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Abstract: Although there are several studies describing bacteria associated with marine fish, the bacterial composition associated with seahorses has not been extensively investigated as these studies have been restricted to the identification of bacterial pathogens. In this study, the phylogenetic affiliation of seahorse-associated bacteria was assessed by 16S rRNA gene sequencing of cloned DNA fragments. Fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH) was used to confirm the presence of the predominant groups indicated by 16S rRNA analysis. Both methods revealed that Vibrionaceae was the dominant population in *Artemia* sp. (live prey) and intestinal content of the seahorses, while Rhodobacteraceae was dominant in water samples from the aquaculture system and cutaneous mucus of the seahorses. To our knowledge, this is the first time that bacterial communities associated with healthy seahorses in captivity have been described.

1           **Phylogenetic characterization and in situ detection of bacterial communities**  
2                           **associated with seahorses (*Hippocampus guttulatus*) in captivity**

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**Abstract**

Although there are several studies describing bacteria associated with marine fish, the bacterial composition associated with seahorses has not been extensively investigated as these studies have been restricted to the identification of bacterial pathogens. In this study, the phylogenetic affiliation of seahorse-associated bacteria was assessed by 16S rRNA gene sequencing of cloned DNA fragments. Fluorescence *in situ* hybridization (FISH) was used to confirm the presence of the predominant groups indicated by 16S rRNA analysis. Both methods revealed that *Vibrionaceae* was the dominant population in *Artemia* sp. (live prey) and intestinal content of the seahorses, while *Rhodobacteraceae* was dominant in water samples from the aquaculture system and cutaneous mucus of the seahorses. To our knowledge, this is the first time that bacterial communities associated with healthy seahorses in captivity have been described.

**Keywords:** Seahorses; Captivity conditions; Bacterial community structure; Clone libraries; Fluorescence *in situ* hybridization.

**Short title:** Bacterial diversity in seahorses

## 51 **Introduction**

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2 52 Natural populations of many marine species have experienced drastic reductions in  
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4 53 number during the last decades, largely due to the effects of overexploitation and  
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7 54 inadequate management [19, 31, 34]. Seahorses constitute a group of marine fish, in  
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9 55 which the consequences of their exploitation and degradation have been shown [16]. All  
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11 56 seahorse species have therefore been listed on Appendix II of the Convention on  
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13 57 International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora (CITES), and  
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15 58 included on the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) Red List of  
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17 59 Threatened Species [32]. Knowledge of the biological characteristics of affected species  
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19 60 would be of major importance in conservation actions, development of breeding  
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21 61 programmes and recovery of wild populations.  
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26 62 Although there are several studies describing bacteria associated with marine fish [12,  
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28 63 28], the bacterial composition associated with seahorses has not been extensively  
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30 64 investigated as these studies have been restricted to the identification of bacterial  
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32 65 pathogens [2, 8, 53]. Fish are intimately in contact with a complex and dynamic  
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34 66 microbial world, and unlike mammals, a large fraction of these microorganisms adhere  
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36 67 to and colonize epithelial surfaces. In rare circumstances microorganisms cause disease,  
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38 68 either directly, by damaging or traversing epithelial layers, or indirectly, by inducing  
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40 69 tissue-damaging inflammatory responses [26]. Because conventional characterization of  
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42 70 microorganisms has depended on cultivation-based techniques, our understanding of the  
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44 71 microbiota composition has been restricted to those that can be cultured [7]. More  
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46 72 recently, however, the development of techniques that allow the genomic analysis of an  
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48 73 assemblage of microorganisms, including those species that cannot be cultured by  
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50 74 standard techniques, is now providing new ways to study microbial communities in  
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52 75 their natural environments. Among them, cloning and sequencing of 16S rRNA genes is  
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76 being used to explore the microbial diversity from complex samples (i.e. Elshahed et al.  
77 [20]; Hugenholtz et al. [30]; Suzuki et al. [51]). Furthermore, the development of a  
78 microscopic tool based on fluorescence *in situ* hybridization (FISH) using rRNA-  
79 targeted oligonucleotide probes can be used not only for identification of unculturable  
80 species, but also provides a powerful tool for the quantification and visualization of  
81 distribution and association of microbial populations [5].

82 In this study, we determined the bacterial community composition associated to  
83 seahorses in captivity using clone libraries of 16S rRNA genes. We also contrasted the  
84 composition of these libraries with community structure determined by FISH using  
85 oligonucleotide probes to target all relevant identified bacterial groups. It is important to  
86 point out that seahorse maintenance requires the provision of live or frozen food, such  
87 as *Artemia*, mysid shrimp and copepods [42, 43, 60]. This practice could potentially  
88 introduce pathogenic microorganisms into the production system [46]. A better  
89 understanding of the bacterial community associated with healthy seahorses is therefore  
90 required in order to identify the roles of specific bacterial groups in both diseased and  
91 healthy individuals.

## 92 **Materials and Methods**

### 93 **Captivity conditions and sample collection**

94 Healthy adult seahorses (*Hippocampus guttulatus*) were collected from the coast of  
95 Galicia (NW Spain). After the capture, they ( $n = 6$ ) were held for 1–2 years in  
96 experimental units (160 L) at 15–21 °C and fed exclusively on enriched adult *Artemia*  
97 sp. (EG<sup>®</sup> Type, INVE Aquaculture, Baasrode, Belgium) according to a protocol  
98 previously described [43]. Briefly, the seahorses were fed twice daily at 09:30–10:30h  
99 and 16:00–18:00h, depending on the photoperiod regime. Food levels were adjusted  
100 daily (60–150 *Artemia*/seahorse) according to the season/temperature and to visual

101 observations of *Artemia* remaining in the experimental units from the previous day.  
102 Adult *Artemia* (length > 5.5 mm; 15–25 days old) were enriched with microalgae  
103 *Isochrysis galbana* and lyophilized *Spirulina* and Prolon<sup>®</sup> (INVE Aquaculture). A  
104 commercial product ACE<sup>®</sup> (INVE Aquaculture) was also added to reduce the bacterial  
105 load according to the manufacturer's instructions.

106 Four different types of samples (intestinal content and cutaneous mucus of the  
107 seahorses, *Artemia* sp. [1.0 g], and seawater of the aquaculture system [1.0 L]) were  
108 collected when seahorses were kept at 17 °C. All samples were analyzed to compare the  
109 community composition of bacterial assemblages as revealed by 16S rRNA cloning and  
110 sequencing and FISH.

#### 111 **PCR and cloning**

112 The four samples were centrifuged at 10,000 × g for 15 min and genomic DNA was  
113 extracted using the phenol-chloroform method [39]. 16S rRNA genes were amplified  
114 from total genomic DNA by PCR using general bacterial primers (27F, 5'- AGA GTT  
115 TGA TCM TGG CTC AG-3'; 1522R, 5'-AAG GAG GTG ATC CAN CCR CA-3')  
116 [24]. In a final volume of 25 µl, reaction mixtures contained 1× PCR buffer, 0.2 mM  
117 each dNTP's, 2.0 mM MgSO<sub>4</sub>, primers (0.2 µM each), 10 ng of template, and 0.025 U  
118 of Platinum *Taq* High Fidelity enzyme (Invitrogen). All reactions were conducted in a  
119 DNA thermal cycler (GeneAmp PCR System 2700; Applied Biosystems), programmed  
120 with an initial 3 min enzyme activation step at 95 °C, and 30 cycles of 1 min at 95 °C, 1  
121 min at 55 °C, and 1.5 min at 72 °C. A reconditioning step was conducted in order to  
122 reduce heteroduplex formation during PCR [56]. Briefly, 2.5 µl of PCR product from  
123 the first 30-cycle PCR was mixed with 22.5 µl of the same PCR cocktail used for the  
124 original PCR and the reactions were run after 3 min enzyme activation at 94 °C  
125 followed by 3 cycles as above, and one hold at 72 °C for 10 min. The amplified

126 products were purified and concentrated with the UltraClean purification kit (Mo Bio,  
127 Inc.), ligated into a TOPO TA cloning vector (Invitrogen, San Diego, CA), and  
128 electrotransformed into competent *Escherichia coli* cells according to the  
129 manufacturer's instructions. The transformed cells were spread onto Luria-Bertani  
130 plates containing 50  $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$  kanamycin and treated with 40  $\text{mg ml}^{-1}$  X-gal. Plates were  
131 incubated overnight at 37 °C. White colonies were picked into 96-well microtiter plates  
132 containing selective Luria-Bertani media and incubated for 18h at 37 °C. Sterile  
133 glycerol (15% final concentration) was added to each well, and the clones were stored at  
134 -80 °C until further processing. For each library, six replicates were pooled prior to  
135 cloning in order to minimise PCR bias and sample variation. Library clones were  
136 screened by *Hae*III RFLP analysis of 16S rRNA sequences as described previously  
137 [52].

#### 138 **Sequencing and phylogenetic analysis**

139 All clones that had unique RFLP patterns were sequenced by the dideoxynucleotide-  
140 termination reaction using the Big Dye v3.1 kit (Applied Biosystems). Clone sequences  
141 were checked for chimeras by CHIMERA\_CHECK [15]. Sequences from this study and  
142 reference sequences, as determined by BLAST [3] and Eztaxon [14] analyses, were  
143 subsequently aligned using the Fast Aligner algorithm in the ARB package [36]. All  
144 alignments were then visually verified and adjusted by hand according to the *E. coli*  
145 SSU rRNA secondary structure. Sequences from randomly chosen clones were  
146 compared and high similarity (equal to or greater than 98.5%) was observed. Therefore,  
147 sequences showing more than 98.5% similarity were considered to belong to the same  
148 operational taxonomic unit. Neighbor-joining trees incorporating a Jukes-Cantor  
149 distance correction were created from the alignments using the ARB software package  
150 [36]. Clone library coverage was calculated according to Singleton et al. [50], and

151 differences between clone libraries were statistically compared using J-LIBSHUFF  
152 [48]. J-LIBSHUFF uses distance matrices (in this case, Jukes-Cantor matrices) to  
153 estimate the coverage values for the clone libraries being compared over a range of  
154 taxonomic levels, enabling detection of significantly different microbial communities  
155 defined by nonoverlapping coverage. Randomizations (10,000) were run to determine  
156 the significance ( $P = 0.05$ ) of overlapping coverage after correction for multiple  
157 pairwise comparisons using the Bonferroni method.

## 158 FISH

159 Freshly sampled portions from the four original samples (intestinal content and  
160 cutaneous mucus of the seahorses, *Artemia* sp., and seawater of the aquaculture system)  
161 were centrifuged and fixed with 4% (wt/vol) paraformaldehyde for 3 h as described by  
162 Manz et al. [38]. Fixed samples were transferred to slides (Marienfeld Laboratory  
163 Glassware, Germany) and air-dried overnight before dehydration by sequential washes  
164 in 50, 80, and 100% (vol/vol) ethanol for 3 min each. The oligonucleotide probes were  
165 synthesized and directly labelled with Cy3 and Cy5 or with FluosPrime (5,6-  
166 carboxyfluorescein-*N*-hydroxysuccinimide ester), all of which were purchased from  
167 Thermo Electron GmbH (Ulm, Germany). Sequences and optimal hybridization  
168 conditions for probes used are listed in Table 1. Samples were then mounted with  
169 Citifluor AF1 (Citifluor Ltd, UK) prior to microscopic observation, and image analysis  
170 was conducted on a Zeiss LSM 510 confocal laser-scanning microscope (Carl Zeiss,  
171 Oberkochen, Germany) with the Zeiss Image Browser software. Different controls were  
172 employed to ensure the reliability of the obtained probe signals, such as the nonEUB338  
173 probe, DAPI, hybridization without probes, and appropriate reference strains as positive  
174 as well as negative controls as described by Lee et al. [35]. Means were calculated from  
175 10 randomly chosen fields on each filter section, corresponding from 600 to 800 DAPI-



176 stained cells. Concerning statistical analysis, we used nonparametric methods such as  
177 the Mann-Whitney U test.

## 178 **Results**

### 179 **Bacterial diversity indicated by 16S rRNA gene analysis**

180 PCR amplification of 16S rRNA genes from total DNA isolated from all four samples  
181 (intestinal content and cutaneous mucus of the seahorses, *Artemia* sp., and seawater of  
182 the aquaculture system) using 16S rRNA primers specific for bacteria yielded a band of  
183 the expected size of 1.5 kb. Combined PCR products were cloned into the vector  
184 pCR2.1-TOPO, yielding approximately 200 independent clones in each library. Ninety-  
185 eight of these clones from each library were analyzed and grouped by amplified  
186 ribosomal DNA restriction analysis. In total, 108 independent clones were sequenced  
187 and subjected to phylogenetic analysis. The statistical comparison showed significant  
188 differences in the composition of libraries between the cutaneous mucus and water  
189 samples ( $P = 0.001$ ). Similar results were obtained when the intestinal content and  
190 *Artemia* sp. samples were compared with cutaneous mucus ( $P = 0.001$ ) or water  
191 samples ( $P = 0.001$ ), but not between *Artemia* sp. and intestinal contents ( $P = 1.07$ ).

192 Clone libraries of 16S rRNA genes amplified from *Artemia* sp. and intestinal contents  
193 showed a high number of sequences affiliated to the class *Gammaproteobacteria*,  
194 ranging from 75.4 to 79.4 % of the clones analyzed (Figure 1). The predominant  
195 sequences were affiliated with the family *Vibrionaceae* and comprised from 44.2 to  
196 49.7 % of the total abundance. Clones belonging to *Actinobacteria* (3.6–7.7 %),  
197 *Alphaproteobacteria* (5.5–7.2 %), *Bacteroidetes* (4.4–7.2 %) and *Betaproteobacteria*  
198 (2.2–6.0 %) were also found in both samples.

199 The *Alphaproteobacteria* group was found to be the dominant bacterial population in  
200 cutaneous mucus and water samples. The abundance of *Alphaproteobacteria*,

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201 particularly represented by sequences of the family *Rhodobacteraceae*, in the clone  
202 libraries of both samples ranged from 53.7 to 61.3 % (Figure 2). Clones belonging to  
203 the *Gammaproteobacteria* group were also found (16.8–24.1%), followed by  
204 *Bacteroidetes* (9.6–11.0 %), *Actinobacteria* (6.0–7.2 %) and *Betaproteobacteria* (4.8–  
205 4.9 %).

## 206 **FISH analysis**

207 Most of the bacteria visualized with DAPI staining ( $92.8 \pm 0.4$ ) were detectable with the  
208 EUB338 probe specific for *Bacteria*. The background signal of samples, observed with  
209 the probe NON338, was negligible ( $< 0.1\%$ ).

210 FISH with several group-specific probes confirmed the general community structure  
211 indicated by 16S rRNA gene analysis of the bacterial clone libraries. Counts made with  
212 the GAM42a probe revealed that the *Gammaproteobacteria* was dominant in *Artemia*  
213 sp. (54.7 %) and intestinal content of *H. guttulatus* (64.2 %), especially members of the  
214 family *Vibrionaceae* as indicated by hybridization with the GV probe (Table 2). The  
215 *Betaproteobacteria* represented the second major phylogenetic group in *Artemia* sp. and  
216 intestinal content samples, while other groups such as *Alphaproteobacteria*,  
217 *Actinobacteria* and *Bacteroidetes* were less abundant (Table 2).

218 Quantification by FISH using the ALF968 probe, which targets most of the  
219 *Alphaproteobacteria*, showed that this group was prevalent in the seawater samples and  
220 cutaneous mucus, ranging from 56.8 to 59.7 %, respectively (Table 3). Members of  
221 other phylogenetic groups such as *Betaproteobacteria*, *Gammaproteobacteria*,  
222 *Actinobacteria* and *Bacteroidetes* were also detected in the water samples and cutaneous  
223 mucus but in lower proportions (Table 2).

## 224 **Discussion**

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225 The genus *Vibrio* is one of the most common and widely distributed groups of marine  
226 bacteria [40, 54, 55]. Although *Artemia* sp. cysts have been found to contain few  
227 bacteria [17], the bacterial load, particularly *Vibrionaceae* levels, may thus drastically  
228 increase in *Artemia* sp. nauplii if *Vibrionaceae* species are present in the surrounding  
229 water or/and in the enrichment medium. This suggests that *Vibrionaceae* species were  
230 present in the seawater and thus colonize *Artemia* sp. after hatching. In the present  
231 study, the 16S rRNA gene clone libraries from *Artemia* sp. and intestinal contents of *H.*  
232 *guttulatus* showed a high number of sequences affiliated to *Vibrionaceae* (Fig. 1).  
233 Statistical comparison did not reveal significant differences between the clone libraries  
234 from these sources. These observations indicate thus that *Artemia* sp. may have a strong  
235 influence on the bacterial community structure in the intestinal content of *H. guttulatus*.  
236 The most abundant clones found in both sources were closely related to the species  
237 *Vibrio splendidus* and *Vibrio cyclitrophicus*. The FISH analysis also revealed that  
238 *Vibrionaceae* were the dominant bacterial population in *Artemia* sp. and intestinal  
239 content, ranging from 45.8 to 48.5 %, respectively (Table 2). *Vibrio splendidus* and *V.*  
240 *cyclitrophicus* are ubiquitous microorganisms in seawater and have been frequently  
241 isolated from marine fish and invertebrates [10, 54]. However, some studies have  
242 suggested that these species are pathogenic to several marine organisms [18, 27, 40, 45,  
243 57].  
244 The 16S rRNA gene clone libraries from the seawater samples and cutaneous mucus  
245 showed a high number of sequences affiliated to *Rhodobacteraceae* (Fig. 2). However,  
246 statistical comparison showed significant differences in the composition of libraries  
247 between the two samples. The most abundant clones in the water sample were closely  
248 related to the genera *Antarctobacter*, *Nereida* and *Phaeobacter*, while the genera  
249 *Phaeobacter* and *Ruegeria* were dominant in the cutaneous mucus. Microscopic

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250 enumeration of bacteria hybridized with specific probes also revealed a community  
251 dominated by *Rhodobacteraceae* (GRb probe) in both samples, ranging from 51.0 to  
252 52.1 % (Table 2). Members of the family *Rhodobacteraceae*, particularly the genus  
253 *Roseobacter*, are ubiquitous in marine environments and have been found to produce  
254 antibacterial compounds against several species, including members of the family  
255 *Vibrionaceae* [9, 11, 58]. These properties could explain their dominance as they may  
256 compete with other microorganisms for space and essential nutrients in the culture  
257 system.

258 Several studies have found a close correspondence between clone library composition  
259 and in situ community composition determined by FISH [13, 49]. However, our study  
260 suggests that clone libraries of 16S rRNA genes amplified using general bacterial  
261 primers overestimates the relative abundance of *Gammaproteobacteria* (clone libraries,  
262 16.8-79.4%; FISH, 5.2-64.2%) and underestimates the *Betaproteobacteria* group (clone  
263 libraries, 2.2-6.0%; FISH, 13.3-22.1%), when we compare with the results obtained by  
264 FISH. Factors such as cloning biases [1], variation in genome size [21, 23], rRNA gene  
265 copy number [33] and ribosome content [22], could have resulted in larger differences  
266 than we observed between clone libraries and the community structure determined by  
267 FISH. For example, a computer search using the Ribosomal RNA Operon Copy  
268 Number Database [33] revealed that the 222 members of the *Gammaproteobacteria*  
269 group that have been examined average 5.75 copies of the rRNA operon, while the 60  
270 *Betaproteobacteria* have only 3.90 copies on average. Based on these data, we would  
271 expect the *Betaproteobacteria* group to be underrepresented in clone libraries.

272 In summary, molecular analysis of bacterial community composition detected by both  
273 methods (clone libraries and FISH) in *Artemia* sp. and intestinal content of seahorses  
274 showed that the dominant population appeared to be *Vibrionaceae*. Because this family

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275 has been frequently associated with disease in several aquatic organisms, the  
276 information obtained here on their abundance is significant. The dominance of  
277 *Rhodobacteraceae* in the cutaneous mucus and water samples analyzed in this study is  
278 also important since several species of this family have exhibited potential probiotic  
279 properties [29, 44]. Therefore, further studies may benefit from these molecular  
280 approaches that determine which phylogenetic groups of bacteria dominate in the  
281 associated microbiota, as specific groups may play substantial roles in normal and  
282 perturbed host physiological states.

283

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293

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497 **Table 1.** Sequences of oligonucleotide probes used for FISH

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499 **Table 2.** Quantification of various phylogenetic groups by FISH

500

501 **Figure 1.** Phylogenetic trees based on comparative analysis of 16S rRNA genes  
502 (approximately 1400 bp) from selected clones affiliated to the *Betaproteobacteria* and  
503 *Gammaproteobacteria*. Clones from the intestinal content, cutaneous mucus, *Artemia*  
504 sp. and seawater were designated as IC, CM, ART or W. The number of clones in the  
505 corresponding RFLP group is shown in square brackets. Selected sequences from the  
506 phylum of *Thermotogae* were used to root the trees. The scale bar represents nucleotide  
507 substitutions. The nucleotide sequences derived from this study have been deposited in  
508 the GenBank/EMBL/DDBJ databases under accession numbers FM878642-FM878657,  
509 FM882248, FM958451-FM958470, FN582312-FN582328.

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511

512 **Figure 1.** Phylogenetic trees based on comparative analysis of 16S rRNA genes  
513 (approximately 1400 bp) from selected clones affiliated to the *Alphaproteobacteria*,  
514 *Actinobacteria* and *Bacteroidetes*. Clones from the intestinal content, cutaneous mucus,  
515 *Artemia* sp. and seawater were designated as IC, CM, ART or W. The number of clones  
516 in the corresponding RFLP group is shown in square brackets. Selected sequences from  
517 the phylum of *Thermotogae* were used to root the trees. The scale bar represents  
518 nucleotide substitutions. The nucleotide sequences derived from this study have been  
519 deposited in the GenBank/EMBL/DDBJ databases under accession numbers  
520 FM878642-FM878657, FM882248, FM958451-FM958470, FN582312-FN582328.

**Table 1**

Probe	Sequence (5'-3')	rRNA target site (position)	Specificity	Group coverage (%)	% FA <sup>c</sup>	Reference
EUB338	GCTGCCTCCCGTAGGAGT	16S (338-355)	Domain <i>Bacteria</i>	92 <sup>a</sup>	35	Amann <i>et al.</i> [6]
NON338	ACTCTACGGGAGGCAGC	16S (338-355)	Complementary to EUB338	<0.01 <sup>a</sup>	0	Wallner <i>et al.</i> [59]
HGC69a	TATAGTTACCACCGCCGT	23S (1901-1918)	<i>Actinobacteria</i>	93 <sup>b</sup>	25	Roller <i>et al.</i> [47]
ALF968	GGTAAAGTTCTGCGCGTT	16S (968-986)	<i>Alphaproteobacteria</i>	79 <sup>a</sup>	35	Neef <i>et al.</i> [41]
BET42a	GCCTTCCCACCTTCGTTT	23S (1027-1043)	<i>Betaproteobacteria</i>	86 <sup>b</sup>	35	Manz <i>et al.</i> [38]
GAM42a	GCCTTCCCACATCGTTT	23S (1027-1043)	<i>Gammaproteobacteria</i>	76 <sup>b</sup>	35	Manz <i>et al.</i> [38]
CF319a	TGGTCCGTGTCTCAGTAC	16S (319-336)	<i>Bacteroidetes</i>	43 <sup>a</sup>	35	Manz <i>et al.</i> [37]
GV	AGGCCACAACCCTCCAAAGTAG	16S (841-822)	<i>Vibrio</i>	84 <sup>a</sup>	30	Giuliano <i>et al.</i> [25]
GRb	GTCAGTATCGAGCCAGTGAG	16S (645-626)	<i>Rhodobacteraceae</i>	68 <sup>a</sup>	30	Giuliano <i>et al.</i> [25]

<sup>a</sup> The probe specificity was carried out using the PROBE MATCH tool of the Ribosomal Database Project.

<sup>b</sup> Data obtained from Amman and Fuchs [4].

<sup>c</sup> Values represent percent formamide in the hybridization buffer.

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528 **Table 2**

Group	Fraction (%) of total cells (mean $\pm$ SD) detected with probe <sup>a</sup>			
	Intestinal content	<i>Artemia</i>	Cutaneous mucus	Water
<i>Actinobacteria</i>	5.81 $\pm$ 1.10	2.36 $\pm$ 1.41	6.40 $\pm$ 0.59	4.61 $\pm$ 1.83
<i>Alphaproteobacteria</i>	7.40 $\pm$ 1.26	7.83 $\pm$ 4.25	59.72 $\pm$ 2.86	56.82 $\pm$ 7.60
<i>Betaproteobacteria</i>	13.28 $\pm$ 0.51	22.14 $\pm$ 7.81	16.89 $\pm$ 1.56	14.45 $\pm$ 3.95
<i>Gammaproteobacteria</i>	64.23 $\pm$ 3.79	54.72 $\pm$ 10.88	5.16 $\pm$ 1.29	8.04 $\pm$ 2.90
<i>Bacteroidetes</i>	2.07 $\pm$ 0.46	5.80 $\pm$ 3.57	5.11 $\pm$ 1.03	8.37 $\pm$ 1.87
<i>Rhodobacteraceae</i>	6.71 $\pm$ 0.94	7.45 $\pm$ 4.81	52.12 $\pm$ 9.23	50.98 $\pm$ 10.49
<i>Vibrionaceae</i>	48.46 $\pm$ 5.40	45.75 $\pm$ 12.88	4.39 $\pm$ 1.25	6.08 $\pm$ 2.02
Bacteria	92.79 $\pm$ 7.05	92.85 $\pm$ 6.31	93.28 $\pm$ 7.23	92.29 $\pm$ 7.66

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530 <sup>a</sup>Percent detection compared to DAPI. Numbers were corrected by subtracting NON338

531 counts.

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Figure 1  
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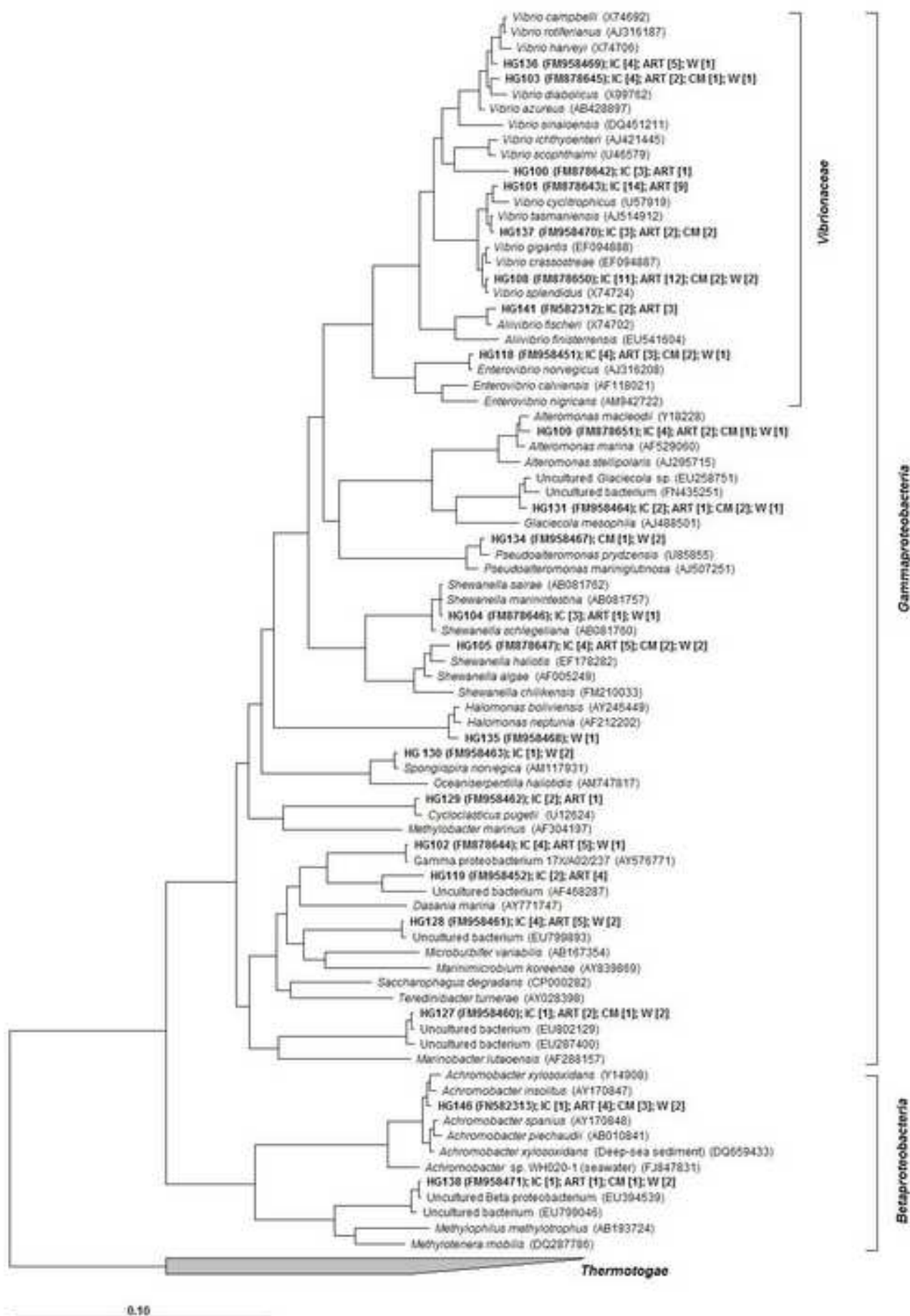


Figure 2  
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