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Full Length Article

Changes in Intestinal Microflora of *Cynoglossus semilaevis* Günther Following *Shewanella algae* Infection

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Abstract

The intestinal microbial communities of *Cynoglossus semilaevis* were studied using high-throughput sequencing of 16S ribosomal RNA gene after infection with the pathogenic *Shewanella algae*. A total of 964881 effective tags were obtained and assigned to 4308 OTUs based on a 97% similarity cut-off. The group at 3 days post infection (dpi) had significantly higher number of OTUs and alpha diversity indexes than other groups. Proteobacteria, Spirochaetes, Bacteroidetes and Firmicutes were found to be dominant in the intestines of both infected and uninfected fish. There were no significant differences for the relative abundances of Proteobacteria and Bacteroidetes among all groups. The relative abundance of the Spirochaetes was higher in 1 dpi and 4 dpi than that in the control, 2 dpi, and 3 dpi. Firmicutes was more in 3 dpi than other groups. At genus level, *Shewanella, Vibrio, Brevinema, Phaeodactylibacter* and *Halomonas* were dominant taxa in all samples. *Shewanella* in 2 dpi was more than that in 3 dpi and had similar abundance compared with the control, 1 dpi, and 4 dpi. *Brevinema* had lower relative abundances in the control, 2 dpi, and 3 dpi compared with 1 dpi and 4 dpi. *Halomonas* in the control was more than that in all the infection groups. *Vibrio* and Phaeodactylibacter had similar relative abundances among all groups. The weighted unifrac principal coordinate and hierarchical clustering analysis revealed that samples of 1 dpi and 4 dpi groups formed a distinct cluster, while the samples from the control and 2 dpi groups were more similar. © 2018 Friends Science Publishers

Keywords: Intestinal microflora; Cynoglossus semilaevis; Shewanella algae; Infection

Introduction

Gut microbiota have many key functions for the host health, and they may be considered as an integral component of the host (Sugita et al., 1997). As for the fish, gut microbiota are also important for the physiological functions (Ganguly and Prasad, 2011). However, many opportunistic pathogens exist in the gut of fish, and this indicates that gut is a potential pathway for pathogen invasion (Li et al., 2016). Some studies have been performed on gut microbiota in the healthy fish. Recently, some suggested changes of microbiota in the intestine of fish can influence host immune functions (Brown et al., 2012; Morgan et al., 2012). Herein, it is necessary to investigate the intestinal microbial diversity and community structure of the infected fish. This may benefit to learning more about the pathogenesis. However, there are only few studies on the gut microbiota in the diseased or infected fish by using next generation sequencing (Li et al., 2016).

The half-smooth tongue sole *Cynoglossus semilaevis* Günther has increasingly become a commercially important aquaculture species in China, due to its high market value (Wang *et al.*, 2018). Recently, after the industrial

high-density culture mode was applied for *C. semilaevis*, infectious diseases often happened and caused a high mortality. Some bacterial species, including *Vibrio aestuarianus* (Zhang *et al.*, 2011), *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* (Hu *et al.*, 2014), *Aeromonas salmonicida* (Zhou *et al.*, 2017) have been identified as the pathogens of *C. semilaevis*. In our lab, a pathogenic *Shewanella algae* CSG-15 strain was recently reported. This pathogen caused the disease of *C. semilaevis* with classical symptoms of ascitic fluid, and could elicit the acute infection with obvious clinic and histopathological signs occurring in the intestines of the infected fish (Han *et al.*, 2017). In this study, the intestinal microbial communities of *C. semilaevis* were studied based on high-throughput sequencing of 16S ribosomal RNA gene after infection with the pathogenic *S. algae* strain.

Materials and Methods

Fish Husbandry

Healthy *C. semilaevis* (average weight: 130 ± 5 g; average length: 29 ± 2 cm) were purchased from a commercial fish farm in Tianjin, China, and acclimatized for two weeks in

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20°C sea water with 22 salinity. Constant aeration was provided and commercial diets were fed twice a day at 10:00 a.m. and 17:00 p.m. at the rate of 1% body weight throughout the experiment. Five fish were randomly selected for pathogen examination, and no bacteria were detected from the livers of the fish.

Bacteria Culture and Experimental Infection

The Shewanella algae CSG-15 strain was cultured, and then collected according previous report of Han *et al.* (2017). The bacterial suspension with a concentration of 1.0×10^8 CFU/mL was obtained by dilution with 0.9% physiological saline.

Each fish for the pathogen infection was injected intraperitoneally with the bacterial suspension at a dose of 200 µL. Injection with equal volume physiological saline was used for the control group (CG). Feces and mucosa were collected from the fish in the infection and control groups. Thirty six fish were used for infection and 9 fish were used for the control. Feces and mucosa from three individuals at 1, 2, 3, 4 days post infection (dpi), or the CG were pooled together to avoid bias, respectively. All the samples were in triplicate and kept at -80°C until use. The samples from the infection groups and the control group were performed for DNA extraction. All the sample names were provided in Table 1. After euthanization with an overdose of MS-222 (Sigma Aldrich, St Louis, MO, USA), all fish were sacrificed for sample collection.

DNA Extraction and High-Throughput Illumina HiSeq Sequencing

QIAamp Fast DNA Stool Mini Kit (Qiagen, Germany) was used for the genome DNA extraction according to the manufacture's protocol. To analyze microbial populations of the extracted DNA samples, amplification of variable region V3-V4 of 16S ribosomal RNA gene was performed bacterial universal primers using the 515F: 5'-GTGCCAGCMGCCGCGGTAA-3' and 806R: 5'-GGACTACHVGGGTWTCTAAT-3' (Xiong et al., 2015). A 6-bp barcode sequence adjacent to the forward primer was used to uniquely distinguish each DNA sample. Each PCR reaction was performed as described before (Jia et al., 2016). Agarose gel electrophoresis was used to detect the PCR products, which was then recycled with QIAquick® Gel Extraction Kit (Qiagen, Germany). TruSeq® DNA PCR-Free Sample Preparation Kit (Illumina, USA) was used to construct the DNA libraries. A Qubit1 2.0 Fluorometer (Invitrogen, USA) was used for quantification. Finally, all the samples were sequenced on an Illumina HiSeq platform.

Bioinformatics and Statistics Analysis

The resulting sequences were acquired and recognized as

the raw tags after the barcode and primer sequences were filtered. QIIME was used to assemble these raw tags according the previous report of Caporaso et al. (2010). FLASH V1.2.7 was used to merge the split sequences for each sample according to the description of Magoč and Salzberg (2011). High-quality effective tags were obtained after the low-quality and chimaera sequences were excluded by using QIIME and UCHIME algorithm, respectively (Edgar et al., 2011). Uparse software was used to cluster these effective tags, and tags with 97% similarity were classified in to one operational taxonomic unit (OTU) according to the method of Edgar (2013). The SILVA SSU database was used for sequence analysis. A representative sequence was selected and annotated for its taxonomic information. At phylum, class, order, family, and genus levels, the taxon abundance of each sample was acquired. Greengenes database was used to compare the sequences for the taxonomy assignment of OTUs. Chao1, Shannon and ACE indexes were included in alpha diversity analysis using QIME. Weighted unifrac metric distances were used to determine beta diversity index, and the distance tree based on Unweighted Pair-group Method with Arithmetic Mean (UPGMA) was used to examine the relationship of the community structures of the microbiota from the different samples. The differences in the samples were compared based on the principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) using weighted uniFrac metric matrices.

The data were analyzed using SPSS 16.0 (IBM; www.ibm.com). Differences in the alpha diversity indexes of the community, OTU-based analysis and taxon abundances were assessed using one-way ANOVA with Duncan's test. Significant difference was accepted if P-value was less than 0.05.

Results

OTUs and Alpha-diversity Analysis

A total of 964881 effective tags were obtained after quality control and chimaera removal for all the samples, with a mean of 64324 tags for each sample. The 1 dpi-1 sample had the minimum effective tags (32107), while the 3 dpi-3 sample had the maximum (93044) (Table 1). These sequences were classed into 4308 OTUs based on a 97% similarity cut-off. The average of OTUs for the control, 1 dpi, 2 dpi, 3 dpi, and 4 dpi groups was 1169, 1633, 1942, 3099 and 1780, respectively, and 133, 233, 350, 930 and 157 OUTs were unique to each group, respectively. While total 461 OUTs were shared by all groups (Fig. 1). The average of Shannon index was 3.3, 4.0, 4.2, 6.9 and 4.2 for the control, 1 dpi, 2 dpi, 3 dpi, and 4 dpi group, respectively. The average of ACE was 933.0, 1197, 1329.9, 2436.7 and 1403.4, while the average of Chao1 was 879.5, 1155, 1256.1, 2319.3 and 1308.5 for each group respectively. The number of OTUs, Shannon, ACE and Chao1 indexes in the 3 dpi group were higher than other groups (P<0.05; Table 1).

Sample name	Group name	Effective tags	OTUs	Number of OTUs	ACE	Average of ACE	Chao1	Average of Chao1	Shannon	Average of Shannon
CG-1	CG	68073	868	1169 ^a	861.0	933.0 ^a	796.8	879.5 ^a	2.8	3.3ª
CG-2		65289	954		976.6		948.8		3.3	
CG-3		66537	948		961.4		892.7		3.9	
1 dpi -1	1 dpi	58903	1456	1633 ^a	1634.5	1197 ^a	1576.2	1155.5 ^a	5.1	4.0 ^a
1 dpi -2		63632	855		838.2		774.0		3.0	
1 dpi -3		62098	991		1118.4		1116.4		3.8	
2 dpi -1	2 dpi	70060	1154	1942 ^a	1126.2	1329.9 ^a	1035.8	1256.1 ^a	2.8	4.2 ^a
2 dpi -2		56931	1339		1557.8		1485.2		5.1	
2 dpi -3		65579	1312		1305.7		1247.3		4.7	
3 dpi -1	3 dpi	32107	2036	3099 ^ь	1924.7	2436.7 ^b	1846.3	2319.3 ^b	8.2	6.9 ^b
3 dpi -2		90599	2633		2952.5		2860.1		5.8	
3 dpi -3		45503	2303		2433.0		2251.6		6.7	
4 dpi -1	4 dpi	67903	1293	1780 ^a	1237.4	1403.4 ^a	1165.9	1308.5 ^a	4.7	4.2 ^a
4 dpi -2		58623	699		811.6		718		3.0	
4 dpi -3		93044	1940		2161.2		2041.6		4.9	

Table 1: Alpha-diversity indexes, the numbers of OTUs and effective tags for the bacterial community

Note: Different lower case superscript letters in the same column indicated significant difference among the different groups (P < 0.05)



Fig. 1: Venn Diagram of OTUs from all the groups. Total 4308 OTUs were identified in 5 group; 1169, 1633, 1942, 3099, 1780 OTUs were found in CG, 1 dpi, 2 dpi, 3 dpi and 4 dpi, respectively; 461 OUTs were shared by all groups and 133, 233, 350, 930 and 157 were unique in CG, 1 dpi, 2 dpi, 3 dpi and 4 dpi, respectively

Microbial Community Composition

To investigate bacterial community structure succession after infection, all valid sequences were analyzed. At phylum level (Fig. 2a), more than 90% of the sequences in all the samples were found dominated by four bacterial phyla, which were identified as Proteobacteria, Spirochaetes, Bacteroidetes and Firmicutes. In all the samples, Proteobacteria was the most predominant phylum. There were no significant differences for the relative abundances of Proteobacteria and Bacteroidetes among 1, 2, 3, 4 dpi and CG (P>0.05). The relative abundance of the Spirochaetes was higher in 1 dpi and 4 dpi than that in CG,



Fig. 2: Relative abundance of the dominant bacteria in the intestine of *Cynoglossus semilaevis*. (a): At phylum level, Proteobacteria, Spirochaetes, Bacteroidetes and Firmicutes were the dominant phyla in all groups; (b): At genus level, *Shewanella, Vibrio, Brevinema, Phaeodactylibacter, Halomonas* were identified as the major bacterial taxa in all groups. The difference letters on the bar chart indicated significant difference among the different groups at P< 0.05 level

2 dpi, and 3 dpi (P<0.05). The relative abundance of Firmicutes was significantly higher in 3 dpi than other groups (P<0.05).

At genus level (Fig. 2b), *Shewanella*, *Vibrio*, *Brevinema*, *Phaeodactylibacter* and *Halomonas* were found to be the dominated bacterial taxa in all samples.

Shewanella in 2 dpi was more than that in 3 dpi (P<0.05) and had similar abundance compared with CG, 1 dpi, and 4 dpi (P>0.05). Brevinema had lower relative abundances in CG, 2 dpi, and 3 dpi compared with 1 dpi and 4 dpi (P<0.05). Halomonas in CG was more than that in all the infection groups (P<0.05). Vibrio and Phaeodactylibacter had similar relative abundances among the five groups (P>0.05).

Species taxonomy tree was structured on a basic of genera with the top 10 relative abundance (Fig. 3). Total 17 species of Bacteroides were detected, B. eggerthii, B. fragilis, B. graminisolvens, B. intestinalis, B. pyogenes, B. sp. C13EG172, and B. propionicifaciens were enriched in 2 dpi; B. barnesiae, B. caccae, B. coprocola, B. coprophilus, B. ovatus, B. plebeius, B. stercoris, B. uniformis, and B. vulgatus were found in 4 dpi; B. paurosaccharolyticus was only detected in 3 dpi. Both P. sp._GYP20 and bacterium_KD52 of Phaeodactylibacter had similar relative abundance among the five groups. At the same time, A. butzleri and A. skirrowii of Arcobacter were observed only in 3 dpi. In addition, *Halomonas_phosphatis* belonging Candidatus to Halomonas was enriched in 1 dpi. Only A. ursingii of Acinetobacter was observed in all groups with similar abundance. Total eight species of Pseudomonas were detected, Pseudomonadaceae_bacterium_X2, P. caeni, P. pertucinogena and P. psychrotolerans were only found in 3 dpi; P. balearica and P. peli were enriched in 3 dpi; P. fulva was detected in all samples and P. pachastrella was not identified only in CG. Shewanella, Brachymonas, Vibrio and Brevinema were not identified to the species level.

Beta-diversity Analysis

According to weighted unifrac PCoA (Fig. 4), the samples of CG and 2 dpi, the samples of 1 dpi and 4 dpi and the samples of 3 dpi were respectively grouped into three distinct clusters based on PC1 and PC2 analysis (40.12% and 27.66% of variance, respectively). The samples of 3 dpi separated from the other samples. The hierarchical clustering of all the samples was analyzed by using UPGMA (Fig. 5). Similar results were obtained with those of the weighted unifrac PCoA. The samples of 1 dpi and 4 dpi formed a distinct cluster, while the samples of CG and 2 dpi were more similar.

Discussion

The microflora of fish gut have been investigated by many researchers, but unfortunately, most was known about the intestinal flora of healthy individuals, and little was known regarding continuous changes in the intestinal flora induced by a bacterial pathogen (Han *et al.*, 2010; Huang *et al.*, 2016). In this study, the community succession of the intestinal microbiota from *C. semilaevis* after artificial injection with the pathogenic *S. algae* was first reported



Fig. 3: Species taxonomy tree was structured on a basic of genera with top 10 relative abundances. Total 31 species of *Bacteroides, Phaeodactylibacter, Arcobacter, Halomonas, Acinetobacter* and *Pseudomonas* were detected; *Shewanella, Brachymonas, Vibrio, Brevinema* were not identified to the species level



Fig. 4: Two-dimensional principal coordinates analysis (PCoA) plot of weighted unifrac distance matrices for intestinal microflora of *Cynoglossus semilaevis*. The percentage of variation indicated by the principal coordinates is shown on the axes; Black, red, green, dark blue and blue represent samples of CG, 1 dpi, 2 dpi, 3 dpi and 4 dpi, respectively; The samples of CG and 2 dpi, the samples of 1 dpi and 4 dpi and the samples of 3 dpi were respectively grouped into three distinct clusters

based on the high-throughput sequencing of 16S ribosomal RNA gene.

In the previous study, a significantly higher diversity of bacterial community was observed in gut microbiota from healthy aquatic animals, compared to those from diseased ones, such as largemouth bronze gudgeon (Coreius guichenoti) (Li et al., 2016). In this study, the alpha-diversity indexes of intestinal microbiota community in the healthy C. semilaevis were found not higher than those in the infected fish. Moreover, the alpha-diversity indexes in 3 dpi had significantly higher than those in other groups. Herein, the injection dosage 1.5×10^5 CFU/g of the pathogenic S. algae was used for the infection experiment. This dosage allowed the majority of fish alive (Han et al., 2017) and provided the convenience for collecting the intestinal microbiota from fish at a special time. Only minority of the fish presented the mild ascites symptom throughout infection experiment period. The increasement or reduction of the diversity of fish gut microbiota was usually affected by the disease progress, disease severity, and infection intensity of pathogens. This could account for the inconsistence regarding the changes of the diversity of the gut microbiota compared with the previous study. And it can be speculated that infection with a bacterial pathogen did not always lead to reduction of the diversity of the gut microbiota in fish.

In this study, Proteobacteria, Spirochaetes, Bacteroidetes and Firmicutes accounted for more than 90% of the intestinal microbiota in *C. semilaevis*, which was similar with the previous research on *Paralichthys olivaceus* and *C. semilaevis* (Zhang *et al.*, 2014; Li *et al.*, 2015). These findings were indicative that these four taxa could be regarded as a core intestinal microbiome of *C. semilaevis*.

In addition, our results showed *Shewanella* and *Vibrio* were the major dominant genera in both uninfected and infected *C. semilaevis*. Previous researches revealed that *Vibrio* were the most common organisms in the fish guts (Jensen *et al.*, 2004; Hovda *et al.*, 2007). Some strains of these bacteria often caused fish diseases, such as *V. Parahaemolyticus*, *V. harveyi*, *V. alginolyticus* (Yeh and Chen, 2008). Furthermore, some reported that some species of *Shewanella* were pathogenic to aquatic animals, especially the two species, *S. algae* and *S. putrefaciens* (Pekala *et al.*, 2014).

Investigation on microbial diversity at the species level showed that A. ursingii was identified in all groups and A. butzleri and A. skirrowii were identified only at 72 h after infection. These findings in this study were indicative that some pathogenic bacteria co-exist in fish intestines, which was in agreement with the viewpoint of Pond et al. (2006). Previous studies showed that some species belonging to Acinetobacter genus were found frequently in water or diseased fish, which had increasingly been recognized as opportunistic pathogens, such as A. lwoffii, A. baumannii and A. ursingii (Dortet et al., 2006). Moreover, A. butzleri and A. skirrowii were frequently isolated from coastal environment, fish and patients with food-borne illness. They could be the potential sources of animals' infections (Prouzet-Mauléon et al., 2006; Cervenka et al., 2008).



Fig. 5: Hierarchical clustering of microbiota from intestine of *Cynoglossus semilaevis*. Samples of 1 dpi and 4 dpi formed a distinct cluster, while the samples of CG and 2 dpi were more similar

In this study, most of the identified species belonged to the genus of Bacteroides, which were especially enriched in 2 dpi and 4 dpi. It was previously reported that Bacteroides was the predominant bacteria in the intestines of fish (McLain et al., 2009; Ahmed et al., 2013). B. uniformis, B. ovatus and B. stercoris were ever identified from feces of grass carp (Ctenopharyngodon idella), channel catfish (Ictalurus punctatus), and blue catfish (Ictalurus furcatus) (Kabiri et al., 2013). Some reported that Bacteroides may have an important anti-inflammatory function, such as B. fragilis (Winglee et al., 2014); Not only that, B. graminisolvens and B. plebeius were considered capable of utilizing the carbohydrates (Nishiyama et al., 2009). Whereas, some species of Bacteriodes, such as B. pyogenes, B. ovalus and B. vulgatus can cause infectious diseases if they are introduced to parts of the body other than the gastrointestinal area (Lau et al., 2016). Therefore, further studies are still required to explore the relationship of specific Bacteroides species to the immune system and infection mechanism.

Conclusion

Injection with lower concentration of the pathogenic *S. algae* altered the intestinal microbiota community of *C. semilaevis*, including some species of opportunistic pathogenic bacteria. The variety in intestinal microbial community may be related to the health status of the host. However, the results did not address the relationships between the intestinal microbial community imbalances and different injection dosages of the pathogenic *S. algae*. The influence of different injection dosages of pathogenic *S. algae* on the intestinal microbial community of *C. semilaevis* should be further studied.

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