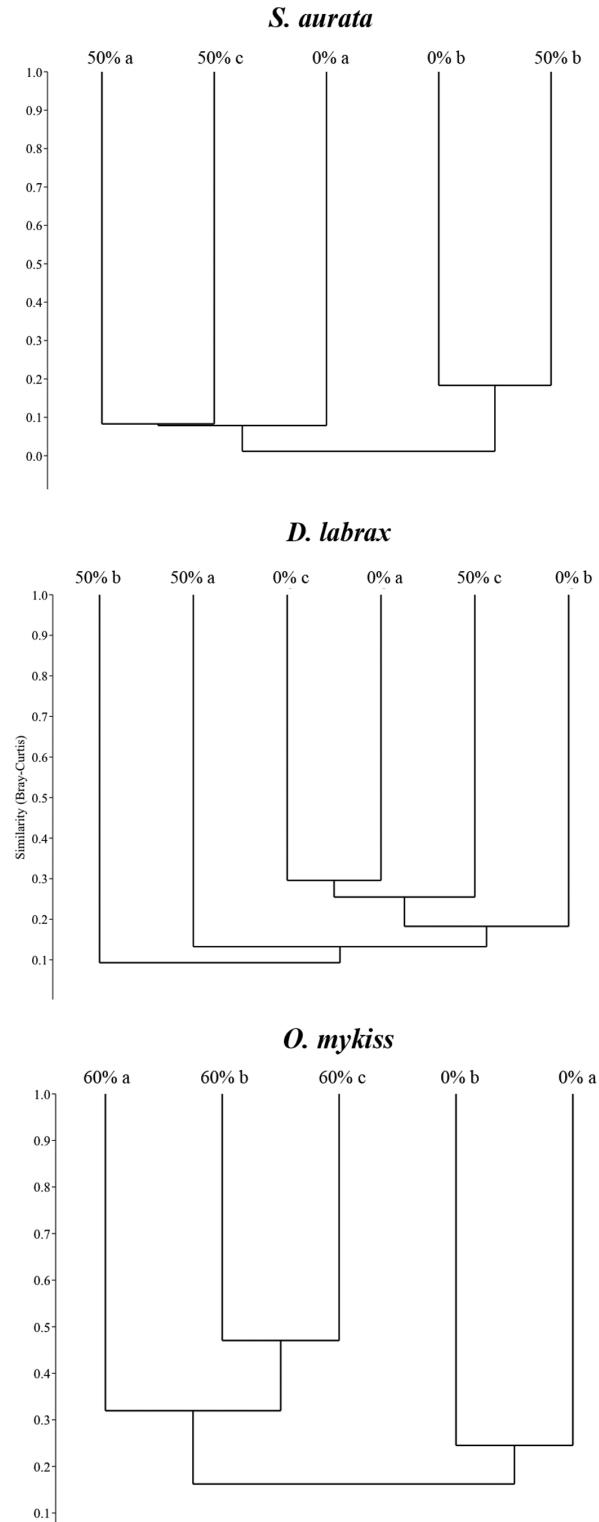


Figure S1. Percentage change of the midgut operational taxonomic units number from 0% to 50% (*Sparus aurata*, *Dicentrarchus labrax*) or 60% (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) insect meal inclusion. Rare: <1%, common: 1-10%, abundant: >10% relative abundance.

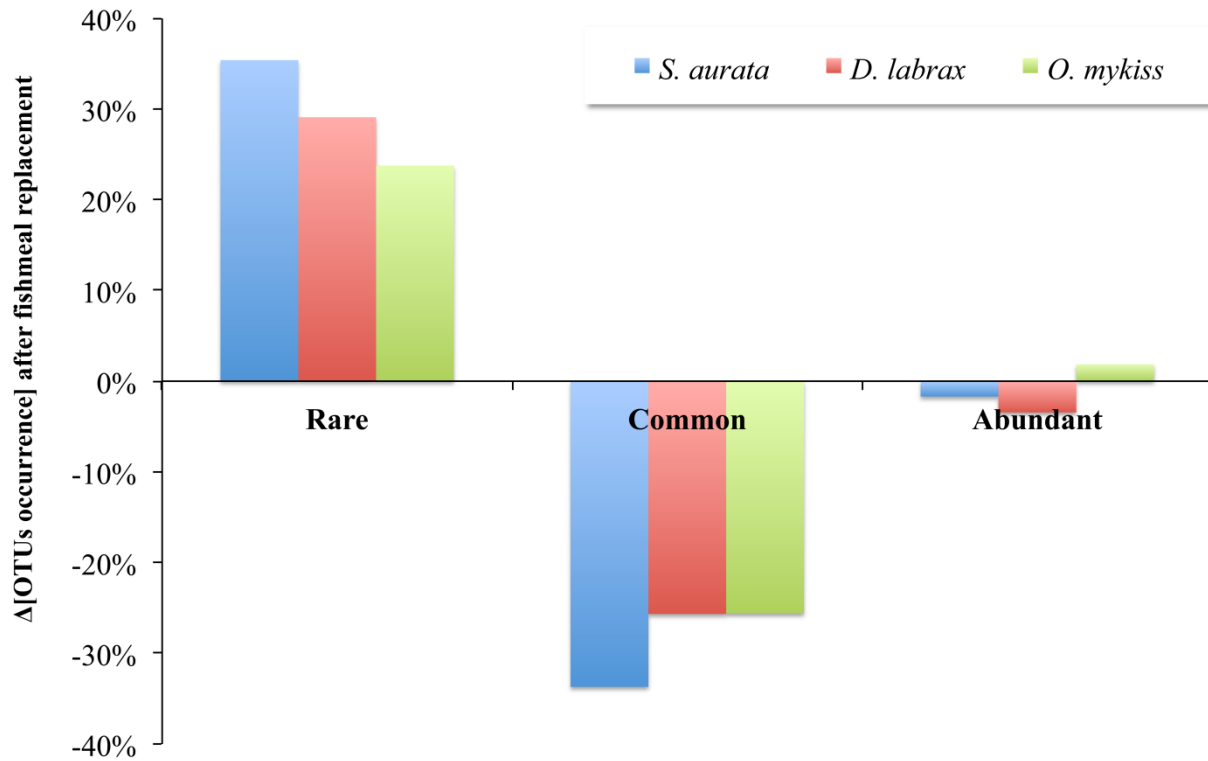


Figure S2. Cluster analysis of the operational taxonomic units relative abundance in midgut individual samples of *Sparus aurata*, *Dicentrarchus labrax* and *Oncorhynchus mykiss* after a dietary inclusion of 50% or 60% of *Tenebrio molitor* larvae meal (TM).. a, b, c: replicates.