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The influence of beta-glucans on the relationship between carp (*Cyprinus carpio*) and its associated microbiome

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Thesis submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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Abstract.

Fish are in contact with microbiota from the moment of hatching. Exterior organs, i.e. skin, gills and intestinal system, are colonised by commensal bacteria populations and a symbiotic relationship is formed. The fish provides a niche and nutrients for the bacteria which stimulate development of the immune response, act as an additional barrier against invading pathogens and, within the gut, aid in digestion.

β -glucans are used within aquaculture as a means of improving fish health and can be applied in various forms, e.g. via diet or injection. Whilst the application of β -glucan is performed to modulate a fish's immune system, it has also been shown to affect the gut microbiota population at concentrations above 1% w/w within the diet which is particularly important to consider when applied orally.

The effect of the commercially available β -glucan MacroGard® upon the gut of common carp (*Cyprinus carpio*) is studied after oral application and injection. Whilst feeding with MacroGard® at 0.1% w/w within the diet does not influence the gut bacteria nor expression of bactericidal innate immune genes, injection (2mg kg⁻¹ and 5mg kg⁻¹) resulted in a 90% reduction in bacteria numbers in the gut after 24 hours. Injection of MacroGard® did not significantly alter the expression of CRP, iNOS, bf/C2, IL-1 β , ApoA1, HAMP1, LEAP2 and Muc2 within the gut however MSS1, a synthesised β -glucan, significantly increased the gene expression of iNOS, CRP and Muc2. 0.1% MacroGard® in the diet was, however, capable of influencing bacterial species diversity when injection was also performed. This revealed a high proportion of Alphaproteobacteria, which are typically associated with plants rather than gut

systems, and corresponded with a reduction in potential pathogenic bacteria. This showed combining injection and oral application of MacroGard® together is capable of influencing the gut microbiota population within a 2 week period.

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List of abbreviations.

°C: Degrees Celsius.

A: Adenine.

ACP: Alternative Complement Pathway.

AMPs: Antimicrobial peptides.

ApoA: Apolipoprotein.

APP: Acute Phase Protein.

APS: Ammonium persulfate.

AXOS: arabinoxylanoligosaccharides.

BLAST: Basic Local Alignment Search Tool.

C: Cytosine

cDNA: Complementary DNA.

CEV: Carp edema virus.

CFU: Colony forming unit.

CR: Complement receptor.

CRP: C-reactive protein.

CyHV: Cyprinid herpesvirus.

dATP: Deoxyadenosine triphosphate.

dCTP: Deoxycytidine triphosphate.

DGGE: Denaturing Gradient Gel Electrophoresis.

dGTP: Deoxyguanosine triphosphate.

DNA: Deoxyribonucleic acid.

dNTP: Deoxyribonucleotide triphosphate.

dTTP: Deoxythymidine triphosphate.

DTU: Technical University of Denmark, Denmark

EDTA: Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid.

ENA: European Nucleotide Archive.

FAO: Food and Agriculture Organisation.

FOS: Fructooligosaccharides.

G: Guanine.

genDNA: Genomic DNA.

GOS: Galactooligosaccharides.

HAMP: Hepcidin antimicrobial peptide.

IBD: Irritable bowel disease.

IL: Interleukin.

iNOS: Inducible nitric oxide synthase.

ISAV: Infectious salmon anemia virus.

ITN: International Training Network.

l: Litre.

LAB: Lactic acid bacteria.

LEAP: Liver expressed antimicrobial peptide.

LPS: Lipopolysaccharide.

m: Metre.

M: Mole.

MgCl₂: Magnesium Chloride.

MHUE: Miguel Hernandez University of Elche

M-MLV/MuLV: Moloney Murine Leukemia Virus.

MOS: Mannanligosaccharides.

M.R.S. agar: de Man, Rogosa and Sharpe agar.

Muc: Mucin.

NCBI: National Centre for Biotechnology Information.

NCIMB: National Collection of Industrial and Marine Bacteria.

Nemo: Training network on protective immune modulation in warm water fish by feeding glucans.

nMDS: non metric Multidimensional Scaling ordination.

NO: Nitric oxide.

NOS: Nitric oxide synthase.

OTU: Operational Taxonomic Unit.

PBS: Phosphate Buffer Saline.

PCA: Principle Component Analysis.

PCR: Polymerase Chain Reaction.

PHP: PHP Hypertext Preprocessor.

P.I.: Post injection.

PKD: Proliferative Kidney Disease.

PRRs: Pattern Recognition Receptors.

rDNA: Ribosomal DNA.

RGB: Red Green Blue.

RNA: Riboxynucleic acid.

ROS: Reactive oxygen species.

RT: Reverse Transcriptase.

SA: Serum Amyloid.

SVCV: Spring viremia of carp virus.

T: Thymine.

TAE buffer: Tris-Acetate-EDTA buffer.

TBE buffer: Tris-Borate-EDTA buffer.

TE buffer: Tris EDTA buffer.

TEMED: Tetramethylethylenediamine.

T_H: T-helper cells.

TiHo: Tierärztliche Hochschule (University of Veterinary Medicine), Hanover, Germany.

TNF: Tumor Necrosis Factor.

Tris-HCl: Tris(hydroxymethyl)aminomethane-Hydrochloride.

TLRs: Toll Like Receptors.

UV light: Ultra violet light.

w/v: weight/volume.

w/w: weight/weight.

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According to Dr. Jacob Schmidt, the Danish say, "Mange bække små gør en stor å" which he translated as, "many small streams form a big river". This sums up the past 3 1/2 years almost perfectly with many of my data looking utterly nonsensical and unrelated until the final few months in which everything came together in a beautiful crescendo. That being said, I much prefer the google translate offer as to what the phrase means: small hinges swing big doors. Less poetic but just as true in its sentiment.

Chapter 1 – Introduction.

Fish were the earliest vertebrates to evolve and have been present on Earth since the Cambrian explosion, around 540 million years ago. Adaptations to cope with different temperatures, pressures, salinities, diets, availability of light, water qualities and predator/prey dynamics have resulted in highly diverse evolutionary changes resulting in over 40,000 fish species which represents approximately half of all vertebrates on the planet. Fish are prominent in religion, mythology and pop culture, and have a growing economic importance as both a recreational commodity and food source.

Sports fishing represents a huge economic market to many countries, for example the American Sportfishing Association highlighted that \$115 billion was spent on recreational fishing in the U.S. in 2011 including equipment and associated touristic costs such as travel, accommodation and spending in local economies (American Sportfishing Association, 2013). In the UK, sport fishing represents a £3 billion industry that is regularly threatened by illegal fish imports to meet the demand for large fish that are not cost effective to produce in the UK's climate (Mewett, 2015). Although public aquaria and marine parks are often maintained as non-profit organisations, their educational value has a huge impact with several, for example Georgia Aquarium and the Sea Life chain (part of Merlin Entertainments), running conservation programs, in addition to simply educating the public on fish health and the health of the seas and oceans (www.georgiaaquarium.org/conserve and www.sealifetrust.org respectively).

The global trade of fish is of vast importance to the economic output in a range of countries including the UK and the USA. The Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations report in 2014 stated that approximately 10% of agricultural trade and 1% of all trade worldwide was associated with fish. Aquaculture produced 90.4 million tonnes of fish in 2012 with an economic value of US\$144.4 billion, whilst capture fisheries in 2011 generated 93.7 million tonnes of produce which is the second highest ever tonnage recorded (FAO, 2014). Fish are therefore an important and growing source of food highlighted by the fact that in 2010, 16.7% of protein consumed by humans across the globe came from fish (FAO, 2014). Indeed, the Earth Policy Institute (2013) reported that in 2011, the production of meat from beef was overtaken by that produced by fish farms. The per capita consumption of fish globally has almost doubled in the past 50 years (9.9kg to 19.2kg. FAO, 2014) and aquaculture is becoming of increasing importance in meeting the demands to produce a sustainable source of nutrients in the human diet (Figure 1.1). Not only does aquaculture help meet these food demands, it also elevates some of the pressures on wild populations caused by overfishing, enabling stocks to recover. For example the Atlantic tuna (*Thunnus thynnus*), a common fish species farmed for use in sushi and sashimi dishes, currently has a rating of endangered from the International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (<http://www.iucnredlist.org/details/21860/0>) and the European eel (*Anguilla anguilla*), a key ingredient in the English dish of jellied eels, is critically endangered (<http://www.iucnredlist.org/details/60344/0>). Their red list status, however, has not necessarily translated to human views of fish. TV shows such as the BBC's *MasterChef* have, in the past, received criticism for their use of eels as a main

component of dishes regardless of their endangered status (The Guardian, 1st November 2009).

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Figure 1.1: Image taken from the 2014 report published by the FAO: the state of world fisheries and aquaculture. The graph shows the increase in fish production (in million tonnes) over time for both aquaculture (dark blue at the top of the graph) and capture fishing (pale blue at the bottom of the graph). As can be seen, capture production plateaued in the early 90's with aquaculture steadily increasing over the 60 year period shown.

Overfishing can also have a severe impact on human communities in addition to environmental ramifications. Approximately 12% of the world's human population depends on fish for their survival (FAO, 2012). In 2012, it was estimated that over 58 million people worked in the primary sector of fisheries/aquaculture, however this is not uniformly distributed with 84% of these people living in Asia (FAO, 2014). Overfishing has resulted in events such as the crash of the Canadian cod (*Gadus morhua*) population in 1992 where it was reported that 40,000 people lost their jobs in towns along the coast in Newfoundland as a consequence (BBC news, 16th

December 2002). Although over the last 20 years a series of legislative conditions have been introduced, such as maximum fishing limits, the potential impact on smaller communities that depend heavily, if not solely, on capture fishing could still be devastating.

The increase in aquaculture helps to relieve the pressure on capture fishing and reduces the potential for overfishing, however both are equally susceptible to other factors such as global warming, disasters and disease. The increasing international trade of fish is resulting in easier routes for pathogens to travel around the globe. For example, Koi Sleepy Disease, caused by the carp edema virus (CEV), has recently (2014) been detected in koi (*Cyprinus carpio koi*) in Germany and other parts of Europe where it had previously been limited to fish in Japan (Jung-Schroers *et al.* 2015b, Lewisch *et al.* 2015). Mardones *et al.* (2014) cite both local transmission and long distance movement as influencing factors of the infectious salmon anaemia virus (ISAV) epidemic in Chile (2007-2009) in Atlantic salmon, and the spring viremia of carp virus (SVCV) causes mortalities and financial losses globally. The UK, however, has had a SVCV free status since 2010. Taylor *et al.* (2013) describe the pattern of infection in the UK prior to this as a result of international trading rather than an endemic infection spread locally.

Monoculture, often utilised in aquaculture as the preferred practice for fish production, facilitates an optimal environment for the spread of disease. High densities of a single species population that is susceptible to a particular disease can result in significant mortality rates and economic losses. Vaccination programs and the use of antibiotics are employed as means to avoid such catastrophes, however the liberal use of antibiotics and antimicrobial agents throughout aquaculture, agriculture

and for treating human disease have led to a massive increase in drug resistance amongst pathogens (Who, Fact sheet No. 194). The introduction of various legislative policies, such as Regulation (EC) No 1831/2003 which banned the use of antibiotics as growth promoters in animal feeds, restricts the use of a range of chemicals in fish production and as a consequence, a need for alternatives has arisen.

To reduce the dependency on antibiotics and antimicrobials in agriculture, including aquaculture, there is increasing interest in proactively improving the health of animal stocks by increasing resistance to pathogens. Two such approaches include the modulation of the gut microflora populations so that they contain more “good” bacteria species that are beneficial to their host, and the improvement of the animal’s ability to defend against pathogenic attack by modulating its immune response prior to possible infection. This thesis studies the effect of β -glucan, a known immunomodulant also capable of influencing the gut microbiota population (Kuhlwein *et al.* 2013, Jung-Schroers *et al.* 2015a), on the health of common carp (*Cyprinus carpio*) in disease free conditions.

1.2 – The importance of the microbiome.

By cell number, humans are actually only 10% *Homo sapiens* (Candela *et al.* 2012) with the remaining 90% being composed of the human microbiome – a collection of commensal bacteria and other microbes that, under normal conditions, live in harmony with us. Whilst it has been known since the 19th century that the microbial population is important for human health (Falk *et al.* 1998), the technology with which to fully study it has only recently become available. Analysis of the

microbiome has become a major line of research with several large scale projects such as the Human Microbiome Project (www.hmpdaac.org), being funded in order to better understand the relationship between host and microbe and how this influences health and incidents of disease. The relationship between a host and its microbiome is symbiotic in nature and begins at birth/hatching (Nayak 2010b). The host provides an environment for the bacteria to live and supplies nutrients, whilst the bacteria play roles in development of the immune system, provides an additional barrier against pathogens and, within the gut, aids in digestion (Nayak 2010a). Studies with gnotobiotic mammals have shown the microbiota is essential for the formation of gut associated lymphoid tissue (GALT) and Immunoglobulin (Ig) A production (Rhee *et al.* 2004, Peterson *et al.* 2007, Nayak 2010a). In germ free zebrafish (*Danio rerio*), a lack of gut epithelium maturation was noted the re-induction of a microbiota population stimulates epithelial growth and maturation (Bates *et al.* 2006). In their study comparing the effects of diet upon gut microbiota populations in rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) during *Yersinia ruckeri* infection, (Ingerslev *et al.* 2014b) concluded that a “plant diet gave rise to a prebiotic effect favouring the presence of bacterial taxons proving protective in connection to bath challenge by *Y. ruckeri*” highlighting the role of gut microbiota in disease prevention. In his review, Nayak (2010a) stated that the gut microbiota could supply several digestive enzymes including carbohydrases, phosphatases, lipases and proteases, in addition to synthesising essential vitamins and amino acids. Bacterial strains isolated from the gut have been shown to have antibacterial capabilities against pathogenic bacteria and to be a protective barrier against disease (Romero *et al.* 2014). Sugita *et al.* (1998) showed 2.7% of isolates cultured from the gut of Japanese coastal fish

inhibited the growth of *Vibrio vulnificus*, and bacteria species isolated from the gut have also shown antibacterial activity towards multiple *Aeromonas* sp. (Sugita *et al.* 1996). Even if the gut microbiota were to perform only one of these roles, it would still constitute a major asset to a host organism and is clearly vital to survival.

The gut microbiota is however a complex ecosystem that can be divided into two distinct populations: the autochthonous and allochthonous bacteria. The allochthonous bacteria are those that simply pass through the intestinal tract, i.e. the bacteria within the faecal matter, whilst the autochthonous bacteria are those that adhere to the mucosal layer and are considered as “permanent” residents of the intestine (Romero *et al.* 2014).

As previously stated, it has been known since the 1800's that the symbiotic microbiota population is vital to survival (Falk *et al.* 1998), however it is only recently that the technology has become available that allows a full exploration of large microbial communities, and, even more recently, the relationship with the immune response (Gomez and Balcazar 2008, Lazado and Caipang 2014). The gut is constantly exposed to signals from both the commensal microbial population and potentially pathogenic bacteria that exist within the environment. There must therefore be a balance between activation of the immune response and the presence of microbes within the gut, however the study of this balance using ichthyological models is still in its infancy.

Whilst the number of publications considering both immunity and microbiota populations within fish is on the increase, analysis of any relationship between these two components is often missing. Dawood *et al.* (2016) noted an increase in total gut

bacteria population size after feeding red sea bream with the probiotics *Lactobacillus rhamnosus* and *Lactobacillus lactis* in conjunction with a significant increase in alternative complement pathway activity, serum bactericidal activity, mucus lysozyme activity, peroxidase activity and superoxide dismutase production in blood serum. Similarly, Miest *et al.* (2016) observed differences in both the gut microbiota population and immune responses in whole turbot larvae after feeding with MacroGard®, a β -glucan product with immunomodulatory properties. In contrast, however, where Akrami *et al.* (2015) noted a significant increase in leucocyte counts and haemoglobin concentration in juvenile beluga (*Huso huso*) fed with a combination of *Enterococcus faecium* and fructooligosaccharides (FOS), they did not see any differences in lactic acid bacteria (LAB) counts. It is therefore unlikely that there is a functional relationship between leucocyte counts and haemoglobin concentration, and LAB within the gut.

Whilst it is important to look at the overall health of a fish when considering microbiota populations, i.e. any effects on systemic immunity, it is equally important to consider the effects upon local immunity, i.e. gut immunity. Ingerslev *et al.* (2014b) analysed both the gut microbiota and the expression of innate immune genes, including IL-1 β and C3, in the gut tissue of rainbow trout and observed that the feeding of a plant based diet, in comparison to a marine based diet, resulted in a lower incidence of infection. Expression of both innate immune genes and stress markers in the gut of hybrid tilapia was studied alongside gut microbiota composition and it was shown that feeding with soybean diet resulted in a decrease in IL-1 β expression alongside changes in the gut microbiota population (Zhang *et al.* 2014). What these previous five studies all have in common, however, is a lack of comparison between

the immune parameters analysed and the gut microbiota.

In contrast, Tapia-Paniagua *et al.* (2015) use Principle Component Analysis (PCA) to reveal a relationship between intestinal microbiota populations and expression of CASPASE-6 and NADPH oxidase in the liver of Senegalese sole (*Solea senegalensis*). To date, this is the only published example of a statistical comparison between the host immune response and the whole gut microbiota population in an ichthyological model, however there are examples of correlation analysis being performed between the immune response and specific pathogens. Pearson's correlation was employed by Gorgoglione *et al.* (2013) to determine if there was a relationship between the presence of *Tetracapsuloides bryosalmonae*, the causative agent of Proliferative Kidney Disease (PKD) in rainbow trout, and the immune status which showed B-cell and antibody response to be linked to PKD pathogenesis. The same statistical means were used to study chemokines in brown trout (*Salmo trutta*) after infection with either *Yersinia ruckeri* or Viral Haemorrhagic Septicaemia Virus (Gorgoglione *et al.* 2016). This showed a predominant trend of significant positive correlations between novel chemokine expression in the kidney and spleen, and both bacterial and viral pathogen loads indicating their role in a pro-inflammatory systemic immune response.

1.3 – Manipulation of the intestinal microbiome.

Manipulation of the gut microbiota population in a way that is beneficial to the host organism is typically performed using pre and probiotics. Prebiotics are oligosaccharides that positively influence the growth and/or activity of “good”

bacteria within the gut (Merrifield *et al.* 2010). Gibson *et al.* (2004) additionally stated that a prebiotic must resist gastric acidity and absorption, and be fermented by the intestinal microbiota. Examples of prebiotics utilised within aquaculture include mannanoligosaccharides (MOS), galactooligosaccharides (GOS) and inulin (Merrifield *et al.* 2010). Probiotics, however, are live bacteria introduced into a population in order to alter the existing population in favour of “good” bacteria. Merrifield *et al.* (2010) highlighted that whilst the textbook definitions of a probiotic, such as that given by Fuller (1989), were written considering mammals and not fish, the differences in typical microbiomes between mammals and fish are great enough that a separate definition as to the characteristics a fish probiotic should be considered and should be different to that of a mammalian probiotic. These characteristics include, but are not limited to, a lack of pathogenicity towards humans and other animals within the local environment, must not contain any plasmids that comprise of antibiotic resistance genes so that transfer to potential pathogens does not occur, must be tolerant of bile salts and low pH as found within the gut, and must be able to thrive within intestinal mucus (Spanggaard *et al.* 2001, Merrifield *et al.* 2010). Balcazar *et al.* (2006) outlined a selection process for how best to identify and test potential probiotics before commercial use.

The manipulation of the gut microbiota has become increasingly popular in aquaculture. A literature search within Web of Science using the key words “gut microbiota fish” identifies 70 research articles, 8 reviews and 1 book that have been published since 2012 (Table 1.1). Between 2000 and 2014, Ringo *et al.* (2014) referenced 53 probiotic trials including research with the commercially important fish species Japanese flounder (*Paralichthys olivaceus*), common carp, tilapia

(*Oreochromis* sp.), grouper (*Epinephelus coioides*), rainbow trout, brown trout, cod, turbot (*Scophthalmus maximus*), sea bass (*Dicentrarchus labrax*), and pollock (*Pollachius* sp.). These authors also noted that LAB are considered to be good potential probiotics with the majority of trials using species of *Lactobacillus* and *Enterococcus*. They are present in multiple fish species naturally (Ringo and Gatesoupe 1998) and feeding with *Lactobacillus* sp. as a probiotic has shown increased body weight and decreased cortisol levels in sea bass and gilthead sea bream larvae (*Sparus aurata*) (Abelli *et al.* 2009), increase the proportion of Firmicutes within the gut of zebrafish (Falcinelli *et al.* 2016), and increase complement and lysozyme activity in red sea bream (*Pagrus major*) (Dawood *et al.* 2016). Several probiotics have been shown to act against different bacterial pathogens, for example *Bacillus* sp. has shown protective abilities against *Aeromonas hydrophila*, *Edwardsiella ictaluri*, *Vibrio harveyi* and *Yersinia ruckeri*, and *Enterococcus* sp. has been noted to defend against *E. tarda*, *V. harveyi* and *V. parahaemolyticus* (Akhter *et al.* 2015).

Table 1.1: (part A) A literature search using the engine Web of Science and the key words “gut microbiota fish” was performed to identify publications studying the effect of probiotics, prebiotics, antibiotics or carbohydrates on the gut microbiota in different fish. The numbers of different publication types by year are given followed by examples of publications over the past 2 years (2014-2016). References are either given alongside details of the trial performed or are included in a list at the end of the table.

Article type	2016 *	2015	2014	2013	2012
Research paper	6	17	11	23	13
Review	1	1	4	1	1
Books			1		
Conference abstract		1	1		
Total	7	19	17	24	14
Fish species	Modulators			Reference	
Asian seabass (<i>Lates calcarifer</i>)	Hydrolysed wheat gluten			Apper <i>et al.</i> 2016	
Atlantic salmon (<i>Salmo salar</i>)	Fish meal versus pea protein, soy protein, extracted sunflower, hydrolyzed feather meal or poultry biproduct			Hartviksen <i>et al.</i> 2014	
Beluga (<i>Huso huso</i>)	Biomin IMBO			Akrami <i>et al.</i> 2015	
Black carp (<i>Mylopharyngodon piceus</i>)	Intestinal casing meal and yeast of monosodium glutamate			Li <i>et al.</i> 2015	
Blunt snout bream (<i>Megalobrama amblycephala</i>)					
Common carp (<i>Cyprinus carpio</i>)	Fructooligosaccharide			Hoseinifar <i>et al.</i> 2014	
	Mannanooligosaccharide			Momeni-Moghaddam <i>et al.</i> 2015	
Fathead minnow (<i>Pimephales promelas</i>)	Triclosan			Narrowe <i>et al.</i> 2015	
Gibel carp (<i>Carassius gibelio</i>)	Intestinal casing meal and yeast of monosodium glutamate			Li <i>et al.</i> 2015	
Gilthead seabream (<i>Sparus aurata</i>)	Fish meal versus vegetable meal			Estruch <i>et al.</i> 2015	
	<i>S. putrifaciens</i>			Cordero <i>et al.</i> 2015	
	Short chain fructooligosaccharides			Guerreiro <i>et al.</i> 2016	
Goldfish (<i>Carassius auratus</i>)	Pentachlorophenol			Kan <i>et al.</i> 2015	
Grouper (<i>Epinephelus coioides</i>)	<i>B. pumilus</i>			Yang <i>et al.</i> 2014	
	<i>Psychrobacter</i> sp.			Sun <i>et al.</i> 2014	
Hybrid tilapia (<i>Oreochromis niloticus</i> ♀ X <i>O. aureus</i> ♂)	Completely hydrolyzed feather meal (tradename Aoyouyuan-A)			Zhang <i>et al.</i> 2014	

Table 1.2: (part B) A literature search using the engine Web of Science and the key words “gut microbiota fish” was performed to identify publications studying the effect of probiotics, prebiotics, antibiotics or carbohydrates on the gut microbiota in different fish species. The number of different publication types by year is given followed by examples of publications over the past 2 years (2014-2016). References are either given alongside details of the trial performed or are included in a list at the end of the table.

Fish species	Modulators	Reference
Jundia (<i>Rhamdia quelen</i>)	Multiple carbohydrates: ground corn, wheat, cassava bagasse, broken rice	Pedrotti <i>et al.</i> 2015
Rainbow trout (<i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i>)	<i>Aeromonas</i> sp., <i>Bacillus</i> sp., <i>C. braakii</i> , mix of all three	Koca <i>et al.</i> 2015
	Different protein: carbohydrate ratios	Geurden <i>et al.</i> 2014
	<i>Kocuria</i> and <i>Rhodococcus</i> sp.	Sharifuzzaman <i>et al.</i> 2014
	Plant based versus marine diet	Ingerslev <i>et al.</i> 2014a, Ingerslev <i>et al.</i> 2014b
Red sea bream (<i>Pagrus major</i>)	<i>L. rhamnosus</i> and/or <i>L. lactis</i>	Dawood and Koshio 2016
<i>Schizothorax prenanti</i>	Oxidized konjac glucomannan	Zheng <i>et al.</i> 2015
Sea bass (<i>Dicentrarchus labrax</i>)	β -glucans and essential oil	Carda-Dieguez <i>et al.</i> 2014
	Carbohydrates: amylopectin versus high amylose versus fibre	Gatesoupe <i>et al.</i> 2014
	Protein hydrolysate	Delcroix <i>et al.</i> 2015
Senegalese sole (<i>Solea senegalensis</i>)	<i>Shewanella putrefaciens</i>	Lobo <i>et al.</i> 2014, Tapia-Paniagua <i>et al.</i> 2014)
Tilapia (<i>O. mossambicus</i>)	Azomite	Musthafa <i>et al.</i> 2016
Tilapia (<i>O. niloticus</i>)	AquaStar® Growout (<i>L. reuteri</i> , <i>B. subtilis</i> , <i>E. faecium</i> , <i>P. acidilactici</i>)	Standen <i>et al.</i> 2015, Standen <i>et al.</i> 2016
	Baker's yeast	Ran <i>et al.</i> 2015
	GroBiotic-A	Peredo <i>et al.</i> 2015
	Multiple carbohydrates: ground corn, wheat, cassava bagasse, broken rice	Pedrotti <i>et al.</i> 2015
Zebrafish (<i>Danio rerio</i>)	<i>L. rhamnosus</i>	Falcinelli <i>et al.</i> 2015, Falcinelli <i>et al.</i> 2016
	N-acyl homoserin lactonase	Cao <i>et al.</i> 2014
	Wheat products	Savarese <i>et al.</i> 2014

*Jan-March. Additional references counted in literature search: Askarian *et al.* 2012, Cerezuola *et al.* 2012, Desai *et al.* 2012, Geraylou *et al.* 2012, Giannenas *et al.* 2012, He *et al.* 2012, Liu *et al.* 2012, Omar *et al.* 2012, Raggi and Gatlin 2012, Rendueles *et al.* 2012, Sun *et al.* 2012a, Sun *et al.* 2012b, Yang *et al.* 2012, Abid *et al.* 2013, Askarian *et al.* 2013, Bakke *et al.* 2013, Cerezuola *et al.* 2013a, Cerezuola *et al.* 2013b, Del'Duca *et al.* 2013, Geraylou *et al.* 2013a, Geraylou *et al.* 2013b, Gisbert *et al.* 2013, Green *et al.* 2013, He *et al.* 2013a, He *et al.* 2013b, Jaafar *et al.* 2013, Kuhlwein *et al.* 2013, Merrifield *et al.* 2013, Navarrete *et al.* 2013, Nikapitiya 2013, Ramos *et al.* 2013, Respondek *et al.* 2013, Sun *et al.* 2013a, Sun *et al.* 2013b, Zhou *et al.* 2013a, Zhou *et al.* 2013b, Zychowski *et al.* 2013, Merrifield *et al.* 2014, De *et al.* 2014, Lazado and Caipang 2014, Llewellyn *et al.* 2014, Ringo *et al.* 2014, Ghanbari *et al.* 2015, Dawood and Koshio 2016.

There are fewer publications available on the action of prebiotics in comparison to probiotics (Akhter *et al.* 2015), however there are several products, such as β -glucan, that are widely studied yet do not meet all the criteria to be considered a prebiotic. The effect of orally applied FOS and MOS has been shown to increase lysozyme activity in Japanese flounder (Ye *et al.* 2011), and red drum (*Sciaenops ocellatus*) are similarly affected after feeding with inulin and GOS (Zhou *et al.* 2010). Complement activity has also been shown to be increased in gilthead seabream fed with inulin (Cerezuela *et al.* 2013), black amur bream (*Megalobrama terminalis*) fed with FOS (Zhang *et al.* 2015), and Siberian sturgeon (*Acipenser baerii*) fed with arabinoxylanoligosaccharides (AXOS) (Geraylou *et al.* 2013a). FOS has been shown to increase LAB in the gut of carp (Hoseinifar *et al.* 2014) and the relative abundance of *Lactobacillus* sp. and *Lactococcus lactis* increased in the gut of Siberian sturgeon after feeding with AXOS (Geraylou *et al.* 2013b). In gilthead sea bream there was a higher level of bacterial species richness in the gut after the fish were fed with MOS (Dimitroglou *et al.* 2010) however, in contrast in lobsters (*Homarus gammarus*) a decrease in bacterial species richness occurred in the gut after feeding with a combination of MOS and *Bacillus* sp. (Daniels *et al.* 2013).

1.4 – Host immunomodulators: what is a β -glucan?

β -glucans are carbohydrates found, for example, within the cell walls of yeasts and plants. Comprised of β -D-glucose monomers, chains are formed when the hydroxyl group of the carbon (C) 1 within the ring joins with the hydroxyl group on either C3 or C4 resulting in a β -glucose dimer and water (Figure 1.2). β -glucan chains can be any length and can also have branches between the C1 and C6 carbons. β -

glucans differ from α -glucans, such as starch and glycogen, in that the C1 hydroxyl group is in the same plane as the C6. β -glucans from oats are chains with β -1:3 and β -1:4 glycosidic linkages. Laminarin, found in seaweeds such as *Laminaria digitata*, and the cell walls in baker's yeast (*Saccharomyces cerevisiae*) are chains of β -1:3 glycosidic links with β -1:6 branches.

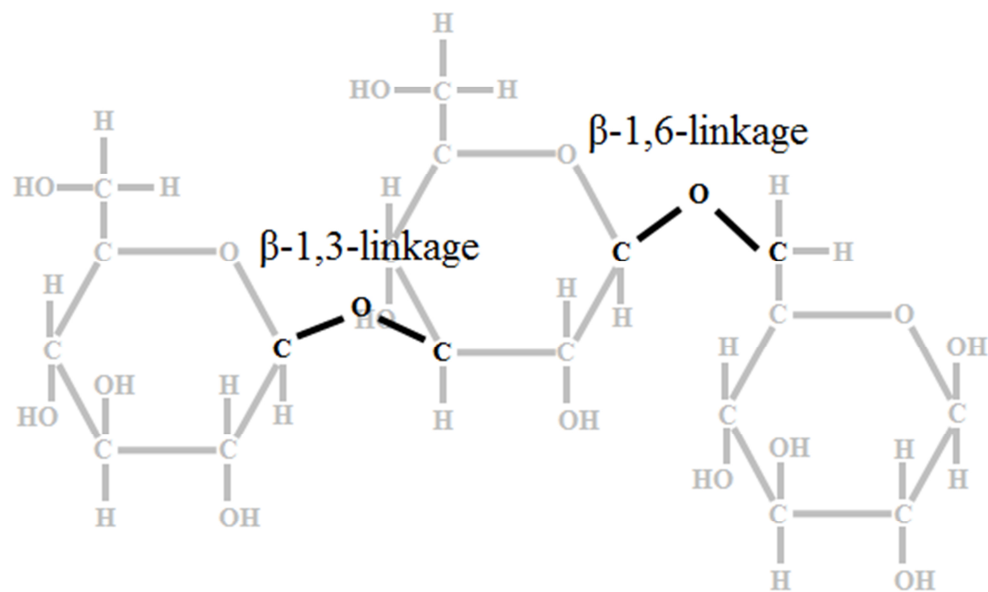


Figure 1.2: Image showing the linkages found in β -D-1,3/1,6-glucan molecules. Taken from Harris 2013.

β -glucans are immunomodulatory molecules which promote an immune response in vertebrates (Dalmo and Bogwald 2008). In mammalian models it has been suggested that the Dectin-1 receptor binds with a β -glucan and activates the immune response (Martin 2012) however to date, this receptor has not been found in fish. Dectin 1 is a C-type lectin (Huysamen and Brown 2009) found on mammalian macrophage cells. In the early 1990's Atlantic salmon macrophages were identified as having a " β -glucan receptor" (Engstad and Robertsen 1993, Engstad and Robertsen 1994) and more recently three C-type lectins (sclra, sclrb and sclrc) and a

complement receptor (CR) 3 have been noted which could be recognising β -glucan molecules (Kiron *et al.* 2016). Although receptors were not identified, Pietretti *et al.* (2013) proposed that multiple receptors were capable of detecting β -glucans in carp macrophages.

Although the mechanism of identification of β -glucans by a fish has yet to be elucidated, it is well documented that β -glucans are able to elicit immune responses in many fish species and reviews by Dalmo and Bogwald (2008), Meena *et al.* (2013), and Vetvicka *et al.* (2013) focus specifically on the use and effects of β -glucans in fish.

1.5 - Immunity in fish.

Immunity can be divided into the innate and adaptive responses. The innate immune response is the immediate defence mechanism found in vertebrates and invertebrates, and responds broadly against pathogen types, i.e. bacteria or viruses, rather than against specific diseases. On the other hand, the adaptive immune response is only found in vertebrates and results in the development of antibodies against pathogens it encounters that result in infection. Immunity can also be divided by location, i.e. a local immune response at the infection site and a systemic response in tissues and/or organs that may not be directly affected.

The importance of local immunity in external organs that come into contact with a wide array of different microbes is highlighted by the increasing number of publications in this area such as gut immunity which are reviewed by Gomez and Balcazar (2008), Nayak (2010a, 2010b), Rombout *et al.* (2011), and Salinas (2015). Gomez and Balcazar (2008) describe the gut as having “tolerogenic mechanisms” that

allow for coexistence with the commensal microbiota whilst still responding to pathogenic microbes. Gut immunity is comprised of both the innate and adaptive immune response and includes, but is not limited to, components such as a layer of mucus covering the external surface, i.e. the inside of the gut, signalling molecules including cytokines, antimicrobial peptides (AMPs), the complement system, and the respiratory burst. The mucosal layer provides both a home for the commensal microbiota population and a cover protecting the epithelial layer underneath from direct exposure to the environment (Gomez and Balcazar 2008). AMPs, complement and the respiratory burst are all defence mechanisms against invading pathogens.

1.5.2 – The role of mucus and mucins.

Mucus is cited as “one of the most important components for fish mucosal immunity” (Koshio 2016). It is involved in osmoregulation, reproduction, and movement, in addition to defence against pathogens and protection, and contains several immune proteins and enzymes such as complement proteins, proteolytic enzymes, AMPs (Koshio 2016) and glycoproteins known as mucins. Mucins are the main component of the mucosal layer with several genes that show differential expression patterns based upon the mucosal membrane. For example, in carp Muc5B expression is found in the skin and gill tissues, but not in the gut and, conversely, Muc2 expression is limited to the gut and not found in the skin or gills of naive fish (Van der Marel *et al.* 2012). The adherence of bacteria to the mucosal surface can be a desirable trait in commensal bacterial species, however the ability of pathogens to adhere is the first step of pathogenesis (Schroers *et al.* 2008).

Studies looking at mucins using ichthyo-models are limited in comparison to mammalian systems. Sloughing of the skin mucosal layers has been seen in carp infected with CyHV-3 as a means of removing pathogens from the surface of the fish (Adamek *et al.* 2013). Chub (*Squalius cephalus*) have been shown to have “excessive yellowish mucus” at the site of infection in the gut with the acanthocephalan *Pomphorhynchus laevis* that was not present at other sites along the intestinal axis nor in parasite free controls (Bosi and Dezfuli 2015). Differences have been seen in the composition of gut mucus in carp such as the amount of and molecular size of glycoproteins were seen after infection with two different strains of *Aeromonas hydrophila* (Schroers *et al.* 2009). Feeding sea bass with MOS for 8 weeks has been shown to increase the number of mucin secreting cells within the gut (Torrecillas *et al.* 2011) and feeding with β -glucans for 2 weeks increases the expression of Muc5B in the skin and gills of carp but a decreases Muc2 gene expression in the gut (Van der Marel *et al.* 2012).

1.5.3 – Communication within the immune system.

Cell communication, which is highly important in maintaining a homeostatic balance, also plays a significant role during activation of the immune response. In the latter, this homeostatic balance is mediated by small molecules known as cytokines. There are three types of cytokines: regulators of the innate immune response, regulators of the adaptive immune response, and stimulators of haematopoiesis (Gomez and Balcazar 2008). Interleukins (ILs) and tumour necrosis factors (TNFs) are two examples of cytokines that are induced by a broad range of pathogen types.

Interleukins can be both instigators and inhibitors of the inflammatory immune response, and are referred to as either being pro- or anti-inflammatory. IL-1 β is a pro-inflammatory cytokine that has been found in several fish species including carp, Atlantic salmon, and rainbow trout (Plouffe *et al.* 2005). IL-1 β shows differential gene expression patterns in response to pathogens and feeds, in a location dependent manner. Internal organs have been shown to have increased IL-1 β gene expression in several fish species after exposure to bacteria/dietary supplements. For example, expression was increased in the liver and spleen of Nile tilapia after 30 days of feeding with dietary acidifiers (Reda *et al.* 2016), the spleen and kidney of tilapia fed with the probiotic *Lactobacillus acidophilus* after 24 hours (Villamil *et al.* 2014), the spleen and head kidney of sea bass infected with *Vibrio anguillarum* (Meloni *et al.* 2015), and in the head kidney of carp infected with *Aeromonas salmonicida* (Falco *et al.* 2012b). The external organs, i.e. the skin, gills and gut, have different expression patterns for IL-1 β . The gut was shown to have increased levels of IL-1 β gene expression in rainbow trout 5 days post infection with *Yersinia ruckeri* (Ingerslev *et al.* 2014b) and in carp 6 hours post infection with *Aeromonas salmonicida* (Falco *et al.* 2012b). Catfish, however, were shown to have differential expression levels in the gut including up and down regulation upon exposure to LPS from different *Edwardsiella ictaluri* strains 6 hours after treatment (Santander *et al.* 2014). Feeding hybrid tilapia with completely hydrolyzed feather meal (a potential alternative to soybean meal) resulted in a decrease in the gene expression of IL-1 β within the gut after 8 weeks (Zhang *et al.* 2014), however expression in the gut of common carp was not influenced by feeding with β -glucans over 14 days (Falco *et al.* 2012b). This differential gene expression seen in external organs could be as a result of constant

exposure to microbes in the environment.

TNF α is another pro-inflammatory marker within the innate immune response and is involved in homeostasis and the induction of apoptosis (Goetz *et al.* 2004). Similar to IL-1 β , gene expression of TNF α was shown to be upregulated in internal organs after exposure to pathogens. In turbot infected with *Enteromyxum scophthalmi* there was a significantly higher expression of the TNF α gene expression in the spleen and kidney 6 hours post infection (Ronza *et al.* 2015). Whole zebrafish also showed an increase in expression of the TNF α gene up to 22 hours post inoculation with *Listonella anguillarum* in comparison to non-inoculated controls (Rojo *et al.* 2007), and carp infected with *Aeromonas salmonicida* showed higher expression levels of two TNF α isoforms 6 hours post infection (Falco *et al.* 2012b). Interestingly, feeding carp with β -glucans for 2 weeks did not impact on the gene expression of TNF α -1 in the head kidney, although a decrease in expression of TNF α -2 gene did occur in this organ. This could indicate a sensitivity to signals from live organisms versus extracts. Limited data is currently available on the expression of the TNF α gene in the gut of fish, however there seems to be a trend of decrease in expression. Nile tilapia were shown to have lower expression of this gene after feeding with live yeast as a probiotic for 8 weeks (Ran *et al.* 2015), although in carp fed with β -glucans for 2 weeks there was no effect upon the expression of TNF α -1 gene, but a decrease in expression of TNF α -2 (Falco *et al.* 2012b).

1.5.4 – The Complement system.

The Complement system, which predates adaptive immunity and is thought to

have evolved at least 1,300 million years ago (Holland and Lambris 2002, Nonaka and Kimura 2006), is comprised of four pathways (the Alternative, Classical, Lectin and Cytolytic) centred around the C3 protein. In mammals, the system consists of more than 35 proteins (Sunyer *et al.* 2003, Boshra *et al.* 2006) which are activated by a range of pathogens including viral, bacterial and parasitica, leading to the induction of phagocytosis, cytolysis and inflammation (Holland and Lambris 2002, Sunyer *et al.* 2003, Boshra *et al.* 2006). Figure 1.3 illustrates the three activation pathways within the Complement system: the Classical pathway, the Alternative pathway and the Lectin pathway.

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Figure 1.3: Taken from (Sunyer and Lambris 1998), an illustration of the three main Complement pathways in mammals.

Whilst the complement system of teleosts is similar to that found in mammalian models, there are a few differences. Mammalian complement has evolved

to work best at temperatures found in endothermic organisms, e.g. 37°C in humans, whereas it functions at much lower temperatures (down to 0°C) in teleosts (Sunyer *et al.* 2003). There are also differences in the organs that produce the different complement proteins. In mammals, complement is mainly produced in the liver, whilst in fish, there are a range of production sites including the brain, skin, gills, intestine, kidney and head kidney (Nakao *et al.* 2011). The main difference between mammalian and fish complement, however, is the degree of polymorphism found in each system. On a genetic level, fish are a highly polymorphic vertebrate group and the complement system is subject to several isoforms per component. For example, C3 has been shown to be polymorphic in rainbow trout (Sunyer *et al.* 1996) and gilthead sea bream (Sunyer *et al.* 1997), and that isoforms have different functions within the overall system.

Several studies have highlighted the differential effects that β -glucan can have on the complement system in fish. Ai *et al.* (2007) noted that β -glucan fed yellow croaker (*Pseudosciaena crocea*) showed no differences in serum alternative complement pathway (ACP) activity, whereas in sea bass and rohu (*Labeo rohita*) there was an increased complement activity in the serum (Bagni *et al.* 2000, Misra *et al.* 2006). Duration of feeding period appears to affect spontaneous haemolytic complement activity in channel catfish (*Ictalurus punctatus*) with a decrease in activity occurring after 2 weeks (Welker *et al.* 2012) but not after 4 weeks when fish were fed with β -glucans (Welker *et al.* 2007). In carp, there is conflicting data as to the effect of β -glucan feeding. Selvaraj *et al.* (2006) report no effect on ACP activity after 2 weeks of feeding with β -glucan, however Pionnier *et al.* (2013) noted an increase in the same parameter when carp were fed with β -glucan for 2 weeks.

Pionnier *et al* (2013) also revealed that, whilst there was no effect of feeding with β -glucan on the expression of the genes encoding for bf/C2 (marker for the alternative pathway), MASP2 (marker for the lectin pathway) and C3, there was a significant increase in C1rs gene expression (marker for the classical pathway). Differential expression of genes encoding for 3 different C3 isoforms was shown to occur after rainbow trout were injected with β -glucan however overall, expression of the different isoforms was shown to increase (Lovoll *et al.* 2007). C3 gene expression was also shown to be upregulated in turbot larvae fed with MacroGard® treated rotifers (Miest *et al.* 2016).

1.5.5 – Antimicrobial peptides.

Antimicrobial peptides (AMPs) are short chain polypeptides with the ability to kill invading pathogens. Falco *et al.* (2009) defined AMPs as “gene encoded small cationic peptides” with the ability to act against bacteria, viruses, fungi and parasites. The first AMP was discovered in 1981 in the cecropia moth (*Hyalophora cecropia*) and since then, over 1200 have been identified (Falco *et al.* 2009, Zhu and Gao 2013). AMPs are considered to work through two different mechanisms: the formation of transmembrane channels in pathogens, or by entering the cell and inhibiting growth and metabolism (Falco *et al.* 2009, Zhu *et al.* 2013). In fish, AMPs are generally produced by immune cells, particularly neutrophils, and tissues that come into contact with external environments such as the skin, digestive system and gills (Noga *et al.* 2011). Although there are more than a thousand known AMPs, those studied in fish include defensins, cathelicidins, piscidins, lysozyme, hepcidin, and apolipoproteins (Noga *et al.* 2011).

In carp, the gene expression of two β -defensin genes was shown to be significantly upregulated in the skin and gills after β -glucan feeding, however expression was not seen in the intestine (Van der Marel *et al.* 2012). In contrast, an increase in expression of the gene encoding cathelicidin occurred in intestinal cells from rainbow trout after feeding with zymosan for 4 weeks (Schmitt *et al.* 2015). Expression of genes encoding LEAP2, two β -defensins and two cathelicidins in the skin of rainbow trout has been shown to be influenced by peptidoglycans within the diet (Casadei *et al.* 2015).

The three antimicrobial peptides analysed within this thesis are Apolipoprotein-I (ApoA-I), hepcidin antimicrobial peptide 1 (HAMP1) and liver expressed antimicrobial peptide 2 (LEAP2). This is the first time the effects of β -glucan upon the expression of these three genes have been studied in fish. ApoA-I proteins from rainbow trout have been shown to inhibit bacterial endotoxins and have antiviral activity (Dietrich *et al.* 2015). HAMP1 gene, which encodes for the protein hepcidin, is a regulator of iron metabolism, and in sea bass has been shown to be influenced by iron overload and anemia, whereas HAMP2 has antimicrobial activity against several bacterial strains (Neves *et al.* 2015). LEAP2 shows antimicrobial activity by disrupting the membranes of pathogens (Li *et al.* 2015). All three genes have been shown to be constitutively expressed in the gut of carp (Dr. Mikolaj Adamek, unpublished data).

1.5.6 – Respiratory burst as a means of defence.

The release of reactive oxygen species during phagocytosis is an innate

immune response known as the respiratory burst (Dahlgren and Karlsson 1999). Hydrogen peroxide and superoxide anion, which are both produced during the respiratory burst, are highly antimicrobial but can also cause damage to the host organism (Dahlgren and Karlsson 1999). The free radical NO^\cdot is cytotoxic and produced by nitric oxide synthase (NOS) which has multiple isoforms including endothelial NOS, inducible NOS and neuronal NOS (Aktan 2004) with inducible NOS (iNOS) being part of the innate immune response.

Studies have been performed looking at the effects of naturally derived products in fish diets on iNOS production. Expression of the iNOS gene is downregulated in the head kidney and intestine of rohu (*Labeo rohita*) after guava leaves were incorporated into the diet (Giri *et al.* 2015) and in carp, the iNOS gene was upregulated in the head kidney, spleen and intestine after feeding with Chinese foxglove (Wang *et al.* 2015). The expression of iNOS in the gut of carp fed with β -glucans was also shown to be significantly upregulated after 25 days of feeding in comparison to non β -glucan fed carp (Miest *et al.* 2012). iNOS expression has also been associated with infection, for example in rainbow trout larvae this gene was upregulated during infection with *Yersinia ruckeri* (Chettri *et al.* 2012), and in Chinook salmon (*Oncorhynchus tshawytscha*) from two different locations in America, different levels of iNOS gene expression occurred after infection with *Renibacterium salmoninarum*, the causative agent of bacterial kidney disease (Metzger *et al.* 2010).

1.5.7 – C-reactive protein.

The Acute Phase Response is described as “the entire array of metabolic and

physiological changes which occur in response to tissue injury of infection” (Bayne and Gerwick 2001), which results in a surge of hormones and leucocytes at the site of injury or infection (Magor and Magor 2001). Those that are considered to be the most responsive are termed Acute Phase Proteins (APPs) which includes molecules such as C-reactive protein (CRP), Serum Amyloid (SA) A and P, and α -2-Macroglobulin (Magor and Magor 2001). Whilst increases in APPs are used as indicators of infections, some APPs will decrease in order to equilibrate the osmotic pressure that builds due to the influx of so called positive APPs to a location (Bayne and Gerwick 2001).

β -glucan feeding, both on its own and in conjunction with *Edwardsiella ictaluri* infection, in the liver of striped catfish showed no effect upon the expression of the CRP gene (Sirimanapong *et al.* 2015). Differential expression patterns of two CRP isoforms were seen in different organs of common carp in response to infection with CyHV-3. A decrease in CRP1 gene expression versus an increase in expression of CRP2 gene in the liver, and an increase in CRP1 expression in the gills was not mirrored by CRP2, which showed a significant increase in expression 1 and 14 days post infection, but a significant decrease in expression 3 and 5 days post infection (Pionnier *et al.* 2014). Infection of tongue sole (*Cynoglossus semilaevis*) with *Vibrio anguillarum* resulted in an increase in CRP gene expression in the kidney, spleen and liver (Li *et al.* 2013). Serum CRP levels in tilapia have also been shown to increase after infection with *Streptococcus iniae* (Gulec and Cengizler 2012). Carp infected with *Aeromonas hydrophila* showed an induction of serum CRP, however carp treated with LPS from *Escherichia coli* did not show a similar induction (MacCarthy *et al.* 2008).

1.6 – The use of vaccination in fish health.

The earliest publication in regards to vaccination describes the concept thus: “no discovery in nature nor in medicine has been more important to the interests of humanity” (Blane 1819). Since its discovery at the end of the 18th century, vaccination has become one of the leading tools in preventing the spread of disease in human medicine, agriculture and aquaculture. Fish vaccinations have been studied since the 1930s (Gudding and Van Muiswinkel 2013) and are available for diseases such as vibriosis, streptococcosis, infectious haematopoietic necrosis virus and viral haemorrhagic septicaemia virus (Lorenzen and LaPatra 2005, Toranzo *et al.* 2005). Vaccines target the adaptive immune response in order to produce antibodies against specific pathogens so that when an organism, for example a fish, comes into contact with these pathogens, it can mount an effective, disease specific immune response much more quickly than if it had not encountered the pathogen before. Vaccinations can be combined with adjuvants which target the innate immune system and research using mammalian models has shown β -glucans to be effective in this role (Bromuro *et al.* 2010, Huang *et al.* 2013, Berner *et al.* 2015). Whilst bathing or oral application of vaccines is considered to be less stressful, injection of vaccines is still the method of application used for the majority of vaccines (Plant and LaPatra 2011). It is therefore important to understand the effects of potential adjuvants, such as β -glucans, both upon the innate immune response, but also their possible effect upon the gut microbiota population when fish are injected in addition to oral application. (Liu *et al.* 2008) showed that whilst LPS was capable of influencing bacterial species richness in the gut of Atlantic salmon 28 days post injection, injection with β -glucan had no effect. Similarly, injection with β -glucan showed no difference in bacterial

species richness within the gut 23 days post injection in carp, however there was a difference 12 days post injection (Harris 2013). Harris also indicated a possible influence upon overall bacterial population size within the gut post injection, however noted that due to the time points analysed, further analysis should be performed to confirm if there was indeed a trend or data was coincidental.

1.7 – Aims and objectives.

The aim of the study presented in this thesis was to determine if there was an influence of β -glucans on the relationship between the common carp and its intestinal microbiota population. To this end, several objectives were devised. Firstly, chapters 2 and 3 outline the optimisation of different methodologies employed within this thesis. Chapter 2 established the effectiveness of RT-qPCR as a method of detecting changes within a microbial population using *in silico* analysis to establish primer specificity towards target and non-target DNA sequences. Chapter 3 compares different methods of analysing *in vitro* bacterial growth including development and optimisation of an image analysis tool, PENGUIN, as a means of accurately measuring bacterial colony sizes. These methods are then employed in Chapter 4 which studies the gut microbiota population in carp fed a diet with and without MacroGard®. Bacteria genus specific qPCR primers analysed using the model presented in Chapter 2 are used to compare the proportions of different bacterial genera within the gut of carp fed with and without MacroGard®, and bacterial isolates taken from the gut of carp fed without MacroGard® were tested for their ability to utilise MacroGard® as a substrate *in vitro* using the methodologies outlined in Chapter 3. This thesis studies the effects of β -glucans upon the immune response in the gut of common carp and the

gut microbiota population when applied orally (Chapter 4) and via intraperitoneal injection (Chapter 5). This includes statistical analysis to determine if there is a correlation between the gut microbiota and immune response. The final experimental chapter looks at the effects of combining both the oral application of MacroGard® and the use of injection focusing on the effects upon the gut microbiota population. To conclude, Chapter 7 gives an overall discussion of all work presented in this thesis and how this can be used to influence current aquaculture practices in order to obtain healthier fish populations.

Chapter 2 – *In silico* analysis of 16S qPCR primers.

The specificity of tools used in research is instrumental in ensuring accurate data is obtained. qPCR assays are now widely used in microbiological analysis, particularly when looking at mixed populations (Thompson *et al.* 2004, Martinez-Puig *et al.* 2007, Desai *et al.* 2009, Himmelheber *et al.* 2009, Bergmark *et al.* 2012) such as those found within the gut of fish (Adamek *et al.* 2013). Genetic markers such as the 16S rDNA gene (also known as 16S rRNA gene) can be very useful when dealing with individual bacteria species or when analysing a mixed bacterial population due to a high level of homogeneity that allows for a single primer pair to successfully anneal to almost all bacteria, whilst analysis of the DNA sequence can identify to a strain specific level. This homogeneity, however, can lead to challenges when looking at taxonomic levels such as genus or family. Genetic differences that allow for species specific identification may prevent primers from annealing, whereas regions that allow for amplification of all bacteria do not distinguish between different families or genera. This can make primer design for qPCR assays a challenge and, as this chapter will show, there are several examples of published primer pairs that amplify non-target DNA sequences from other genera in addition to those they are designed to amplify.

In Chapter 4, genus specific 16S RT-qPCR primers are utilised in order to quantify the changes in the relative proportions of individual bacterial genera in the gut microbiome. Whilst details for this can be found in section 4.3, it is important to note that primer sequences based on previously published work (Thompson *et al.* 2004, Martinez-Puig *et al.* 2007, Adamek *et al.* 2013) for three bacterial genera

(*Aeromonas*, *Vibrio* and *Lactobacillus*) resulted in proportions that represented more than 100% of the overall 16S rDNA expression within each sample as measured using the total 16S rDNA primers designed by (Adamek *et al.* 2013). This discrepancy may be the result of:

- total 16S primers not detecting all the copies of the 16S gene present in the samples.

or,

- individual genus primers amplifying non-target 16S sequences in addition to target sequences.

Prior to their initial use, all primer pairs were analysed using both a standard BLAST search (Basic Local Alignment Search Tool) and a more specific primer BLAST. Neither of these had highlighted the potential for non-target amplification in genus specific primer pairs, nor a lack of target amplification for the total 16S primers, thereby indicating an even more stringent analysis was required. The aims of this chapter are to develop a model to determine the likelihood of amplifying both target and non-target sequences, and to test this model using DNA generated from pure bacterial cultures.

2.2 – The importance of primer/sequence similarity.

The NCBI online primer BLAST tool (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/tools/primer-blast/>) identifies sequences with at least 1 mismatch in a primer sequence with a maximum of 9 mismatches to the primer

sequence. The program did not, however, identify any sequences with more than 3 mismatches to each primer analysed. Therefore a library of sequences was generated against which primer sequences could be compared. Sequence data were obtained from the European Nucleotide Archive (<http://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena>) and aligned using the program BioEdit (Thompson *et al.* 1994) by genus to allow for up to 100 sequences to be compared (see Appendix 1 for accession numbers). Sites of primer binding were identified using target sequences and potential binding sites in non-target sequences identified based upon alignments with target sequences. Scores were given based upon the number of “errors” in comparison to the primer nucleotide sequence.

The biggest challenge was in determining the most appropriate way to score errors. Primer design must take into consideration the target DNA sequence, similarities to non-target sequences, similarities to the partner primer and to itself, i.e. the formation of tertiary structures that will inhibit annealing to DNA, and the conditions within the PCR reaction. It is possible to design effective primer pairs that are not 100% homologous to the target DNA site, as happens with degenerate primer pairs, therefore it was first necessary to determine how different to a DNA sequence a primer must be before annealing does not occur. In order to determine how many errors should be analysed, the following points were considered:

- Primer BLAST analysis of primer pairs did not reveal any sequences that may be detected that had more than 3 errors per primer.
- Assuming the total 16S primers were amplifying all 16S sequences, genus specific primers were amplifying non-target sequences that must have at least 3

errors per primer.

So whilst the maximum number of errors that would inhibit annealing is not known, any model developed must take into account that at least 3 errors could occur but successful annealing would not be prevented.

Determining the importance of an error can be based upon several factors. Errors could occur when swapping an adenine (A) for a guanine (G), i.e. substitution of a purine, or a thymine (T) for a cytosine (C), i.e. pyrimidine substitution. This would potentially have less of an impact than if a purine was swapped for a pyrimidine. Although the number of hydrogen bonds holding the primer in place would be different, the distance between the parallel nucleotides would still be the same. In instances where the error results in parallel nucleotides being both either purines or pyrimidines, the distance between the hydrogen atoms is altered which in turn will impact the strength of the bond. Both of these changes, i.e. the number or the strength of the hydrogen bonds, will affect the ability of the primer to remain annealed to the sample nucleotide sequence during PCR (Figure 2.1). Extra nucleotides or deletions will also impact on the ability of a primer to remain annealed to a template sequence and are likely to have a stronger influence than mismatches as they may also influence the binding of the nucleotides on either side of them.

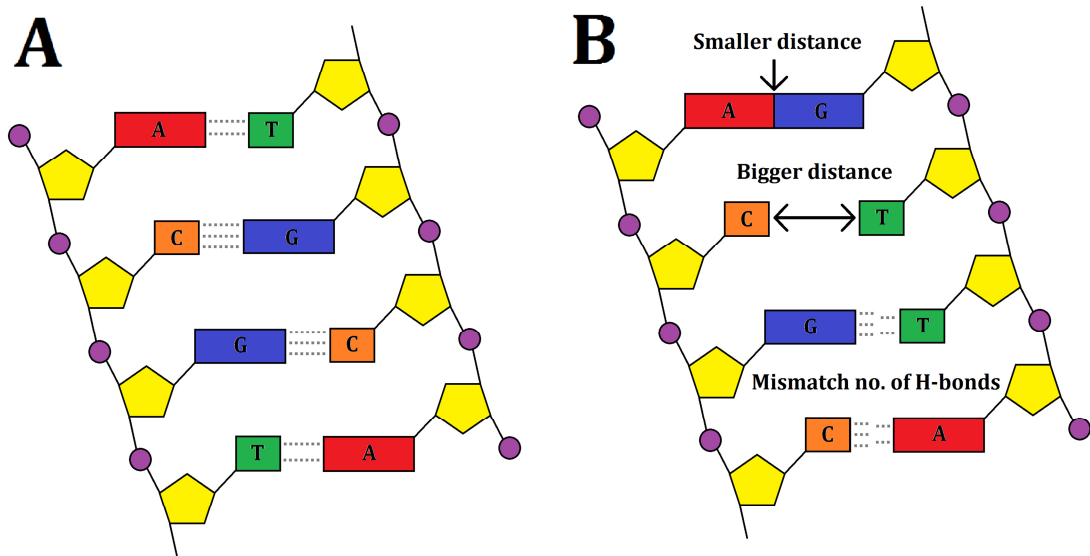


Figure 2.1: Image showing nucleotide bonding of DNA (A) and potential mismatches (B) that can occur between a sequence and a PCR primer. Possible mismatches include the pairing of two purine base pairs (A and G) or two pyrimidine base pairs (T and C) rather than a purine paired with a pyrimidine (A and T or G and C). The altered distance will influence the strength of the hydrogen bonds between the two strands. Mismatches also include swapping an A for a G or a C for a T which leads to differences in the number of bonds between the two strands.

In addition to the type of error, the position of the error must also be considered. Polymerase joins the “spine” of the nucleotide sequence together in the direction of 3’ to 5’, therefore errors closer to the 3’ end of the primer sequence are more likely to inhibit the action of the enzyme due to misaligned nucleotides.

2.3 – Initial considerations of the model.

The model designed had to factor in mismatches and additions/deletions as well as the position of a nucleotide relative to the 1st 3’ nucleotide of the primer being analysed. Correct pairings were given a score (S_n) of +2, all types of mismatch were considered together and given a score of -3, and an addition or deletion was given a score of -7. This was then multiplied by a rating (N) relative to the position of

the nucleotide in the sequence. The sum of all of these values was then taken, divided by the sum of all factors multiplied by a correct pairing, i.e. a 100% similar primer and the highest possible score, and given as a percentage. This is expressed by the following equation:

$$\text{Similarity score} = \frac{\sum_{n=t}(S_n \times N)}{\sum_{n=t}(2N)} \times 100$$

whereby t = the total number of nucleotides in the primer sequence, S_n = the score each nucleotide receives (+2, -3 or -7) and N is a nucleotides ranking based upon its position relative to the 3' end of the sequence. For example, in a 20 base pair primer the 1st nucleotide at the 3' end of the sequence would be given a factor of 20 and the nucleotide at the 5' end of the primer would be given an N of 1. Therefore:

- A mismatch at nucleotide 14 from the 3' end of the primer would have a result of -3x6, i.e. S_n multiplied by N .
- A mismatch at nucleotide 3 from the 3' end of the primer would have a result of -3x18, i.e. S_n multiplied by N .
- When an addition or deletion occurs, the N is given as that of the closest 3' nucleotide minus 0.5, i.e. the value half way between two nucleotides. This is done so as not to affect the impact of the remaining nucleotides towards the 5' end of the sequence as adding an integer would alter the numerical values of all other nucleotides. An addition/deletion will have a greater impact than a mismatch, therefore the extra N is included in the calculation. However, due to the direction in which polymerase acts, it will be less important than nucleotides closer to the 3' end and more important closer to the 5' end. An

addition/deletion between nucleotides 9 and 10 would therefore have a score of -73.5.

Using the above example, Figure 2.2 gives a diagrammatic representation of how the similarity score is calculated.

The range of similarity scores this model produces, however, showed a high range of “overlap” between different numbers of errors depending upon their position within the primer. For example, three sequential mismatches at the 5’ end of the primer gives a score of 92.9% and a single mismatch at the 3’ end of the primer gives a score of 76.2%, whereas in reality, one error is less likely to impact annealing than three sequential errors, irrespective of position within the primer. Table 2.1 shows the number of possible combinations of up to 3 errors and the range of possible similarity scores that would be obtained when analysing a 20 base pair primer. As can be seen the score does not necessarily relate to the number of errors. For example, it is possible a sequence with one mismatch error may have a lower score, i.e. be considered as less likely to anneal, than a sequence with 1 mismatch and 2 gaps whereas in reality, a sequence with 3 errors in comparison to the primer will be less likely to anneal than a sequence with only 1 error.

Position	20	19	18	17	16	15	14	13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Total
<i>N</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	
Correct pairing score ($N \times 2$)	2	4	6	8	10		14	16	18	20	22	24	26	28	30	32	34		38	40	372
Mismatch score ($N \times -3$)						-18												-54			-72
Addition/deletion score ($(N \text{ of } 3' \text{ nucleotide} - 0.5) \times -7$)									-73.5												-73.5
Final score of 100% similarity = 420					Final score of primer similarity = 226.5					Similarity score = 53.9%											

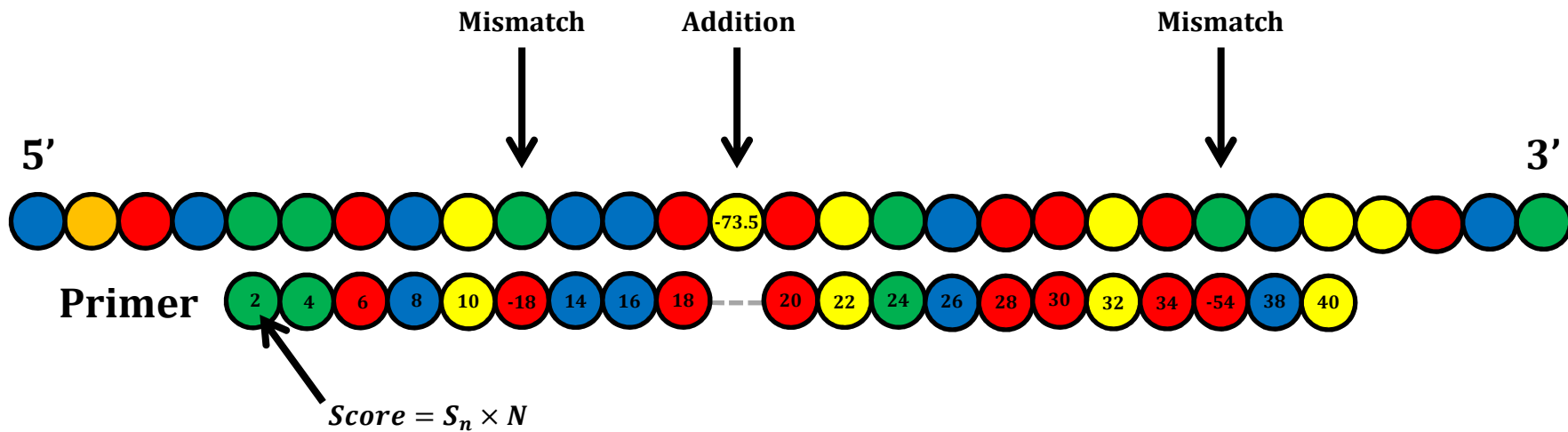


Figure 2.2: Example calculation of a similarity score for a primer that has two mismatches and an addition/deletion between nucleotides 11 and 12 in a hypothetical 20 base pair primer. A hypothetical 20 base pair primer is compared to a DNA sequence and mismatches are found at nucleotides 3 and 15 (counting from the 3' end), and an addition/gap is found between nucleotides 11 and 12. The similarity score is calculated by adding together the score of all correct pairings ($\sum N \times 2 = 372$), mismatches ($\sum N \times -3 = -72$) and addition/deletions ($\sum(N \text{ of } 3' \text{ nucleotide} - 0.5) \times -7 = -73.5$) which totals 226.5. This is divided by the score of a primer with 100% similarity ($\sum N \times 2 = 420$) and multiplied by 100. This gives a similarity score of 53.9%.

Table 2.1: Scoring the similarity of a 20 base pair primer against a target sequence based upon hypothetical errors in different positions along the nucleotide sequence. From the 3' end of the primer, each nucleotide position is assigned a factor (20-1 in descending integers) which is multiplied by a score of either 2, -3 or -7 for a correct pairing, a mismatch pairing or an addition/deletion (A/D) respectively. The similarity score for the primer is calculated as a percentage similarity relative to a score a 100% similar sequence would give.

Type of error	Number of possible combinations across whole primer	Possible similarity score across whole primer (%)	
		Highest	Lowest
1 mismatch	20	98.8	76.2
2 mismatches	190	96.4	53.6
3 mismatches	1150	92.9	32.1
1 A/D	19	97.5	67.5
2 A/D	171	93.3	36.7
3 A/D	969	87.5	7.5
1 mismatch and 1 A/D	397	96.3	43.7
2 mismatches and 1 A/D	3610	93.9	21.1
1 mismatch and 2 A/D	3538	92.1	12.9

Further categorisation was done to reduce the potential overlap range between different types of error by dividing the primer into two parts as shown in Figure 2.3 – the 25% of nucleotides closest to the 3' end and the rest of the primer. Table 2.2 shows the possible similarity scores of a hypothetical 20 base pair primer sequence when the primer is additionally divided into two parts. As can be seen, whilst this does reduce overlap, it is still too broad a range to provide useful information as to whether or not a primer is likely to anneal during PCR.

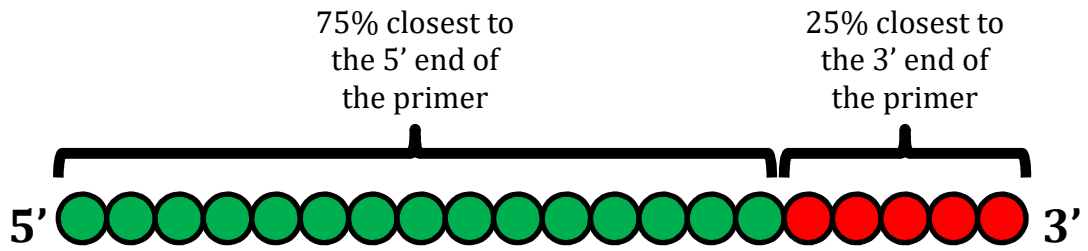


Figure 2.3: Schematic showing the division of sections in a primer as described for use within a model to determine primer specificity based upon location of mismatches and/or deletions in comparison to a potential target nucleotide sequence. As errors closest to the 3' end of a primer sequence are more likely to result in failure to amplify a DNA sequence, the primer was separated with errors being counted either in the 25% of the primer closest to the 3' end or the remaining 75%. Possible combinations based upon number of errors and position of those errors in relation to this split are described in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: A hypothetical 20 base pair primer was analysed and the range of possible similarity scores calculated for different types of errors that additionally factor in their relative position in comparison to the 3' end of the primer sequence. 5' is defined as the 75% of nucleotides closest to the 5' end, i.e. nucleotides 1-15. 3' is defined as the 25% of nucleotides closest to the 3' end, i.e. nucleotides 16-20. Similarity score is calculated as a percentage similarity relative to a primer that is 100% homologous to the target nucleotide sequence.

Type and location of error	Possible similarity score across whole primer (%)	
	Highest	Lowest
1 mismatch 5'	98.8	82.2
1 mismatch 3'	82.2	76.0
2 mismatch 5'	96.4	65.5
1 mismatch 5' and 1 mismatch 3'	79.8	58.3
2 mismatch 3'	60.7	53.8
3 mismatch 5'	97.5	50.0
2 mismatch 5' and 1 mismatch 3'	77.4	48.9
1 mismatch 5' and 2 mismatch 3'	59.5	35.7
3 mismatch 3'	39.3	32.1
1 A/D 5'	97.5	74.2
1 A/D 3'	72.5	67.5
2 A/D 5'	93.3	50.0
1 A/D 5' and 1 A/D 3'	70.0	41.7
2 A/D 3'	43.3	36.7
3 A/D 5'	87.5	27.5
2 A/D 5' and 1 A/D 3'	65.8	17.5
1 A/D 5' and 2 A/D 3'	40.8	10.8
3 A/D 3'	12.5	7.5
1 mismatch 5' and 1 A/D 5'	96.3	56.3
1 mismatch 5' and 1 A/D 3'	71.3	49.6
1 mismatch 3' and 1 A/D 5'	78.5	55.1
1 mismatch 3' and 1 A/D 3'	53.5	43.7
1 mismatch 5' and 2 A/D 5'	93.9	32.1
1 mismatch 5', 1 A/D 5' and 1 A/D 3'	68.8	23.8
1 mismatch 5' and 2 A/D 3'	42.1	18.8
1 mismatch 3' and 2 A/D 5'	74.3	26.2
1 mismatch 3', 1 A/D 5' and 1 A/D 3'	51.0	17.9
1 mismatch 3' and 2 A/D 3'	24.3	12.9
2 mismatch 5' and 1 A/D 5'	92.1	39.7
2 mismatch 5' and 1 A/D 3'	68.9	33.0
1 mismatch 5', 1 mismatch 3' and 1 A/D 5'	77.3	37.3
1 mismatch 5', 1 mismatch 3' and 1 A/D 3'	51.1	25.8
2 mismatch 3' and 1 A/D 5'	58.2	27.7
2 mismatch 3' and 1 A/D 3'	33.2	21.1

2.4 – Statistical analysis of the primer analysis model.

As shown in section 2.3, using a numerical means of categorising the impact of a nucleotide mismatch, addition or deletion factoring both type and position of an error did not prove successful due to the high amount of overlap in similarity score between sequences that would result in successful amplification and those that would not. Correlation analysis can be used to analyse the similarity between two data sets of ordinal data. Spearman's rank order test is a non-parametric statistical model that is used to determine the correlation between two data sets that produces both a p value of significant linear correlation and a value of ρ (rho) indicating the level of correlation between the two data sets.

Similar to the model outlined in section 2.3, nucleotide position is scored based upon position relative to the 3' end of the primer sequence. Whereas the previous model only considers values "in between" nucleotides when an addition/deletion occurs, in this alternative model these values have been built into the calculation at all possible positions. Primer nucleotides are ranked 1-x (dependent on primer length) starting at the 5' end of the sequence. If the corresponding nucleotide of the target DNA sequence matches this nucleotide an equal score is given, i.e. if the corresponding nucleotide to primer nucleotide 5 is the same, it will also score +5. If the nucleotide is mismatched, however, it will score 0. Each "in between" value will score as if nucleotides match unless next to an addition/deletion. In this instance, the addition/deletion will score 0 as will the "in between" value on either side. For example, if a deletion occurred "opposite" primer nucleotide 15, where the primer nucleotide would score 14, 14.5, 15, 15.5, 16, the target nucleotide would score 14, 0, 0, 0, 16. This is done due to additions and

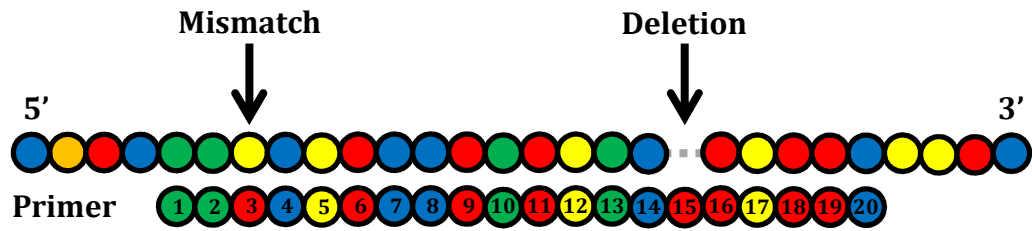
deletions having a stronger biological impact than a mismatch that cannot be directly translated using scores alone. These scores are then compared utilising the following formula:

$$\rho = 1 - \frac{6 \sum d_i^2}{n(n^2-1)}$$

where d_i is the difference between each rank, and n is the number of ranks. Using an example of a 20bp primer with 1 mismatch and 1 deletion, Figure 2.4 describes how Spearman's ρ is calculated for this primer.

Using the model that is fully explained in section 2.5, values of ρ were calculated based upon up to 4 errors occurring within a primer. Within this model, the primer is divided into three regions: region A is the 25% of the primer closest to the 3' end, region B is the 50% of the primer closest to the 3' end and includes region A, and region C is the 50% of the primer furthest from the 5' end of the primer. The highest and lowest values of ρ were calculated for errors (either a mismatch or an addition/deletion) in the following combinations: 1 error irrespective of region (category A), 2 errors in region A (B), 1 error in region A and 1 error in region C (C), 2 errors in region B (D), 1 error in region B and 1 error in region C (E), 3 errors in region A (F), 2 errors in region A and 1 error in region C (G), 1 error in region A and 2 errors in region C (H), 3 errors in region B (I), 2 errors in region B and 1 error in region C (J), 1 error in region B and 2 errors in region C (K), 3 errors in region C (L), and 4 or more errors irrespective of region (M). These ranges are shown in Figure 2.5. From this, the more errors there are closer to the 3' end of the primer (e.g. category G), the lower the value of ρ and errors at the 5' end of the primer give higher values of ρ . What this also shows is that a pairing with only 1 error (category B and

deemed within the model to have no impact upon primer annealing) may have a higher score than a pairing with 4 or more errors (category M and deemed within the model to inhibit primer annealing). This may be indicative of issues with the proposed classifications of errors within the model, however this could also be due to an error within the way in which Spearman's ρ is calculated. As discussed within the previous model, how best to weight a mismatch or an addition/deletion is a relative unknown and giving a score of 0 for an error, and weighting additions/deletions 3 fold in comparison to mismatches may be incorrect. Further analysis into the accuracy of using Spearman's correlation as a marker of likelihood of amplification of non-target DNA sequences would require *ex silico* analysis of known DNA sequences for which values of ρ could be calculated and data would be available as to successful amplification or not. It was therefore decided a categorical model should be considered.



Nucleotide	Primer (5' → 3')		Target		d	d2
	Number	Rank order	Number	Rank order		
Match	1	1	1	5	4	16
	1.5	2	1.5	6	4	16
Match	2	3	2	7	4	16
	2.5	4	2.5	8	4	16
Mismatch	3	5	0	2.5	2.5	6.25
	3.5	6	3.5	9	3	9
Match	4	7	4	10	3	9
	4.5	8	4.5	11	3	9
Match	5	9	5	12	3	9
	5.5	10	5.5	13	3	9
Match	6	11	6	14	3	9
	6.5	12	6.5	15	3	9
Match	7	13	7	16	3	9
	7.5	14	7.5	17	3	9
Match	8	15	8	18	3	9
	8.5	16	8.5	19	3	9
Match	9	17	9	20	3	9
	9.5	18	9.5	21	3	9
Match	10	19	10	22	3	9
	10.5	20	10.5	23	3	9
Match	11	21	11	24	3	9
	11.5	22	11.5	25	3	9
Match	12	23	12	26	3	9
	12.5	24	12.5	27	3	9
Match	13	25	13	28	3	9
	13.5	26	13.5	29	3	9
Match	14	27	14	30	3	9
	14.5	28	0	2.5	25.5	650.25
Deletion	15	29	0	2.5	26.5	702.25
	15.5	30	0	2.5	27.5	756.25
Match	16	31	16	31	0	0
	16.5	32	16.5	32	0	0
Match	17	33	17	33	0	0
	17.5	34	17.5	34	0	0
Match	18	35	18	35	0	0
	18.5	36	18.5	36	0	0
Match	19	37	19	37	0	0
	19.5	38	19.5	38	0	0
Match	20	39	20	39	0	0
	-	-	-	-	Total	2377

$$\rho = 1 - \frac{6 \sum d^2}{n(n^2 - 1)} = 1 - \frac{6 \times 2377}{39(39^2 - 1)} = 1 - \frac{14262}{59280} = 1 - 0.241 = 0.759$$

Figure 2.4: Illustration of how a Spearman’s ρ is calculated for a primer sequence in order to determine similarity to a target DNA sequence. Nucleotides are assigned a number based upon position relative to the 3’ end of the primer sequence. Additionally, a value of 0.5 is added between each nucleotide in order to distinguish between mismatches and additions/deletions. Biologically, deletions/additions have a larger impact than mismatches. All errors receive a number of 0. Mismatches score a single 0. Additions/deletions score 3 0s, i.e. the position of the nucleotide and the two nearest 0.5 numbers.

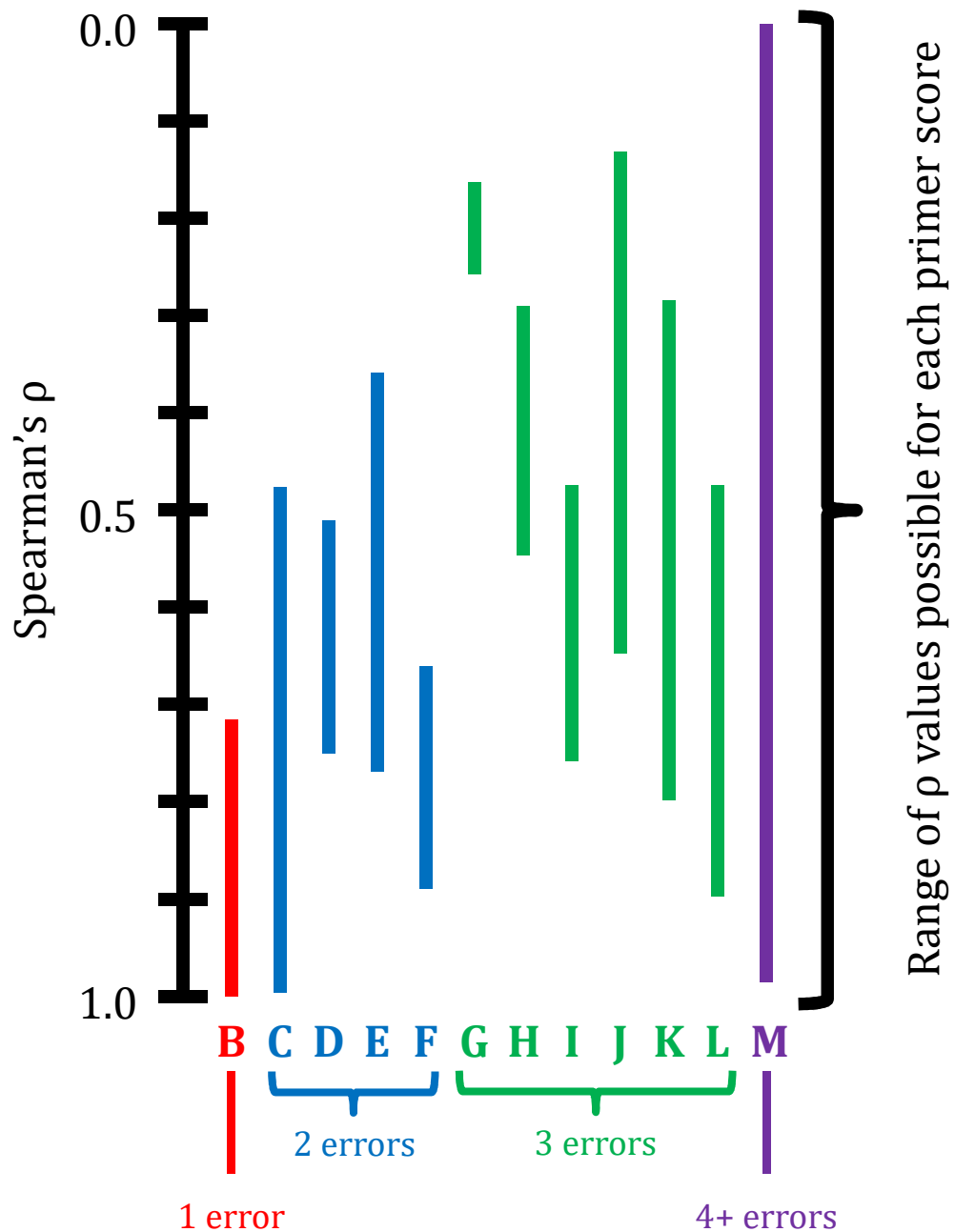


Figure 2.5: The ranges of values of ρ calculated for different numbers of errors (mismatches and additions/deletions) at different locations within the primer based upon the model that is fully elucidated in section Chapter 1. Using a 20bp example, firstly the nucleotides are divided into 2 parts, the 10 nucleotides closest to the 5' end and the 10 nucleotides closest to the 3' end. The 3' section is then further divided by 2. This results in 3 sections: the 25% of the primer closest to the 3' end, the 50% closest to the 3' end (includes the previous section), and the 50% of the primer furthest from the 3' end. The range of possible ρ values for up to 3 errors is calculated for the following location combinations: 1 error irrespective of location (B), 2 errors in the 3' 25% (C), 1 error in the 3' 25% and 1 error in the 5' 50% (D), 2 errors in the 3' 50% (E), 1 error in the 3' 50% and 1 error in the 5' 50% (F), 3 errors in the 3' 25% (G), 2 errors in the 3' 25% and 1 error in the 5' 50% (H), 1 error in the 3' 25% and 2 errors in the 5' 50% (I), 3 errors in the 3' 50% (J), 2 errors in the 3' 50% and 1 error in the 5' 50% (K), 1 error in the 3' 50% and 2 errors in the 5' 50% (L), 4 or more errors irrespective of location (M).

2.5 – Re-evaluation of the model.

As shown in sections 2.3 and 2.4, using a numerical means of categorising the impact of a nucleotide mismatch, addition or deletion factoring both type and position of an error did not prove successful due to the high amount of overlap in similarity score between different numbers of errors. Therefore a simpler approach was considered that focused on a broader definition of position and considered both mismatches and additions/deletions simply as an “error”.

Rather than considering the individual position of a nucleotide, primers were divided into three sections. As discussed in section 2.2, the closer an error is to the 3' end of the primer, the more likely it is to negatively impact the ability of polymerase to successfully start connecting the DNA backbone of nucleotides that are next to each other, therefore more emphasis is placed on the 3' end of the primer sequence. Section A is the 50% of the primer closest to the 5' end, Section B is the 50% of the primer closest to the 3' end, and Section C is the 25% of the primer that is closest to the 3' end (Figure 2.6). In this model, up to 3 errors are considered with an assumption that 4 or more errors would result in unsuccessful amplification. The scoring system employed is described in Table 2.3.

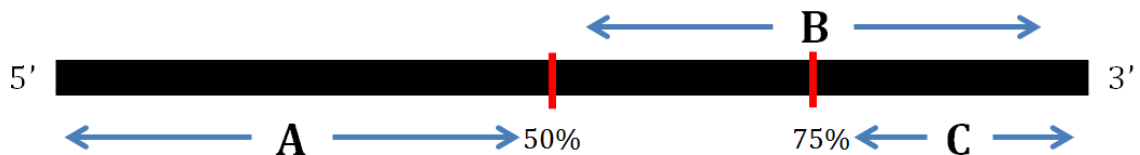


Figure 2.6: Illustration of how a primer is divided into 3 sections. Section A is the 50% of the primer that is closest to the 5' end of the nucleotide sequence, Section B is the 50% of the primer that is closest to the 3' end and Section C is the 25% of the nucleotide closest to the 3' end. This was done in order to emphasise the importance of errors closer to the 3' end of the sequence.

Table 2.3: Scoring of a primer based upon the number of errors (this can be a mismatch, an addition or a deletion of a nucleotide) within 3 different sections as shown in Figure 2.6. Section A is the 50% of the sequence closest to the 5' end of the primer, Section B is the 50% of the sequence closest to the 3' end and Section C is the 25% of the primer closest to the 3' end of the sequence. This is done to emphasise the importance of errors closest to the 3' end of the primer in its ability to anneal to a DNA strand. Up to 3 errors within a primer sequence are considered. Four or more errors within the whole primer are considered to be too many for successful annealing to occur.

Score	Number of errors in		
	Section A	Section B	Section C
A	No errors		
B	One error in whole primer		
C	-	-	2
D	1	-	1
E	-	2	-
F	1	1	-
G	-	-	3
H	1	-	2
I	2	-	1
J	-	3	-
K	1	2	-
L	2	1	-
M	Four or more errors in whole primer		

Once sequences have been scored based upon location of the error as shown in Table 2.3, the likelihood of annealing must then be defined. This, however, can depend upon the conditions within a PCR reaction and can be influenced by the type of polymerase, the primer concentration and MgCl₂ concentration. To this end a dual system was proposed for this model. Initial scoring is fixed as it is based upon *in silico* data but likelihood of annealing can be altered to suit the specificity of PCR reaction conditions. The likelihood of annealing was initially divided as follows: scores of A, B, D, F, I and L were considered “likely to anneal”, scores of G, J and M were considered “unlikely to anneal”, and the remaining scores of C, E, H and K were considered “maybe will anneal”.

2.6 – Calculating the probability of a primer pair amplifying a DNA sequence.

As stated in section 2.2, a library of sequence alignments was generated based upon the bacterial 16S rDNA housekeeping gene against which primers could be compared. From this, it was possible to calculate the mathematical probability of a primer pair annealing to a sequence from a specific genus. This was done using the following formula:

$$P(F \cap R) = P(F) \times P(R)$$

whereby $P(F \cap R)$ is the probability that both the forward primer (F) and reverse primer (R) will anneal, $P(F)$ is the probability that the forward primer will anneal and $P(R)$ is the probability that the reverse primer will anneal. The probability of an individual primer annealing is calculated based upon the categorising of “likely to anneal” given in section 2.5 as follows:

$$P(\text{annealing}) = (\{A\} + \{B\} + \{D\} + \{F\} + \{I\} + \{L\})$$

probability of each score, the following equation is used:

$$P(\text{score}) = \frac{\text{number of sequences with a specific score}}{\text{total number of sequences}}$$

As an example, a primer pair for the genus *Aeromonas* sp. (Adamek *et al.* 2013) was compared against 1100 *Aeromonas* sp. 16S rDNA sequences. From this, 911 hits were made for the forward primer and 903 hits were made for the reverse primer. All sequences were scored as described in section 2.5 and the number of sequences with each score for each primer was recorded as shown in Table 2.5.

Table 2.4: *Aeromonas* sp. 16S rDNA sequences were scored against a set of *Aeromonas* sp. PCR primers for the same gene. Scores are based on the analysis model given in section 2.5 and are assigned based upon the number of errors within a primer and their location in relation to the 3' end of the primer sequence. Scores highlighted in green are those expected to result in successful annealing between a primer and a DNA sequence.

Score	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M
Forward primer	882	12	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	1	13
Reverse primer	793	78	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	8	10	12

From this data, the probability of each possible outcome for each primer can be calculated as shown in Table 2.5.

Table 2.5: The probability of a 16S rDNA sequence from an *Aeromonas* sp. achieving a score of A-M when compared to a pair of *Aeromonas* sp. 16S rDNA primers. Probabilities are calculated by dividing the number of sequences with a specific score by the total number of sequences analysed for each primer. Scores highlighted in green are those expected to result in successful annealing between a primer and a DNA sequence.

Score	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M
P(F)	0.968	0.013	0	0	0.001	0.002	0	0	0	0	0	0.001	0.014
P(R)	0.878	0.086	0	0	0.001	0.001	0	0	0	0	0.009	0.011	0.013

As the probability of a primer annealing to a DNA sequence is not linked to other factors at this stage, it is calculated by summing up the probability of all outcomes that are likely to result in annealing as follows:

$$P(F) = 0.968 + 0.013 + 0 + 0.002 + 0 + 0.001 = \mathbf{0.985}$$

$$P(R) = 0.878 + 0.086 + 0 + 0.001 + 0 + 0.011 = \mathbf{0.977}$$

Unlike the probability of an individual primer annealing to a DNA sequence, the probability that there will be successful amplification in a PCR reaction is dependent upon both primers annealing to a DNA sequence. To this end, in order to calculate this, the probability of both primers annealing must be multiplied as follows:

$$P(F \cap R) = 0.985 \times 0.977 = \mathbf{0.962}$$

From this, based upon the model as stated in section 2.5, the probability of *Aeromonas* sp. 16S rDNA primers amplifying an *Aeromonas* sp. 16S rDNA sequence is 0.962. This indicates that the particular primer pair analysed will successfully anneal to more than 95% of *Aeromonas* sp. sequences within a mixed population. Whilst this information is important it does not ascertain if a primer pair will bind to non-target sequences within a mixed population. In order to resolve this the same primer pair was compared to 16S rDNA sequences from other bacteria genera including *Vibrio* sp., *Pseudomonas* sp., Enterobacteriaceae sp., *Lactobacillus* sp. and *Bacillus* sp.. The probabilities for the primer pairs annealing to sequences from each of these genera are as follows:

$$P(\textit{Vibrio DNA}) = 0$$

$$P(\textit{Pseudomonas DNA}) = 0$$

$$P(\textit{Enterobacteriaceae DNA}) = 0.039$$

$$P(\textit{Lactobacillus DNA}) = 0$$

$$P(\textit{Bacillus DNA}) = 0$$

This appears to be positive for both the model of analysis described in section 2.5 and the use of Adamek *et al.*'s (2013) *Aeromonas* sp. specific 16S rDNA primers within a mixed population. However without confirmation that this translates into a PCR reaction mix, the conclusion at this point is theoretical only.

2.7 – Testing of the model.

In order to test the accuracy of the model outlined in section 2.5, PCRs were

conducted using primer pairs designed to amplify *Pseudomonas* and *Lactobacillus*, i.e. an example of a primer pair that were likely to only amplify target sequences and an example that amplified non-target sequences, in addition to target sequences respectively. cDNA from a range of different bacterial species was prepared and utilised as a template for PCR analysis. Bacteria cultures were donated by Dr. Verena Jung-Schroers (University of Veterinary Medicine, Hanover, Germany) and were grown at 25°C for 24 hours on blood agar plates before a single colony was transferred into 2ml of TriFast reagent and frozen at -80°C. The cultures utilised were as follows: *Aeromonas allosaccharophila* (S39232.2), *Aeromonas hydrophila* (KJ743719.1), *Bacillus cereus* (KJ833790.1), *Bacillus thuringiensis* (KJ722440.1), *Citrobacter freundii* (JX860619.1), *Edwardsiella ictaluri* (KC789872.1), *Vibrio* sp. (GQ359963.1), *Aeromonas hydrophila*, *Aeromonas sobria*, *Citrobacter farmeri*, *Citrobacter youngae*, *Pseudomonas alcaligenes*, *Pseudomonas putida*, and *Pseudomonas fluorescens*. Samples were then shipped to Keele University (UK) on ice where RNA was isolated using a phenol/chloroform isolation protocol as outlined in section 2.7.1. cDNA was synthesised using Moloney Murine Leukemia Virus (MuLV) Reverse Transcriptase (RT) as described in section 2.7.2. PCRs were then performed as outlined in section 2.7.3 with primer sequences being described in Appendix 3.

2.7.1 – RNA isolation.

Bacteria cultures suspended in TriFast were incubated at room temperature for 5 minutes before 0.2ml of chloroform was added and the tubes shaken by hand for 15 seconds. Samples were incubated at room temperature for a further 3 minutes before centrifugation at 12,000 x *g* for 15 minutes at 4°C. The RNA containing

aqueous phase was removed to a fresh tube and mixed with 0.5ml of 100% isopropanol and incubated at room temperature for 10 minutes. Samples were then subject to centrifugation (12,000 x *g*) for 10 minutes at 4°C. The supernatant was removed and the remaining pellet washed with 1ml of 75% ethanol. After a final centrifugation at 7,500 x *g* for 5 minutes at 4°C, the supernatant was discarded and the samples left to air dry for 5 minutes before being resuspended in RNase free water and incubated at 55°C for 10 minutes. Samples were stored at -80°C until used.

2.7.2 – cDNA synthesis.

cDNA was synthesised as outlined in Falco *et al.* (2012b) using M-MuLV RT. Briefly, 500ng of RNA was incubated with a final concentration of 5mM MgCl₂, 1X PCR buffer II, 0.5mM dNTPs, 1.25µM random hexamers, 20U RNase Inhibitor and 25U M-MuLV RT at 25°C for 10 minutes, 42°C for 30 minutes and 95°C in a GeneAmp PCR system 9700 thermocycler. Samples were stored at -20°C until further use.

2.7.3 – PCR analysis.

In order to test the two genus specific 16S rDNA primer pairs, it was decided to use the same conditions selected for use in future RT-qPCR analysis of experimental samples. RT-qPCR assays were performed using an ABI Prism® 9000 Sequence Detection System and the SensiFAST™ SYBR® HiROX kit as per the manufacturer's instructions. Assays were performed in a total volume of 20µl with primers utilised at a concentration of 0.2µM each. 2µl of undiluted template cDNA was used in each assay. A thermal profile of an initial 2 minutes at 95°C and 40 cycles

of 5 seconds at 95°C and 30 seconds at 62°C was performed followed by production of a dissociation curve based upon the default thermal settings as defined by version 1.2.3 of the software for the thermocycler. Positive amplification was determined using the dissociation curve rather than based upon a C_t in order to eliminate any false positives produced by primer dimers, and a PCR is described as successful annealing if a peak was obtained in the disassociation curve.

2.7.4 – Results.

Where sequence data was available for the bacteria analysed, analysis was performed using the model described in section 2.5. Successful amplification of DNA was determined based upon presence of a PCR product when analysing the dissociation curve produced at the end of the thermal program. Table 2.6 shows the outcome for each primer pair. The model inaccurately predicted 2 outcomes for the *Pseudomonas* primer pair and only 1 outcome for the *Lactobacillus* primer pair giving the model an overall success rate of 87.5%, i.e. 21/24 predicted outcomes were correct. Based upon this, it was decided to continue using the model in its current format without further adjustment to the scoring system in order to determine the likelihood of qPCR primers amplifying non-target sequences.

Table 2.6: Results of analysis of two primer pairs against cDNA from 14 different bacterial isolates. Where sequence data was available, predictions as to the likelihood of successful PCR were made using the model outlined in section 2.5. Letter/Letter represents the score for the forward and reverse PCR primer. P = successful PCR amplification is expected. NP = successful PCR amplification is not expected. Results highlighted in orange indicate where the outcome of the PCR was not as predicted by the model.

Species of bacteria	Model score for each primer and presence of product			
	Pseudomonas		Lactobacillus	
<i>Aeromonas allosaccharophila</i> S39232.2	M(5)/M(5)	NP	K/D	P
<i>Aeromonas hydrophila</i> KJ743719.1	M(5)/M(5)	NP	K/D	P
<i>Bacillus cereus</i> KJ833790.1	-/M(5)	NP	-/B	P
<i>Bacillus thuringiensis</i> KJ722440.1	M(10)/M(5)	NP	B/B	P
<i>Citrobacter freundii</i> JX860619.1	M(4)/M(5)	NP	K/D	P
<i>Edwardsiella ictaluri</i> KC789872.1	L/M(5)	NP	K/D	P
<i>Vibrio</i> sp. GQ359963.1	K/M(6)	NP	K/D	NP
<i>Aeromonas hydrophila</i>	NP		P	
<i>Aeromonas sobria</i>	NP		P	
<i>Citrobacter farmeri</i>	NP		P	
<i>Citrobacter youngae</i>	P		P	
<i>Pseudomonas alcaligenes</i>	NP		NP	
<i>Pseudomonas putida</i>	P		NP	
<i>Pseudomonas fluorescens</i>	P		P	

2.8 – Using the model to analyse primer pairs.

Primer pairs for the bacterial 16S rDNA gene (Thompson *et al.* 2004, Martinez-Puig *et al.* 2007, Bergmark *et al.* 2012, Adamek *et al.* 2013) were compared against sequences obtained from the ENA database as outlined in section 2.2. The model described in section 2.5 was utilised in order to assess the likelihood of a primer pair amplifying both target and non-target DNA sequences.

The first set of primers analysed were the total 16S rDNA primers (Adamek *et*

al. 2013). The average likelihood of binding was calculated to be 0.969 (Table 2.7) against bacteria that had previously been identified as being present within the gut of carp such as *Aeromonas*, *Pseudomonas*, *Lactobacillus*, Enterobacteriaceae and *Vibrio* (Sugita *et al.* 1996, Jung-Schroers *et al.* 2015).

A pair of 16S primers generated against Enterobacteriaceae sp. (Martinez-Puig *et al.* 2007) were analysed using the model and both forwards and reverse primers had a probability of less than 0.15 of annealing to target sequences therefore further analysis was not performed (Table 2.8) due to the low probability of amplification of target sequences.

From the same paper as the Enterobacteriaceae sp. primers (Martinez-Puig *et al.* 2007), a pair of 16S primers to *Lactobacillus* sp. were also analysed (Table 2.9). From the model, a probability of 0.984 was calculated when the primer pair were compared to target 16S sequences. Although the probability of successful annealing as calculated based upon sequences receiving a score of A, B, D, F, I or L is less than 0.005 for the genera *Aeromonas*, *Vibrio* and the class Enterobacteriaceae, it can clearly be seen in Table 2.9 that many sequences received a score where it was not known if successful annealing would occur (C, E, H or K). Additionally, the primers have a probability of 0.947 of annealing to a 16S sequence from a *Bacillus* sp.. The only genus analysed where amplification will not occur is *Pseudomonas* due to the fact the forward primer scored exclusively M, i.e. 4 or more errors within each primer, for the sequences analysed based upon the model in its current format. If it proves that 4 errors can still result in successful annealing of a primer, due to the fact the reverse primer of 0.951 of successfully annealing, there is a strong chance *Pseudomonas* sp. sequences will also be amplified by this primer pair.

The *Vibrio* sp. 16S primers analysed (Thompson *et al.* 2004) have a probability of 0.978 that they will successfully anneal to target sequences (Table 2.10). The calculated probability of successful annealing as described in section 2.6 is less than 0.001 for all other genera analysed, however the reverse primer has a probability of 0.990 of successfully annealing to a sequence from an *Aeromonas* sp.. Additionally, 99% of the *Aeromonas* sp. sequences against which the forward primer was compared gave a score where it is unknown whether successful annealing is likely to happen (C, E, H or K). In order to accurately determine if this primer pair will amplify *Aeromonas* sp., a more in depth analysis of the annealing capabilities of primers with a “maybe” score (C, E, H or K) must be performed.

Pseudomonas sp. specific 16S primers (Bergmark *et al.* 2012) have a probability of 0.947 of annealing to target sequences (Table 2.11). The probability of these primers successfully annealing to sequences from the genera *Aeromonas*, *Lactobacillus* and *Bacillus* is less than 0.001. This is also the probability for the genus *Vibrio*, however 70% of the *Vibrio* sequences against which the reverse primer was compared gave a score where it is unknown if successful annealing is likely (C, E, H or K). Should these scores prove conducive to successful annealing, this could significantly increase the probability of the primer pair as a whole amplifying *Vibrio* 16S sequences in addition *Pseudomonas*, i.e. the target sequences.

Table 2.7: Analysis of total 16S rDNA primers (Adamek *et al.* 2013) using the model outlined in section 2.5. Primers are compared to 16S rDNA sequences from different bacteria genera and the probability of the primer pair annealing to sequences from each genus is calculated. Green represents a score of A, B, D, F, I or L and is defined as likely to anneal. Blue represents a score of C, E, H or K and is defined as unknown if successful annealing will occur. Red represents a score of G, J or M and is defined as annealing is unlikely to occur.

Total 16S rDNA primers: analysis by genus					
<i>Aeromonas</i> sp.	Forward	469	Reverse	464	
	A,B,D,F,I,L	460	A,B,D,F,I,L	464	
	C,E,H,K	8	C,E,H,K	0	
	G,J,M	1	G,J,M	0	
	Probability of successful binding	Forward		$P(F) = 0.981$	
		Reverse		$P(R) = 1.000$	
Both		$P(F \cap R) = 0.981$			
<i>Bacillus</i> sp.	Forward	654	Reverse	616	
	A,B,D,F,I,L	642	A,B,D,F,I,L	610	
	C,E,H,K	4	C,E,H,K	2	
	G,J,M	8	G,J,M	4	
	Probability of successful binding	Forward		$P(F) = 0.982$	
		Reverse		$P(R) = 0.990$	
Both		$P(F \cap R) = 0.972$			
Enterobacteriaceae sp.	Forward	471	Reverse	409	
	A,B,D,F,I,L	452	A,B,D,F,I,L	408	
	C,E,H,K	11	C,E,H,K	0	
	G,J,M	8	G,J,M	1	
	Probability of successful binding	Forward		$P(F) = 0.960$	
		Reverse		$P(R) = 0.998$	
Both		$P(F \cap R) = 0.957$			
<i>Lactobacillus</i> sp.	Forward	486	Reverse	461	
	A,B,D,F,I,L	408	A,B,D,F,I,L	476	
	C,E,H,K	0	C,E,H,K	10	
	G,J,M	1	G,J,M	0	
	Probability of successful binding	Forward		$P(F) = 0.979$	
		Reverse		$P(R) = 0.996$	
Both		$P(F \cap R) = 0.975$			
<i>Pseudomonas</i> sp.	Forward	305	Reverse	327	
	A,B,D,F,I,L	287	A,B,D,F,I,L	326	
	C,E,H,K	16	C,E,H,K	0	
	G,J,M	2	G,J,M	1	
	Probability of successful binding	Forward		$P(F) = 0.941$	
		Reverse		$P(R) = 0.997$	
Both		$P(F \cap R) = 0.938$			
<i>Vibrio</i> sp.	Forward	338	Reverse	339	
	A,B,D,F,I,L	327	A,B,D,F,I,L	339	
	C,E,H,K	8	C,E,H,K	0	
	G,J,M	1	G,J,M	0	
	Probability of successful binding	Forward		$P(F) = 0.967$	
		Reverse		$P(R) = 1.000$	
Both		$P(F \cap R) = 0.967$			

Table 2.8: Analysis of Enterobacteriaceae sp. primers against 16S rDNA sequences from Enterobacteriaceae sp. and scored as per the model (section 2.5). The probability of successful annealing is calculated. Green represents a score of A, B, D, F, I or L and is defined as likely to anneal. Blue represents a score of C, E, H or K and is defined as unknown if successful annealing will occur. Red represents a score of G, J or M and is defined as annealing is unlikely to occur.

Enterobacteriaceae 16S rDNA primers: analysis by genus					
Enterobacteriaceae sp.	Forward	988	Reverse	1036	
	A,B,D,F,I,L	448	A,B,D,F,I,L	341	
	C,E,H,K	50	C,E,H,K	127	
	G,J,M	490	G,J,M	568	
	Probability of successful binding	Forward		$P(F) = 0.453$	
		Reverse		$P(R) = 0.329$	
Both		$P(F \cap R) = 0.149$			

Table 2.9: Analysis of 16S rDNA primers designed to amplify only bacteria from the genus *Lactobacillus*. Primers are compared against 16S sequences from multiple genera and scored using the model described in section 2.5. The probability of successful annealing is shown. Green represents a score of A, B, D, F, I or L and is defined as likely to anneal. Blue represents a score of C, E, H or K and is defined as unknown if successful annealing will occur. Red represents a score of G, J or M and is defined as annealing is unlikely to occur.

<i>Lactobacillus</i> 16S rDNA primers: analysis by genus				
<i>Aeromonas</i> sp.	Forward	480	Reverse	473
	A,B,D,F,I,L	0	A,B,D,F,I,L	473
	C,E,H,K	477	C,E,H,K	0
	G,J,M	3	G,J,M	0
	Probability of successful binding	Forward		$P(F) = 0.000$
	Reverse		$P(R) = 1.000$	
	Both		$P(F \cap R) = 0.000$	
<i>Bacillus</i> sp.	Forward	759	Reverse	506
	A,B,D,F,I,L	729	A,B,D,F,I,L	499
	C,E,H,K	25	C,E,H,K	5
	G,J,M	5	G,J,M	2
	Probability of successful binding	Forward		$P(F) = 0.960$
	Reverse		$P(R) = 0.986$	
	Both		$P(F \cap R) = 0.947$	
Enterobacteriaceae sp.	Forward	1110	Reverse	1020
	A,B,D,F,I,L	0	A,B,D,F,I,L	970
	C,E,H,K	1083	C,E,H,K	39
	G,J,M	27	G,J,M	11
	Probability of successful binding	Forward		$P(F) = 0.000$
	Reverse		$P(R) = 0.951$	
	Both		$P(F \cap R) = 0.000$	
<i>Lactobacillus</i> sp.	Forward	657	Reverse	493
	A,B,D,F,I,L	653	A,B,D,F,I,L	488
	C,E,H,K	1	C,E,H,K	3
	G,J,M	3	G,J,M	2
	Probability of successful binding	Forward		$P(F) = 0.994$
	Reverse		$P(R) = 0.984$	
	Both		$P(F \cap R) = 0.990$	
<i>Pseudomonas</i> sp.	Forward	416	Reverse	384
	A,B,D,F,I,L	0	A,B,D,F,I,L	367
	C,E,H,K	0	C,E,H,K	13
	G,J,M	416	G,J,M	4
	Probability of successful binding	Forward		$P(F) = 0.000$
	Reverse		$P(R) = 0.956$	
	Both		$P(F \cap R) = 0.000$	
<i>Vibrio</i> sp.	Forward	464	Reverse	348
	A,B,D,F,I,L	2	A,B,D,F,I,L	342
	C,E,H,K	455	C,E,H,K	1
	G,J,M	7	G,J,M	5
	Probability of successful binding	Forward		$P(F) = 0.004$
	Reverse		$P(R) = 0.983$	
	Both		$P(F \cap R) = 0.004$	

Table 2.10: Analysis of 16S rDNA primers designed to amplify only bacteria from the genus *Vibrio*. Primers are compared against 16S sequences from multiple genera and scored using the model described in section 2.5. The probability of successful annealing is shown. Green represents a score of A, B, D, F, I or L and is defined as likely to anneal. Blue represents a score of C, E, H or K and is defined as unknown if successful annealing will occur. Red represents a score of G, J or M and is defined as annealing is unlikely to occur.

<i>Vibrio</i> 16S rDNA primers: analysis by genus				
<i>Aeromonas</i> sp.	Forward	998	Reverse	997
	A,B,D,F,I,L	0	A,B,D,F,I,L	987
	C,E,H,K	992	C,E,H,K	4
	G,J,M	6	G,J,M	6
	Probability of successful binding	Forward		$P(F) = 0.000$
	Reverse		$P(R) = 0.990$	
	Both		$P(F \cap R) = 0.000$	
<i>Bacillus</i> sp.	Forward	672	Reverse	659
	A,B,D,F,I,L	0	A,B,D,F,I,L	0
	C,E,H,K	256	C,E,H,K	0
	G,J,M	416	G,J,M	659
	Probability of successful binding	Forward		$P(F) = 0.000$
	Reverse		$P(R) = 0.000$	
	Both		$P(F \cap R) = 0.000$	
Enterobacteriaceae sp.	Forward	345	Reverse	308
	A,B,D,F,I,L	5	A,B,D,F,I,L	289
	C,E,H,K	332	C,E,H,K	9
	G,J,M	8	G,J,M	10
	Probability of successful binding	Forward		$P(F) = 0.014$
	Reverse		$P(R) = 0.938$	
	Both		$P(F \cap R) = 0.014$	
<i>Lactobacillus</i> sp.	Forward	533	Reverse	506
	A,B,D,F,I,L	0	A,B,D,F,I,L	0
	C,E,H,K	0	C,E,H,K	0
	G,J,M	533	G,J,M	506
	Probability of successful binding	Forward		$P(F) = 0.000$
	Reverse		$P(R) = 0.000$	
	Both		$P(F \cap R) = 0.000$	
<i>Pseudomonas</i> sp.	Forward	527	Reverse	527
	A,B,D,F,I,L	0	A,B,D,F,I,L	0
	C,E,H,K	0	C,E,H,K	91
	G,J,M	539	G,J,M	436
	Probability of successful binding	Forward		$P(F) = 0.000$
	Reverse		$P(R) = 0.000$	
	Both		$P(F \cap R) = 0.000$	
<i>Vibrio</i> sp.	Forward	373	Reverse	342
	A,B,D,F,I,L	368	A,B,D,F,I,L	339
	C,E,H,K	1	C,E,H,K	1
	G,J,M	4	G,J,M	2
	Probability of successful binding	Forward		$P(F) = 0.987$
	Reverse		$P(R) = 0.991$	
	Both		$P(F \cap R) = 0.978$	

Table 2.11: Analysis of 16S rDNA primers designed to amplify only bacteria from the genus *Pseudomonas*. Primers are compared against 16S sequences from multiple genera and scored using the model described in section 2.5. The probability of successful annealing is shown. Green represents a score of A, B, D, F, I or L and is defined as likely to anneal. Blue represents a score of C, E, H or K and is defined as unknown if successful annealing will occur. Red represents a score of G, J or M and is defined as annealing is unlikely to occur.

<i>Pseudomonas</i> 16S rDNA primers: analysis by genus				
<i>Aeromonas</i> sp.	Forward	1060	Reverse	909
	A,B,D,F,I,L	0	A,B,D,F,I,L	0
	C,E,H,K	0	C,E,H,K	0
	G,J,M	1060	G,J,M	909
	Probability of successful binding	Forward		$P(F) = 0.000$
	Reverse		$P(R) = 0.000$	
	Both		$P(F \cap R) = 0.000$	
<i>Bacillus</i> sp.	Forward	646	Reverse	657
	A,B,D,F,I,L	1	A,B,D,F,I,L	0
	C,E,H,K	0	C,E,H,K	0
	G,J,M	645	G,J,M	657
	Probability of successful binding	Forward		$P(F) = 0.002$
	Reverse		$P(R) = 0.000$	
	Both		$P(F \cap R) = 0.000$	
Enterobacteriaceae sp.	Forward	1117	Reverse	1028
	A,B,D,F,I,L	72	A,B,D,F,I,L	1
	C,E,H,K	21	C,E,H,K	0
	G,J,M	1024	G,J,M	1027
	Probability of successful binding	Forward		$P(F) = 0.000$
	Reverse		$P(R) = 0.001$	
	Both		$P(F \cap R) = 0.000$	
<i>Lactobacillus</i> sp.	Forward	649	Reverse	500
	A,B,D,F,I,L	0	A,B,D,F,I,L	0
	C,E,H,K	0	C,E,H,K	0
	G,J,M	649	G,J,M	500
	Probability of successful binding	Forward		$P(F) = 0.000$
	Reverse		$P(R) = 0.000$	
	Both		$P(F \cap R) = 0.000$	
<i>Pseudomonas</i> sp.	Forward	880	Reverse	976
	A,B,D,F,I,L	856	A,B,D,F,I,L	950
	C,E,H,K	7	C,E,H,K	7
	G,J,M	17	G,J,M	19
	Probability of successful binding	Forward		$P(F) = 0.973$
	Reverse		$P(R) = 0.956$	
	Both		$P(F \cap R) = 0.930$	
<i>Vibrio</i> sp.	Forward	461	Reverse	350
	A,B,D,F,I,L	32	A,B,D,F,I,L	0
	C,E,H,K	7	C,E,H,K	242
	G,J,M	422	G,J,M	108
	Probability of successful binding	Forward		$P(F) = 0.069$
	Reverse		$P(R) = 0.000$	
	Both		$P(F \cap R) = 0.000$	

2.9 – Conclusion.

The model and data presented in this chapter highlights the importance of checking primers for specificity, specifically those designed for use with the bacterial 16S rDNA housekeeping gene, before use, even if they are obtained from published journals. Defining the likelihood of a primer pair annealing to non-target DNA sequences is not a common way of considering primers during primer design and, as such, development of a means of analysing a primers ability to amplify non-target DNA needs careful consideration. Testing of primers against DNA templates taken from pure bacterial cultures shows that the final model presented is successful in identifying if a primer pair is likely to successfully amplify non-target DNA sequences before carrying out laboratory work. Although the secondary level of scoring, i.e. if a score based upon the number of errors present is likely to result in annealing, has only been described for one particular set of PCR conditions, this can be adjusted to suit other conditions.

The advantage of using a model such as the one presented is it reduces the long term costs of testing if primers anneal to non-target sequences through laboratory based studies. Primer pairs can be analysed *in silico* and the probability of successful annealing to either target or non-target DNA calculated before any time is spent within a laboratory. This model was utilised to analyse all 16S primer pairs utilised within this thesis.

Chapter 3 – Optimisation of microbiological techniques.

This following chapter presents work pertaining to the optimisation of techniques used during culture based microbiology analysis. Whilst the molecular methodologies employed within this thesis had been previously optimised, those required for analysis of bacteria cultures had not. This chapter also details the design and optimisation of the digital image analysis program PENGUIN which was built in collaboration with web developer Todd Specht (The Woodpecker Project, UK) as a means of accurately measuring differences in bacterial colony size. A list of all chemicals and equipment utilised within the protocols presented in this chapter can be found in Appendix 2.

3.1 – Preparation of MacroGard®.

The aim of all assays presented within this chapter is to establish the best means of measuring the effect of MacroGard® on the rate of bacterial growth. As previously stated, MacroGard® is a β -1/3,1/6-glucan compound produced by Biorigin (Brazil) that contains approximately 60% β -glucan. MacroGard® was prepared as described by the manufacturers as follows: MacroGard® powder was weighed out and mixed with sterile nutrient broth at a concentration of 10% w/v. This was then sonicated in two 30 second bursts using a Sonics Vibra-cell sonicator set on 6 (high). MacroGard® was then incubated at 80°C for 20 minutes and either added to liquid agar before cooling (~50°C) or cooled to 4°C in a fridge before being mixed with nutrient broth.

3.2 – Colourmetric assessment of inhibition of bacterial growth.

A minimum inhibition concentration assay (Mann and Markham 1998) using the dye resazurin was utilised to determine the concentrations of MacroGard® that were toxic to a bacterial suspension (see section 4.2.2 for the details of bacteria utilised). Using a “checkerboard” format on a 96 well plate, concentrations of both bacteria and MacroGard® were analysed as shown in Figure 3.1. Briefly, bacteria were incubated with shaking overnight at 100RPM in 50ml nutrient broth at room temperature (20°C). In order to ascertain the concentration of the bacteria suspension, a colony forming unit (CFU) count was performed. 50µl of a 1:10 serial dilution of inoculated broth was applied to nutrient agar plates (3x per dilution) and incubated at 20°C for 24 hours and the number of CFUs in the undiluted broth was calculated using the following equation:

$$CFU(per\ ml) = (mx + c) \times 20$$

Where m is the slope of the linear plot of CFU versus dilution factor, x is the desired dilution factor, i.e. 1, and c is the point at which the linear trendline intercepts the y axis.

During this time, the original inoculated broth was kept at 4°C to minimise further growth. Once the concentration was determined, suspensions were warmed to room temperature by incubation at 20°C for 20 minutes. MacroGard® was prepared as described in section 3.1 and added to a 96 well plate as shown in Figure 3.1 to produce a final concentration of 0.1% w/v to 0.01% w/v MacroGard® in 100µl of nutrient broth. 100µl of bacteria inoculated nutrient broth was added to each well across a 96 well plate as described in Figure 3.1 giving a final total volume of 200µl

per well. Plates were incubated at room temperature with shaking (MaxQ 4000 incubator, 125RPM) for 18 hours. 10µl of 0.01% w/v resazurin dye was added to each well and the plate incubated for a further 15 minutes at room temperature with shaking (125RPM). In this colorimetric assay, live bacteria metabolise the resazurin dye turning the solution within the well from blue to pink which is visible by eye as illustrated in Figure 3.2. Inhibition of growth is shown by the solution remaining blue after the final incubation period.

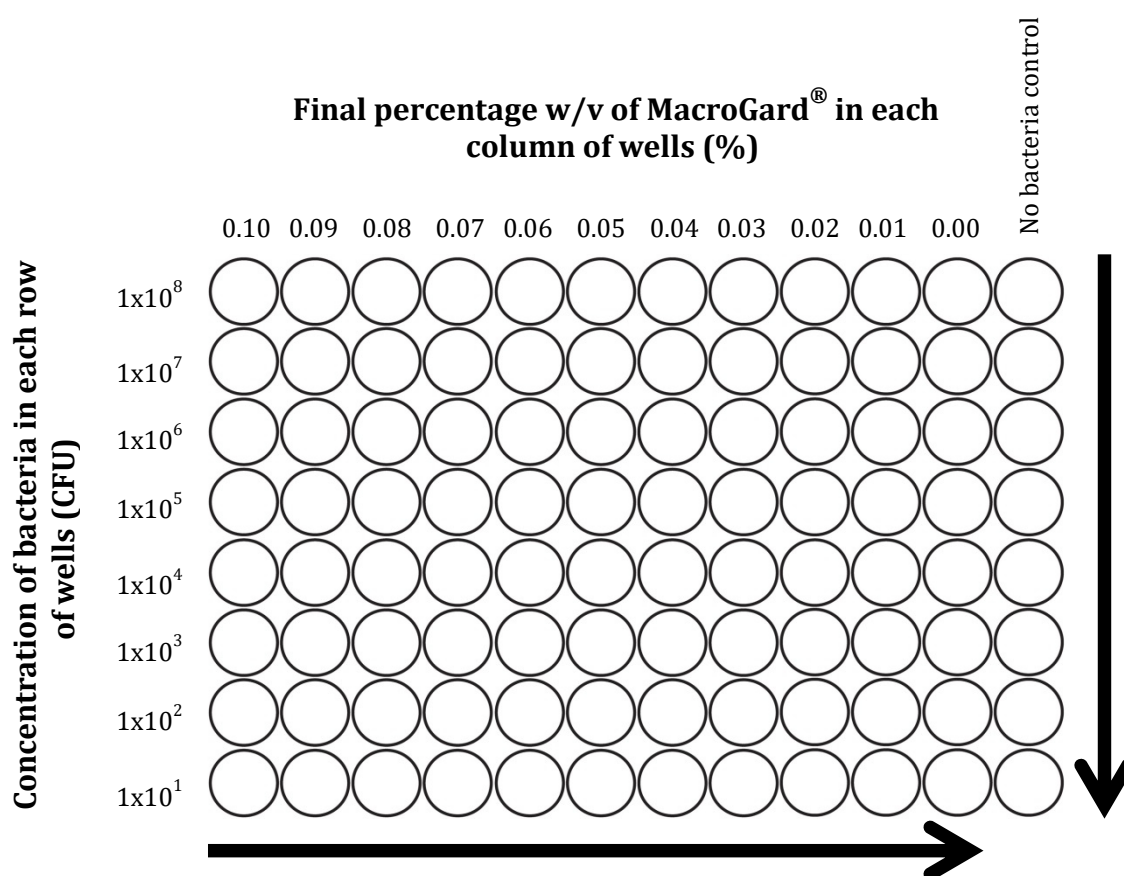


Figure 3.1: Schematic showing the layout of 96 well plates utilised to determine inhibitory concentrations of MacroGard® to bacterial growth. A checkerboard design was applied with columns containing varying MacroGard® concentrations (final concentration of 0.1 – 0.0% w/v) and rows containing a range of initial bacteria concentrations (1×10^8 – 1×10^1 CFU). Column 11 (0.0% MacroGard®) is a MacroGard® negative control. Column 12 is a bacteria negative control. Image adapted from <http://www.cellsignet.com/media/plates/96.jpg>.

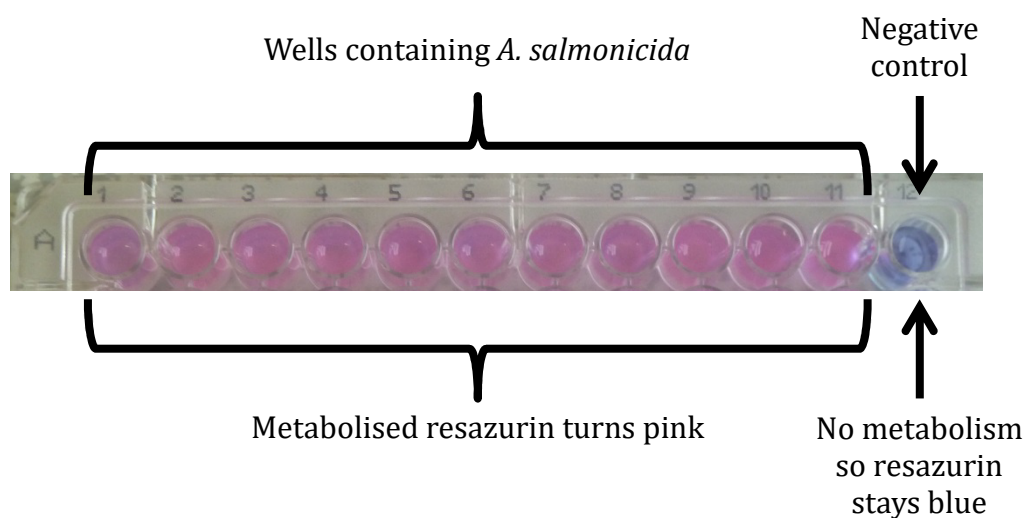


Figure 3.2: Image illustrating the visible by eye colour change that occurs during a resazurin dye based assay. As described in section 3.2, 10 μ l of resazurin dye (0.01%w/v) is added to an overnight culture and incubated at room temperature (\sim 20 $^{\circ}$ C) for 15 minutes with shaking (MaxQ 4000 incubator, 125RPM). Wells 1-11 were inoculated with *Aeromonas salmonicida* which has metabolised the blue resazurin dye (as seen in well 12 which is a negative control) resulting in a visible colour change to pink.

3.3 – Analysing bacterial growth after incubation in nutrient broth.

Whilst the resazurin assay presented in section 3.2 is an efficient method of analysing a wide range of MacroGard[®] concentrations in a short space of time, it only shows inhibition and not an increase of growth. Therefore a second broth based assay was considered that allows for identification of both inhibition and promotion of bacterial growth (see section 4.2.2 for details of bacteria utilised).

50ml nutrient broth was inoculated with bacteria and incubated with shaking (100RPM) overnight at room temperature (\sim 20 $^{\circ}$ C). The number of bacteria within the broth after incubation was determined by CFU count as previously described in section 3.2. 1x10⁵CFU (in a volume of 1ml) of bacteria was added to a fresh 50ml nutrient broth preparation, or a 50ml preparation containing 0.1% or 0.01% w/v MacroGard[®]. These newly inoculated cultures were then incubated for 18 hours at

room temperature after which quantification of CFU was performed based upon a 1:10 serial dilution with counts being taken on plates with less than 300 colonies. To compare differences in average CFU at a specific dilution factor, e.g. 1×10^{-5} , a 1 way ANOVA was used after the data was checked for normality and homoscedasticity using an Anderson-Darling test and Levene's test respectively.

3.4 – Analysing bacterial growth when MacroGard® is present in a solid agar.

The advantage of the protocol outlined in section 3.3 is that it is possible to detect both inhibition and promotion of bacterial growth, however it is a time consuming protocol taking up to 5 days to complete. As such, ways of reducing this timeframe whilst still having the ability to analyse both inhibition and promotion were considered. The next approach trialled was embedding MacroGard® into a nutrient agar plate. As MacroGard® is not completely soluble, different approaches to achieve an even distribution within the agar were considered.

Firstly, MacroGard®, at a final concentration of 0.1% w/v liquid agar, was added to the agar mix before being autoclaved (121°C for 15 minutes), however the MacroGard® did not disperse evenly within the mix and clumped into visible lumps throughout the plates that could not be broken up through shaking or vortexing the liquid agar (~50°C).

Secondly, MacroGard® was prepared at a concentration of 10% w/v in nutrient broth as described in section 3.1 and added to the nutrient agar (final concentration of 0.1% w/v) after it had been autoclaved. Pouring the MacroGard® into the liquid agar (~50°C) and mixing by hand resulted in an even distribution of MacroGard® by eye which was confirmed by use of the PENGUIN program (see

section 3.5) which showed the same amount of variation between different areas of the same plate and different plates as was present in standard nutrient agar without MacroGard®.

These MacroGard® embedded plates were therefore used to establish the effects of this carbohydrate on bacterial growth. Briefly: bacteria cultures (as detailed in section 4.2.6) were grown overnight at 20°C in 30ml nutrient broth after which they were subject to a 1:100,000 dilution (performed as a 1:10 serial dilution) and 50µl of bacteria was applied to either MacroGard® embedded nutrient agar plates or standard nutrient agar plates (control) in triplicate. Plates were then incubated for up to 72 hours and the number of CFU per plate measured. Statistical analysis was performed as described in section 3.3.

3.5 – Using image analysis to measure bacterial growth rates.

Whilst the previously described methods measure any toxic effect or an increase in bacterial growth, they do not consider if there is an effect upon the speed at which the bacteria growth took place. The following sections described the ideas behind and optimisation of a program that was used to measure bacteria colony size based upon colour changes on an agar plate over time. Using a descriptive moniker, the program has been named “PlatE aNalysis proGram UsINg pixels to measure bacteria colony size”, i.e. PENGUIN.

3.5.1 – Concept development.

Vera-Jimenez and Nielsen (2013) describe the use of digital imaging to measure rates of cell growth by transforming photographs of monolayers into a

binary system whereby measurements were taken of pixel change, i.e. a black pixel that was previously white represents growth of the monolayer. Digital imaging has been successfully used to map out changes in size of wounds on the skin of carp and rainbow trout (Przybylska-Diaz *et al.* 2013, Schmidt *et al.* 2016), and it was based on these preliminary observations that the idea of utilising this concept to measure growth rates of bacterial colonies came about.

The use of digital image analysis to measure bacteria cell growth is not new and there is equipment available (e.g. Sorcerer Colony Counter by Perceptive Instruments; Topac Colony Counter) to measure inhibition zones as part of microbiological analysis but, within the scope of this PhD, the costs associated with such products were prohibitory and have the limitation that they cannot be adapted for field based studies.

To this end, a collaboration was established with Todd Specht (The Woodpecker Project, United Kingdom) to generate a tool capable of measuring bacterial colony size without incurring the high costs seen with the commercially available systems. In addition, it was hoped that such a system could also be applied to other aspects of biology, and have some scope to be used in field-based aquaculture. Two approaches were taken to this: 1 – a library of “bacteria colours” would be generated against which single images of colonies could be compared, and 2 – images of bacterial growth would be compared to a base image taken directly after seeding agar plates. In both cases, images are converted into binary, i.e. pixels that are bacteria and pixels that are not bacteria, and from this, growth could be quantified using a pixel count.

3.5.2 – Writing the script for PENGUIN.

All coding work was performed by Todd Specht. The script was written using the language PHP based upon the program php-skindetection which is designed to detect skin/skin tones in images. Initial offline testing of the program showed processing power would be a major restriction therefore a cloud based server was selected to host the program. It is based upon an RGB colour model and can distinguish between 255^3 different colours.

3.5.3 – Single image analysis.

The first approach considered a means of determining pixels that represented bacteria based upon the original use for the script from which PENGUIN was developed. Php-skindetection is a programme designed to identify human skin in photographs and works by calculating the percentage of an image that was “skin” based upon a predetermined library of colours. Any pixel within the image that matched this library was defined as skin.

Transposing this concept to use it to measure bacteria colony size required knowing the colour palette of a bacteria species for analysis. *E. coli* (NCIMB 8277 kindly donated by Nigel Bowers, Keele University, UK) was used during optimisation and images of bacteria colonies on a nutrient agar base were taken under natural light conditions of colony growth after 24 hours against a black background.

An individual colony was chosen from which a range of colours (based upon the RGB colour palette) was selected for testing and a 249x273 pixel image section was analysed. A black and white image was produced whereby black is pixels that are

not within the selected colour range and white pixels are (Figure 3.3).

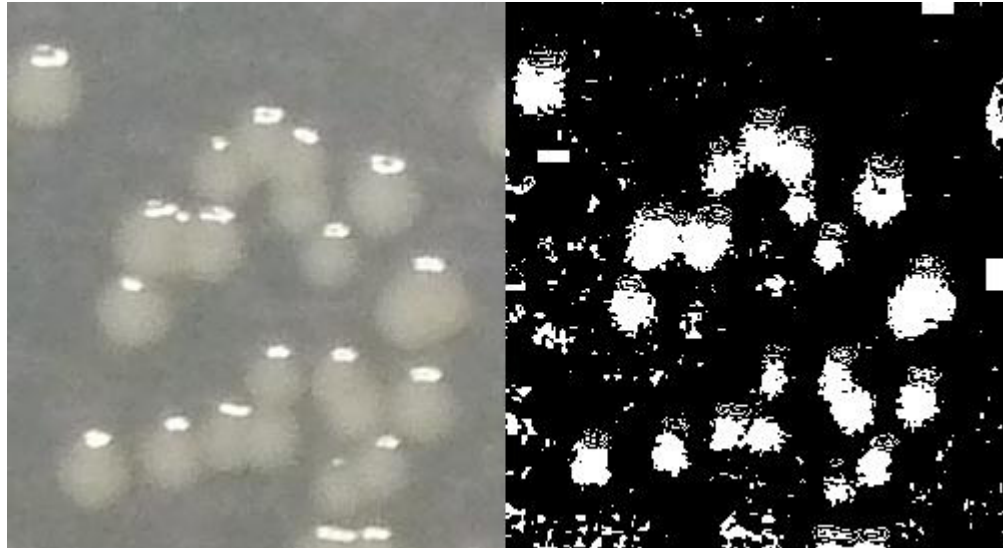


Figure 3.3: Transformation of a multi-coloured digital image into a binary representation of bacteria colonies. Left: *E. coli* colony growth after 24 hours at 37°C on nutrient agar. Picture taken using a Lumix DMC-TZ8 digital camera against a black background (Exposure time – 0.2 sec. ISO speed – ISO-400). Right: Binary image generated using a specific colour range (RGB) that represents the colours present within a colony. Black shows a pixel is not one of these colours and white pixels are.

From this, it was clear that whilst the idea itself showed promise, there was overlap between the colours within the agar and the bacteria colonies which may potentially be a significant problem at the edges of colonies in producing accurate measurements. Additionally, it was noted that whilst variation in the colour palette caused by differences in the conditions under which images were taken could be accounted for, the optimisation process would need to be repeated and a new colour range produced for each bacteria species analysed rather than it being a tool that works across multiple bacteria strains. To this end, a new design was considered based upon measuring the colour palette of the agar instead of the bacteria as this would allow for a wider application of the program.

3.5.4 – Before/after image analysis.

In this second approach to measuring colony size, rather than focusing on the colonies themselves, emphasis is put on the agar on which the bacteria grows. In order to do this, the program was designed to analyse the colour palette of an agar plate immediately after inoculation. This was then used as a base against which images of the same plate after bacteria colonies had grown were compared. The same plate was used in order to minimise any differences in the colour range that may be caused by any variations in the thickness of the agar. Colours that feature only in the secondary image are defined as “new” and therefore represent bacterial growth. From this, the average size of each colony (measured in pixels) can be determined based upon the total number of pixels that are a new colour in an “After” image divided by the number of colonies present in a sample (Figure 3.4).

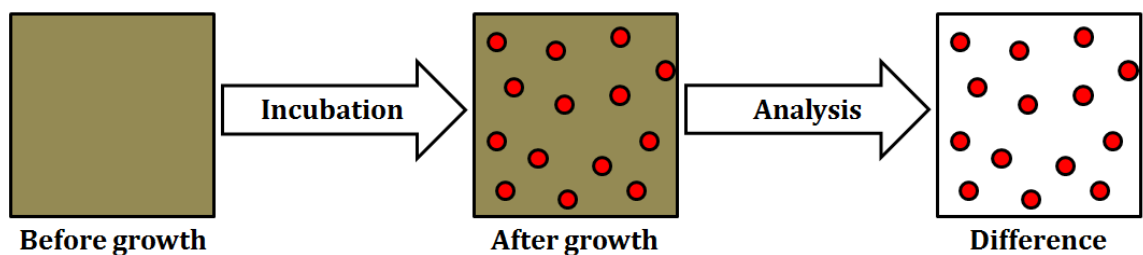
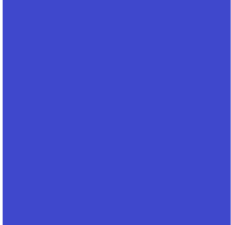
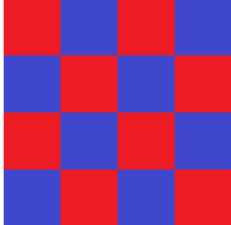
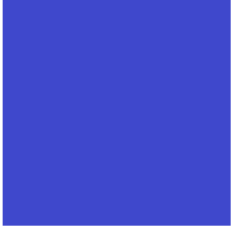
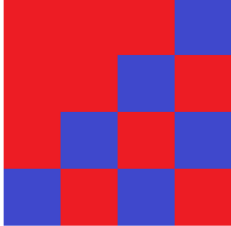
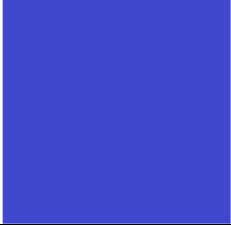
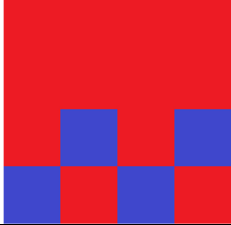
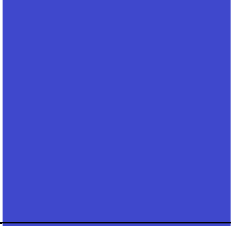
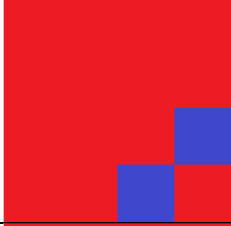
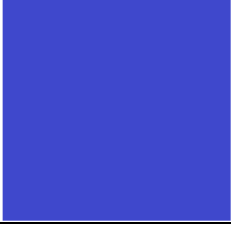



Figure 3.4: Schematic showing the principle behind a before/after approach to quantifying bacterial growth using changes in pixel colour. Images are taken of an agar plate immediately after inoculation (Before growth) and after incubation (After growth). These images are then compared to determine the size of the bacteria colonies measured in pixels. Any colour that appears in both the before growth and after growth image is defined as background. Any colour that features only in the after growth image is defined as bacterial growth. The program then calculates the total number of pixels that are a new colour in the after image. This value can then be divided by the number of colonies within the image to get an average colony size measured in pixels.

3.5.5 – Proving PENGUIN works: “simple” image analysis.

First, it was imperative to determine if the program actually worked and this was done with “simple” images, i.e. images with a limited colour palette and where it is known how many pixels are a specific colour. These images were generated using Microsoft Paint and were 500x500 pixels in size. Firstly, only two colours were used with varying numbers of pixels being changed. These results are shown in Table 3.1. This analysis showed that PENGUIN was able to accurately detect the differences in colour between the two images. Further testing was done including analysing the programs sensitivity by introducing more colours to both “Before” and “After” images, and by reducing the number of pixels that were altered. PENGUIN can accurately determine the difference between each individual colour in the RGB colour palette, i.e. 255^3 different colours, and can detect when only 1 pixel is a new colour in comparison to a “Before” image. Figure 3.5 shows the output when a “Before” image with 100 different colours is compared to an “After” image where only 1 pixel has been changed to a new colour.

Table 3.1: "Simple" images, i.e. images with only two colours, were used to test the program PENGUIN worked. Images were generated using Microsoft Paint and are 500x500 pixels in size. Results are given as the percentage of the After image that are a "new" colour, i.e. a colour that is not found in the Before image. The percentage difference was calculated manually in addition to analysing the images using PENGUIN.

Before	After	Manually calculated percentage difference	PENGUIN calculated percentage difference
		50% different	50% different
		62.5% different	62.5% different
		75% different	75% different
		87.5% different	87.5% different
		100% different	100% different

Penguin

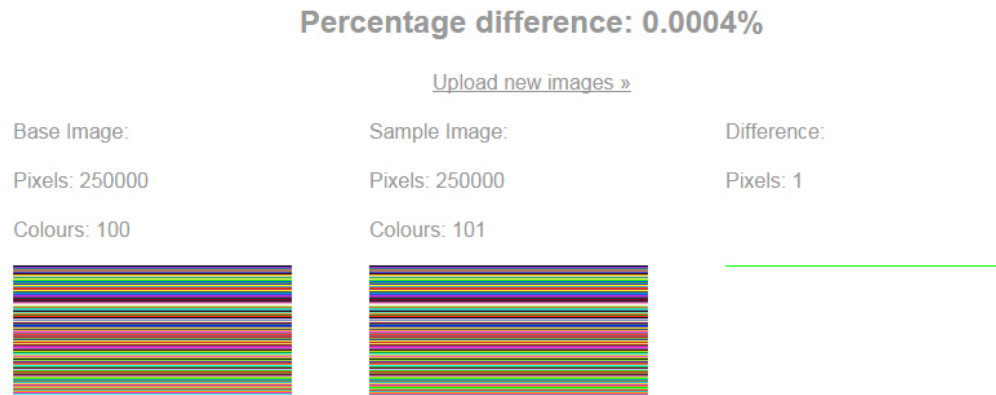


Figure 3.5: The output generated by PENGUIN when a Before image containing 100 different colours (500x500 pixels) is altered by one pixel to a new colour. For the Base Image and Sample Image, i.e. before and after, the number of pixels per image and the number of colours present are given. The final column, Difference, gives the number of pixels that are a colour that is present only in the Sample Image. For all three columns, a visual representation of all colours is given. The Percentage difference given at the top of the output is the percentage of pixels within the Sample Image that are a colour present only in this image, i.e. the pixels identified in the Difference column.

3.5.6 – Optimisation of conditions for “real” images.

Having proven that PENGUIN works, the next step was to optimise the conditions for “real” images, i.e. images of agar plates with and without bacteria colonies. The following aspects were taken into consideration:


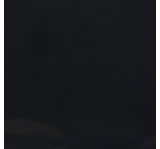

- Length of exposure
- Source of light
- Location of light

Once optimisation of these conditions was performed, PENGUIN was tested using *E. coli* as an example bacteria species.

3.5.6.1 – Source of light.

Light has a significant impact on the colour palette within an image therefore it was of the utmost importance to ensure minimal light variation between “Before” and “After” images. In order to determine the variation of the colour palette produced for “Before” images under different light conditions, 10 images were taken of a nutrient agar plate and the number of colours PENGUIN detected and the average percentage difference between images taken under the same lighting conditions were compared (Table 3.2). Images taken under “natural light” conditions were obtained next to a window on a partially cloudy day. Interestingly, these images had the lowest variability when comparing the average percentage difference, however use of natural light would not be possible if, for example, analysis was to be performed every 12 hours. Images were also taken using a Phillips Master TL4 HE strip light bulb as the light source. This proved to have the highest level of variability when comparing the average percentage difference and an even higher standard deviation. In order to actually detect any differences between “Before” and “After” images, the number of comparisons that would need to be made would be too great to be practically plausible. Finally, using a white tungsten bulb (100W) as a light source was tested. The variation when comparing the average percentage difference is approximately double that of natural light, however where natural light varies based upon the amount of sunlight, the use of a light bulb provides a constant amount of light irrespective of time of day and weather conditions that both affect natural light conditions. Additionally, the number of colours present under tungsten bulb light conditions was the highest indicating these conditions could provide a higher level of sensitivity than the other conditions tested.

Table 3.2: The impact of three different lighting conditions on the variability of images taken of a nutrient agar plate was studied. Average number of colours per image and the difference in the colour range were taken into consideration when deciding which conditions were the most suitable for use. n=10 images per light condition. s.d. = standard deviation.

Light conditions		Average number of colours	Average percentage difference	Considerations
Natural light		935.5 (s.d. ±35.0)	0.29% (s.d. ±0.17)	Smallest variation between images however cannot control e.g. how time of day affects the colour palette.
Strip light		278.4 (s.d. ±40.7)	1.64% (s.d. ±2.87)	High level of variability gives a larger standard deviation than the average percentage difference.
Tungsten bulb		2843.8 (s.d. ±110.5)	0.57% (s.d. ±0.16)	Most reproducible conditions and widest range of colours detected.

3.5.6.2 – Length of exposure.

The time taken for each image to be captured is important for two reasons. Firstly, taking images of a closed plate proved troublesome due to the reflective properties of the lid of the agar plate, therefore it was decided to take images of open plates. This meant the longer a plate was open, the more chance there was of a contamination occurring. Secondly, longer exposure times increased the average percentage difference between images as shown in Figure 3.6. Images were taken of a nutrient agar plate on a black background under a tungsten bulb light source with different exposure times ranging from 0.1 seconds to 1 second. Although there was no statistical difference between the average percentage difference, i.e. the percentage of pixels that are a colour that does not feature in the “Before” image, the smallest standard deviation was seen with an exposure time of 0.2 seconds, therefore this was selected for further image generation.

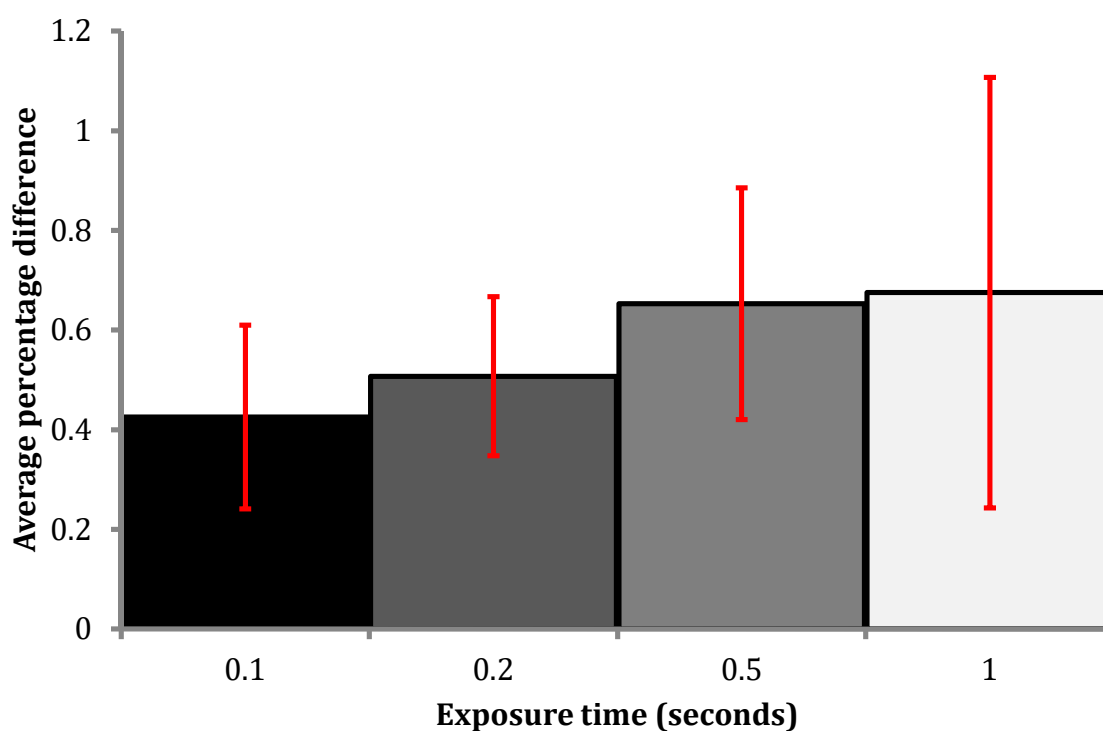


Figure 3.6: The effect of exposure time on the average percentage difference in the colours present within images of a nutrient agar plate was studied. Images (n=10) were taken under using a tungsten bulb as a light source against a black background. Error bars represent standard deviation.

3.5.6.3 – Location of the light source.

Another challenge faced when designing the conditions under which images were captured was the position of the light source. Placing the bulb directly above the plate resulted in both a shadow being produced by the camera and a reflection of the light itself, which obscured colonies within the image (this reflection of light was why using the camera's own flash was not considered in section 3.5.6.1). Having the bulb to the side of the plate resulted in the potential for shadows being cast by the edge of the plate and also from the colonies themselves. Therefore it was suggested that taking multiple images with the light source in different locations could eliminate any impact of shadow on the data produced. This was achieved by rotating the plate rather than moving the equipment in order to ensure the distance of the light source

and the camera from the nutrient agar plate were kept the same at all times. In addition, at this stage of optimisation, a light box (a three sided frame made of white 390mm squares set as a square base with the side where the tripod stood “open”) was introduced to minimise the effect of light bouncing off the surfaces of any nearby equipment within the laboratory which could introduce variation between images.

Images were taken of a nutrient agar plate immediately after inoculation with *E. coli* under a tungsten light bulb on a black background with an exposure time of 0.2 seconds. The plate was initially rotated by 90° with two images being taken at each orientation. Images were taken under the same conditions after 24 hours of incubation at 37°C. PENGUIN was used to calculate the percentage difference between images taken at different orientations. A 2-sample t power analysis was performed on this data in order to determine the number of images that should be taken “Before” and “After” incubation to gain an accurate value for how many pixels were a “new” colour, i.e. were bacteria. This data is shown in Table 3.3 and shows that the minimum number of comparisons performed to have a power of 0.8 is 33. This translates to 6 images to be taken “Before” and “After”, i.e. 36 comparisons, however in order to accommodate the possibility of a “bad” image (e.g. out of focus) impacting the data, it was decided to take 8 images at each time point. This additionally reduced the “distance” between each orientation, i.e. plates were rotated 45° between each image rather than 60° (360/6).

Table 3.3: Data used to perform a power analysis to determine how many “Before” and “After” images are required to accurately utilise the program PENGUIN. Before images were taken of nutrient agar plates immediately after inoculation with *E. coli* under a tungsten lightbulb on a light background with an exposure time of 0.2 seconds. After images were taken under the same conditions 24 hours after incubation at 37°C. Images were taken in 4 different orientations (rotating 90° between each orientation) with 2 images being taken per orientation. Comparisons were made using PENGUIN between plates with different orientations. A 2-sample t power analysis was performed using the difference between the mean percentage difference of Before and After images and the mean standard deviation. Power was set at 0.8 to obtain the number of replicates required per plate, i.e. the number of comparisons between Before and After images that must be made.

Parameter	Data used in 2-sample t power analysis
Difference between mean number of pixels	0.1476
Mean of standard deviation of each mean	0.2892
Power	0.8
Number of replicates required to obtain power	33

3.5.7 – Final protocol.

The final protocol adopted for use is as follows:

- Images are taken in a dark room using a tungsten bulb as a source of light.
- An exposure time of 0.2 seconds is used for each image.
- Eight images are taken per plate Before and After incubation.
- Plates are rotated 45° between each image.

3.5.8 – Testing PENGUIN against measuring colony sizes by hand.

Whilst it had already been proven that PENGUIN worked on “simple” images (section 3.5.5), it was important to ensure it worked accurately with “real” images, i.e. pictures taken of agar plates. As previously in a single image system, there is the possibility that colours that feature within the bacterial colonies may also feature in the colour of the agar. In order to test this, *E. coli* colony sizes were measured using the optimised protocol for PENGUIN (average number of pixels that are a “new”

colour divided by the number of colonies per image) and “by hand”, i.e. drawing round each colony and counting the number of pixels within the area using ImageJ. Figure 3.7 shows there is no difference in the number of pixels counted using each method indicating there are no colours that feature in both the agar and in the bacteria colonies. Whilst this appears to work for *E. coli*, it is noted that this test should be performed for each new bacteria species analysed to confirm the data produced is reproducible.

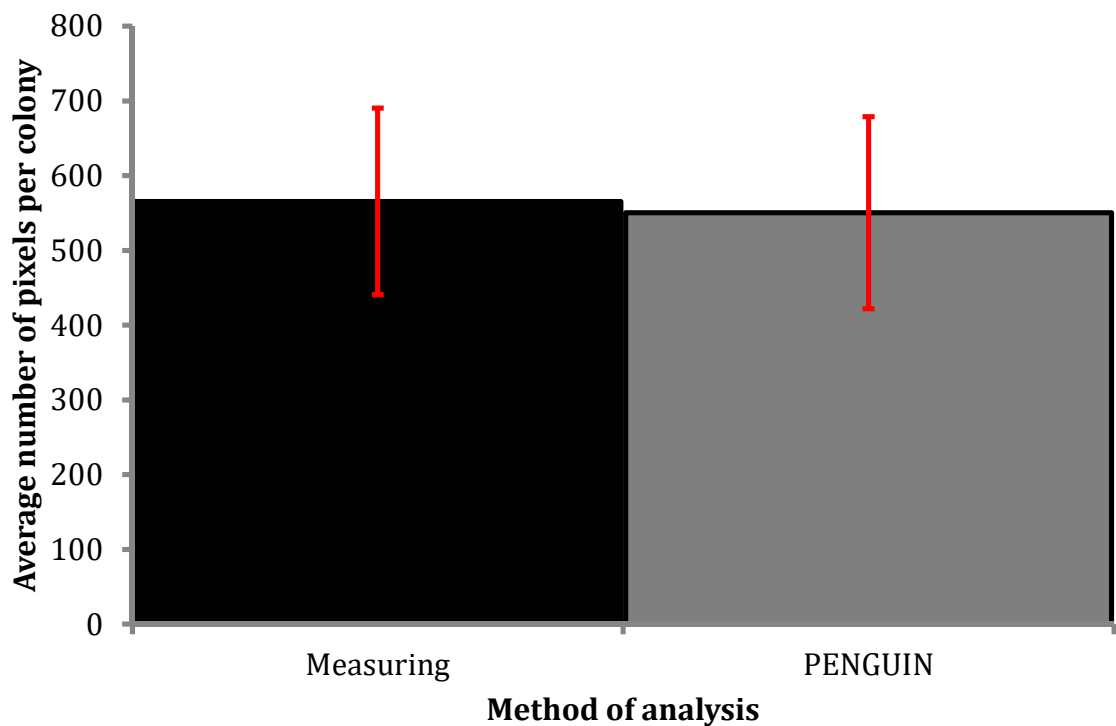


Figure 3.7: The accuracy of PENGUIN was compared against measuring colony size by hand. The average number of pixels per colony was measured using ImageJ (measuring) and by dividing the total number of pixels that are a new colour by the number of colonies per image (PENGUIN). There is no difference in the size of colonies when comparing these two methods.

3.5.9 – Conclusion.

PENGUIN was designed as a low cost method of accurately measuring bacteria colony sizes and the development of the methodologies to achieve this goal are

outlined within section 3.5. As previously stated, the concept of digitally analysing a bacteria colony to measure its size is not new, however the costs involved in acquiring equipment that can do this was prohibitive within the scope of this research project and current instrumentation is not portable. It has been shown here that the program itself works with a very high level of accuracy and that it was possible to generate appropriate conditions under which images could be taken within a limited budget. PENGUIN is used to measure average bacteria colony size during Chapter 3.

Chapter 4 – Analysis of gut microbiota and immune status after feeding with MacroGard®.

Where the previous chapters have focused upon methodologies, in this chapter the effect of MacroGard® upon the immune status and gut health of common carp will be investigated incorporating some of the methodologies established in the previous chapters. As discussed previously, although there is some debate on whether β -glucans can be considered as prebiotics, it is generally accepted within the scientific community that they can have an impact on the microbiome within the gut. Jung-Schroers *et al.* (2015a) and Kühlwein *et al.* (2013) both showed that, particularly at higher concentrations (1%+ w/w inclusion into feed), MacroGard® has an effect on bacterial species richness within the gut of carp when fed for less than a month. Whilst MacroGard® is regularly used as a β -glucan source in many fish feeds, e.g. Tetra GmbH (Germany) and Skretting (Norway), it is usually included at a lower concentration of 0.1% w/w within the feed as higher concentrations make the feed prohibitively expensive.

Manipulation of the gut microbiota population is not, however, the motivation for including MacroGard® within the diet and its primary aim is the immunomodulation of the host. There are a substantial number of publications documenting the immunomodulatory effects of β -glucans in fish (for review see (Dalmo and Bogwald 2008, Vetvicka *et al.* 2013, Akhter *et al.* 2015) and indeed there are several focusing on carp (Van der Marel *et al.* 2012, Przybylska-Diaz *et al.* 2013, Vera-Jimenez *et al.* 2013, Pionnier *et al.* 2014b), yet there still exists a deficit of

knowledge with regards to the relationship between the immune response and gut microbiota using ichthyo-models both in general and more specifically during MacroGard® feeding regimes.

The aim of this chapter is to explore the microbiology and health status of a “normal” carp gut, i.e. under disease free conditions. This comprises three studies:

Firstly, *in vitro* analysis of the gut microbiota in carp that have been maintained upon a 0% MacroGard® diet. Previous studies have shown there are limited differences in bacterial species diversity along the intestinal axis using non culture based methods of analysis (Harris 2013). Therefore, the first study aims ascertain if the same lack of bacterial species diversity along the intestinal axis is seen when different methods are used to access this diversity, i.e. culture based methods.

Secondly, some bacteria are known to be able to use β -glucans as a substrate due to their possessing β -glucanase enzymes (Planas 2000, Beckmann *et al.* 2006, Hattori *et al.* 2013). Isolates procured from the gut of carp and examples of potential fish pathogens and probiotics were tested to ascertain the effects of MacroGard® on *in vitro* growth of individual bacterial species.

Finally, an *in vivo* study looking at the impact of orally applied MacroGard® on the gut of carp will be considered using PCR based means of analysis. In this model the intestinal microbiome is exposed to both MacroGard® and any immunomodulatory affects that occur within the host. Analysis of both aspects of the symbiont, i.e. gut microbiota and carp immune response, were performed to establish if there is any correlation between expression of selected bactericidal innate immune genes within the gut and the bacterial component of the associated microbiome. As

discussed in Chapter 1, whilst in the past few years, research has begun to consider both the immune status of a host fish and the microbiota population (Akrami *et al.* 2015, Dawood *et al.* 2016, Miest *et al.* 2016), there is only one published report on the statistical analysis comparing the overall gut microbiome and the host immune status (Tapia-Paniagua *et al.* 2015). In order to fully elucidate the health promoting abilities of the gut microbiome, such as aiding in disease prevention by outcompeting potential pathogens for space and nutrients (Nayak 2010b), it is imperative to understand the symbiotic relationship between the host and its associated commensal bacterial population. In this chapter, emphasis is put on bactericidal innate immune responses such as antimicrobial peptides (Villarroel *et al.* 2007, Subramanian *et al.* 2008), nitric oxide production (Vera-Jimenez and Nielsen 2013, Wiegertjes *et al.* 2016), and pro-inflammatory cytokines such as IL-1 β and TNF α (Secombes *et al.* 2001, Rieger and Barreda 2011) that have been shown to be influenced by feeding with MacroGard® (Miest *et al.* 2012, Falco *et al.* 2013, Pionnier *et al.* 2014b), and how these correlate with bacterial species diversity within the gut.

4.1 – Analysis of the culturable microbiota population from the gut of carp.

Whilst the intestine of carp can be divided into multiple sections, there are limited differences in the physical structure along the intestinal axis in comparison to other fish species and vertebrates (Barrington 1957, Jung-Schroers *et al.* 2015). Carp which are a stomachless fish species possess an intestinal bulb anterior to the oesophagus. Additionally, carp do not possess pyloric caeca, outgrowths that increase the surface area within the gut, and the hindgut is much more primitive in fish species in comparison to higher vertebrates such as humans (Barrington 1957). This

“simplified” gut structure in carp has previously been shown to result in comparable microbiota populations (Harris 2013) however, this was established utilising non culture based methodologies. In this chapter, analysis is performed using culture based techniques in order to obtain bacterial isolates for *in vitro* analysis of the effect of MacroGard® on bacterial growth (section 4.2).

Materials and methods.

A list of all equipment and chemicals used can be found in Appendix 2.

4.1.2 – Fish husbandry.

Four carp, obtained from Hampton Spring Fisheries, UK in September 2013, were maintained on the 0% MacroGard® experimental diet (section 4.1.3) produced by Tetra GmbH at 1% body weight per day for 6 months prior to experimentation. Tanks were 225L in size with Eheim 2227 filter systems and external water chilling units. Water temperature was kept at 15°C and tanks maintained under a 12/12 hour light/dark photoperiod.

4.1.3 – Diet.

A 0% MacroGard® feed was produced by Tetra GmbH (Melle, Germany) comprising of fish protein concentrate (45%), wheat starch (41%), cellulose (2.57%), soybean oil (4.5%), fish oil (4.5%), ethoxyquin (0.02%), vitamin-premix (0.25%), stabilized vitamin C (0.11%) and mineral-premix (2.06%). A second diet was also produced containing 0.1% MacroGard® which was included as a part of the wheat starch proportion of the feed as outlined above.

4.1.4 – Obtaining bacterial isolates from the carp gut.

Four carp were euthanized by submersion in anaesthetic (2-phenoxyethanol, 1ml/5l) before dissection via a ventral incision and the intestines removed. The intestinal tract was divided into four sections: the intestinal bulb, the upper midgut, the lower midgut and the hindgut (Figure 4.1). These sections were then opened lengthways in order to expose the internal gut wall. Any faecal matter was removed by gentle scraping with an inoculation loop with care being taken not to disturb the mucosal layer. Inoculation loops were gently scraped along the intestinal wall to collect bacteria from the mucosal layer which were then washed into 1ml of nutrient broth from the loop. 100µl of inoculated broth was applied to a single agar plate. For each gut section, the following nutrient bases were used: nutrient agar, M.R.S. agar, MacConkey agar or Aeromonas base. Plates were left to grow aerobically except for M.R.S. agar plates which were grown under anaerobic conditions (see below). All plates were incubated at 20°C for 24 hours before subculture. Colony subcultures were maintained on the same agar as they were initially grown.

In order to generate optimum conditions for the growth of facultative anaerobic bacteria, two methods were used: M.R.S. agar set in plastic plates were sealed using Parafilm to prevent entry of oxygen into the plate, or M.R.S. agar set in glass plates were placed in a bell jar and the oxygen content reduced by burning a small flame inside the jar which was sealed to a Perspex base using Vaseline grease.

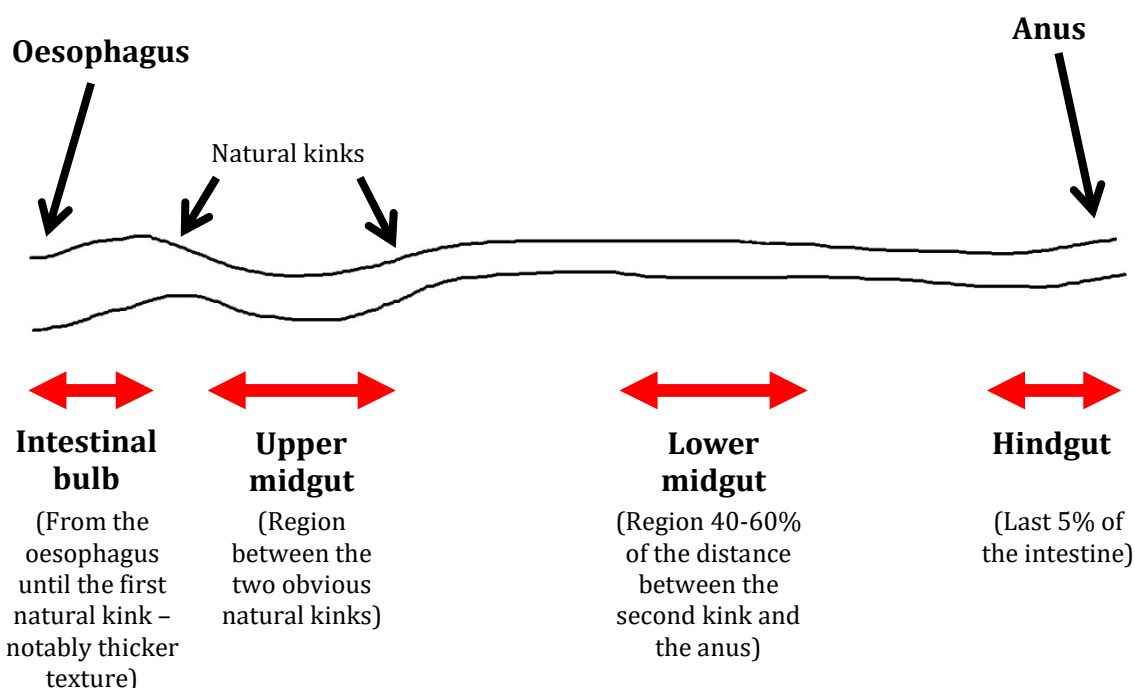


Figure 4.1: Schematic showing the regions of the intestine of the common carp as sampled for isolation of bacteria. The intestine has been divided into 4 sections: the intestinal bulb, the upper midgut, the lower midgut and the hindgut. Following the natural structure of the intestine, the intestinal bulb is defined as the notably thicker in texture section of the intestine at the start (oesophagus end) of the intestine. This region continues until the first natural kink found along the axis. The upper midgut describes the length of intestine found between the two obvious kinks found at this end of the intestine. Next, the lower midgut describes the region 40-60% of the length between the second intestinal kink and the anus end of the intestine. Finally, the hindgut is the last 5% of the intestine. Bacterial swabs were taken from each of these 4 sections with the loop being run over the whole area indicated with a red arrow.

4.1.5 – Gram staining.

Gram staining of bacteria isolates obtained from the gut of carp was performed. Individual bacterial colonies taken from plate cultures were suspended in sterile water and spread on to a microscope slide. Slides were then dried over a Bunsen flame before staining with crystal violet which was liberally applied across the surface of the slide and incubated for 60 seconds before rinsing with double distilled water. Gram's iodine was then applied and the slide incubated for a further 60 seconds before rinsing with double distilled water. 95% ethanol was applied on a drop by drop basis until the solution ran clear (on average, between 8-10 drops) and

the slide was then rinsed again with double distilled water. Lastly, Gram's saffranin was liberally applied and slides incubated for 30 seconds before a final rinse with double distilled water. Slides were viewed at 400x magnification under oil and bacteria isolates characterized based upon colour, shape and size.

4.1.6 – Testing for catalase activity.

1% hydrogen peroxide, diluted in double distilled water, was applied to bacterial colonies. Isolates that produced bubbles were categorised as catalase positive, whilst isolates that did not produce bubbles were catalase negative (Reiner 2013).

4.1.7 – Testing for oxidase activity.

Bacteria colonies were exposed to oxidase detection strips and categorised as either oxidase positive or negative based respectively upon the strip turning blue or remaining the same colour after 5 seconds of exposure (Gordon and McLeod 1928).

4.1.8 – Comparison of diversity along the intestinal axis.

Bacteria were differentiated based upon Gram stain, cell shape and size, catalase activity and oxidase activity to define distinct colony types which were then utilised as variates for further analysis. As a measure of species diversity, the Shannon-Weiner index and Evenness for each gut segment was calculated (Kuhlwein *et al.* 2013, Jung-Schroers *et al.* 2015a, Standen *et al.* 2015) as follows:

$$H = -\sum(pi * \ln(pi))$$

Where H =Shannon-Weiner index, pi =number of individual species/total

number of species, and \ln is the natural log.

$$E = H/H_{max}$$

Where E =Evenness, and H_{max} =maximum amount of diversity possible as calculated by:

$$H_{max} = \ln(N)$$

Where N =species richness, i.e. number of different species present.

The presence of a colony type per gut segment (as a pool of all 4 fish; see section 4.1.4) was counted and the dissimilarity of each segment calculated using the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity index. Briefly, Bray-Curtis dissimilarity is a non-metric index that is highly tolerable of zeros within a data set. In Excel, the following formula (Podani 2000) was used to generate a matrix of dissimilarities:

$$BC_{jk} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n |x_{ij} - x_{ik}|}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_{ij} + x_{ik})}$$

where j is gut segment 1, k is gut segment 2 and x_i is the number of isolates of a distinct colony type found within a gut segment. This was calculated for all gut segment combinations. Bray-Curtis dissimilarities were then plotted on a non-metric MultiDimensional Scaling ordination (nMDS) using SPSS 21 in order to visually show the “distance” between each gut segment, i.e. the dissimilarity in species diversity.

4.1.9 – Results.

64 plates were inoculated with bacteria from the gut of carp. From these, 157 bacterial samples were produced. Based upon Gram stain colour, bacteria cell shape,

bacteria cell size, catalase activity and oxidase activity, 28 distinct colony types were produced. 39 isolates came from the intestinal bulb, 37 came from the upper midgut, 36 from the lower midgut, and 45 from the hindgut. Only 2 distinct colony types were found in all 4 gut segments and 14 were found in 1 segment only. To assess the similarities between each gut section, the Shannon-Weiner index was calculated for the intestinal bulb, upper midgut, lower midgut and hindgut as 2.42, 2.26, 2.19 and 2.41 respectively. The Evenness was determined for the intestinal bulb as 0.89, upper midgut 0.94, lower midgut 0.91 and hindgut was 0.89. Figure 4.2 shows the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity between all 4 gut segments (as a pool of all fish analysed) plotted as an nMDS ordination. The two midgut sections are the least dissimilar, i.e. they have highly similar species diversity. The hindgut however is the most dissimilar to the other three gut segments, and the intestinal bulb is more dissimilar to the lower midgut than the upper midgut, i.e. there is more similarity between the intestinal bulb and the two sections of the midgut than with any section and the hindgut, and the intestinal bulb shares a more similar level of species diversity with the upper midgut than with the lower midgut.

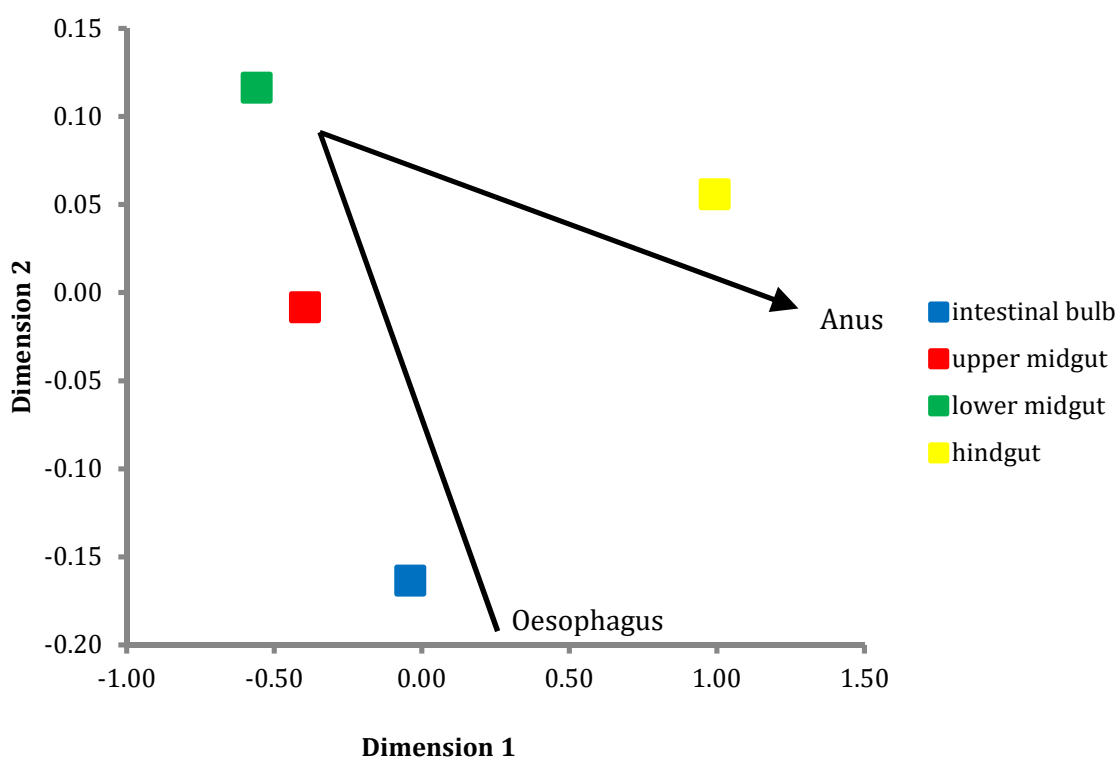


Figure 4.2: Non metric Multidimensional Scaling ordination of the dissimilarities in species diversity between 4 segments of the carp intestine as calculated using a Bray-Curtis dissimilarity index (stress – 0.0005). The intestine of 4 carp was divided into 4 segments following the intestinal axis from oesophagus to anus: the intestinal bulb (between the oesophagus and the first natural kink in the intestine), the upper midgut (from just after the first natural kink to 45% of the intestine length), the lower midgut (the subsequent 45% of the intestine after the upper midgut) and the hindgut (the 2cm of intestine before the anus). Each point represents the total number of isolates found in a pool of 4 carp fed on a 0% MacroGard® diet. Isolates were distinguished as distinct colony types based upon Gram stain, cell shape, cell size, catalase activity and oxidase activity.

4.2 – Analysis of the *in vitro* effect of MacroGard® upon bacterial growth and survival.

In section 4.1, the species diversity of cultured bacteria within the gut of fish fed on 0% MacroGard® was determined. This formed a baseline to establish if MacroGard® had an effect on bacteria species *in vitro*. A resazurin dye assay, incubation with MacroGard® suspended within a broth and MacroGard® embedded into a nutrient agar plate, and a comparison of bacteria colony size after incubation with different concentrations of MacroGard® were used to determine the possible inhibitory and stimulatory effects on growth patterns of 7 bacterial isolates were

studied in the presence and absence of MacroGard®.

Materials and methods.

A list of all equipment and chemicals utilised within this chapter can be found in Appendix 2.

4.2.2 – Bacteria reference strains.

Two reference strains were obtained from the National Collection of Industrial and Marine Bacteria (NCIMB) in October 2014:

NCIMB1102 – *Aeromonas salmonicida* subsp. *salmonicida* batch reference 19/11/1998.

NCIMB8054 – *Bacillus subtilis* subsp. *spizizenii* batch reference 16/04/2013.

Strains were obtained in the form of freeze-dried bacterial culture and grown aerobically in nutrient broth at 20°C (*A. salmonicida*) or 30°C (*B. subtilis*) overnight before being plated onto nutrient agar and incubated at the correct temperatures for each strain as stated by NCIMB (20°C and 30°C respectively). All subsequent subcultures were performed either using nutrient agar plates or nutrient broth.

4.2.3 – Other isolates selected for analysis.

In addition to the two reference strains described in section 4.2.2, a lab strain of *E. coli* (NCIMB8277 courtesy of Nigel Bowers, Keele University, UK) was analysed for effect of MacroGard® upon growth. *E. coli* cultures were grown at 37°C, the temperature for optimum growth of this strain, using either nutrient agar or nutrient

broth.

The growth patterns of four bacterial isolates (342LMB, ISO 20, ISO46 and ISO 60) cultured from the gut of carp were determined. Details as to the identified characteristics of these isolates can be found in Table 4.1. All cultures were grown at 20°C and after initial separation into individual cultures, maintained using either nutrient broth or nutrient agar.

Table 4.1 – Details as to the characteristics for 4 bacterial isolates cultured from the gut of common carp.

Isolate	Gut section	Original agar base	Gram stain	Shape	Size (nm)	Oxidase	Catalase
342LMB	Hindgut	MacConkey agar	Positive	Bacillus	<1	Negative	Negative
ISO 20	Intestinal bulb	Nutrient agar	Negative	Bacillus	3	Negative	Positive
ISO 46	Hindgut	Nutrient agar	Negative	Bacillus	1	Negative	Negative
ISO 60	Upper midgut	Nutrient agar	Negative	Bacillus	1	Positive	Positive

4.2.4 – Analysis of MacroGard® toxicity.

Analysis of the toxicity of a range of MacroGard® concentrations was performed using *A. salmonicida*, *B. subtilis* and *E. coli* as described in section 4.2.2. A range of MacroGard® concentrations from 0.1-0.01% w/v was utilised in conjunction with a range of initial bacteria concentrations of 1×10^8 to 1×10^1 CFU per well in a final volume of 200µl of nutrient broth in a checkerboard formation as shown in Figure 3.1. Plates were replicated in triplicate. Incubation was performed at room temperature (25°C) for 18 hours before 15µl 0.01% w/v resazurin dye was added to each well. Plates were left to incubate at room temperature for 15 minutes before noting any colour change from blue to pink within each well.

4.2.5 – Growth after incubation with MacroGard® within a nutrient broth suspension.

Analysis of the effect of growth after incubation with MacroGard® within a nutrient broth suspension was performed using *A. salmonicida*, *B. subtilis* and *E. coli* as described in section 4.2.2. 1ml of 1×10^5 CFU bacteria was added to either 50ml of 0% MacroGard® nutrient broth, 0.01% MacroGard® nutrient broth or 0.1% MacroGard® nutrient broth and incubated at room temperature for 18 hours. Each broth was then subject to a 1:100,000 dilution and 50µl applied to a nutrient agar plate (0% MacroGard®). Plates were incubated at 20°C for 48 hours before CFU per plate was determined.

4.2.6 – Growth upon MacroGard® embedded plates.

Analysis of bacterial growth upon nutrient agar plates infused with 0.1% w/v MacroGard® was performed using 342LMB, ISO 20, ISO 46 and ISO 60 as described in section 4.2.3. Bacteria cultures were grown for 24 hours in nutrient broth at room temperature before being subjected to a 1:100,000 dilution. 50µl of broth was applied to either nutrient agar plates containing 0% MacroGard® or 0.1% MacroGard®. Plates were incubated at 20°C for 72 hours before CFU per plate was determined.

4.2.7 – Analysis of differences in the rate of colony growth using PENGUIN.

In order to determine if there was a difference in colony size due to incubation with MacroGard®, colonies grown on nutrient agar plates were analysed after incubation in a broth with and without MacroGard® (section 4.2.5), and after

inoculation on nutrient agar plates embedded with MacroGard® (section 4.2.6) using PENGUIN. Immediately after the bacteria was applied to each plate, 8 images were taken as described in section 3.5.7 followed by 8 more images being taken after incubation was complete, i.e. 48 hours for bacteria incubated in a broth and 72 hours for bacteria inoculated onto MacroGard® embedded nutrient agar plates. Images were cropped so that a 1500x1500 pixel section from the centre of the plate remained, i.e. each image was cropped by removing 1250 pixels from the left and right edges and 750 pixels from the top and bottom of the image. This was then resized to 500x500 pixels before analysis using PENGUIN. “After” images, i.e. those taken after incubation, were compared to “Before” images, i.e. those taken immediately after inoculation, resulting in 64 values as to the number of pixels that were a colour that appeared only in the after image. As rotation of the plate resulted in slight variation in the number of bacteria colonies per image, the average number of different coloured pixels for each “After” image against all “Before” images was taken and divided by the number of colonies within that image. The average number of pixels per colony was then taken across all 8 “After” images.

4.2.8 – Results.

Analysis of the 7 bacterial isolates including 2 fish specific reference strains, i.e. *A. salmonicida* and *B. subtilis*, and 4 isolates taken from the gut of carp showed no effect of MacroGard® upon bacterial survival, rate of growth or colony size (Table 4.2). Analysis of survival of *A. salmonicida*, *B. subtilis* and *E. coli* based upon metabolism of resazurin showed no toxic effect of MacroGard® at any concentration. There were significantly more *B. subtilis* CFUs after incubation with 0.01%

MacroGard® in comparison to 0.1% MacroGard® ($p=0.0360$), however neither concentration resulted in a significant difference in the number of CFUs when compared to the 0% MacroGard® treatment group. Also the number of CFU of *A. salmonicida* and *E. coli* was not different when the bacteria was incubated with MacroGard® in a broth in comparison to controls, i.e. bacteria incubated in nutrient broth with no MacroGard®. Similarly, none of the bacterial isolates taken from the gut of carp had a significant difference in the number of CFUs when grown upon MacroGard® embedded agar in comparison to control agar plates, i.e. nutrient agar plates without MacroGard® embedded into the agar. None of the bacterial species incubated with MacroGard® within a broth had a significant difference in average colony size, however ISO 46 did have significantly ($p=0.021$) smaller colonies after incubation with MacroGard®. No other isolates showed a difference in colony size.

Table 4.2: (part A) Results of analysis of the effect of MacroGard® upon 7 different bacterial isolates using 4 different analysis techniques. Toxicity was analysed using a resazurin metabolism assay allowing for a wide range of MacroGard® concentrations and initial bacterial counts. CFU counts after incubation with and without MacroGard® within a nutrient broth and also embedded within a nutrient agar plate were performed to assess promotion of growth. On all plates analysed for CFU counts, a secondary analysis of average colony size was performed using the program PENGUIN which calculates average number of pixels per bacteria colony.

Isolate	Concentration of MacroGard®	Number of bacteria	Results			Effect
Resazurin toxicity assay						
<i>A. salmonicida</i>	0.01-0.1% w/v	1x10 ¹ – 1x10 ⁸ CFU per well at start of incubation	Metabolism of resazurin in all bacteria positive wells			No
<i>B. subtilis</i>			Metabolism of resazurin in all bacteria positive wells			No
<i>E. coli</i>			Metabolism of resazurin in all bacteria positive wells			No
Incubation with MacroGard® in broth						
			Mean CFU ± Standard deviation			
			0% MacroGard®	0.01% MacroGard®	0.1% MacroGard®	
<i>A. salmonicida</i>	0.01% and 0.1% w/v	1x10 ⁵ CFU into broth. 50µl of 1:105 dilution onto agar plates	158±35	200±9	187±13	No
<i>B. subtilis</i>			60±3	49±4	87±23	Yes
<i>E. coli</i>	0.1% w/v		287±48	-	348±64	No
Incubation with MacroGard® in agar						
			Mean CFU ± Standard deviation			
			0% MacroGard®	0.1% MacroGard®		
342LMB	0.1% w/v	50µl of 24 hour culture (50ml at RT) diluted 1:10 ⁵ times	77±9	59±12		No
ISO 20			65±7	34±13		No
ISO 46			33±4	30±4		No
ISO 60			33±7	35±10		No

Table 4.2: (part B) Results of analysis of the effect of MacroGard® upon 7 different bacterial isolates using 4 different analysis techniques. Toxicity was analysed using a resazurin metabolism assay allowing for a wide range of MacroGard® concentrations and initial bacterial counts. CFU counts after incubation with and without MacroGard® within a nutrient broth and also embedded within a nutrient agar plate were performed to assess promotion of growth. On all plates analysed for CFU counts, a secondary analysis of average colony size was performed using the program PENGUIN which calculates average number of pixels per bacteria colony.

Isolate	Concentration of MacroGard®	Number of bacteria	Results		Effect
Difference in colony size using PENGUIN					
			Mean pixels per colony ± Standard deviation		
			0% MacroGard®	0.1% MacroGard®	
<i>A. salmonicida</i>	0.1% w/v	1x10 ⁵ CFU into broth. 50µl of 1:10 ⁵ dilution onto agar plates	40±8	54±11	No
<i>B. subtilis</i>			90±26	46±38	No
<i>E. coli</i>			153±23	118±8	No
354LMB		50µl of 24 hour culture (50ml at RT) diluted 1:10 ⁵ times	49±4	80±27	No
ISO 20			65±7	34±13	Yes
ISO 46			672±23	957±103	No
ISO 60			704±41	569±95	No

4.3 – Oral application of MacroGard® and the effects on the intestinal microbiome over time.

Previous studies have shown that there is a change in species richness of the intestinal microbiome of the common carp after 2-3 weeks (Jung-Schroers *et al.* 2015a) and 4 weeks (Kuhlwein *et al.* 2013) of feeding MacroGard® at a w/w concentration of 1% within the diet. Such concentrations are, however, higher than those typically found in commercial fish feeds as producers limit the inclusion of MacroGard® in their products to 0.1% w/w because of financial constraints. Kuhlwein *et al.* (2013) also ascertained that 0.1% w/w MacroGard® in a diet did not affect bacterial species richness in the gut highlighting the possibility that the effect of MacroGard® on bacterial species richness may be dose dependent when it is applied orally. What both of these studies lack, however, is an accompanying comparison with the immune parameters that, whilst studied, were not compared (Kuhlwein *et al.* 2014, Syakuri *et al.* 2014).

In this trial the effect of MacroGard® on the microbiota and innate immune response within the gut of carp will be ascertained and any correlation determined. Gene expression of selected innate immune genes will be assessed using RT-qPCR and analysis of bacterial species richness will be determined using PCR-DGGE. Quantitative analysis of the total bacteria load and the presence of specific bacteria genera within the gut will be determined. Statistical correlation models will be employed to study the relationship between the carp immune status and the profile of the gut microbiota.

Materials and methods.**4.3.2 – Fish husbandry and experimental design.**

90 carp obtained from Hampton Spring Fisheries, UK in October 2012, were divided between 6 tanks (15 fish per tank) and maintained as described in section 4.1.2. At the start of this trial, carp had a mean weight of 56.5g (s.d. ± 13.5 g) and mean length of 14.6cm (s.d. ± 1.1 cm). Carp were fed at a rate of 1% body weight per day with a diet containing either 0% MacroGard® (3 tanks) or 0.1% MacroGard® (3 tanks) for a period of 7 weeks (see section 4.1.3). Samples of the upper midgut were taken as described in section 4.3.3 at all time points. Sampling was performed at the very start of the trial, i.e. when all fish had only eaten 0% MacroGard® feed (referred to as week 0 in all Tables and Figures), and then 1, 3, 5 and 7 weeks after the start of feeding with the 0.1% MacroGard® diet. At each time point, 3 carp per tank were sampled as shown in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Experimental design of 7 week feeding trial analysing the effect of 0.1% w/w MacroGard® in the diet of common carp (*C. carpio*) compared to carp maintained on a 0% MacroGard® diet. Table shows the number of fish sampled at each time point from each tank.

		0% MacroGard® feed			0.1% MacroGard® feed		
		Tank A	Tank B	Tank C	Tank D	Tank E	Tank F
Time point	Week 0	3	3	3	3	3	3
	Week 1	3	3	3	3	3	3
	Week 3	3	3	3	3	3	3
	Week 5	3	3	3	3	3	3
	Week 7	3	3	3	3	3	3

4.3.3 – Tissue sampling of carp.

Carp were euthanized by submersion in anaesthetic (2-phenoxyethanol, 1ml/5L), dissected, the upper midgut (defined as the region after the intestinal bulb)

was removed and stored in RNAlater at -80°C until further use. Upper midgut sections were divided as follows; total gut (including any faecal matter), gut wall (no faecal matter) and gut contents (faecal matter only) as shown in Figure 4.3.

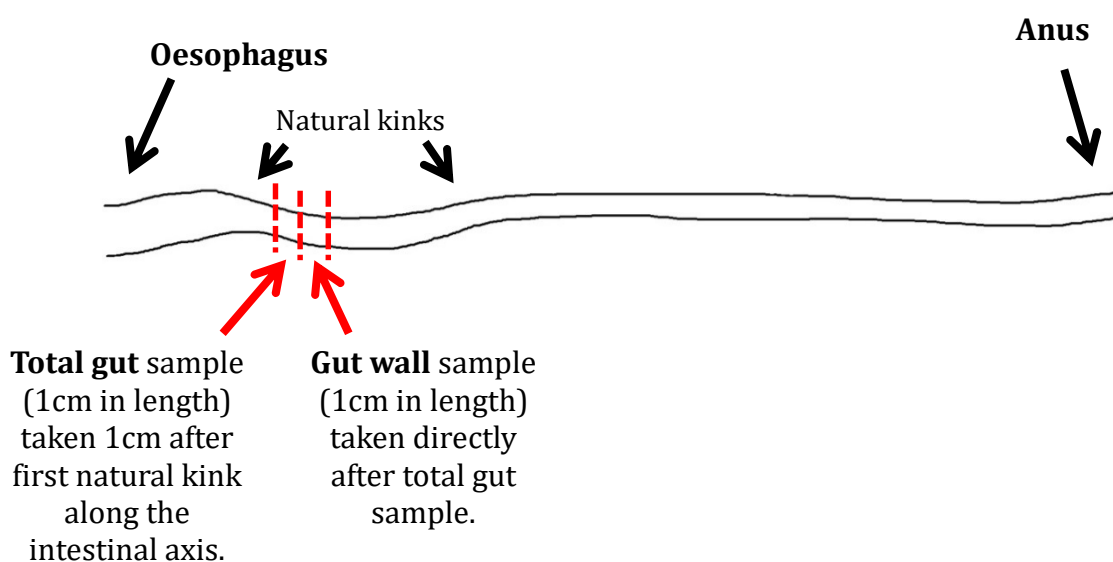


Figure 4.3: Schematic showing the location along the intestinal axis of the common carp at which samples are taken. Total gut is defined as both intestinal tissue and any faecal matter present and includes both the indigenous and transient microbiota populations. Gut wall is defined as intestinal tissue and indigenous microbiota only with faecal matter being removed by gentle squeezing. Both samples were taken from the upper midgut area of the intestine which is defined within this thesis as starting directly after the first natural kink along the gut axis.

4.3.4 – Quantitative analysis of innate immune gene expression and bacterial 16S rDNA expression.

Gene expression analysis was performed on selected innate immune genes in carp and the bacterial 16S rDNA gene. These were as follows: ApoA1, Bf/C2, CRP 2, C1rs, C3, HAMP1, iNOS, IL-1 β , the IL-1 β receptor, LEAP2, MASP2, muc2, TNF α 1 and TNF α 2.

4.3.4.1 – RNA isolation.

RNA isolation was performed using the Qiagen RNeasy Mini Kit optimised for bacteria samples as per the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, approximately 3mm³ of gut wall tissue was placed into 250µl of PBS solution and subjected to sonication utilising a Bioruptor™ set on high for 10 minutes (pausing after 5 minutes to refresh the ice within the water bath). 500µl of RNAprotect was added to each sample and vortexed before incubating at room temperature for 5 minutes. Samples were pelleted by centrifugation (5,000 x *g* for 10 minutes) and the supernatant removed. 100µl of lysozyme (15mg/ml) suspended in TE buffer (10mM Tris-HCl, 1mM EDTA) was applied to each sample and mixed gently via pipetting to re-suspend the pellet before 10µl of proteinase K (10mg/ml in PCR grade water) was added. Samples were vortexed every 2 minutes in 10 second bursts for 10 minutes before 700µl RLT buffer was added. Samples were then stored overnight at -80°C. After thawing, debris was pelleted by centrifugation (14,000 x *g* for 3 minutes) and 760µl of supernatant added to 590µl of 80% ethanol and mixed by pipetting. Samples were applied to a spin column (two volumes of a maximum of 700µl per column) and the supernatant removed by centrifugation at 8,000 x *g* for 15 seconds. Samples were then washed firstly in 500µl RW1 buffer (centrifugation at 8,000 x *g* for 15 seconds) and then in two washes with 500µl RPE buffer (first wash – centrifugation at 8,000 x *g* for 15 seconds, second wash – centrifugation at 10,000 x *g* for 2 minutes). The washing buffer was then removed by an additional centrifugation step of 8,000 x *g* for 2 minutes. RNA, attached to the spin column membrane, was incubated in 35µl of RNase free water at room temperature for 2 minutes before a final centrifugation step of 8,000 x *g* for 1 minute. Concentrations were determined using a Nanodrop 1000

spectrophotometer and samples stored at -80°C until further use.

4.3.4.2 – DNase treatment of RNA samples.

Prior to cDNA synthesis, RNA samples were treated with DNase to remove any DNA contamination. Briefly, 1µg RNA of sample was suspended in RQ1 buffer (final concentration – 1X), 1ng DNase and 10U RNaseOUT RNase inhibitor in a total volume of 10µl and incubated at 37°C for 30 minutes before the addition of 1µl of RQ1 DNase stop solution. Samples were then incubated at 65°C for 10 minutes.

4.3.4.3 – cDNA synthesis.

500ng of DNase treated RNA was mixed with a final concentration of 2.5µM random hexamers, 1mM dNTP mix (1mM of each dATP, dGTP, dCTP, and dTTP) in a total volume of 12µl. Samples were incubated at 65°C before briefly being chilled on ice and centrifuged to collect any condensation to the bottom of the tube. First Strand Buffer, DTT and RNase Inhibitor (final concentrations – 1X, 0.01M and 40U respectively) were then added to each sample and incubated at 37°C for 2 minutes before 200U of M-MuLV RT was added and the samples incubated in the following conditions: 25°C for 10 minutes, 27°C for 50 minutes, 70°C for 15 minutes. Samples were then stored at -20°C until further use.

4.3.4.4 – RT-qPCR analysis.

In order to quantitatively analyse changes in gene expression levels, RT-qPCR analysis was performed on gut samples. During this feeding trial, the following immune genes were selected for analysis: ApoA1, Bf/C2, CRP2, C1rs, C3, HAMP1,

iNOS, IL-1 β , the IL-1 β receptor, LEAP2, MASP2, Muc2, TNF α 1, and TNF α 2. In addition to studying the outlined immune parameters, RT-qPCR analysis of the 16S rDNA gene expression in the bacterial population within the gut was also analysed. Assays were performed to quantify total 16S expression, i.e. an approximation of the overall bacterial population size, and the proportion of the total expression represented by the genera *Aeromonas*, *Pseudomonas*, *Flavobacterium*, *Vibrio* and *Streptococcus*. Primers for all genes can be found in Appendix 3.

Running PCRs for *in vivo* sample analysis.

RT-qPCR assays were performed using either an ABI Prism® 9000 Sequence Detection System or an Mx3000P qPCR System, and the SensiFAST™ SYBR® HiROX kit as per the manufacturer's instructions. Assays were performed in a total volume of 20 μ l with primers utilised at a concentration of 0.2 μ M each. 2 μ l of template cDNA was used in each assay with concentration being determined based upon analysis of a serial dilution of a pool of all samples within an experiment. Individual samples were diluted by a factor of either 1:4 or 1:10 based upon a C_t of 25 from pooled samples. Unless otherwise stated, data was analysed utilising a relative standard generated from a pool of all cDNA samples within a single experiment in a 1:3 serial dilution. Values are calculated as relative expression per 500ng RNA translated to cDNA. For genus specific bacterial assays, an absolute plasmid standard was used for data analysis. Recombinant plasmids were donated by Dr. Mikolaj Adamek at the University of Veterinary Medicine, Hanover, Germany (Adamek *et al.* 2013) and values calculated as absolute copy number.

Statistical analysis of carp immune gene expression data.

Statistical analysis was performed firstly by testing for outliers using Grubbs' test. Outliers, i.e. values that are outside of the normal distribution of a data set, were removed before further analysis. Analysis was performed in Excel by calculating the Z score for each sample using the following formula:

$$Z = (Y_1 - \bar{Y})/s$$

Where Y_1 is the sample, \bar{Y} is the mean of all samples and s is the standard deviation. Z scores that were higher than the critical value (based upon experimental sample size and a critical value of 5%, Grubbs and Beck 1972) were removed from the dataset as outliers before any further analysis was performed.

Analysis of variance was performed using Minitab 14. Data points from each gene were tested for normality using an Anderson-Darling test and homoscedasticity using Levene's test. In cases where a p value of <0.05 was obtained using these tests, data were transformed using a Box-Cox transformation and retested for normality and homoscedasticity. Differences between time points and feeding regimes were compared using either a 2-way nested ANOVA with *post hoc* Tukey's or, in cases where data could not be normalised with a Box-Cox transformation, a 2-way Scheirer-Ray-Hare test was performed. Each figure within this and subsequent chapters includes the results of the Anderson-Darling and Levene's tests to show if data met the conditions required for a parametric test, and values of λ when data was transformed prior to further statistical analysis.

4.3.4.5 – Comparing immune gene expression with 16S rDNA expression.

In order to determine if there was any correlation between immune gene

expression and the 16S expression in the total bacteria population and individual bacterial genera, expression data was analysed using Spearman's rank order test (SPSS 21). All data points including those identified as statistical outliers were included in this comparison.

4.3.5 – Qualitative analysis of bacterial species richness.

In order to study changes in species richness (presence/absence only), the non-culture based method of PCR-DGGE was employed. This section outlines the protocol employed to isolate genDNA from total gut samples and the PCR-DGGE analysis.

4.3.5.1 – genDNA isolation.

GenDNA was isolated utilising the QIAamp DNA Mini Kit optimised for bacteria isolation as per the manufacturer's instructions. Nomenclature for buffers, e.g. AL buffer, was set by the manufacturer and are given within this section as labelled in the kit except for lysis buffer which was produced by the author. Briefly, total gut samples were prepared for genDNA isolation by homogenizing approximately 5mm³ of tissue suspended in lysis buffer (20mg/ml lysozyme, 20mM Tris-HCl, 2mM EDTA, 1.2% Triton X100) using a TissueLyser II – 20Hz for 2 minutes. Samples were then incubated at 37°C for 1 hour. 200µl of AL buffer and 20µl of proteinase K were added to each sample and pulse vortexed for 15 seconds. Samples were then incubated at 65°C for 30 minutes and 95°C for 15 minutes, mixed with 200µl of absolute ethanol by pulse vortexing before being applied to a DNA spin column. Samples were bound to the membrane and the liquid removed by centrifugation at 6,000 x g for 1 minute.

Samples then underwent two washing steps, first with 500µl AW1 buffer (centrifugation at 6,000 x *g* for 1 minute) and secondly with 500µl of AW2 buffer (centrifugation at 20,000 x *g* for 3 minutes) before an additional centrifugation step at 20,000 x *g* for 1 minute to remove any remaining wash solution. They were then incubated in 150µl AE buffer at room temperature for 5 minutes before a final centrifugation step at 6,000 x *g* for 1 minute and stored at -20°C until use.

4.3.5.2 – End point PCR for PCR-DGGE analysis.

PCRs were performed under sterile conditions utilising the following PCR mix (values refer to final concentration): 1X KAPA2G Buffer A, 0.2mM dNTP mix, 10µM each primer in the primer pair DGGE (sequences can be found in Appendix 3), 0.25U Hot Start KAPA2G Robust polymerase, 5µl genDNA (average concentration of 300ng/µl) in a total volume of 25µl. Samples were incubated in an Eppendorf Gradient Mastercycler® with the following touchdown program: 95°C for 5 minutes, 5x cycles of 95°C for 30 seconds, 63-58°C for 30 seconds (-1°C per cycle), 72°C for 1 minute, 35x cycles of 95°C for 30 seconds, 57°C for 30 seconds, 72°C for 1 minute, and a final incubation at 72°C for 7 minutes. Samples were tested for a correct sized product and to confirm no contamination in the template free control on a 1% agarose gel (mixed in 50ml 1X TBE buffer with 2.5µl of Roti®-Safe gel stain for visualisation) which was subject to a voltage of 105V for 20 minutes and visualised under UV light.

4.3.5.3 – DGGE gel preparation and electrophoresis.

PCR samples were pooled by tank and by time point (3 fish per pool) and

mixed with an equal volume of loading buffer (40% glycerol with cresol red) before use. 8% polyacrylamide gels (Rotiphorese® Gel 30 mixed with a final concentration of 1X TAE buffer) containing a 40-60% gradient of urea and formamide (whereby 100% is equivalent to 7M urea and 40% formamide solution) were prepared manually using 40µl of TEMED and 400µl 10% (w/v) APS as setting agents. Gels were prepared and performed using a TV400-DGGE system with a gel size of 16.5x17.5cm. Electrophoresis was performed at 60°C. Samples were initially drawn into the gel at 250V for 2 minutes and then separated at 120V for 820 minutes. Gels were stained using the UV marker SYBRgold by incubation in a 0.01% (v/v) suspension for 30 minutes at room temperature. Samples were visualised under UV light and imaged using a Nikon D3200 Digital SLR with a 55-300mm VR lens and a minimum exposure time of 10 seconds.

4.3.5.4 – PCR-DGGE gel analysis.

After imaging, band patterns were analysed in a binary format, i.e. presence or absence of a band. Bands are arbitrarily ordered from the top of the gel to the bottom with all bands being considered regardless of band pattern. Band 1 represents the band that has undergone the least migration and therefore has the lowest melting temperature. The highest numbered band (gel dependent) within a gel is the band that has migrated the furthest and has the highest melting temperature.

PCR-DGGE analysis works under the assumption that each band within a band pattern represents a single operational taxonomic unit (OTU) with the further assumption that each OTU represents a different bacterial species although this cannot be confirmed without sequence data for each band. Using these assumptions,

however, it is possible to compare how alike each band pattern is in comparison to other band patterns within the same gel. Assumptions of correlation between the presence/absence of bands cannot be made with data alone from a band pattern, therefore metric tests cannot be used. Following the work of Attramadal *et al.* (2014) and Kühlwein *et al.* (2013), Bray-Curtis dissimilarity index followed by plotting dissimilarities using nMDS was performed to compare band patterns within each gel as described in section 4.1.8.

4.3.6 – Results.

The data presented for this experiment is divided into three sections – expression of immune genes (4.3.6.1), analysis of the gut microbiome (4.3.6.2) and statistical analysis to look at any correlation between the size of the microbial population within the gut and expression of the analysed bactericidal immune genes (4.3.6.3).

4.3.6.1 – Expression of immune genes in the gut.

Prior to analysis of individual fish, PCRs were performed using a pool of all samples in order to determine how far cDNA samples should be diluted. This revealed that the expression levels of certain genes did not give a low enough C_t value to analyse expression levels within individual samples and/or limited presence of peaks (i.e. product) when analysing the dissociation curve produced at the end of the PCR cycles. To this end, further analysis of the following genes was not completed: two isoforms of TNF α , and the complement proteins MASP2, C1rs, and bf/C2. The three complement proteins were expressed within the pool of all cDNA samples at lower

levels than required for further analysis within this experiment. There was no expression of either isoform of TNF α in the pool of all samples from this experiment.

Due to a high level of variation in gene expression naturally existing within cohorts of outbred carp it was decided, as standard, to employ a statistical outlier test to all gene expression data before further analysis. Grubbs' outliers test revealed at least one outlying value for each immune gene analysed. These outlying values were not limited to one individual, however the decision was made to remove these data points anyway on the basis that normal distribution and equal variance presumptions were violated, even after a Box-Cox transformation was performed when outliers were included. Whilst a non-parametric 2-way Scheirer-Ray-Hare test could have been used in lieu of the parametric 2-way nested ANOVA in cases where outliers caused the presumptions of normal distribution and equal variance to be violated, *post hoc* analysis is not possible with the Scheirer-Ray-Hare test and it is also the weaker of the two types of analysis, i.e. potentially significant differences that would be highlighted using an ANOVA would not be seen when using the Scheirer-Ray-Hare test. 73.3% of outlier values (15 in total across all genes) were from carp fed with the 0% MacroGard® diet with at least 1 outlier coming from this feed group for all genes analysed except Muc2. Each of these outlier values came from different fish in different tanks at different time points. In comparison, there were only 4 outlier values from carp fed with the 0.1% MacroGard® diet. These were found in the gene expression of iNOS (1 value), Muc2 (1 value) and CRP2 (2 values). As with the outlier data points from the 0% MacroGard® fed fish, these all came from different fish from different tanks and different time points.

A 2-way nested ANOVA revealed that there was no statistically significant

difference in expression levels between fish cohorts, i.e. from different tanks, which received the same feed regime for any of the genes analysed. Levels of C3 expression could not be normalised therefore the non-parametric Scheirer-Ray-Hare test was performed, however, due to limitations of this test, tank effect could not be analysed for this data set.

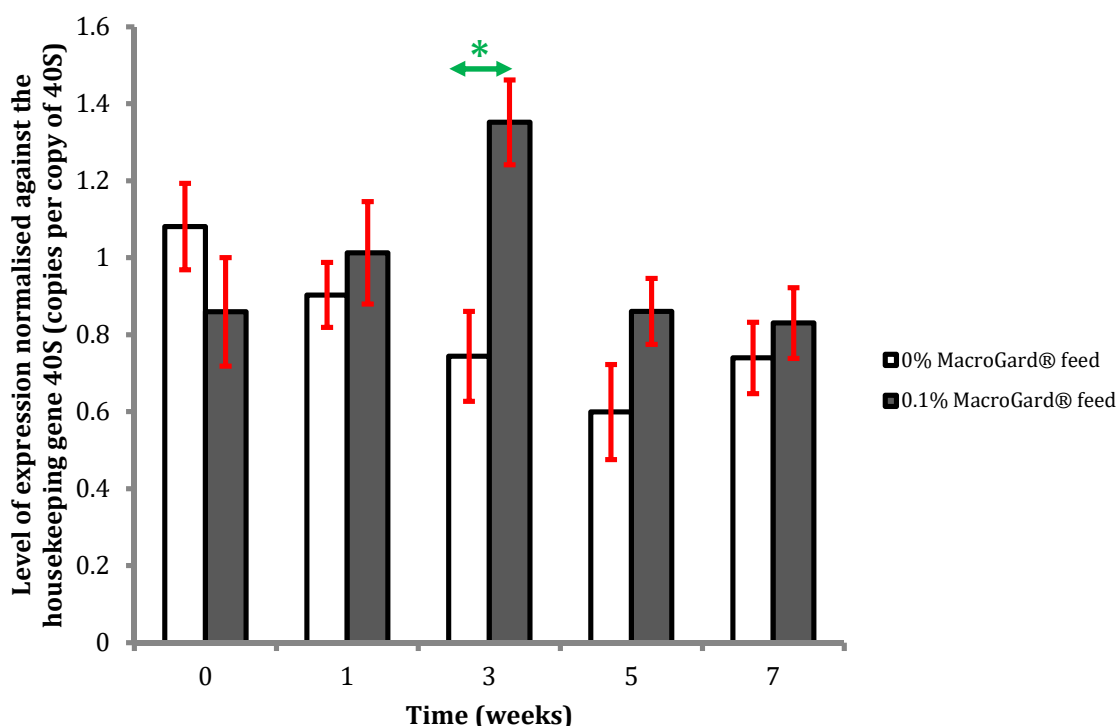
The inclusion of 0.1% MacroGard® in the diet only had a statistically significant overall effect on the expression of the IL-1 β receptor ($p=0.019$, Figure 4.4) and IL-1 β ($p=0.047$, Figure 4.5). The IL-1 β receptor had greater expression levels in carp fed with the 0.1% MacroGard® at all sampling times except for those sampled at the very start of the trial where all fish had only been fed the 0% MacroGard® (week 0 in Figure 4.4). The expression of the IL-1 β receptor was only significantly higher in carp fed with the 0.1% MacroGard® diet in comparison to those fed the MacroGard® free diet at week 3 ($p=0.0121$). Inversely, where expression of the IL-1 β receptor was higher in MacroGard® fed carp, expression of the IL-1 β gene itself was significantly lower in 0.1% MacroGard® fed carp in comparison to those on the 0% MacroGard® diet. *Post hoc* analysis did not, however, reveal any significant differences between the two feed groups at individual time points.

Whereas feed had a minimal impact upon gene expression, time, irrespective of diet, had a significant effect on the expression of the IL-1 β receptor, IL-1 β , iNOS (Figure 4.6), Muc2 (Figure 4.7) and CRP2 (Figure 4.8) with significance at $p=0.033$, $p=0.001$, $p=0.007$, $p<0.001$ and $p<0.001$ respectively. The IL-1 β receptor, whilst showing a significant effect of time overall, did not show any significant differences between each individual time point.

The greatest expression of IL-1 β was noted at the very start of the trial before the tanks were divided by diet (described as week 0 in Figure 4.5) and was significantly higher compared to expression seen after 1 week ($p=0.0057$), 3 weeks ($p=0.0016$) and 7 weeks ($p=0.0355$) but not after 5 weeks. In comparison iNOS gene expression was significantly greater at the end of the trial (week 7) compared to those seen at weeks 1 ($p=0.0069$) and 3 ($p=0.0358$). Both Muc2 and CRP2 expression levels are significantly lower at week 5 ($p<0.001$) in comparison to all other time points. There are no significant differences in the expression levels of C3 (Figure 4.9) or the three antimicrobial peptides HAMP1 (Figure 4.10), LEAP2 (Figure 4.11) and ApoA1 (Figure 4.12) over time.

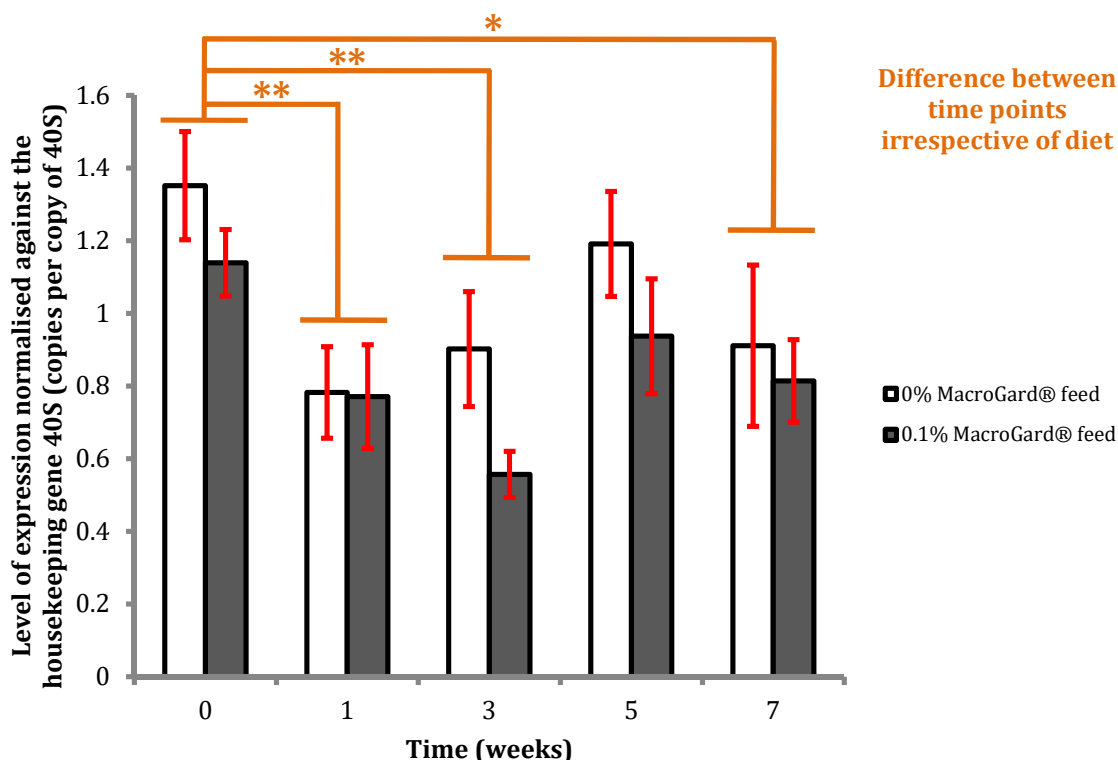
Whilst statistical analysis of data is highly useful in discussing whether an effect is present or simply an artefact of chance, considering the biology is equally as important when interpreting data. The data presented in Figure 4.4 to Figure 4.12 shows that whilst there are statistically significant differences in the levels of gene expression, the magnitude of these differences is minimal. Where expression of the IL-1 β receptor gene is significantly greater in carp fed with the 0.1% MacroGard® diet after 3 weeks, the average expression is less than twice (1.8 times) the average expression of carp fed with the 0% MacroGard® diet. Similarly, the higher expression levels of IL-1 β seen at the start of the trial (represented in Figure 4.5 as week 0) irrespective of feed are only 1.6, 1.7 and 1.2 times higher than the significantly lower levels of expression after 1, 3 and 7 weeks of feeding. The statistically significant differences in iNOS expression over time irrespective of feed correspond to a 1.6 times higher level of expression at week 1 in comparison to week 7, and a 1.1 times higher level at week 3 in comparison to week 7. Expression of Muc2 was significantly

lower irrespective of feed at week 5 in comparison to all other time points with the largest fold difference (2.0 times higher) in average expression being seen between weeks 5 and 7. The largest fold difference seen for any gene with an associated statistically significant difference is found in CRP2. As with Muc2 expression, this difference is seen between weeks 5 and 7 with expression at week 7 being 3.3 times higher than two weeks previous.



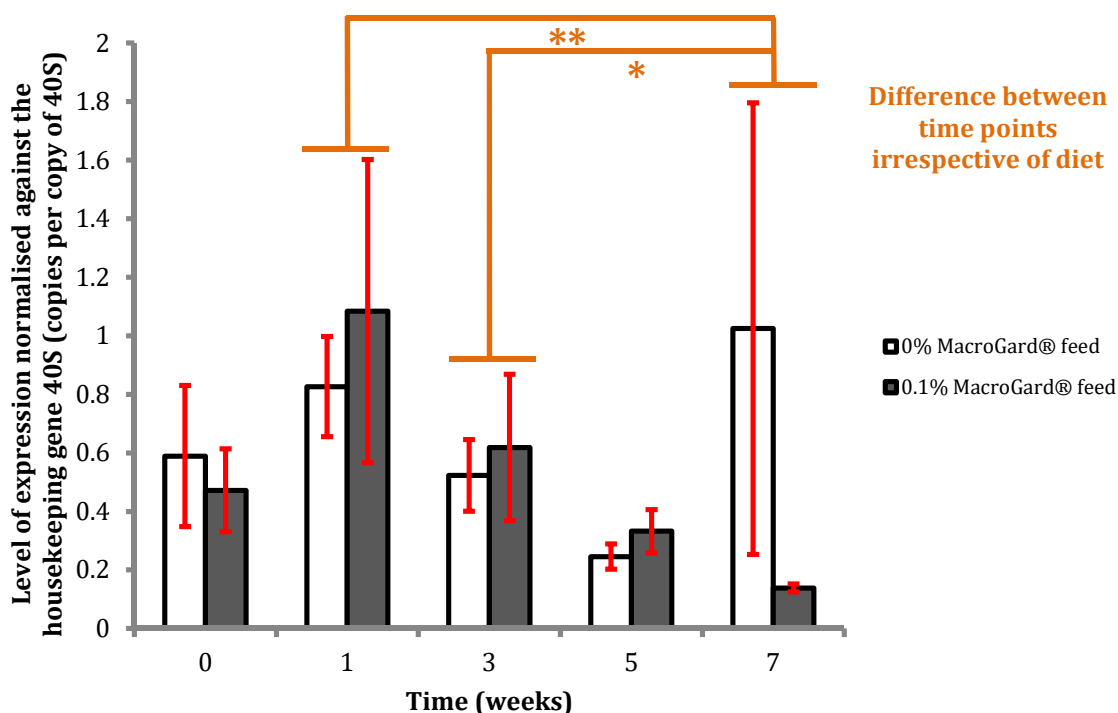
Anderson-Darling test for normality	p=0.418	Levene's test for equal variance		p=0.944
2-way nested (tank within treatment) ANOVA with <i>post hoc</i> Tukey's (R ² =30.14%)	Degrees of freedom	F distribution	P value	Significance
Overall difference between feeds	1	5.72	0.019	*
Nested effect of tank variation	4	0.24	0.914	
Overall difference over time	4	2.77	0.033	*
Interaction of feed and time	4	3.54	0.011	*
<i>Post hoc</i> analysis				
Time point: 3 weeks, 0% versus 0.1% MacroGard®		p=0.0121		*

Figure 4.4: Expression of the Interleukin 1 β receptor gene in the upper midgut of common carp (*C. carpio*) during a 7 week feeding trial. Carp were fed with either a 0% or 0.1% MacroGard® experimental diet designed by Tetra (GmbH) at a rate of 1% body weight per day. Each feed was given to 3 tanks with 3 carp being sampled per tank per time point (total fish n=90). The bar chart shows the average gene expression for each feed (n=9). Error bars are given as standard error of the mean. Grubbs test was utilised to identify any statistical outliers which were removed before any further statistical analysis. One fish was categorised as an outlier from tank C (0% MacroGard® feed) at time point 3 weeks. Data was checked for normality using the Anderson-Darling test on both raw data and residual data, and Levene's test for equal variance. A 2-way nested (tank within feed) ANOVA with Tukey's as *post hoc* analysis was utilised to compare differences over time and between feeds. Details of the statistical analysis are shown beneath the graph. Degrees of freedom, F distribution and P values for overall significance are given with significant (p<0.05) *post hoc* comparisons being listed. Both in the graph and table, * signifies p<0.05, ** signifies p<0.01, and *** signifies p<0.001.



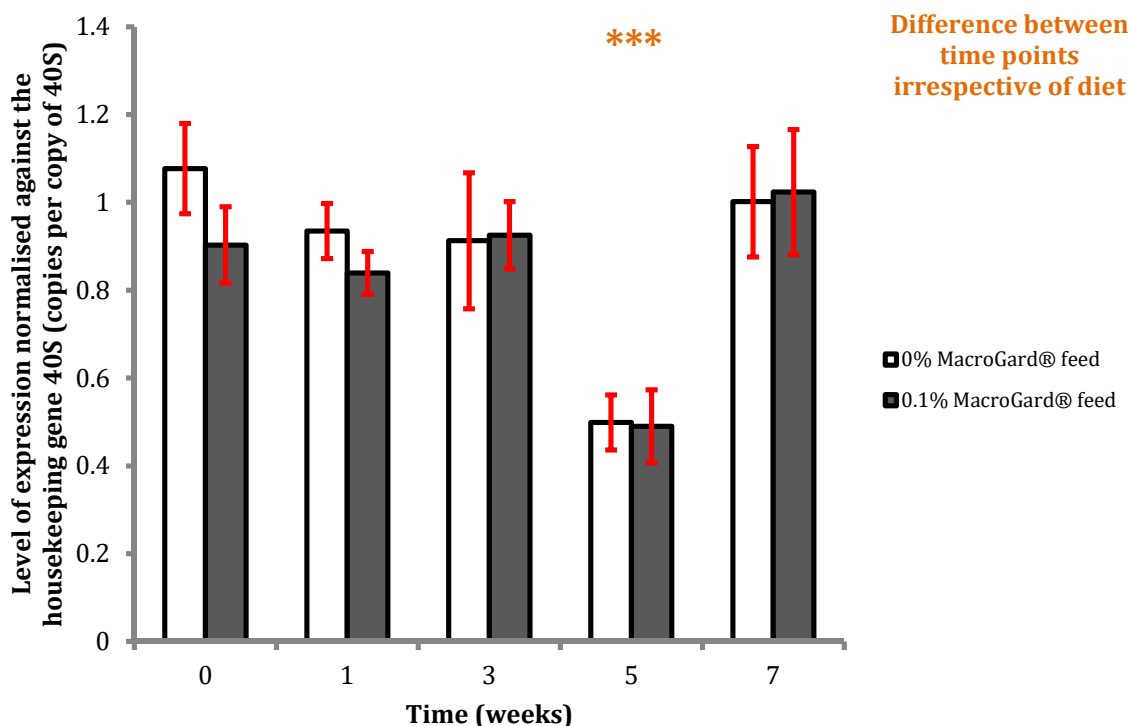
Box Cox transformation		$\lambda=0.32$		
Anderson-Darling test for normality	p=0.479	Levene's test for equal variance		p=0.993
2-way nested (tank within treatment) ANOVA with <i>post hoc</i> Tukey's ($R^2=32.67\%$)	Degrees of freedom	F distribution	P value	Significance
Overall difference between feeds	1	4.06	0.047	*
Nested effect of tank variation	4	2.08	0.091	
Overall difference over time	4	5.42	0.001	**
Interaction of feed and time	4	0.48	0.749	
Post hoc analysis				
Time: 0 weeks versus 1 week		p=0.0057		**
Time: 0 weeks versus 3 weeks		p=0.0016		**
Time: 0 weeks versus 7 weeks		p=0.0355		*

Figure 4.5: Expression of the Interleukin 1 β gene in the upper midgut of common carp (*C. carpio*) during a 7 week feeding trial. Carp were fed with either a 0% or 0.1% MacroGard® experimental diet designed by Tetra (GmbH) at a rate of 1% body weight per day. Each feed was given to 3 tanks with 3 carp being sampled per tank per time point (total fish n=90). Bars represent average gene expression for each feed (n=9). Error bars are given as standard error of the mean. Grubbs test was utilised to identify any statistical outliers which were removed before any further statistical analysis. One fish was categorised as an outlier from tank B (0% MacroGard® feed) at time point 3 weeks. Data was checked for normality using the Anderson-Darling test on both raw data and residual data, and Levene's test for equal variance. Raw data was not normally distributed therefore was subject to a Box Cox transformation before further analysis. A 2-way nested (tank within feed) ANOVA with Tukey's as *post hoc* analysis was utilised to compare differences over time and between feeds. Details of the statistical analysis are shown beneath the graph. Degrees of freedom, F distribution and P values for overall significance are given with significant ($p<0.05$) *post hoc* comparisons being listed. Both in the graph and table, * signifies $p<0.05$, ** signifies $p<0.01$, and *** signifies $p<0.001$.



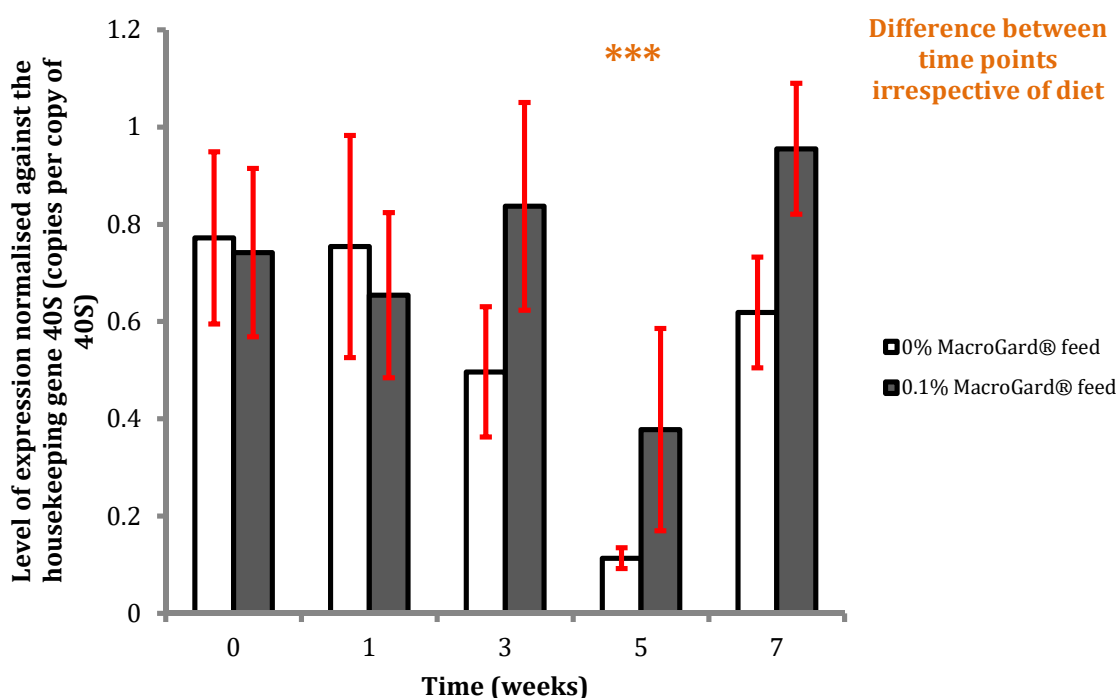
Box Cox transformation		$\lambda=-0.24$		
Anderson-Darling test for normality	p=0.255	Levene's test for equal variance		p=0.981
2-way nested (tank within treatment) ANOVA with <i>post hoc</i> Tukey's ($R^2=20.28\%$)	Degrees of freedom	F distribution	P value	Significance
Overall difference between feeds	1	0.43	0.516	
Nested effect of tank variation	4	0.40	0.811	
Overall difference over time	4	3.80	0.007	**
Interaction of feed and time	4	0.52	0.719	
Post hoc analysis				
Time: 1 week versus 7 weeks			p=0.0069	**
Time: 3 weeks versus 7 weeks			p=0.0358	*

Figure 4.6: Expression of the iNOS gene in the upper midgut of common carp (*C. carpio*) during a 7 week feeding trial. Carp were fed with either a 0% or 0.1% MacroGard® experimental diet designed by Tetra (GmbH) at a rate of 1% body weight per day. Each feed was given to 3 tanks with 3 carp being sampled per tank per time point (total fish n=90). Bars represent average gene expression for each feed (n=9). Error bars are given as standard error of the mean. Grubbs test was utilised to identify any statistical outliers which were removed before any further statistical analysis. Two fish were categorised as outliers: one from tank C (0% MacroGard® feed) at time point 5 weeks, and one from tank E (0.1% MacroGard® feed) at time point 7. Data was checked for normality using the Anderson-Darling test on both raw data and residual data, and Levene's test for equal variance. Raw data was not normally distributed therefore was subject to a Box Cox transformation before further analysis. A 2-way nested (tank within feed) ANOVA with Tukey's as *post hoc* analysis was utilised to compare differences over time and between feeds. Details of the statistical analysis are shown beneath the graph. Degrees of freedom, F distribution and P values for overall significance are given with significant ($p<0.05$) *post hoc* comparisons being listed. Both in the graph and table, * signifies $p<0.05$, ** signifies $p<0.01$, and *** signifies $p<0.001$.



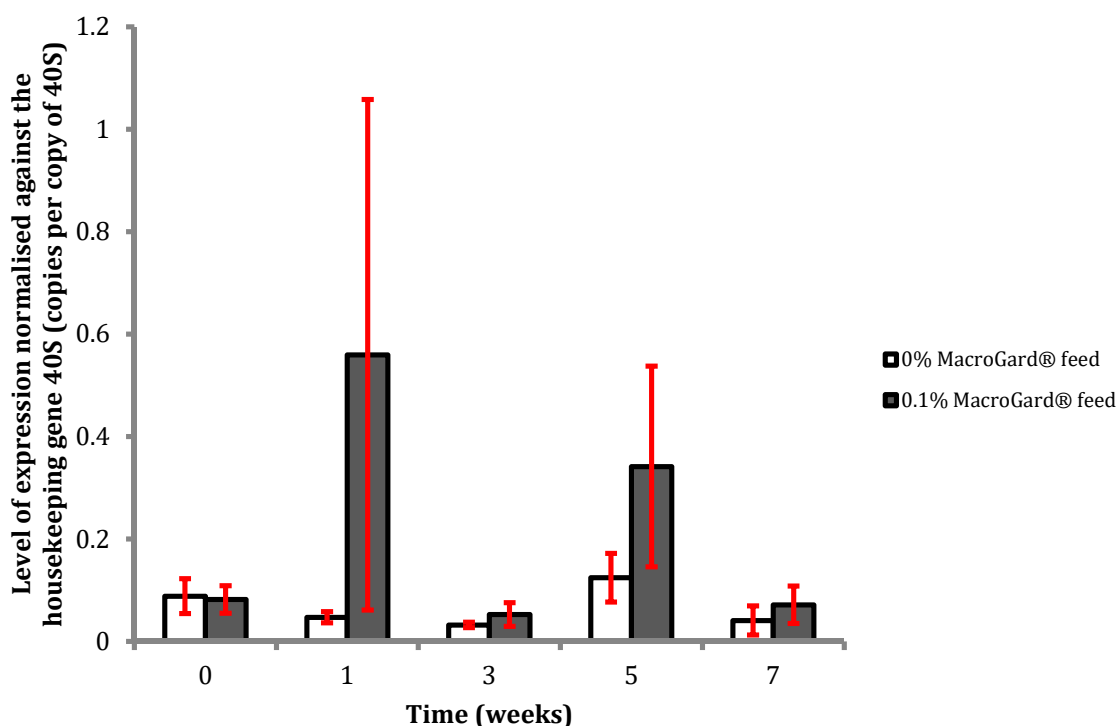
Box Cox transformation		$\lambda=0.16$		
Anderson-Darling test for normality	p=0.192	Levene's test for equal variance		p=0.929
2-way nested (tank within treatment) ANOVA with <i>post hoc</i> Tukey's ($R^2=41.09\%$)	Degrees of freedom	F distribution	P value	Significance
Overall difference between feeds	1	0.36	0.549	
Nested effect of tank variation	4	0.44	0.783	
Overall difference over time	4	12.16	<0.001	***
Interaction of feed and time	4	0.52	0.719	
<i>Post hoc analysis</i>				
Time: 0 weeks versus 5 weeks			p<0.0001	***
Time: 1 week versus 5 weeks			p<0.0001	***
Time: 3 weeks versus 5 weeks			p<0.0001	***
Time: 5 weeks versus 7 weeks			p<0.0001	***

Figure 4.7: Expression of the Muc2 gene in the upper midgut of common carp (*C. carpio*) during a 7 week feeding trial. Carp were fed with either a 0% or 0.1% MacroGard® experimental diet designed by Tetra (GmbH) at a rate of 1% body weight per day. Each feed was given to 3 tanks with 3 carp being sampled per tank per time point (total fish n=90). Bars represent average gene expression for each feed (n=9). Error bars are given as standard error of the mean. Grubbs test was utilised to identify any statistical outliers which were removed before any further statistical analysis. One fish was categorised as an outlier from tank D (0.1% MacroGard® feed) at time point 0 weeks. Data was checked for normality using the Anderson-Darling test on both raw data and residual data, and Levene's test for equal variance. Raw data was not normally distributed therefore was subject to a Box Cox transformation before further analysis. A 2-way nested (tank within feed) ANOVA with Tukey's as *post hoc* analysis was utilised to compare differences over time and between feeds. Details of the statistical analysis are shown beneath the graph. Degrees of freedom, F distribution and P values for overall significance are given with significant (p<0.05) *post hoc* comparisons being listed. Both in the graph and table, * signifies p<0.05, ** signifies p<0.01, and *** signifies p<0.001.



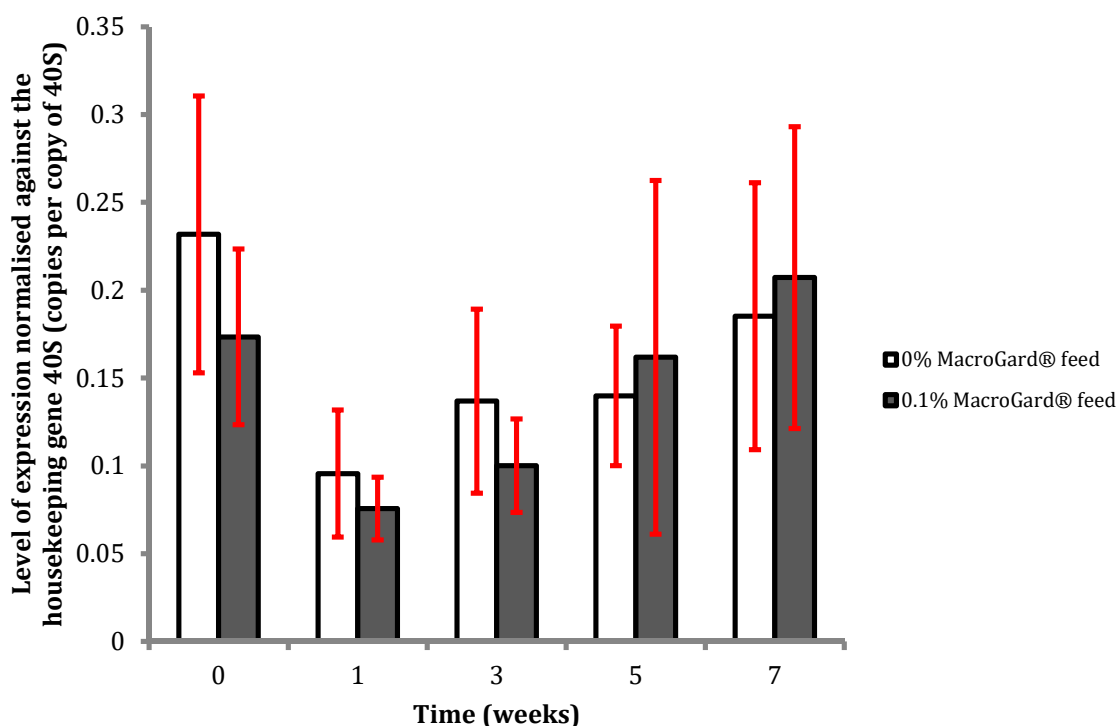
Box Cox transformation		$\lambda=0.22$		
Anderson-Darling test for normality	p=0.233	Levene's test for equal variance		p=0.946
2-way nested (tank within treatment) ANOVA with <i>post hoc</i> Tukey's ($R^2=40.56\%$)	Degrees of freedom	F distribution	P value	Significance
Overall difference between feeds	1	2.80	0.098	
Nested effect of tank variation	4	0.70	0.592	
Overall difference over time	4	10.02	<0.001	***
Interaction of feed and time	4	0.80	0.527	
Post hoc analysis				
Time: 0 weeks versus 5 weeks			p<0.0001	***
Time: 1 week versus 5 weeks			p=0.0002	***
Time: 3 weeks versus 5 weeks			p=0.0004	***
Time: 5 weeks versus 7 weeks			p<0.0001	***

Figure 4.8: Expression of the CRP2 gene in the upper midgut of common carp (*C. carpio*) during a 7 week feeding trial. Carp were fed with either a 0% or 0.1% MacroGard® experimental diet designed by Tetra (GmbH) at a rate of 1% body weight per day. Each feed was given to 3 tanks with 3 carp being sampled per tank per time point (total fish n=90). Bars represent average gene expression for each feed (n=9). Error bars are given as standard error of the mean. Grubbs test was utilised to identify any statistical outliers which were removed before any further statistical analysis. Three fish was categorised as outliers: one from tank B (0% MacroGard® feed) at time point 3 weeks, one from tank F (0.1% MacroGard® feed) at time point 5 weeks, and one from tank D (0.1% MacroGard® feed) at time point 7 weeks. Data was checked for normality using the Anderson-Darling test on both raw data and residual data, and Levene's test for equal variance. Raw data was not normally distributed therefore was subject to a Box Cox transformation before further analysis. A 2-way nested (tank within feed) ANOVA with Tukey's as *post hoc* analysis was utilised to compare differences over time and between feeds. Details of the statistical analysis are shown beneath the graph. Degrees of freedom, F distribution and P values for overall significance are given with significant (p<0.05) *post hoc* comparisons being listed. Both in the graph and table, * signifies p<0.05, ** signifies p<0.01, and *** signifies p<0.001.



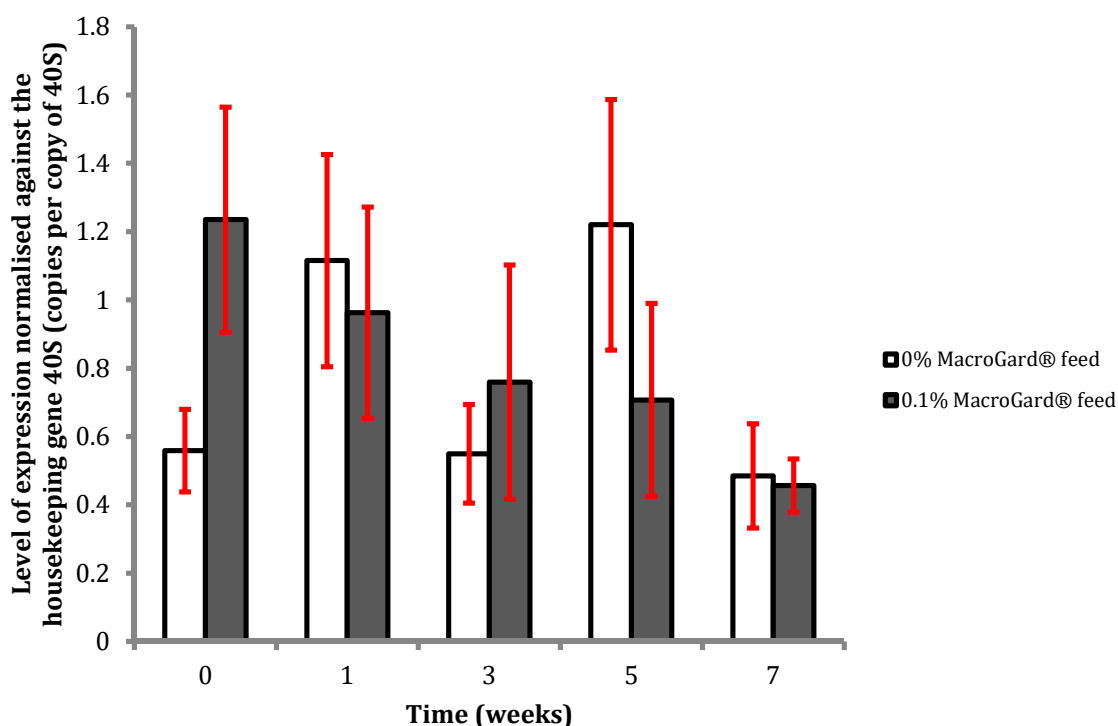
Box Cox transformation		$\lambda > -5$		
Anderson-Darling test for normality	$p < 0.005$	Levene's test for equal variance		$p = 0.636$
2-way Scheirer-Ray-Hare test ($R^2 = 11.64\%$)	Degrees of freedom	F distribution	P value	Significance
Overall difference between feeds	1	0.10	0.755	
Overall difference over time	4	2.28	0.067	
Interaction of feed and time	4	0.33	0.860	

Figure 4.9: Expression of the C3 gene in the upper midgut of common carp (*C. carpio*) during a 7 week feeding trial. Carp were fed with either a 0% or 0.1% MacroGard® experimental diet designed by Tetra (GmbH) at a rate of 1% body weight per day. Each feed was given to 3 tanks with 3 carp being sampled per tank per time point (total fish $n=90$). Bars represent average gene expression for each feed ($n=9$). Error bars are given as standard error of the mean. Grubbs test was utilised to identify any statistical outliers which were removed before any further statistical analysis. Two fish were categorised as outliers: one from tank C (0% MacroGard® feed) at time point 1 week, and one from tank A (0% MacroGard® feed) at time point 5 weeks. Data was checked for normality using the Anderson-Darling test on both raw data and residual data, and Levene's test for equal variance. Raw data was not normally distributed and using a +1 followed by Box Cox transformation showed a value of λ smaller than -5 was required to normalise the data. The non-parametric Scheirer-Ray-Hare test was used for further statistical analysis. Details are shown beneath the graph. Degrees of freedom, F distribution and P values for overall significance are given with significant ($p < 0.05$) *post hoc* comparisons being listed.



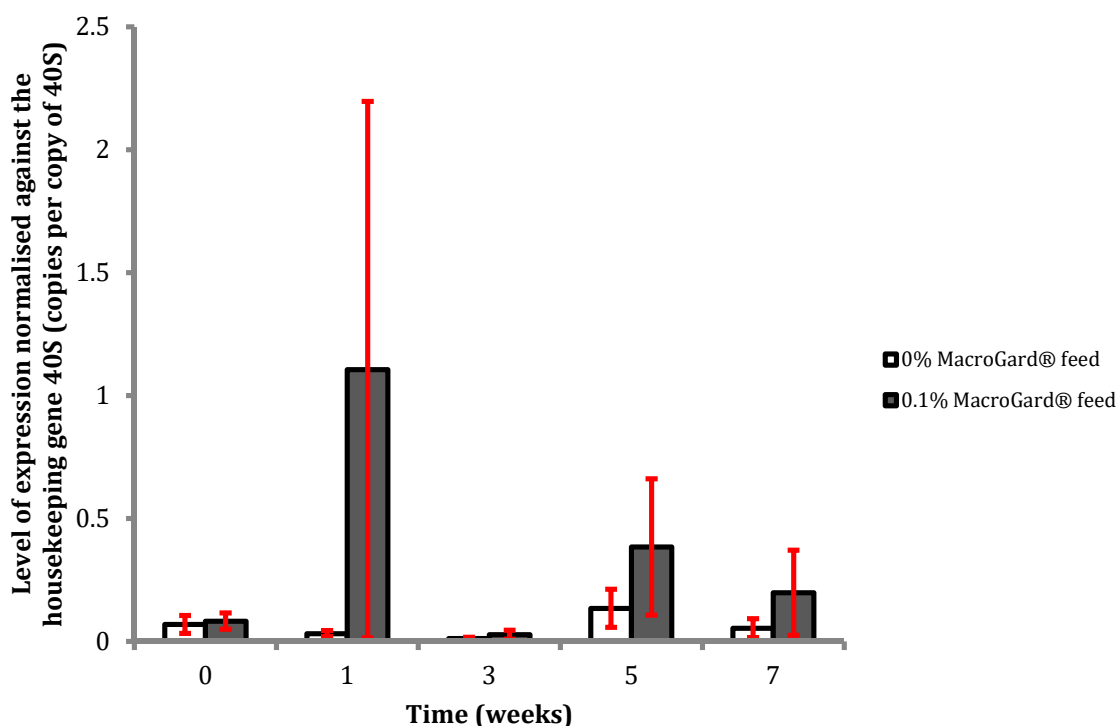
Box Cox transformation		$\lambda=0.01$		
Anderson-Darling test for normality	p=0.928	Levene's test for equal variance		p=0.914
2-way nested (tank within treatment) ANOVA with <i>post hoc</i> Tukey's ($R^2=13.54\%$)	Degrees of freedom	F distribution	P value	Significance
Overall difference between feeds	1	0.08	0.774	
Nested effect of tank variation	4	0.86	0.490	
Overall difference over time	4	1.89	0.122	
Interaction of feed and time	4	0.10	0.980	

Figure 4.10: Expression of the HAMP1 gene in the upper midgut of common carp (*C. carpio*) during a 7 week feeding trial. Carp were fed with either a 0% or 0.1% MacroGard® experimental diet designed by Tetra (GmbH) at a rate of 1% body weight per day. Each feed was given to 3 tanks with 3 carp being sampled per tank per time point (total fish n=90). Bars represent average gene expression for each feed (n=9). Error bars are given as standard error of the mean. Grubbs test was utilised to identify any statistical outliers which were removed before any further statistical analysis. Three fish were categorised as outliers: one from tank C (0% MacroGard® feed) at time point 1 week, one from tank E (0.1% MacroGard® feed) at time point 1 week, and one from tank A (0% MacroGard® feed) at time point 5 weeks. Data was checked for normality using the Anderson-Darling test on both raw data and residual data, and Levene's test for equal variance. Raw data was not normally distributed therefore was subject to a Box Cox transformation before further analysis. A 2-way nested (tank within feed) ANOVA with Tukey's as *post hoc* analysis was utilised to compare differences over time and between feeds. Details of the statistical analysis are shown beneath the graph. Degrees of freedom, F distribution and P values for overall significance are given with significant ($p<0.05$) *post hoc* comparisons being listed.



Box Cox transformation		$\lambda=-0.01$		
Anderson-Darling test for normality	p=0.661	Levene's test for equal variance		p>0.999
2-way nested (tank within treatment) ANOVA with <i>post hoc</i> Tukey's ($R^2=17.04\%$)	Degrees of freedom	F distribution	P value	Significance
Overall difference between feeds	1	0.00	0.950	
Nested effect of tank variation	4	0.31	0.868	
Overall difference over time	4	1.91	0.117	
Interaction of feed and time	4	1.71	0.157	

Figure 4.11: Expression of the LEAP2 gene in the upper midgut of common carp (*C. carpio*) during a 7 week feeding trial. Carp were fed with either a 0% or 0.1% MacroGard® experimental diet designed by Tetra (GmbH) at a rate of 1% body weight per day. Each feed was given to 3 tanks with 3 carp being sampled per tank per time point (total fish n=90). Bars represent average gene expression for each feed (n=9). Error bars are given as standard error of the mean. Grubbs test was utilised to identify any statistical outliers which were removed before any further statistical analysis. One fish was categorised as an outliers from tank A (0% MacroGard® feed) at time point 5 weeks. Data was checked for normality using the Anderson-Darling test on both raw data and residual data, and Levene's test for equal variance. Raw data was not normally distributed therefore was subject to a Box Cox transformation before further analysis. A 2-way nested (tank within feed) ANOVA with Tukey's as *post hoc* analysis was utilised to compare differences over time and between feeds. Details of the statistical analysis are shown beneath the graph. Degrees of freedom, F distribution and P values for overall significance are given with significant ($p<0.05$) *post hoc* comparisons being listed.



Box Cox transformation		$\lambda=-0.11$		
Anderson-Darling test for normality	p=0.661	Levene's test for equal variance		p=0.983
2-way nested (tank within treatment) ANOVA with <i>post hoc</i> Tukey's ($R^2=17.96\%$)	Degrees of freedom	F distribution	P value	Significance
Overall difference between feeds	1	0.13	0.716	
Nested effect of tank variation	4	1.16	0.336	
Overall difference over time	4	2.27	0.070	
Interaction of feed and time	4	0.63	0.642	

Figure 4.12: Expression of the ApoA1 gene in the upper midgut of common carp (*C. carpio*) during a 7 week feeding trial. Carp were fed with either a 0% or 0.1% MacroGard® experimental diet designed by Tetra (GmbH) at a rate of 1% body weight per day. Each feed was given to 3 tanks with 3 carp being sampled per tank per time point (total fish n=90). Bars represent average gene expression for each feed (n=9). Error bars are given as standard error of the mean. Grubbs test was utilised to identify any statistical outliers which were removed before any further statistical analysis. Two fish were categorised as outliers: one from tank C (0% MacroGard® feed) at time point 1 week, and one from tank A (0% MacroGard® feed) at time point 5 weeks. Data was checked for normality using the Anderson-Darling test on both raw data and residual data, and Levene's test for equal variance. Raw data was not normally distributed therefore was subject to a Box Cox transformation before further analysis. A 2-way nested (tank within feed) ANOVA with Tukey's as *post hoc* analysis was utilised to compare differences over time and between feeds. Details of the statistical analysis are shown beneath the graph. Degrees of freedom, F distribution and P values for overall significance are given with significant ($p<0.05$) *post hoc* comparisons being listed.

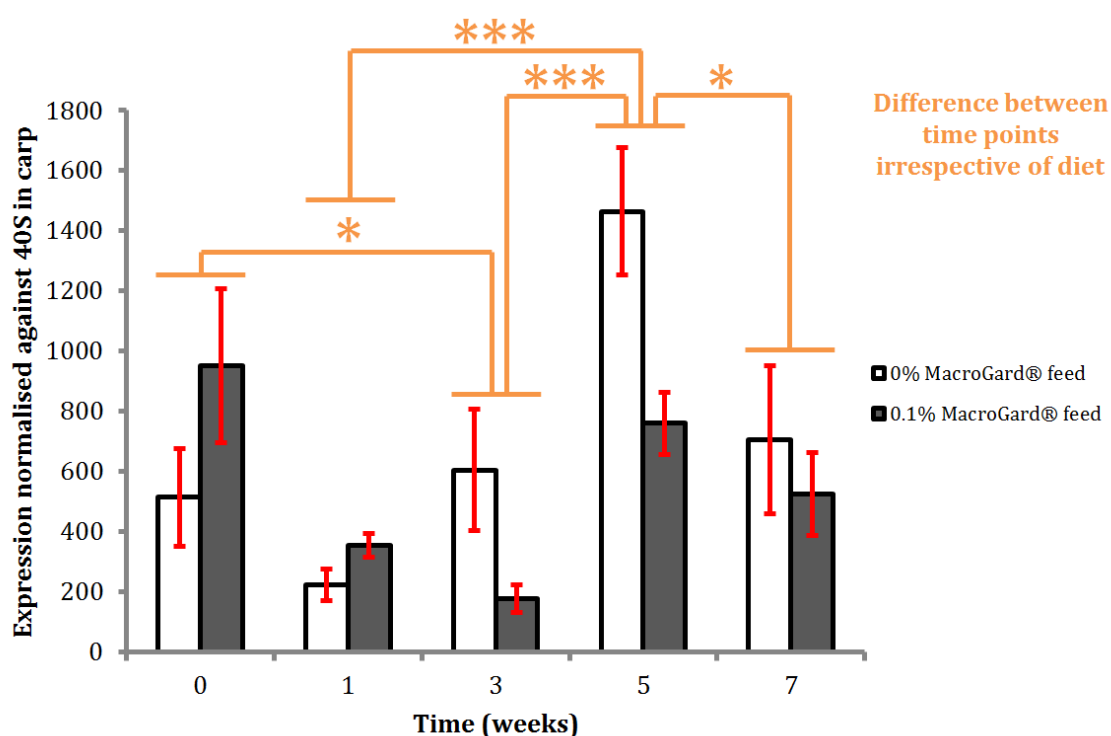
4.3.6.2 – Gut microbiome analysis.

Both quantitative and qualitative analyses were performed on the gut microbiome populations of carp in order to ascertain the impact of MacroGard® consumption on bacterial population sizes and species richness. Quantification of total 16S rDNA expression (Figure 4.13) revealed a significant effect of time, but not diet, on the overall size of the bacterial population in the gut ($p < 0.001$). Expression levels at the very start of the trial when all fish had only consumed the 0% MacroGard® diet (described as week 0 in all figures) are significantly higher than those found at week 3 ($p = 0.0458$), and week 5 has significantly higher expression levels than weeks 1 ($p < 0.0001$), week 3 ($p < 0.0001$) and week 7 ($p = 0.0201$). Although different mean expression levels are seen when comparing between diets at each time point, *post hoc* analysis revealed no statistical significance between these differences. The largest difference in expression levels over time irrespective of feed is seen between weeks 1 and 5 with the latter being 3.8 times higher than that seen 1 week after the start of the trial. Within each feed over time, the range of average 16S expression was a 6.5 fold difference between the highest and lowest expression levels seen for carp fed with the 0% MacroGard® diet and a 5.3 fold difference for carp fed with the 0.1% MacroGard® diet.

In addition to the analysis of total bacterial population expression of individual genera, i.e. *Aeromonas* sp., *Pseudomonas* sp., *Flavobacterium* sp., *Vibrio* sp., and *Streptococcus* sp., were analysed in fish sampled at the start and end of the trial (labelled weeks 0 and 7 in Figure 4.14). No copies of *Vibrio* sp. or *Streptococcus* sp. 16S rDNA were detected in any of the carp analysed. Figure 4.14 shows the relative proportion of the total microbial population in each fish represented by *Aeromonas*

sp., *Pseudomonas* sp., and *Flavobacterium* sp.. As can be seen there is a large amount of variability both within individual tanks, for example carp from tank E contain proportionally a higher amount of *Aeromonas* sp. than can be seen in carp from tank D, and between the start and end of the trial as can be seen in tank A where *Pseudomonas* sp. and *Flavobacterium* sp. are seen in much higher proportions at the end of the trial than at the start. A 2-way nested ANOVA revealed no statistical differences in the proportions of *Aeromonas* sp. or *Pseudomonas* sp. within the fish gut, however the proportion of *Flavobacterium* sp. was significantly different when comparing fish from different tanks.

Qualitative analysis of species richness was performed based upon PCR-DGGE band patterns. The Bray-Curtis dissimilarity test revealed no difference in the level of dissimilarity between fish from different tanks which received the same feed or between time points, i.e. they were all similar (Figure 4.15), and non-metric Multidimensional Scaling (nMDS) analysis of the data further confirmed this (Figure 4.16). The stress of the nMDS ordination, i.e. how well the data fits within a 2D matrix, is given as 0.1294 which falls within the range described as an acceptable level of stress for 2D graphical representations of data (Podani 2000). The nMDS ordination, constructed from Bray-Curtis dissimilarities from multiple gels and with averaged dissimilarity being used when a comparison occurred on more than one gel ($n=1/2$ for each comparison), shows that there is no grouping of data points (average level of species richness within a tank at each time point) either by time point or by feed group.



Box Cox transformation		$\lambda=0.22$		
Anderson-Darling test for normality	p=0.565	Levene's test for equal variance		p=0.927
2-way nested (tank within treatment) ANOVA with <i>post hoc</i> Tukey's ($R^2=44.87\%$)	Degrees of freedom	F distribution	P value	Significance
Overall difference between feeds	1	0.90	0.345	
Nested effect of tank variation	4	2.17	0.081	
Overall difference over time	4	9.74	<0.001	***
Interaction of feed and time	4	3.86	0.007	**
Post hoc analysis				
Time: 0 weeks versus 3 weeks			p=0.0458	*
Time: 1 week versus 5 weeks			P<0.0001	***
Time: 3 weeks versus 5 weeks			P<0.0001	***
Time: 5 weeks versus 7 weeks			p=0.0201	*

Figure 4.13: Expression of the bacterial 16S rDNA gene in the upper midgut of common carp (*C. carpio*) during a 7 week feeding trial. Carp were fed with either a 0% or 0.1% MacroGard® experimental diet designed by Tetra (GmbH) at a rate of 1% body weight per day. Each feed was given to 3 tanks with 3 carp being sampled per tank per time point (total fish n=90). Bars represent average gene expression for each feed (n=9). Error bars are given as standard error of the mean. Grubbs test was utilised to identify any statistical outliers which were removed before any further statistical analysis. One fish was categorised as an outlier from tank A (0% MacroGard® feed) at time point 5 weeks. Data was checked for normality using the Anderson-Darling test on both raw data and residual data, and Levene's test for equal variance. Raw data was not normally distributed therefore was subject to a Box Cox transformation before further analysis. A 2-way nested (tank within feed) ANOVA with Tukey's as *post hoc* analysis was utilised to compare differences over time and between feeds. Details of the statistical analysis are shown beneath the graph. Degrees of freedom, F distribution and P values for overall significance are given with significant ($p<0.05$) *post hoc* comparisons being listed. Both in the graph and table, * signifies $p<0.05$, ** signifies $p<0.01$, and *** signifies $p<0.001$.

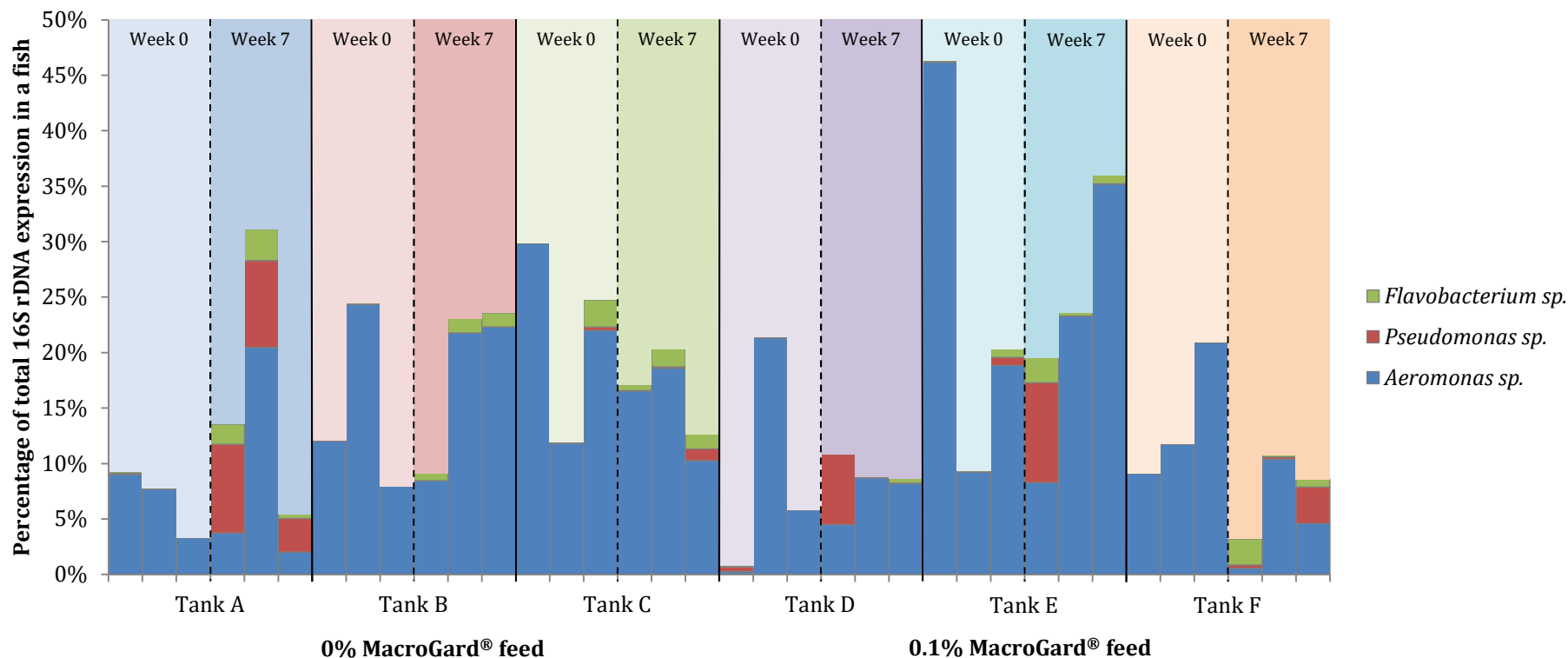


Figure 4.14: (part A) Expression of the bacterial 16S rDNA gene for three different bacterial genera in the upper midgut of common carp (*C. carpio*) at week 0 and week 7 of a 7 week feeding trial (part A). Carp were fed with either a 0% or 0.1% MacroGard® experimental diet designed by Tetra (GmbH) at a rate of 1% body weight per day. Each feed was given to 3 tanks with 3 carp being sampled per tank per time point (total fish n=36). Graph shows the relative proportion of 100% of total 16S rDNA expression for each fish within each group. Pastel colours represent the remaining bacteria genera in each fish. Data was checked for normality using the Anderson-Darling test on both raw data and residual data, and Levene's test for equal variance. Raw data was not normally distributed therefore was subject to a Box Cox transformation before further analysis. A 2-way nested (tank within feed) ANOVA with Tukey's as *post hoc* analysis was utilised to compare differences over time and between feeds for each of the analysed bacterial genera. Details are shown in part 2 of this figure. Degrees of freedom, F distribution and P values for overall significance are given.

			2-way nested ANOVA (tank within feed)				
			(R ² =34.40%)	Degrees of freedom	F distribution	P value	Significance
<i>Aeromonas</i> sp.	Box Cox transformation	$\lambda=-0.01$					
	Anderson-Darling test for normality	$p=0.134$	Overall difference between feeds	1	1.58	0.220	
			Overall effect of tank	4	2.53	0.063	
	Levene's test for equal variance	$p=0.862$	Overall difference over time	1	2.60	0.118	
			Interaction of feed and time	1	0.39	0.537	
<i>Pseudomonas</i> sp.	Box Cox transformation	$\lambda=-0.00$					
	Anderson-Darling test for normality	$P=0.097$	Overall difference between feeds	1	1.81	0.189	
			Overall effect of tank	4	0.41	0.803	
	Levene's test for equal variance	$p=0.605$	Overall difference over time	1	0.76	0.391	
			Interaction of feed and time	1	0.82	0.374	
<i>Flavobacterium</i> sp.	Box Cox transformation	$\lambda=0.01$					
	Anderson-Darling test for normality	$p=0.795$	Overall difference between feeds	1	2.08	0.161	
			Overall effect of tank	4	2.92	0.039	*
	Levene's test for equal variance	$p=0.951$	Overall difference over time	1	1.08	0.308	
			Interaction of feed and time	1	0.06	0.802	

Figure 4.14: (part B) Expression of the bacterial 16S rDNA gene for three different bacterial genera in the upper midgut of common carp (*C. carpio*) at week 0 and week 7 of a 7 week feeding trial (part B). Carp were fed with either a 0% or 0.1% MacroGard® experimental diet designed by Tetra (GmbH) at a rate of 1% body weight per day. Each feed was given to 3 tanks with 3 carp being sampled per tank per time point (total fish n=36). Graph shows the relative proportion of 100% of total 16S rDNA expression for each fish within each group. Pastel colours represent the remaining bacteria genera in each fish. Data was checked for normality using the Anderson-Darling test on both raw data and residual data, and Levene's test for equal variance. Raw data was not normally distributed therefore was subject to a Box Cox transformation before further analysis. A 2-way nested (tank within feed) ANOVA with Tukey's as *post hoc* analysis was utilised to compare differences over time and between feeds for each of the analysed bacterial genera. Details are shown in part 2 of this figure. Degrees of freedom, F distribution and P values for overall significance are given.

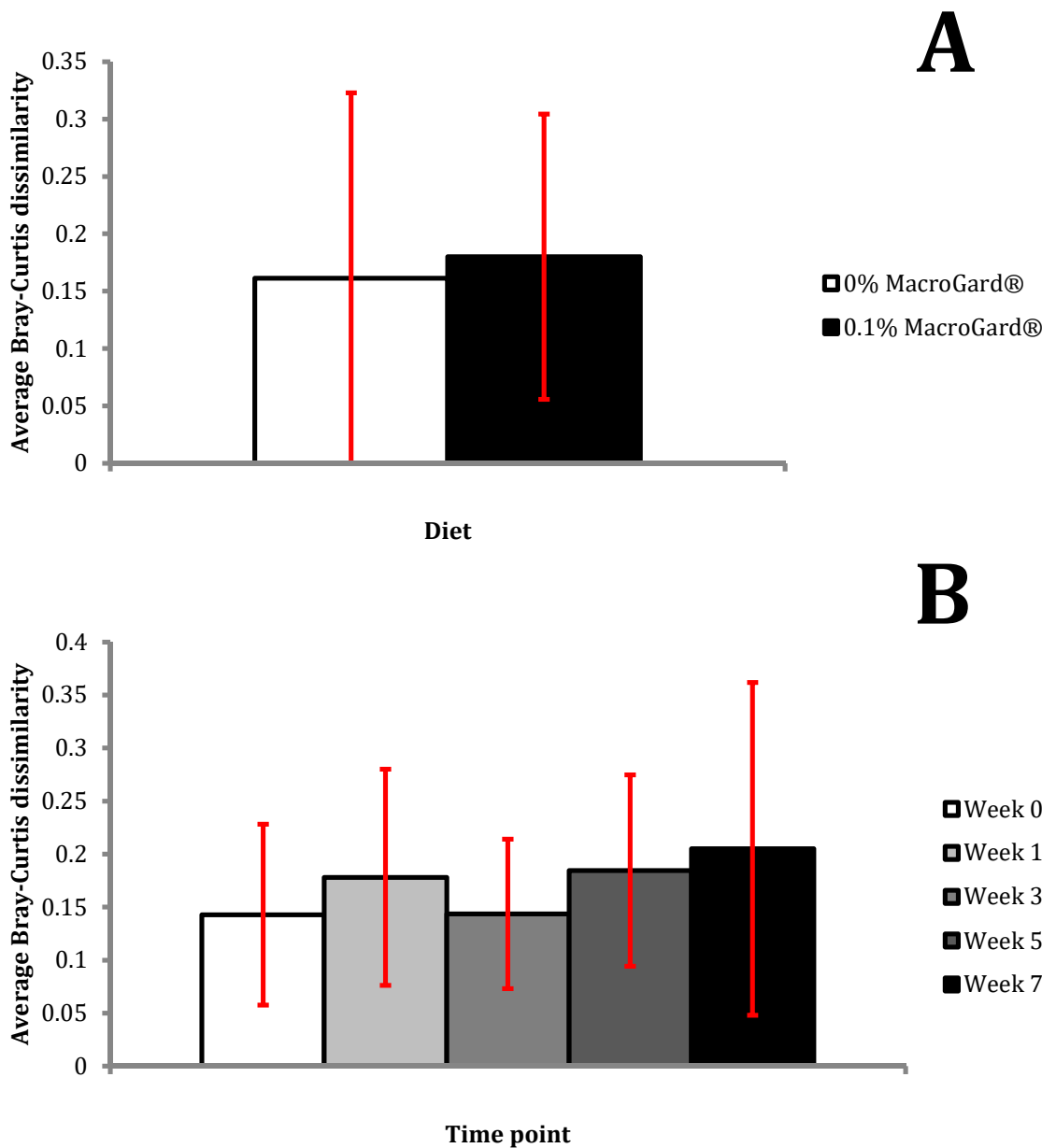


Figure 4.15: Average Bray-Curtis dissimilarities for carp fed with either a 0% or 0.1% MacroGard® diet for up to 7 weeks. Error bars represent standard deviation. A dissimilarity of 0 indicates two samples are identical. A shows the average dissimilarity between feed groups. B shows the average dissimilarity between time points.

Grouping	Marker
0% MacroGard® fed fish	Square
0.1% MacroGard® fed fish	Diamond
Week 0	Black
Week 1	Blue
Week 3	Red
Week 5	Green
Week 7	Orange

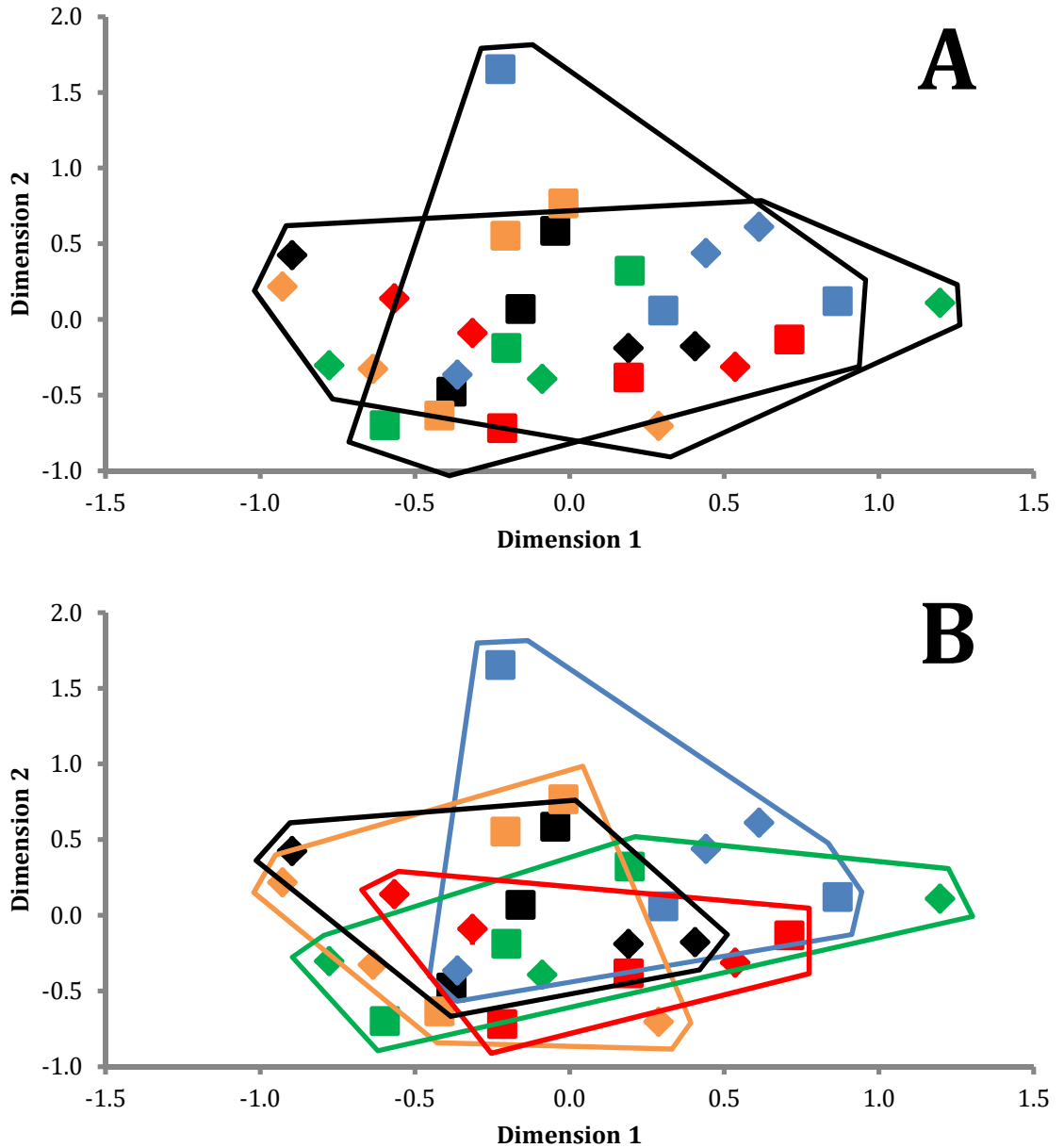


Figure 4.16: Non metric Multidimensional Scaling (nMDS) ordination (stress: 0.1294) of Bray-Curtis dissimilarities looking at the differences in species richness based on PCR-DGGE band patterns of carp that had been fed with either a 0% or 0.1% MacroGard® diet. Data is shown twice to easily visualise groupings by feed (A) and by time point (B). Where a comparison between two band patterns was performed on multiple gels, an average was used to generate the nMDS ordination ($n=1/2$).

4.3.6.3 – Comparing the immune response of carp and the gut microflora population.

In sections 4.3.6.1 and 4.3.6.2, the expression of innate immune genes and quantitative analysis of both the overall bacteria population size and amount of selected bacterial genera were performed. In this section this data is compared in order to study the relationship between these genes and the associated microflora within the gut and correlation is assigned based upon the classifications defined by Fowler *et al.* (1998). As shown in Table 4.4, the expression of the IL-1 β receptor, IL-1 β and CRP2 show a significant, modest correlation to total 16S rDNA expression ($p < 0.001$). Both the IL-1 β receptor and CRP2 were negatively correlated whereas IL-1 β expression was positively correlated with 16S rDNA expression. There was no correlation between the expression of iNOS, C3, or the antimicrobial peptides HAMP1, LEAP2 and ApoA1 when compared against total 16S rDNA expression. Similarly, the expression of these genes at weeks 0 and 7 did not correlate with the expression of the 16S gene from the genera *Aeromonas*, *Pseudomonas* or *Flavobacterium* (see Table 4.5). The strongest correlation coefficient seen was between LEAP2 and the amount of *Pseudomonas* in the gut (positive correlation), however this is still only considered to be a weak correlation.

Table 4.4: The probability of a linear relationship between each of the immune genes analysed in the gut of common carp during a 7 week feeding trial and the size of the bacterial population within the gut as measured by total 16S rDNA expression (n=90). As data was not normally distributed, Spearman's test was used to calculate the correlation coefficient, i.e. how linear a correlation is, and the statistical significance. A rating as to how strong the correlation is (as described by Fowler *et al.* 1998) is also given with a coefficient of 0.00-0.19 being a very weak correlation, 0.20-0.39 being a weak correlation, 0.40-0.69 being a modest correlation, 0.70-0.89 being a strong correlation and 0.90-1.00 being a very strong correlation.

Gene	Correlation coefficient	P value	Correlation
IL-1 β receptor	-0.498	<0.001	Modest negative
IL-1 β	0.488	<0.001	Modest positive
iNOS	-0.135	0.205	Very weak
C3	0.022	0.838	Very weak
Muc2	-0.344	0.001	Weak negative
CRP2	-0.479	<0.001	Modest negative
HAMP1	0.075	0.479	Very weak
LEAP2	0.065	0.544	Very weak
ApoA1	0.080	0.451	Very weak

Table 4.5: The probability of a linear relationship between each of the immune genes analysed in weeks 0 and 7 of a 7 week feeding trial and the presence of the genera *Aeromonas*, *Pseudomonas* and *Flavobacterium* as measured by 16S rDNA expression. As data was not normally distributed, Spearman’s test was used to calculate the correlation coefficient, i.e. how linear a correlation is, and the statistical significance. A rating as to how strong the correlation is (as described by Fowler *et al.* 1998) is also given with a coefficient of 0.00-0.19 being a very weak correlation, 0.20-0.39 being a weak correlation, 0.40-0.69 being a modest correlation, 0.70-0.89 being a strong correlation and 0.90-1.00 being a very strong correlation.

Gene	Correlation coefficient	P value	Correlation
<i>Aeromonas sp.</i>			
IL-1 β receptor	0.216	0.206	Weak
IL-1 β	0.014	0.937	Very weak
iNOS	0.140	0.417	Very weak
C3	0.018	0.916	Very weak
Muc2	0.180	0.293	Very weak
CRP2	0.090	0.293	Very weak
HAMP1	-0.005	0.997	Very weak
LEAP2	0.225	0.185	Weak
ApoA1	0.007	0.185	Very weak
<i>Pseudomonas sp.</i>			
IL-1 β receptor	0.250	0.142	Weak
IL-1 β	-0.047	0.787	Very weak
iNOS	0.141	0.411	Very weak
C3	0.033	0.847	Very weak
Muc2	0.134	0.435	Very weak
CRP2	0.262	0.122	Weak
HAMP1	-0.118	0.492	Very weak
LEAP2	0.308	0.068	Weak
ApoA1	-0.003	0.988	Very weak
<i>Flavobacterium sp.</i>			
IL-1 β receptor	0.203	0.234	Weak
IL-1 β	-0.125	0.467	Very weak
iNOS	0.065	0.707	Very weak
C3	0.092	0.592	Very weak
Muc2	0.076	0.660	Very weak
CRP2	0.098	0.571	Very weak
HAMP1	-0.132	0.442	Very weak
LEAP2	0.232	0.172	Weak
ApoA1	0.060	0.727	Very weak

4.4 – Discussion.

Analysis of the cultured microbiota population within the gut of 0% MacroGard® fed carp revealed that the diversity observed was similar to that seen in other studies. Jung-Schroers *et al.* (2015) and Kuhlwein *et al.* (2013) both performed comparable trials containing groups of carp that received a 0% MacroGard® diet. The level of bacterial species diversity noted in this thesis falls between that described by Jung-Schroers *et al.* (2015) who reported a slightly lower level of diversity whereas Kuhlwein *et al.* (2013) report a slightly higher level. As the carp in all three of these trials come from different locations and from a mix of outdoor and indoor reared fish, this indicates a comparable level of cultured bacterial diversity irrespective of environment.

Comparing dissimilarities between the different gut segments indicates differences in species diversity that are potentially geographically comparable to their location along the intestinal axis, i.e. the segments are more dissimilar the further away from each other they are. Whilst this is the opposite of previous studies looking at species richness along the carp intestinal axis (Harris 2013), the differences in methods employed to study the microbiota could contribute to the differences noted. Site specific microbial profiles are found in, for example, humans (Methe *et al.* 2012, Weinstock 2012), therefore it is not surprising to see a difference along the intestinal axis in fish. However it does highlight the interesting question that if non culture based methodologies do not elucidate differences along the axis and culture based methods do, are the differences seen using culture based techniques truly differences at all? It has been widely accepted that only a limited proportion of microbiota populations can be studied using culture based techniques

owing to the fact many bacterial species cannot be successfully grown under laboratory conditions (for review: Nayak 2010b) and as technology has evolved there is much less reliance upon more classic techniques in favour of methodologies such as PCR-DGGE and high throughput sequencing (Muyzer and Smalla 1998, Methe *et al.* 2012). This does not, however, discount culture based analysis as a viable means of studying gut ecology, and indeed allows for the procurement of samples for *in vitro* trials such as those performed within this thesis to study the effect of MacroGard® upon bacteria growth and survival separately from the influence of host immunity.

That MacroGard® did not influence the growth of *A. salmonicida* can be viewed as a positive outcome. *A. salmonicida* is the causative agent of furunculosis in salmonid species (Romer Villumsen *et al.* 2015) and has also been utilised as a pathogenic agent in experimental infection trials in carp (Falco *et al.* 2012b, Pionnier *et al.* 2013). Whilst it would be advantageous if MacroGard® was toxic to *A. salmonicida*, particularly when applied orally, that it does not promote growth of a potential pathogen is still a positive result. The lack of toxicity also indicates that greater survival rates seen after β -glucan application against furunculosis is possibly due to immunomodulation of the host rather than simply a reduction in pathogen number (Siwicki *et al.* 1994).

There are several studies on the use of *Bacillus* sp. as potential probiotics for fish (for review see Wang *et al.* 2008, Nayak 2010a), in addition to the use of probiotics and prebiotics in a combined approach to positively influence the gut microbiota population (Saad *et al.* 2013, Dawood and Koshio 2016). It is therefore unfortunate that MacroGard® did not promote increased growth of this potential bacterial probiotic, however this does not rule out other carbohydrates as potential

prebiotics that could promote the growth of *Bacillus* species (Abhari *et al.* 2015, Tamamdusturi *et al.* 2015). Application of probiotic and synbiotic diets of *B. coagulans* and inulin to rats lead to an increase in lactic acid bacteria, and significant decrease in Enterobacteriaceae within the GI tract (Abhari *et al.* 2015). In iridescent sharks (*Pangasianodon hypophthalmus*), a combination of *Bacillus* sp. NP5 and MOS resulted in a higher specific growth rate and food conversion rate than either *Bacillus* sp. or MOS feeding alone, and a higher CFU count was recovered from sharks fed with the synbiotic diet in comparison to those fed with the probiotic alone (Tamamdusturi *et al.* 2015). The absence of toxic effects on *B. subtilis* could still lead to combined feeding regimes with an immunomodulative effect of β -glucan directly upon the host and a probiotic effect from the bacteria itself.

The study of the effect of prebiotics and other carbohydrates such as β -glucan on the intestinal microbial population has become a highly popular area of research during the past 10 years with the development of technology allowing for in depth analysis of *in vivo* systems (for review see Ghanbari *et al.* 2015, Dawood and Koshio 2016). In comparison, the relationship between the microbiota and its host, remains relatively unknown due in part to the vast number of potential interactions, although studies, particularly in mammals, are highlighting possible interactions are involved in diseases such as irritable bowel disease (IBD) (Alipour *et al.* 2015, Jones-Hall *et al.* 2015, Peterson *et al.* 2015). With MacroGard® having been shown previously to be able to influence the intestinal microbiota of carp when orally applied (Kuhlwein *et al.* 2013, Jung-Schroers *et al.* 2015a), it is important to understand whether this is due to the immunomodulative capabilities of β -glucans or due to a prebiotic effect directly upon the microbiota population itself. As only some bacteria possess β -glucanases

(Planas 2000, Hattori *et al.* 2013), it should therefore not be surprising that none of the isolates selected for analysis showed an increase in growth after incubation with MacroGard® as isolates were taken from carp maintained on a 0% MacroGard® diet, i.e. an environment that would not necessarily selectively favour bacterial species that possess β -glucanases based solely upon this characteristic. It is interesting, however, that MacroGard® appeared to reduce the colony sizes, but not number of colonies of ISO20. This implies there is not a toxic effect, which logically would have resulted in fewer colonies, but there could be an impact upon the rate at which the bacteria replicates, i.e. how quickly the colonies grow. A retardation of growth of a bacterial species could influence the overall species diversity of a mixed population depending upon what proportion that species represented. This implies any prebiotic effect MacroGard® may have upon the microbiota population within the gut is likely to be subtle or on a smaller proportion of the species present which has an impact on the larger population overall.

In *in vivo* studies, tank or pond effect can be of major concern in aquaculture and experimental trials due to pseudoreplication, i.e. individual fish are replicates within a single tank (Riley and Edwards 1998). The use of a design and statistical model utilised in this thesis, which took the concept of pseudoreplication into consideration, showed there was no effect of tank on immune parameters within the feeding trial. Overall, feeding carp with a diet containing 0.1% MacroGard® did not result in any differences in the expression of selected immune genes in the gut when compared to carp fed with a 0% MacroGard® diet. Activation of the immune system without an association of a pathogen involvement is typically associated with asthma and allergies (Lewis 2002, McLoughlin and Mills 2011), therefore it can be seen as a

positive outcome as the fish during this trial were apparently healthy, were not experimentally exposed to potential pathogens, and additionally did not experience an alteration of immune status.

There are publications that also analyse the expression of innate immune parameters in carp that contradict the data shown in this thesis. Pionnier *et al.* (2013) detailed the expression of key components of the three different complement pathways, in addition to the central protein, C3, within the gut of carp after 14 days of feeding with MacroGard®. Interestingly, where the data presented by Pionnier *et al.* (2013) show expression of C1rs, bf/C2 and MASP2 in the gut of individual carp, expression levels within pooled samples within this thesis were too low to continue with further analysis. It is, however, unknown as to what level of expression for each gene Pionnier *et al.* (2013) saw as their data is presented as relative to negative controls i.e. expression seen in 0.1% MacroGard® fed carp relative to those fed with a 0% MacroGard® diet. Whilst the primers for analysis of expression levels of these genes were the same in both Pionnier *et al.*'s (2013) study and the data presented here, the PCR conditions, i.e. the polymerase utilised, were different. C3 expression is shown to be significantly higher 11 days after hatching in turbot (*Scophthalmus maximus*) fed with MacroGard® treated rotifers in comparison to non-treated rotifers (Miest *et al.* 2016). The majority of studies, however, looking at the effect of β -glucans upon complement activity focus on analysis of serum complement.

Results presented in this thesis do not support the observations made by (Falco *et al.* 2012b) who showed that expression of both TNF α isoforms occurred in both non MacroGard® fed and MacroGard® fed carp. The lack of expression seen in my studies could be related to the fish utilised. Different carp strains have been

shown to have different survival rates against viral pathogens such as Cyprinid herpesvirus (CyHV) 3 (Shapira *et al.* 2005, Piackova *et al.* 2013, Adamek *et al.* 2014) and although the effect of fish strain on the mechanisms of the immune response is still being elucidated, it has been shown that strains of carp and crossbreeding can have an effect on serum complement levels (Nath *et al.* 2014) and TNF α in crossbred cattle showed differential expression patterns based upon polymorphisms which affected their susceptibility to mastitis (Ranjan *et al.* 2015).

In addition to there being no observed effect upon the expression of the immune genes analysed, there was also no difference in overall bacterial population size within the gut between 0% and 0.1% MacroGard® fed carp. In contrast, time seems to be a highly influential factor in 16S expression. Kuhlwein *et al.* (2013) showed a decrease over time in culturable aerobic heterotrophic autochthonous bacteria analysed using culture based methods. This indicates variation in gut microbiota population size over time could occur naturally irrespective of feed regime. Whilst Miest *et al.* (2016) analysed total 16S expression in turbot larvae during a feeding trial, they presented their data as the relative percentage of specific genera of total expression therefore it is unknown if diet influences the overall gut microbiota population size within the gut.

In contrast to Jung-Schroers *et al.* (2015a), there was no change in bacterial species richness within the gut due to MacroGard® feeding. Studies carried out by Kuhlwein *et al.* (2013) however, may explain the difference in these findings. Where Jung-Schroers *et al.* (2015) fed MacroGard® at an inclusion rate of 1% w/w within the diet, in my investigation MacroGard® was only included at 0.1% w/w. Kuhlwein *et al.* (2013) utilised both concentrations of MacroGard® i.e. 0.1% and 1% which, together

with the data presented by Jung-Schroers *et al.* (2015) and within this thesis, suggests the effect on species richness is dependent on the dose of MacroGard® utilised. This makes sense in that bacteria capable of utilising β -glucans as a substrate would be more prolific when there is a larger food source available and would ultimately outcompete species that could not use β -glucan. This data indicates the concentration of MacroGard® required to influence bacterial species richness within the gut is greater than that found in commercial food products, i.e. greater than 0.1% w/w within the feed.

Whilst qualitative analysis showed no differences between feeds or time points, quantitative analysis of the genera *Aeromonas*, *Pseudomonas* and *Flavobacterium* revealed that there was a large amount of variation and the lack of any significance between both time points and feeding regimes is linked to a small sample size. There is too much variation when comparing individual fish, i.e. a standard deviation that is almost equal to the mean copy number of 16S for each genus, to make any discernible conclusions as to what can be considered as a “normal” amount of each bacterial genera to be present within the gut under standard rearing conditions.

Flavobacterium sp. are the causative agents of multiple diseases including bacterial cold water disease (Sugahara and Eguchi 2012) and bacterial gill disease (Sink and Lochmann 2008). As the presence of *Flavobacterium* sp. was only significantly influenced by tank and not by time or feeding with MacroGard®, this highlights the importance of taking tank effect into consideration based upon the analysis to be performed (Riley and Edwards 1998). Infection of *Flavobacterium* has also been shown to cause secondary bacterial infections after preliminary viral

infections in carp (Adamek *et al.* 2013) however if a potential pathogen is only present in some tanks within an experimental design, this could have implications in how any resultant data is analysed, i.e. if a secondary bacterial infection were to occur in only a proportion of fish analysed but all fish within a single tank showed symptoms of infection, reporting data irrespective of tank would not be appropriate.

In summary, culture based analysis of the intestinal microbiota population showed differences in species diversity along the intestinal axis in carp fed with a 0% MacroGard® diet, although previous studies have shown no difference when using non culture based methods of analysis (Harris 2013). *In vitro* analysis of bacteria isolates have revealed a limited effect of MacroGard® upon growth and survival of bacteria, however it did not promote growth of known potential pathogens which can be considered as a positive effect. The oral application of MacroGard® did not influence either the immune status of carp nor the microbiota population which is in contrast to the data presented by Jung-Schroers *et al.* (2015) who showed, in association with this investigation and work carried out by Kuhlwein *et al.* (2013), that there could be a dose effect of MacroGard® with higher concentrations being able to influence the microbiota population. These concentrations are, however, beyond those that are present in commercial feeds indicating any protective effects seen in other β -glucan trials and in the field are due to the immunomodulatory effect rather than due to a biproduct prebiotic effect.

Chapter 5 – Analysis of the effect of injection upon the gut microbiota and immune status.

In Chapter 4 the effect of oral application of MacroGard® on the bacterial fauna in and immune status of the gut in carp was described. Since β -glucan has previously been shown to also act as an immunomodulant when applied via injection (Selvaraj *et al.* 2005, Selvaraj *et al.* 2006), the effect of intraperitoneal injection of MacroGard® on the immune status of carp and gut bacterial fauna was elucidated.

To date, only two published papers (Liu *et al.* 2008, Liu *et al.* 2015) and one masters thesis (Harris 2013) have addressed the impact of injection of β -glucans upon the intestinal microbiome in fish. Liu *et al.* (2008) noted that whilst LPS was able to influence the bacterial species richness in the microbiome within the gut of Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*) 28 days after injection, β -glucan did not. Unfortunately, analysis on the total size of the bacterial population was not performed. Liu *et al.* (2015) similarly did not analyse the total size of the gut bacteria population in their trial which studied the effect of bath vaccination of grass carp (*Ctenopharyngodon idella*) against *Aeromonas hydrophila* infection. Analysis of species richness 10 days post injection with a pathogenic strain of the bacterial species did however show a decrease in *Aeromonas* sp. within the gut microbial population. In addition to studying bacterial species richness, the author, in her previous studies (Harris 2013), compared gut bacteria population size in carp before and after injection with MacroGard®. Bacterial species richness (as measured using PCR-DGGE) 23 days post injection with MacroGard® was similar to that found in non-injected controls however the richness was notably different 12 days post injection to both non

injected controls and at day 23. In addition to a difference in species richness, total 16S rDNA expression revealed the overall bacterial population size was lower at day 12 post injection with MacroGard®. Based upon this evidence, it was suggested that injection with MacroGard® reduced the bacterial population size within the gut and that species richness was affected as the population “returned to normal”, i.e. species richness and population size seen in non-injected controls.

β -glucans are macromolecules based upon β -D-glucose monomers and, as such, chain length, degree of branching and solubility can vary between molecules. β -glucan products are typically defined by type of linkage between individual monomers, i.e. carbon 1 linking to either carbon 3, 4 or 6 of the following unit, but they are heterogeneous mixes within this description. It is known that size can influence the effect of β -glucan upon the innate immune system (Przybylska-Diaz *et al.* 2013), but the mechanisms as to how and why require elucidation.

MacroGard® is a heterogeneous mix of β -1/3,1/6-glucans and whilst it is extensively used within aquaculture, results vary on its effect on immune parameters. For example, Selvaraj *et al.* (2005) showed no difference in ACP activity between control (β -glucan free) and β -glucan fed carp, whereas Pionnier *et al.* (2014) noted an increase in ACP activity in β -glucan fed carp in comparison to carp fed a β -glucan free diet. This could be due to structural differences in the β -glucan such as different chain lengths and number of branches, both of which are affected by processing methodologies, or even concentration of a particular β -glucan structure within a heterogeneous mix. Research at Keele University is generating a library of different purified β -1/3,1/6-glucans to test their individual activities as opposed to their effect within a heterogeneous mix. One of these β -glucans, MSS1, has been shown to be

more effective than MacroGard® at eliciting an immune response during *in vitro* trials (Nawroz Kareem, unpublished data).

The aim of this chapter is therefore to establish if injection of MacroGard® and the specifically formulated MSS1 affected the immune response of the gut and the gut microbiome when injected intraperitoneally into carp.

An initial small scale injection trial focused on total 16S rDNA expression and species richness of the microbiome in the gut of carp. In addition, the expression of bactericidal innate immune genes (iNOS and C3) and immune associated signalling genes (TNF α and IL-1 β), known to be significantly affected by orally applied MacroGard® during infection trials (Falco *et al.* 2012b, Miest *et al.* 2012, Pionnier *et al.* 2014), was established and correlated against bacterial 16S rDNA expression as a measure of the gut microbiota population size. In the second trial, carp were injected separately with MacroGard® and MSS1 and the effects on the expression of selected bactericidal innate immune genes in the gut and the intestinal microbiota population ascertained. As discussed in Chapter 4, there are limited studies that consider both the immune response and the intestinal microbiota and how they may interact with each other. Statistical analysis will therefore be used to determine if there is any correlation between innate gene expression and the size of the bacteria population within the gut.

5.1 Materials and methods.

5.1.1 – Small injection trial: fish husbandry and experimental design.

35 carp, obtained from Hampton Spring fisheries, UK, in October 2012, were maintained (section 4.1.2) in a single tank and fed on 0% MacroGard® feed (section 4.1.3) prior to and during the experiment at a rate of 1% body weight per day. Carp had an average weight of 49.4g (s.d. ± 11.2 g) and an average length of 127mm (s.d. ± 10 mm) at the start of the trial. Carp were divided into 4 treatment groups as outlined in Table 5.1 and received either no injection, injection with PBS, injection with LPS (4mg kg^{-1}) or injection with MacroGard® (2mg kg^{-1}). Injections were prepared as described in sections 5.1.3, 5.1.5, and 5.1.6 respectively. Carp ($n=5$) that did not receive any injection were sampled at the start of the trial and are described as 0 days post injection. Fish were briefly submerged in 2-phenoxyethanol (1ml/5L) for approximately 1 minute before receiving their injection in the mid ventral aspect and a small cut to their tail fin to identify treatment group. These fish were then observed for 10 minutes to ensure no immediate adverse effects of handling/injection before being returned to the experimental tank. From each treatment group, 5 carp were sampled 1 day and 4 days post injection. Before sampling, fish were euthanized by submersion in 2-phenoxyethanol (1ml/5L), sections of total gut, gut wall and gut content taken from the upper midgut as illustrated in Figure 4.3 and were stored in *RNAlater* at -80°C until further analysis.

Table 5.1: Experimental design of intraperitoneal injection pilot trial. Table shows time points and treatments. Each group consists of n = 5 fish.

		Treatment			
		No injection	PBS	LPS	MacroGard®
Time point	0 days	5	-	-	-
	1 day	-	5	5	5
	4 days	-	5	5	5

5.1.2 – Large injection trial: fish husbandry and experimental design.

120 carp were acquired in September 2013 and maintained in 8 tanks (n=15 fish per tank) on a 0% MacroGard® diet for 4 months prior to analysis and during the experimental period at a feed rate of 1% body weight per day (see sections 4.1.2 and 4.1.3 for fish husbandry and feed details). These fish were treated with Banish Fish Ulcer, Parasite and White Spot Treatment 3 weeks after entering the aquarium due to an outbreak of *Ichthyophthirius multifiliis* and were not utilised for experimental use until 3 months after the final treatment.

Carp had an average weight of 91.4g (s.d. ±12.4g) and an average length of 162mm (s.d. ±8mm). Treatment groups were divided as described in Table 5.2 with 30 carp in each treatment group (2 tanks with 15 carp per tank). Fish that received an injection of MacroGard® were injected with 10mg kg⁻¹ (section 5.1.6) and those that received MSS1 did so at a concentration of either 5mg kg⁻¹ or 10mg kg⁻¹ (section 5.1.7). Both substances were suspended in sterile double distilled water and carp that were part of the injected negative control group were injected with sterile double distilled water (section 5.1.3). Before injection, carp were sedated in 2-phenoxyethanol (1ml/5L) and monitored for 10 minutes before being returned to their original tank for the remainder of the trial. From each tank, 3 carp which did not receive any injection were sampled at the very start of the trial (described in all

figures and tables at time point 0 days post injection). Carp were euthanized by submersion in 2-phenoxyethanol (section 4.3.3) and segments of the total gut, gut wall and gut content were stored in RNA*later* at -80°C until further use. Carp (n=3 per tank) were sampled 1, 3, 7 and 14 days post injection.

Table 5.2: Experimental design of injection trial utilising MacroGard® and MSS1, a novel β -glucan isoform, to modulate the immune system of common carp via intraperitoneal injection. Each treatment group consists of two tanks and n=3 fish per tank. Carp samples on day 0 received no injection and acted as a treatment negative control.

Treatment		Water		MacroGard®		MSS1 5mg kg ⁻¹		MSS1 10mg kg ⁻¹	
Tank		A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H
Time point (days post injection)	0	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
	1	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
	7	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
	14	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3

5.1.3 – Preparation of injections and fish identification.

All injections within this chapter were performed by Professor David Hoole (Keele University, United Kingdom. PPL 40/3532). In both trials, carp were injected with 100 μ l of liquid regardless of size, experiment or treatment. Treatments were suspended in either phosphate buffer saline (PBS) or sterile water for injection. Negative control groups were injected with eluent alone. All syringes were prepared within the 24 hours prior to injection and kept at 4°C during the interim period between preparation and use. Prior to injection carp were, as previously described, anaesthetised in 2-phenoxyethanol (1ml/5L) for approximately 1 minute before receiving an intraperitoneal injection through the ventral body wall between the pelvic and pectoral fins. Fish were placed in fresh water and observed for up to 10 minutes to ensure a full recovery.

5.1.4 – Identification of treatment groups within a single tank – small injection trial only.

As carp were maintained in the same tank to reduce variation in the water microbial population during this trial, they were marked via clipping of the tail fin in order to identify different treatment groups. This was performed at the same time as anaesthetisation.

5.1.5 – Preparation of LPS for injection (small injection trial only).

Lipopolysaccharide (LPS) from *E. coli* (O55:B5) was utilised as a positive control for immunostimulation of innate immune gene expression in the gut of common carp (Falco *et al.* 2012b). LPS was prepared as per the manufacturer's instructions. 5mg of LPS was dissolved in 1ml of PCR grade water and the concentration adjusted accordingly using sterile PBS solution (negative control used within this trial). LPS preparation was performed in the 6 hours prior to injection and stored at 4°C until use.

5.1.6 – MacroGard® preparation (both trials).

MacroGard® was prepared at a concentration of 10% w/v PBS solution or sterile water as described in section 3.1. The concentration was adjusted to 1% w/v, mixed by inversion before incubation at 80°C for 20 minutes and then held at 4°C until use on the same day of preparation.

5.1.7 – MSS1 preparation (large injection trial only).

MSS1 was prepared by Nawroz Kareem as follows. MacroGard® (500g) was

added to pre-chilled dry pyridine in advance of the addition of chlorosulfonic acid (1:16 v/v). The mixture was incubated at 95°C for 2 hours prior to cooling with the assistance of an ice-bath. Sodium hydroxide (10M) was added to the mixture with stirring until precipitation occurred. The contents were subsequently transferred to ice cold ethanol that had been pre-saturated with sodium acetate. The precipitate was washed extensively before dissolution in and dialysis against double distilled water. The dialysed solution was frozen and lyophilised before size exclusion chromatography was performed using HPLC grade water and a pre-packed PD-10 column, as per the manufacturer's instructions. The carbohydrate was then suspended in 100µl of double distilled water at concentrations corresponding to 5mg kg⁻¹ and 10mg kg⁻¹.

5.1.8 – Taking of tissue samples from carp.

Samples of the gut wall, gut content and total gut were taken as described in section 4.3.3 and stored in *RNAlater* at -80°C until further use.

5.1.9 – Quantitative analysis of innate immune gene expression and total 16S rDNA expression.

For both trials within this chapter, very similar techniques were employed during analysis as outlined for the feeding trial described in Chapter 4. RNA was isolated from gut wall samples as outlined in section 0. Prior to cDNA synthesis, RNA was treated with DNase to remove any DNA contamination. This was performed as outlined in section 4.3.4.2. Although the same Moloney Murine Leukemia Virus Reverse Transcriptase (M-MuLV RT) kit was used for cDNA synthesis, a change in the

protocol by the manufacturer, Invitrogen, unavoidably resulted in two slightly different protocols being employed within this chapter. cDNA synthesis from RNA in the small injection trial was performed as described in section 2.7.2 whereas cDNA in the large injection trial was synthesised as described in section 4.3.4.3. RT-qPCR analysis was performed as described in section 4.3.4.4. The following genes were analysed in each trial (sequences are given in Appendix 3) with the 40S housekeeping gene being used as a baseline:

Small injection trial: 16S_uniBact, C3, IL-1 β , iNOS TNF α isoforms 1 and 2.

Large injection trial: 16S_uniBact, ApoA1, Bf/C2, CRP2, C1rs, HAMP1, iNOS, LEAP2, MASP2 and Muc2.

5.1.10 – Comparing immune gene expression with 16S rDNA expression.

Correlation analysis of the expression of the 16S rDNA gene, i.e. an approximation of the overall bacteria population size within the gut, against each of the immune genes studied was performed as described in section 4.3.4.5.

5.1.11 – Qualitative analysis of bacterial species richness.

genDNA isolation and PCR-DGGE analysis of total gut samples from both trials were performed as described in section 4.3.5.

5.2 – Results: initial small injection trial.

The results for this experiment are divided into three sections: analysis of innate immune parameters (section 5.2.1), gut microbiota population (section 5.2.2) and statistical analysis comparing these two components (section 5.2.3).

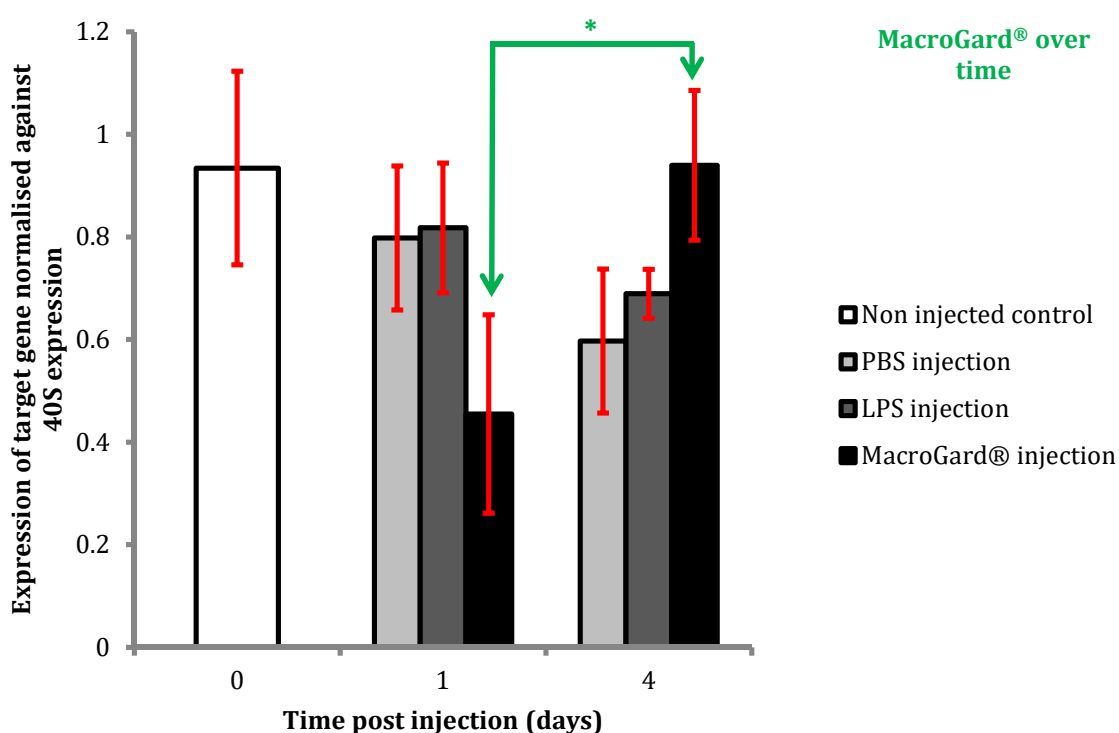
5.2.1 – Bactericidal innate immune parameters within the gut.

The expression levels of the innate immune genes IL-1 β (Figure 5.1), iNOS (Figure 5.2), TNF α 1 & 2 (Figure 5.3 and Figure 5.4 respectively) and C3 (Figure 5.5) were analysed. As with the feeding trial presented in section 4.3, Grubbs' test was employed before further statistical analysis to eliminate outliers within the data. One outlier was found for each gene analysed. Four out of five outliers were found in either the non-injected control group (iNOS) or the PBS injected group (both isoforms of TNF α and C3) with the outlier for IL-1 β appearing in the LPS injected group 4 days post injection.

There was no significant effect of either time or treatment on expression of IL-1 β gene, however expression was significantly higher (2 fold increase) in MacroGard[®] injected carp 4 days post injection than 1 day post injection ($p=0.0354$). There was also no significant difference within each time point between expression in MacroGard[®] injected carp and those that received PBS only. In contrast, whilst iNOS expression did not show any significant differences when comparing treatments within time points, expression was significantly higher in LPS injected carp than the control group ($p=0.0087$). At both time points, average expression was at least 5 times higher in LPS injected carp (5.0 times higher 1 day post injection, 5.6 times higher 4 days post injection). MacroGard[®] injection had no significant effect upon iNOS gene expression.

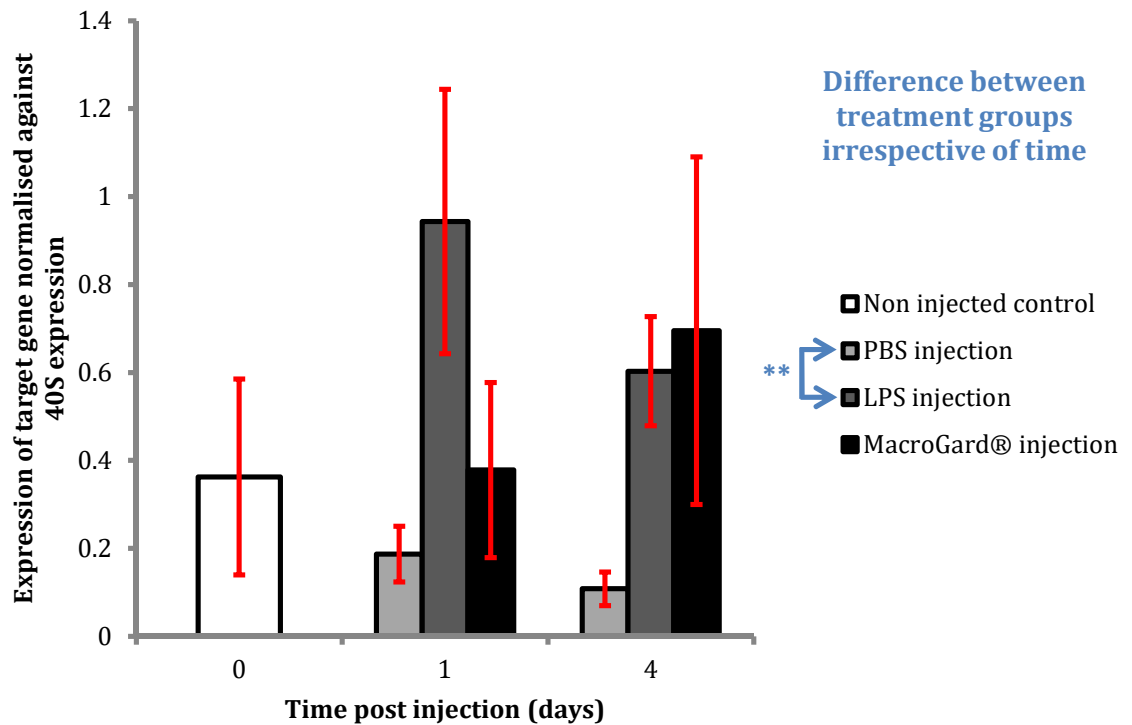
A similar expression profile occurred in both isoforms of the TNF α gene. The average expression for each treatment group within each time point was lower than that seen in the non-injected control carp, however there was no significant effect of

time or treatment seen for either isoform. Expression of the C3 gene was significant different when comparing treatment and time point (1 and 4 days post injection only, $p=0.041$), however *post hoc* analysis revealed no further significance between treatments at each time point. Expression levels of carp sampled 1 day after injection were similar to those in non-injected controls.



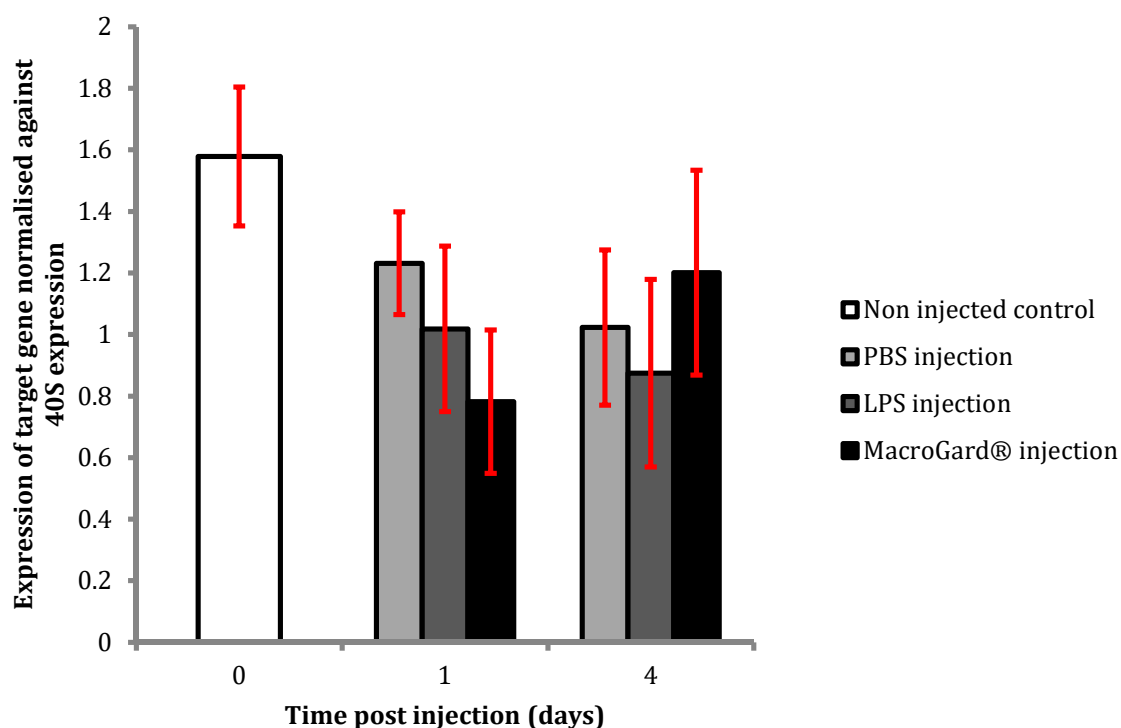
Box Cox transformation		$\lambda=0.06$		
Anderson-Darling test for normality	p=0.157	Levene's test for equal variance		p=0.918
2-way ANOVA with <i>post hoc</i> Tukey's ($R^2=37.82\%$)	Degrees of freedom	F distribution	P value	Significance
Overall difference between treatments	2	0.81	0.456	
Overall difference over time	1	0.82	0.374	
Interaction of treatment and time	2	5.65	0.010	*
Post hoc analysis				
Time within treatment: MacroGard® day 1 vs day 4		p=0.0354		*

Figure 5.1: Expression of the IL-1 β gene in the gut of common carp (*C. carpio*) within a small scale injection trial (n=35). Carp were divided into 4 treatment groups: non injected control fish were sampled 0 days post injection, PBS, LPS and MacroGard® injected carp were sampled 1 and 4 days post injection. Bars represent average gene expression for each treatment group (n=5). Error bars are given as standard error of the mean. Grubbs test was utilised to identify any statistical outliers using all data points which were removed before any further statistical analysis. One outlier was found in the LPS treatment group at time point 4 days. Further statistical analysis did not include data from time point 0. Data was checked for normality using the Anderson-Darling test on both raw data and residual data, and Levene's test for equal variance. Raw data was not normally distributed therefore was subject to a Box Cox transformation before further analysis. A 2-way ANOVA with Tukey's as *post hoc* analysis was utilised to compare differences over time and between treatment groups. Details of the statistical analysis are shown beneath the graph. Degrees of freedom, F distribution and P values for overall significance are given with significant (p<0.05) *post hoc* comparisons being listed. Both in the graph and table, * signifies p<0.05, ** signifies p<0.01, and *** signifies p<0.001.



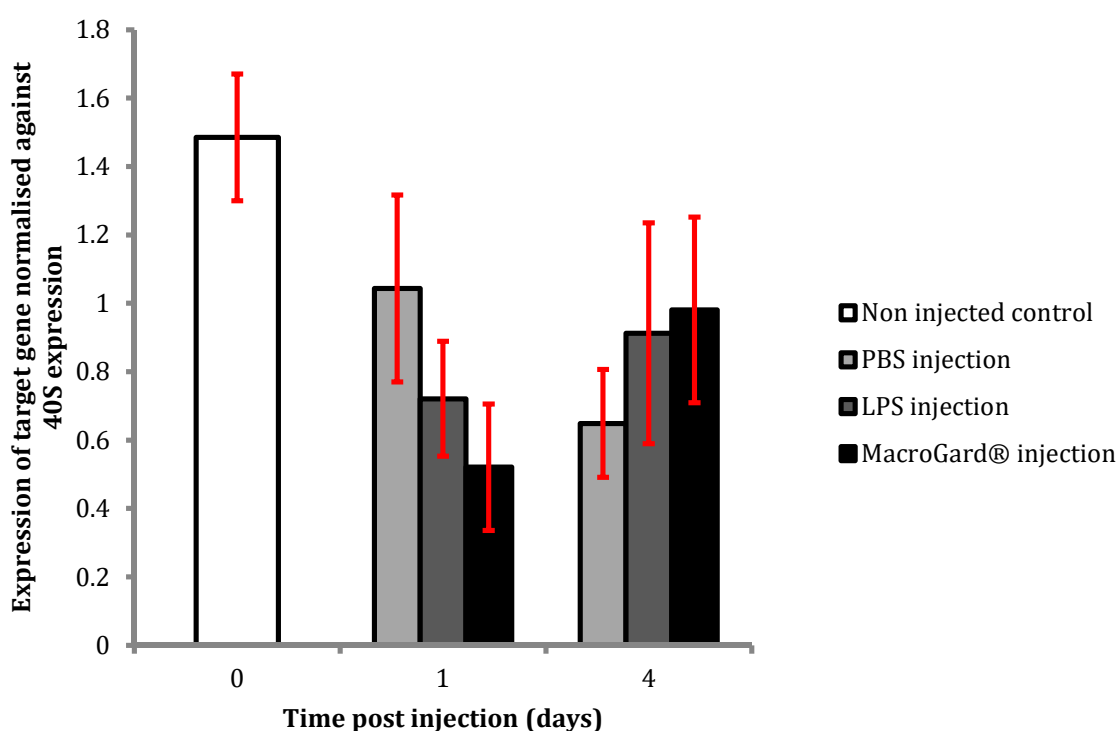
Box Cox transformation		$\lambda=0.19$		
Anderson-Darling test for normality	p=0.428	Levene's test for equal variance		p=0.282
2-way ANOVA with <i>post hoc</i> Tukey's ($R^2=25.89\%$)	Degrees of freedom	F distribution	P value	Significance
Overall difference between treatments	2	5.49	0.011	*
Overall difference over time	1	0.09	0.768	
Interaction of treatment and time	2	0.27	0.762	
Post hoc analysis				
Treatment: PBS versus LPS		p=0.0087		**

Figure 5.2: Expression of the iNOS gene in the gut of common carp (*C. carpio*) within a small scale injection trial (n=35). Carp were divided into 4 treatment groups: non injected control fish were sampled 0 days post injection, PBS, LPS and MacroGard® injected carp were sampled 1 and 4 days post injection. Bars represent average gene expression for each treatment group (n=5). Error bars are given as standard error of the mean. Grubbs test was utilised to identify any statistical outliers using all data points which were removed before any further statistical analysis. One outlier was found in the non-injected control group at time point 0. Further statistical analysis did not include data from time point 0. Data was checked for normality using the Anderson-Darling test on both raw data and residual data, and Levene's test for equal variance. Raw data was not normally distributed therefore was subject to a Box Cox transformation before further analysis. A 2-way ANOVA with Tukey's as *post hoc* analysis was utilised to compare differences over time and between treatment groups. Details of the statistical analysis are shown beneath the graph. Degrees of freedom, F distribution and P values for overall significance are given with significant ($p<0.05$) *post hoc* comparisons being listed. Both in the graph and table, * signifies $p<0.05$, ** signifies $p<0.01$, and *** signifies $p<0.001$.



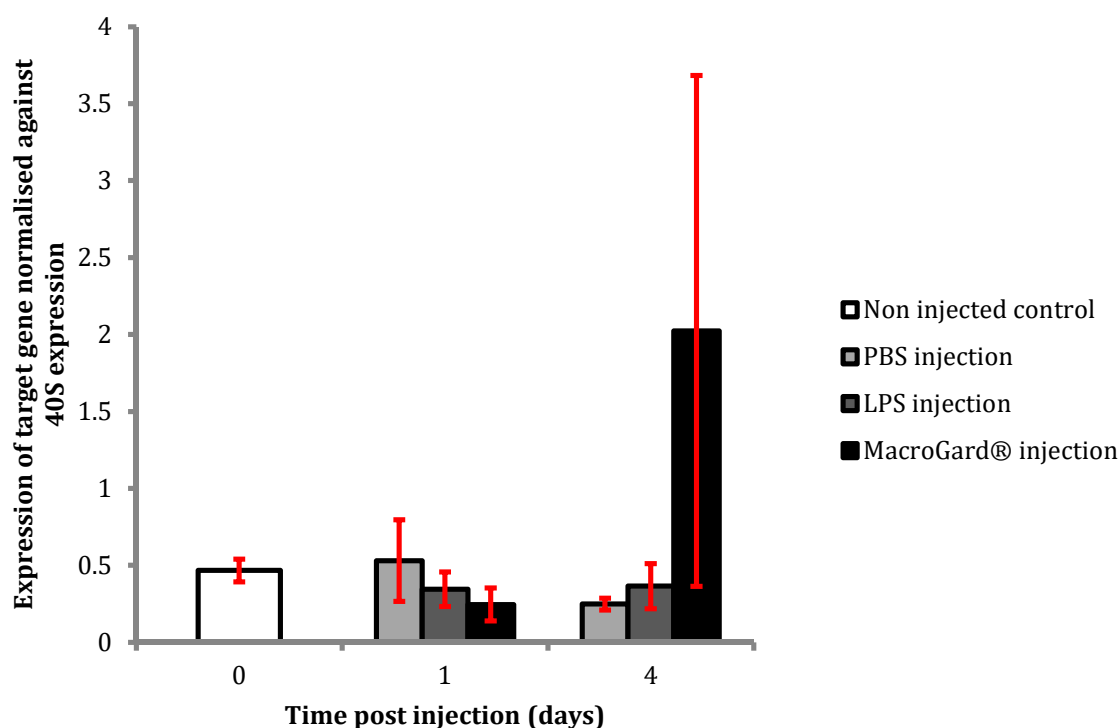
Anderson-Darling test for normality	p=0.485	Levene's test for equal variance		p=0.965
2-way ANOVA with <i>post hoc</i> Tukey's (R ² =8.19%)	Degrees of freedom	F distribution	P value	Significance
Overall difference between treatments	2	0.23	0.796	
Overall different over time	1	0.01	0.921	
Interaction of treatment and time	2	0.81	0.455	

Figure 5.3: Expression of the TNF α -1 gene in the gut of common carp (*C. carpio*) within a small scale injection trial (n=35). Carp were divided into 4 treatment groups: non injected control fish were sampled 0 days post injection, PBS, LPS and MacroGard® injected carp were sampled 1 and 4 days post injection. Bars represent average gene expression for each treatment group (n=5). Error bars are given as standard error of the mean. Grubbs test was utilised to identify any statistical outliers using all data points which were removed before any further statistical analysis. One outlier was identified within PBS injected fish at time point 1 day. Further statistical analysis did not include data from time point 0. Data was checked for normality using the Anderson-Darling test on both raw data and residual data, and Levene's test for equal variance. A 2-way with Tukey's as *post hoc* analysis was utilised to compare differences over time and between treatment groups. Details of the statistical analysis are shown beneath the graph. Degrees of freedom, F distribution and P values for overall significance are given with significant ($p < 0.05$) *post hoc* comparisons being listed.



Anderson-Darling test for normality	p=0.130	Levene's test for equal variance		p=0.820
2-way ANOVA with <i>post hoc</i> Tukey's (R ² =13.88%)	Degrees of freedom	F distribution	P value	Significance
Overall difference between treatments	2	0.08	0.919	
Overall different over time	1	0.20	0.662	
Interaction of treatment and time	2	1.65	0.214	

Figure 5.4: Expression of the TNF α -2 gene in the gut of common carp (*C. carpio*) within a small scale injection trial (n=35). Carp were divided into 4 treatment groups: non injected control fish were sampled 0 days post injection, PBS, LPS and MacroGard® injected carp were sampled 1 and 4 days post injection. Bars represent average gene expression for each treatment group (n=5). Error bars are given as standard error of the mean. Grubbs test was utilised to identify any statistical outliers which were removed before any further statistical analysis. Further statistical analysis did not include data from time point 0. Data was checked for normality using the Anderson-Darling test on both raw data and residual data, and Levene's test for equal variance. A 2-way ANOVA with Tukey's as *post hoc* analysis was utilised to compare differences over time and between treatment groups. Details of the statistical analysis are shown beneath the graph. Degrees of freedom, F distribution and P values for overall significance are given with significant ($p < 0.05$) *post hoc* comparisons being listed.

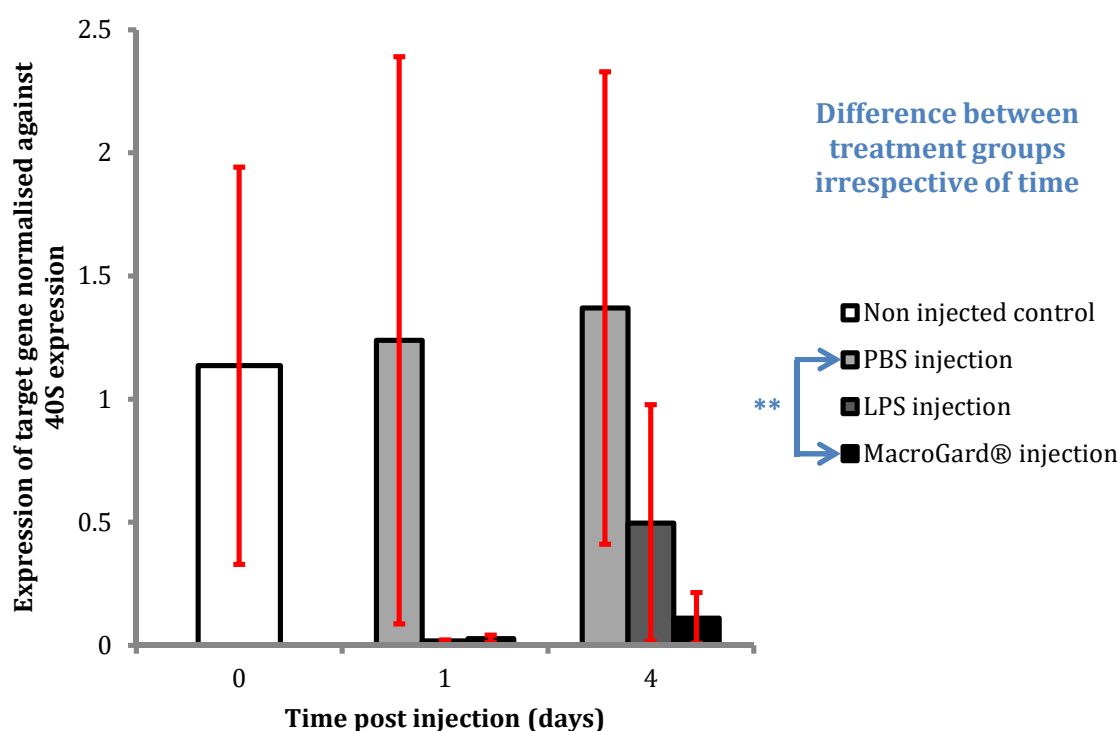


Box Cox transformation		$\lambda=-0.11$		
Anderson-Darling test for normality	p=0.118	Levene's test for equal variance		p=0.625
2-way ANOVA with <i>post hoc</i> Tukey's ($R^2=26.29\%$)	Degrees of freedom	F distribution	P value	Significance
Overall difference between treatments	2	0.15	0.865	
Overall difference over time	1	0.45	0.507	
Interaction of treatment and time	2	3.69	0.041	*

Figure 5.5: Expression of the C3 gene in the gut of common carp (*C. carpio*) within a small scale injection trial (n=35). Carp were divided into 4 treatment groups: non injected control fish were sampled 0 days post injection, PBS, LPS and MacroGard® injected carp were sampled 1 and 4 days post injection. Bars represent average gene expression for each treatment group (n=5). Error bars are given as standard error of the mean. Grubbs test was utilised to identify any statistical outliers which were removed before any further statistical analysis. One outlier was found at time point 1, treatment PBS injection. Further statistical analysis did not include data from time point 0. Data was checked for normality using the Anderson-Darling test on both raw data and residual data, and Levene's test for equal variance. Raw data was not normally distributed therefore was subject to a Box Cox transformation before further analysis. A 2-way ANOVA with Tukey's as *post hoc* analysis was utilised to compare differences over time and between treatment groups. Details of the statistical analysis are shown beneath the graph. Degrees of freedom, F distribution and P values for overall significance are given with significant ($p<0.05$) *post hoc* comparisons being listed. Both in the graph and table, * signifies $p<0.05$, ** signifies $p<0.01$, and *** signifies $p<0.001$.

5.2.2 – Analysis of the gut microbiota.

Total 16S rDNA expression was measured as an approximation of overall bacterial population size within the gut of common carp (Figure 5.6). Expression levels in PBS injected carp at both time points post injection, i.e. day 1 and 4 were comparable to those in non-injected control fish sampled at the time of injection (day 0). There was a significant overall effect of treatment as shown with a 2-way ANOVA ($p=0.005$) with *post hoc* analysis revealing MacroGard® injected carp had significantly lower levels of 16S rDNA expression than PBS injected carp ($p=0.0041$). The mean expression level in LPS and MacroGard® injected carp were 2.37% and 2.18% of the expression levels of non-injected control fish respectively. For PCR-DGGE analysis, samples were pooled at each time point by treatment, i.e. each band pattern is representative of the microbiota from 5 fish. A comparison of species richness using the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity index plotted using nMDS (Figure 5.7) showed differences between treatment and time points. There was no overlap between circles drawn round the different time points. There was however an overlap between treatments with the microbiota in PBS and LPS injected carp on day 4 having a dissimilarity score of 0, i.e. they were identical. It should, however, be noted that the sample size for this trial is small and is only between 7 sets of data.



Box Cox transformation		$\lambda=-0.29$		
Anderson-Darling test for normality	p=0.476	Levene's test for equal variance		p=0.709
2-way ANOVA with <i>post hoc</i> Tukey's ($R^2=39.88\%$)	Degrees of freedom	F distribution	P value	Significance
Overall difference between treatments	2	6.84	0.005	**
Overall difference over time	1	0.06	0.805	
Interaction of treatment and time	2	0.70	0.505	
Post hoc analysis				
Treatment: PBS vs MacroGard®		p=0.0041		**

Figure 5.6: Expression of the bacterial 16S rDNA gene in the gut of common carp (*C. carpio*) within a small scale injection trial (n=35). Carp were divided into 4 treatment groups: non injected control fish were sampled 0 days post injection, PBS, LPS and MacroGard® injected carp were sampled 1 and 4 days post injection. Bars represent average gene expression for each treatment group (n=5). Error bars are given as standard error of the mean. Grubbs test was utilised to identify any statistical outliers which were removed before any further statistical analysis. One outlier was identified in the PBS group at time point 1 day post injection. Further statistical analysis did not include data from time point 0. Data was checked for normality using the Anderson-Darling test on both raw data and residual data, and Levene's test for equal variance. Raw data was not normally distributed therefore was subject to a Box Cox transformation before further analysis. A 2-way ANOVA with Tukey's as *post hoc* analysis was utilised to compare differences over time and between treatment groups. Details of the statistical analysis are shown beneath the graph. Degrees of freedom, F distribution and P values for overall significance are given with significant ($p<0.05$) *post hoc* comparisons being listed. Both in the graph and table, * signifies $p<0.05$, ** signifies $p<0.01$, and *** signifies $p<0.001$.

Grouping	Marker
No injection control	Diamond
PBS injection	Square
LPS injection	Triangle
MacroGard® injection	Circle
Day 0	White
Day 1	Black
Day 4	Red

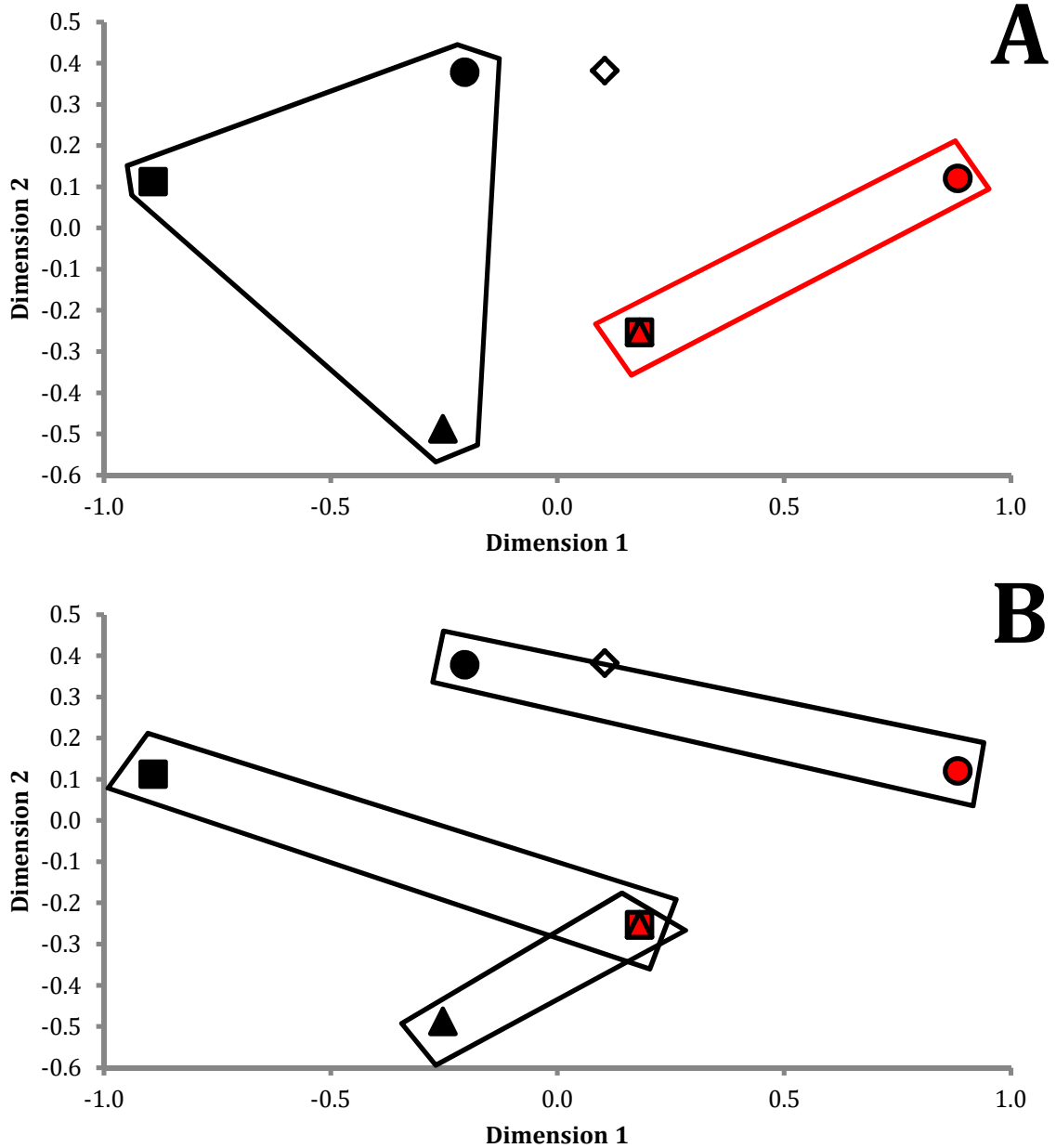


Figure 5.7: Non metric Multidimensional Scaling (nMDS) ordination (stress: 0.1872) of Bray-Curtis dissimilarities looking at the differences in species richness based on PCR-DGGE band patterns of carp within a small scale injection trial. Carp were divided into 4 treatment groups: non injected control fish were sampled 0 days post injection, PBS, LPS and MacroGard® injected carp were sampled 1 and 4 days post injection. Data is shown twice to easily visualise groupings by time point (A) and by treatment (B).

5.2.3 – A comparison of innate immune gene expression against gut microbiota size.

The expression levels of each of the innate immune genes analysed were compared to the 16S rDNA gene found in the bacteria within the gut using Spearman's rank correlation. Table 5.3 shows there was no correlation between these genes and the overall size of the bacterial gut population.

Table 5.3: The probability of a linear relationship between each of the immune genes analysed in the gut of common carp during a 4 day injection trial and the size of the bacterial population within the gut as measured by total 16s rDNA expression (n=35). Carp were divided into 4 treatment groups: non injected control fish were sampled 0 days post injection, PBS, LPS and MacroGard® injected carp were sampled 1 and 4 days post injection. As data was not normally distributed, Spearman's test was used to calculate the correlation coefficient, i.e. how linear a correlation is, and the statistical significance. A rating as to how strong the correlation is (as described by Fowler *et al.* (Fowler, Cohen *et al.* 1998)) is also given with a coefficient of 0.00-0.19 being a very weak correlation, 0.20-0.39 being a weak correlation, 0.40-0.69 being a modest correlation, 0.70-0.89 being a strong correlation and 0.90-1.00 being a very strong correlation.

Gene	Correlation coefficient	P value	Correlation
IL-1 β	-0.030	0.863	Very weak
iNOS	-0.088	0.614	Very weak
TNF α -1	0.128	0.465	Very weak
TNF α -2	0.041	0.814	Very weak
C3	0.120	0.492	Very weak

5.3 – Results: large injection trial.

As with the feeding trial and initial small scale injection trial described in Chapter 4 and section 5.2 respectively, this section considers the effect of exposure to MacroGard®, via injection, on innate immune gene expression in the gut (section 5.3.1) the intestinal microbiota population (section 5.3.2) and a statistical comparison of gene expression levels of the innate immune parameters to the total 16S rDNA gene expression, i.e. an approximation of the overall size of the bacteria population within the gut (section 5.3.3).

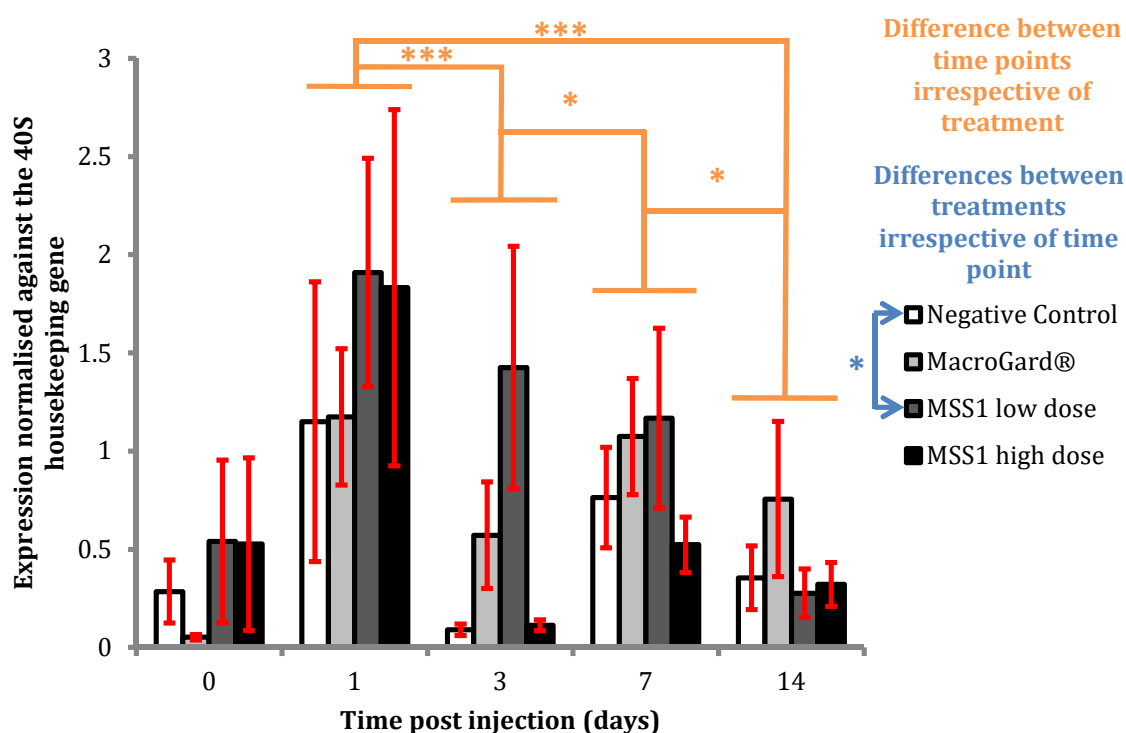
5.3.1 – Bactericidal innate immune gene expression.

As multiple tanks were utilised for each treatment, where possible, a nested 2-way ANOVA was utilised to compare data. None of the expression levels of the genes analysed were shown to be significantly affected by tank, however the expression of CRP2 (Figure 5.9) had a p value of 0.05. (Lew 2012) discusses the concept of misunderstanding p values based upon a hybridisation of the definition of “significance” as defined by Fisher (1925) and Neyman-Pearson (1933). Where Fisher defines p values as an “index of evidence against the null hypothesis” (Lew 2012), the Neyman-Pearson consider the rate of false positive conclusions (type I errors) and false negative conclusions (type II errors). In this thesis, the tolerance for false positives (α) is set at 0.05, and p values lower than this are thus considered statistically significantly different, however the use of the p value as set out by Fisher requires more fluidity. Where the p value for the effect of tank upon the expression of CRP2 was 0.05, i.e. on the threshold of being statistically significantly different expression levels between tanks based upon the Neyman-Pearson interpretation of

“significant”, further statistical analysis was performed to determine if tank had an effect upon CRP2 expression. A 1-way nested ANOVA comparing CRP2 expression in non-injected negative controls showed no variation between tanks ($p=0.931$).

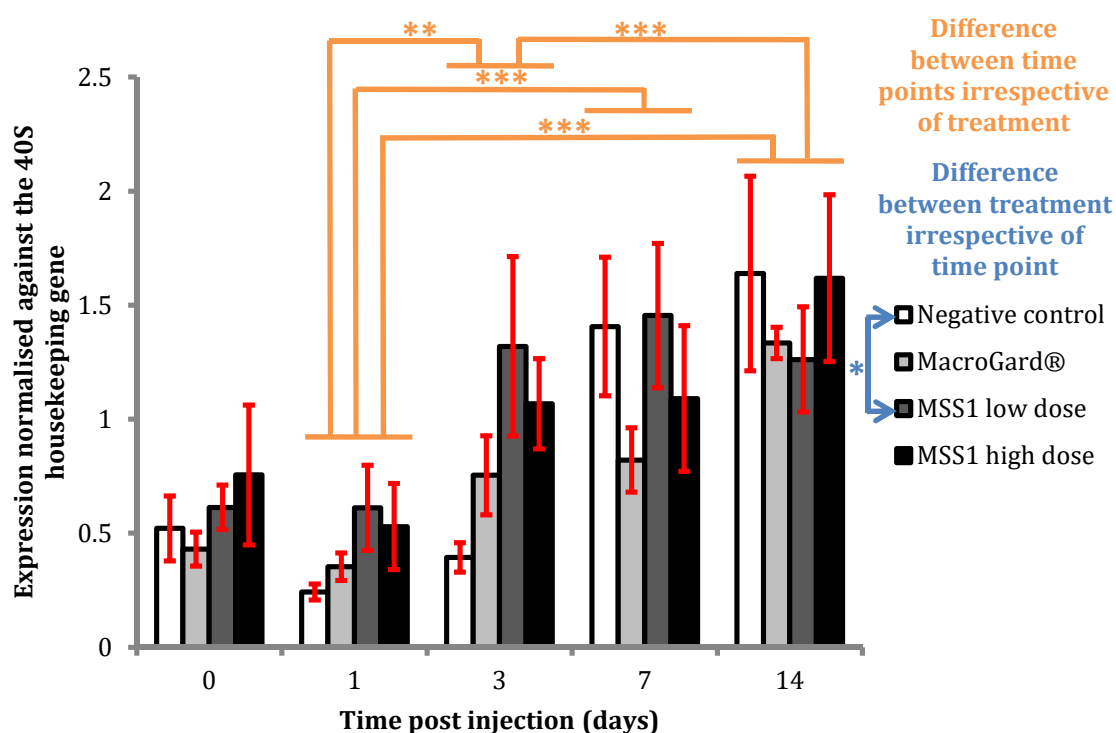
There was an overall significant effect of treatment on the expression of iNOS (Figure 5.8 – $p=0.019$), CRP2 (Figure 5.9 – $p=0.033$), Muc2 (Figure 5.11 – $p=0.038$) and LEAP2 (Figure 5.13 – $p=0.032$). *Post hoc* analysis revealed that carp injected with MSS1 at the low dose (5mg kg^{-1}) had significantly higher expression levels of iNOS, CRP2 and Muc2 genes than the water injected control carp. Expression of these genes was, however, not significantly different in carp injected with either MacroGard® or the high dose of MSS1 (10mg kg^{-1}) compared to negative controls. Overall expression, however, of iNOS at day 1 and 7 was significantly higher than those on days 3 and 14 irrespective of treatment. In contrast, expression of CRP2 gene, irrespective of treatment, was significantly higher at days 3 and 7 in comparison to day 1, and significantly higher again at day 14 in comparison to day 3. Similar to CRP2, Muc2 has lower expression levels 1 day post injection irrespective of treatment with days 7 and 14 being significantly higher than day 1. Analysis of the genes expressing the antimicrobial peptides revealed differential responses. There was no significant effect of treatment on ApoA1 (Figure 5.12) and HAMP1 (Figure 5.14) expression, however there were significant differences in expression of these genes over time, for example, ApoA1 expression was significantly lower 3 days post injection in comparison to 14 days post injection ($p=0.0181$). Expression of ApoA1 in control carp, i.e. injection with water, was highly variable and had a large standard error of the mean, in comparison to other genes analysed. In comparison, expression of the other antimicrobial peptide, HAMP1, is highest at day 1 post injection (significantly higher than 3 and 7 days,

p<0.0001 and p=0.0001 respectively) which declines during days 3 and 7 before increasing again after 14 days (significantly higher than day 3, p=0.0317) irrespective of treatment. Neither treatment nor time had an effect on expression of bf/C2 (Figure 5.10).



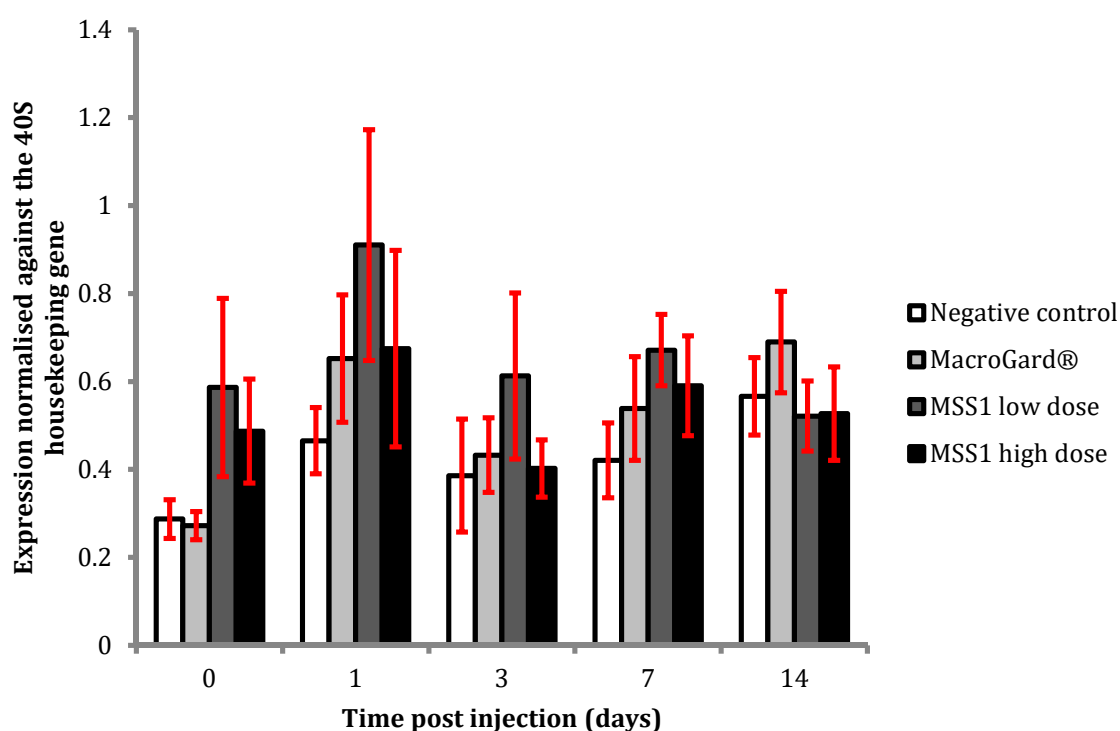
Box Cox transformation		λ=0.00		
Anderson-Darling test for normality	p=0.854	Levene's test for equal variance		p=0.942
2-way nested (tank within treatment) ANOVA with <i>post hoc</i> Tukey's (R ² =45.07%)	Degrees of freedom	F distribution	P value	Significance
Overall difference between treatments	3	3.53	0.019	*
Nested effect of tank variation	4	1.04	0.394	
Overall difference over time	3	9.65	<0.001	***
Interaction of treatment and time	9	1.91	0.063	
Post hoc analysis				
Treatment: negative control vs MSS1 low dose		p=0.0366		*
Time: day 1 vs day 3		p=0.0002		***
Time: day 1 vs day 14		p=0.0004		***
Time: day 3 vs day 7		p=0.0133		*
Time: day 7 vs day 14		p=0.0248		*

Figure 5.8: Expression of the iNOS gene in the gut of common carp (*C. carpio*) within an injection trial (n=120). Carp were divided into 5 treatment groups: non injected control fish were sampled 0 days post injection, negative control (water), MacroGard®, MSS1 low dose (5mg kg⁻¹) and MSS1 high dose (10mg kg⁻¹) injected carp were sampled 1, 3, 7 and 14 days post injection. Bars represent average gene expression for each treatment group (n=6). Error bars are given as standard error of the mean. Grubbs test was utilised to identify any statistical outliers which were removed before any further statistical analysis. Data was checked for normality using the Anderson-Darling test on both raw data and residual data, and Levene's test for equal variance. Raw data was not normally distributed therefore was subject to a Box Cox transformation before further analysis. Details of the statistical analysis are shown beneath the graph. Degrees of freedom, F distribution and P values for overall significance are given with significant (p<0.05) *post hoc* comparisons being listed. Both in the graph and table, * signifies p<0.05, ** signifies p<0.01, and *** signifies p<0.001.



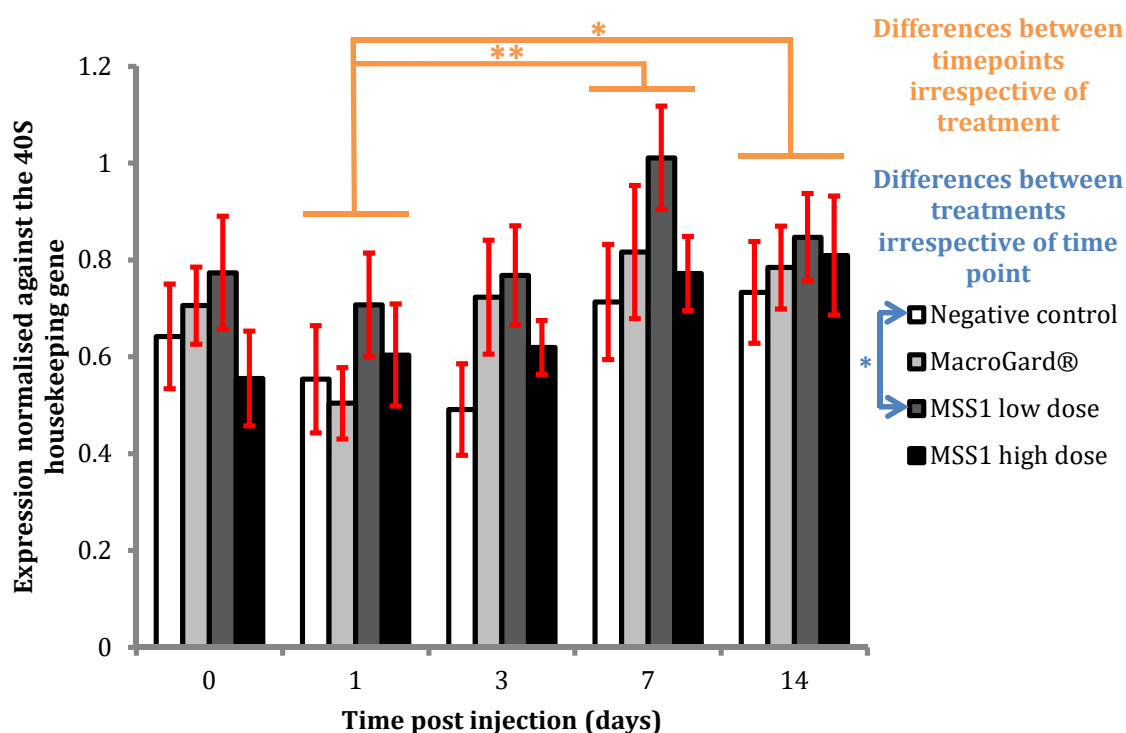
Box Cox transformation		$\lambda=-0.04$		
Anderson-Darling test for normality	p=0.680	Levene's test for equal variance		p=0.994
2-way nested (tank within treatment) ANOVA with <i>post hoc</i> Tukey's (R ² =45.07%)	Degrees of freedom	F distribution	P value	Significance
Overall difference between treatments	3	3.06	0.033	*
Nested effect of tank variation	4	2.50	0.050	
Overall difference over time	3	26.15	<0.001	***
Interaction of treatment and time	9	1.96	0.056	
<i>Post hoc</i> analysis				
Treatment: negative control vs MSS1 low dose		p=0.0451		*
Time: day 1 vs day 3		p=0.0003		***
Time: day 1 vs day 7		p<0.0001		***
Time: day 1 vs day 14		p<0.0001		***
Time: day 3 vs day 14		p=0.0007		***

Figure 5.9: Expression of the CRP2 gene in the gut of common carp (*C. carpio*) within an injection trial (n=120). Carp were divided into 5 treatment groups: non injected control fish were sampled 0 days post injection, negative control (water), MacroGard®, MSS1 low dose (5mg kg⁻¹) and MSS1 high dose (10mg kg⁻¹) injected carp were sampled 1, 3, 7 and 14 days post injection. Bars represent average gene expression for each treatment group (n=6). Error bars are given as standard error of the mean. Grubbs test was utilised to identify any statistical outliers which were removed before any further statistical analysis. Two outliers were identified at time point 14 days, one from the negative control and one from the MacroGard® injection groups. Further statistical analysis did not include data from time point 0. Data was checked for normality using the Anderson-Darling test on both raw data and residual data, and Levene's test for equal variance. Raw data was not normally distributed therefore was subject to a Box Cox transformation before further analysis. Details of the statistical analysis are shown beneath the graph. Degrees of freedom, F distribution and P values for overall significance are given with significant (p<0.05) *post hoc* comparisons being listed. Both in the graph and table, * signifies p<0.05, ** signifies p<0.01, and *** signifies p<0.001.



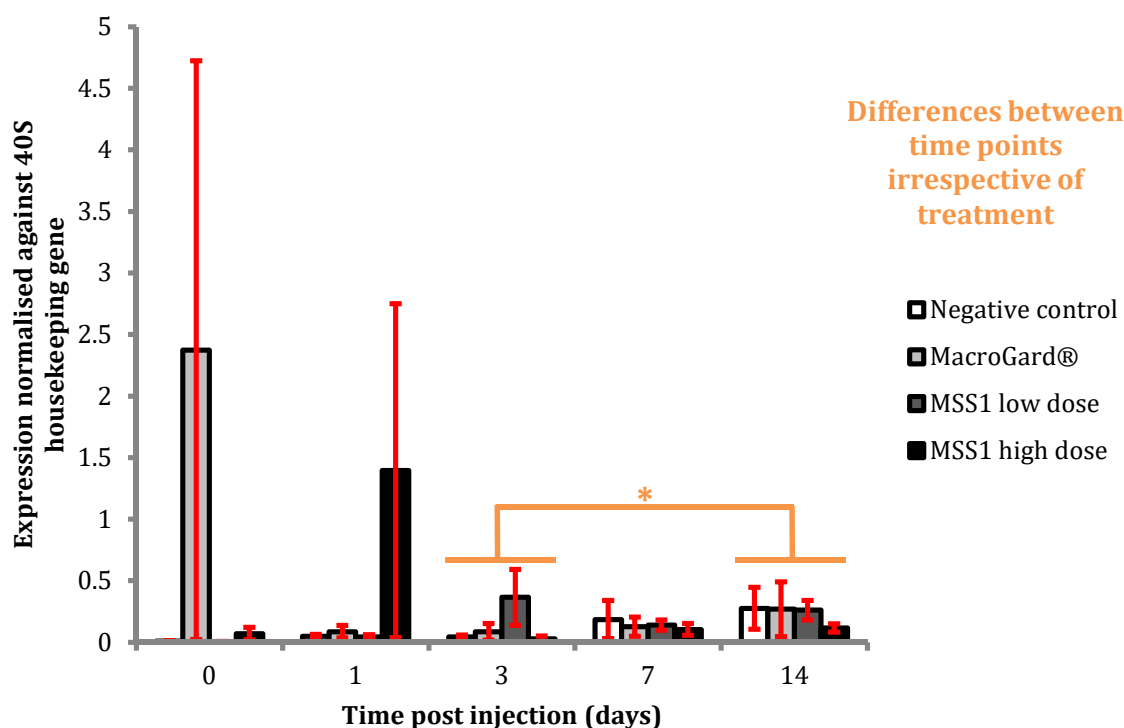
Box Cox transformation		$\lambda=-0.16$		
Anderson-Darling test for normality	p=0.228	Levene's test for equal variance		p=0.990
2-way nested (tank within treatment) ANOVA with <i>post hoc</i> Tukey's ($R^2=20.00\%$)	Degrees of freedom	F distribution	P value	Significance
Overall difference between treatments	3	1.99	0.122	
Nested effect of tank variation	4	0.64	0.638	
Overall difference over time	3	2.14	0.098	
Interaction of treatment and time	9	0.47	0.891	

Figure 5.10: Expression of the *bf/C2* gene in the gut of common carp (*C. carpio*) within an injection trial (n=120). Carp were divided into 5 treatment groups: non injected control fish were sampled 0 days post injection, negative control (water), MacroGard®, MSS1 low dose (5mg kg⁻¹) and MSS1 high dose (10mg kg⁻¹) injected carp were sampled 1, 3, 7 and 14 days post injection. Bars represent average gene expression for each treatment group (n=6). Error bars are given as standard error of the mean. Grubbs test was utilised to identify any statistical outliers which were removed before any further statistical analysis. One outlier was identified from the treatment group MSS1 low dose at time point 1 day. Further statistical analysis did not include data from time point day 0. Data was checked for normality using the Anderson-Darling test on both raw data and residual data, and Levene's test for equal variance. Raw data was not normally distributed therefore was subject to a Box Cox transformation before further analysis. Details of the statistical analysis are shown beneath the graph. Degrees of freedom, F distribution and P values for overall significance are given with significant (p<0.05) *post hoc* comparisons being listed.



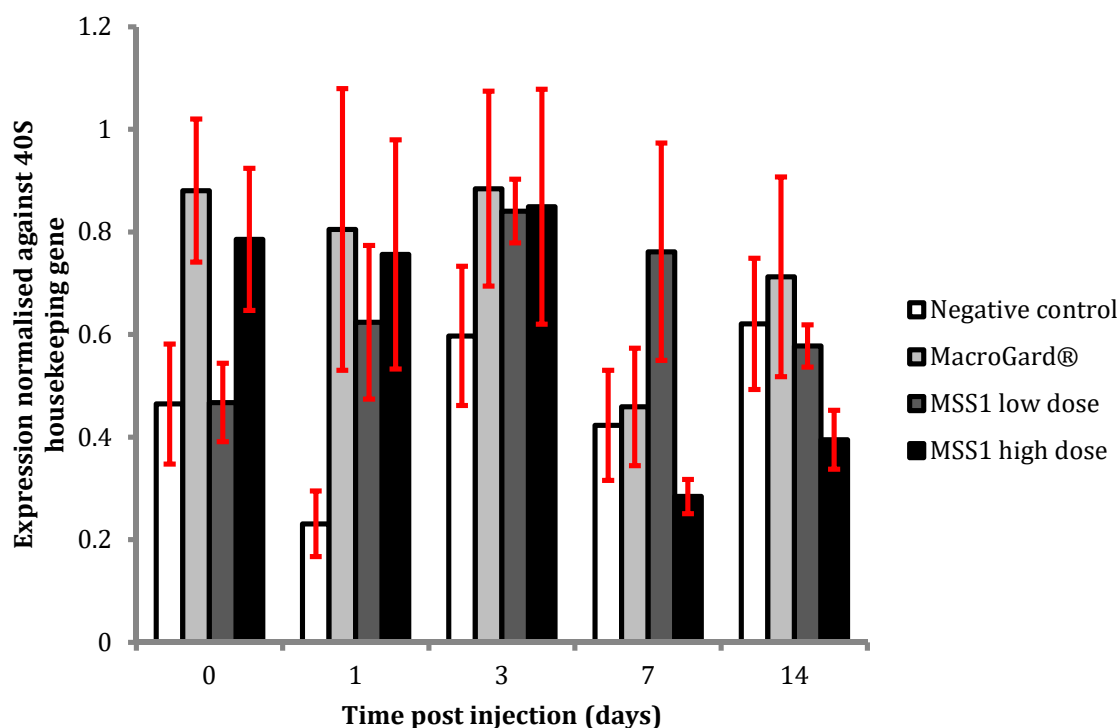
Anderson-Darling test for normality	p=0.232	Levene's test for equal variance		p>0.999
2-way nested (tank within treatment) ANOVA with <i>post hoc</i> Tukey's (R²=30.25%)	Degrees of freedom	F distribution	P value	Significance
Overall difference between treatments	3	2.96	0.038	*
Nested effect of tank variation	4	1.49	0.214	
Overall difference over time	3	4.95	0.003	**
Interaction of treatment and time	9	0.37	0.948	
<i>Post hoc</i> analysis				
Treatment: negative control vs MSS1 low dose		p=0.0222		*
Time: day 1 vs day 7		p=0.0082		**
Time: day 1 vs day 14		p=0.0318		*

Figure 5.11: Expression of the Muc2 gene in the gut of common carp within an injection trial (n=120). Carp were divided into 5 treatment groups: non injected control fish were sampled 0 days post injection, negative control (water), MacroGard®, MSS1 low dose (5mg kg⁻¹) and MSS1 high dose (10mg kg⁻¹) injected carp were sampled 1, 3, 7 and 14 days post injection. Bars represent average gene expression for each treatment group (n=6). Error bars are given as standard error of the mean. Grubbs test was utilised to identify any statistical outliers which were removed before any further statistical analysis. No outliers were found in this data set. Further statistical analysis did not include time point 0 days. Data was checked for normality using the Anderson-Darling test on both raw data and residual data, and Levene's test for equal variance. Details of the statistical analysis are shown beneath the graph. Degrees of freedom, F distribution and P values for overall significance are given with significant (p<0.05) *post hoc* comparisons being listed. Both in the graph and table, * signifies p<0.05, ** signifies p<0.01, and *** signifies p<0.001.



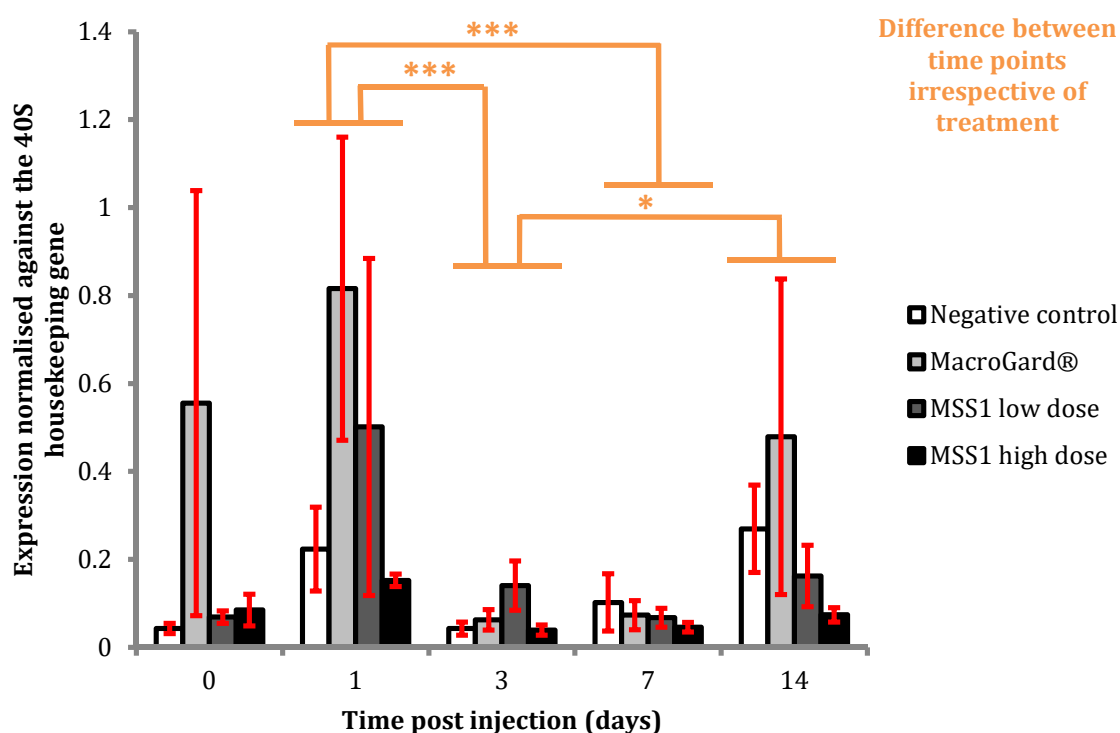
Box Cox transformation		$\lambda=-0.04$		
Anderson-Darling test for normality	p=0.348	Levene's test for equal variance		p=0.996
2-way nested (tank within treatment) ANOVA with <i>post hoc</i> Tukey's (R ² =45.07%)	Degrees of freedom	F distribution	P value	Significance
Overall difference between treatments	3	0.90	0.445	
Nested effect of tank variation	4	1.13	0.347	
Overall difference over time	3	3.18	0.029	*
Interaction of treatment and time	9	1.08	0.391	
Post hoc analysis				
Time: day 3 vs day 14		p=0.0181		*

Figure 5.12: Expression of the ApoA1 gene in the gut of common carp (*C. carpio*) within an injection trial (n=120). Carp were divided into 5 treatment groups: non injected control fish were sampled 0 days post injection, negative control (water), MacroGard®, MSS1 low dose (5mg kg⁻¹) and MSS1 high dose (10mg kg⁻¹) injected carp were sampled 1, 3, 7 and 14 days post injection. Bars represent average gene expression for each treatment group (n=6). Error bars are given as standard error of the mean. Grubbs test was utilised to identify any statistical outliers which were removed before any further statistical analysis. One outlier was identified at time point 14 days from the negative control treatment group. Data was checked for normality using the Anderson-Darling test on both raw data and residual data, and Levene's test for equal variance. Raw data was not normally distributed therefore was subject to a Box Cox transformation before further analysis. Details of the statistical analysis are shown beneath the graph. Degrees of freedom, F distribution and P values for overall significance are given with significant (p<0.05) *post hoc* comparisons being listed. Both in the graph and table, * signifies p<0.05, ** signifies p<0.01, and *** signifies p<0.001.



Box Cox transformation		$\lambda=-0.01$		
Anderson-Darling test for normality	p=0.375	Levene's test for equal variance		p=0.974
2-way Scheirer-Ray-Hare test (R ² =27.51%)	Degrees of freedom	F distribution	P value	Significance
Overall difference between treatments	3	3.07	0.032	*
Overall difference over time	3	3.35	0.023	*
Interaction of treatment and time	9	1.23	0.287	

Figure 5.13: Expression of the LEAP2 gene in the gut of common carp (*C. carpio*) within an injection trial (n=120). Carp were divided into 5 treatment groups: non injected control fish were sampled 0 days post injection, water, MacroGard®, MSS1 low dose (5mg kg⁻¹) and MSS1 high dose (10mg kg⁻¹) injected carp were sampled 1, 3, 7 and 14 days post injection. Bars represent average gene expression for each treatment group (n=6). Error bars are given as standard error of the mean. Grubbs test was utilised to identify any statistical outliers which were removed before any further statistical analysis. Data was checked for normality using the Anderson-Darling test on both raw data and residual data, and Levene's test for equal variance. Raw data was not normally distributed therefore was subject to a Box Cox transformation before further analysis. Details of the statistical analysis are shown beneath the graph. Degrees of freedom, F distribution and P values for overall significance are given with significant (p<0.05) *post hoc* comparisons being listed. Both in the graph and table, * signifies p<0.05, ** signifies p<0.01, and *** signifies p<0.001.



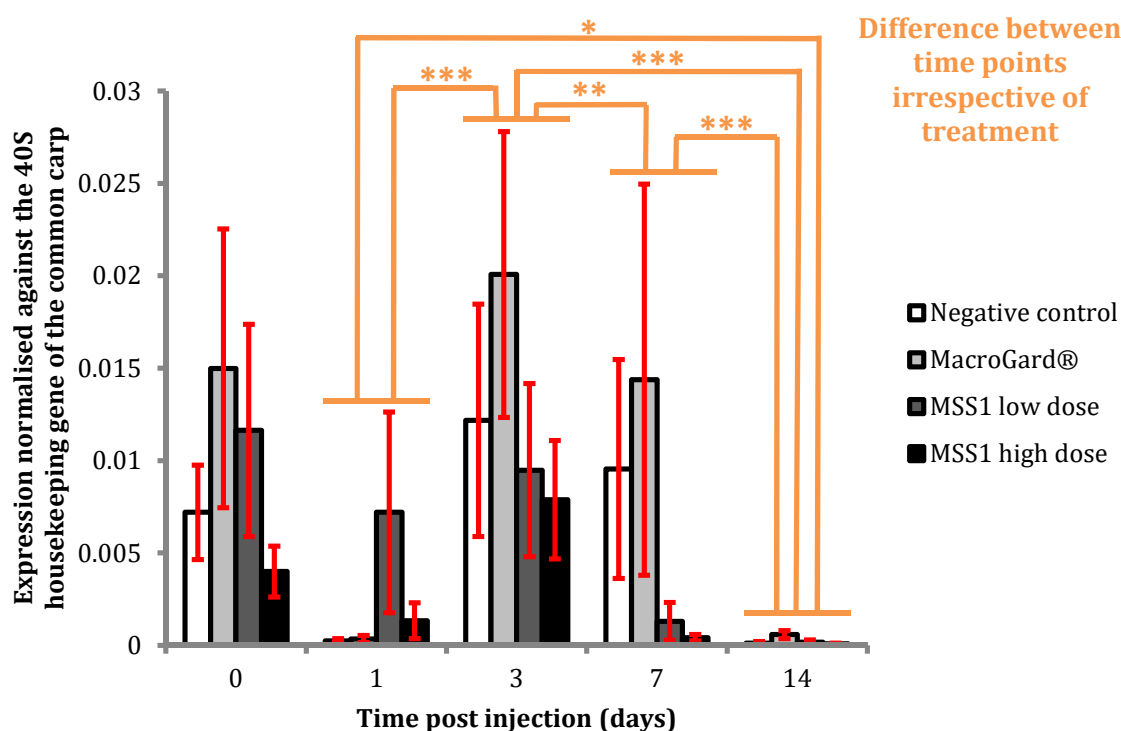
Box Cox transformation		$\lambda=-0.04$		
Anderson-Darling test for normality	p=0.271	Levene's test for equal variance		p=0.873
2-way nested (tank within treatment) ANOVA with <i>post hoc</i> Tukey's ($R^2=39.05\%$)	Degrees of freedom	F distribution	P value	Significance
Overall difference between treatments	3	1.38	0.256	
Nested effect of tank variation	4	0.25	0.906	
Overall difference over time	3	10.94	<0.001	***
Interaction of treatment and time	9	0.99	0.452	
<i>Post hoc</i> analysis				
Time: day 1 vs day 3			p<0.0001	***
Time: day 1 vs day 7			p=0.0001	***
Time: day 3 vs day 14			p=0.0317	*

Figure 5.14: Expression of the HAMP1 gene in the gut of common carp (*C. carpio*) within an injection trial (n=120). Carp were divided into 5 treatment groups: non injected control fish were sampled 0 days post injection, water, MacroGard®, MSS1 low dose (5mg kg⁻¹) and MSS1 high dose (10mg kg⁻¹) injected carp were sampled 1, 3, 7 and 14 days post injection. Bars represent average gene expression for each treatment group (n=6). Error bars are given as standard error of the mean. Grubbs test was utilised to identify any statistical outliers which were removed before any further statistical analysis. Data was checked for normality using the Anderson-Darling test on both raw data and residual data, and Levene's test for equal variance. Raw data was not normally distributed therefore was subject to a Box Cox transformation before further analysis. Details of the statistical analysis are shown beneath the graph. Degrees of freedom, F distribution and P values for overall significance are given with significant (p<0.05) *post hoc* comparisons being listed. Both in the graph and table, * signifies p<0.05, ** signifies p<0.01, and *** signifies p<0.001.

5.3.2 – Analysis of the intestinal microbiota population.

Expression of the bacterial 16S rDNA gene in the gut of carp (Figure 5.15) during this trial was not effected by tank. There was a significant overall effect of time ($p < 0.001$) and a significant interaction of time and treatment ($p = 0.040$), however *post hoc* analysis revealed no further significant effects. Expression of the 16S rDNA gene was significantly higher 3 days post injection irrespective of treatment in comparison to all other time points in injected fish, and day 14 is significantly lower than all other time points in injected fish. There were differences in the mean expression of control injected carp with 1 and 14 days post injection being lower than non-injected control carp from the same tanks as well as lower than the mean at 3 and 7 days post injection. The average expression of the 16S rDNA gene 1 day post injection in carp that received the control and MacroGard® treatments were 2.27% and 3.43% respectively of the expression in non-injected carp from the same tanks samples 24 hours previously. Injection with MSS1 at both the low and high dose showed a lower mean expression relative to non-injected controls from the same tank (61.88% and 33.28% respectively).

Qualitative analysis of bacterial species richness during this trial was performed by comparing PCR-DGGE band patterns of pooled samples (by treatment at each time point). Bray-Curtis dissimilarity comparisons were made between all samples and data is presented on an nMDS plot in Figure 5.16 with groupings highlighted by treatment and by time point. No effect of treatment or time point can be seen during this trial with all four treatments and all five time points overlapping at the centre of the plot.



Box Cox transformation		$\lambda=0.07$		
Anderson-Darling test for normality	p=0.414	Levene's test for equal variance		p=0.894
2-way nested (tank within treatment) ANOVA with <i>post hoc</i> Tukey's ($R^2=55.01\%$)	Degrees of freedom	F distribution	P value	Significance
Overall difference between treatments	3	1.17	0.326	
Nested effect of tank variation	4	1.89	0.122	
Overall difference over time	3	19.18	<0.001	***
Interaction of treatment and time	9	2.11	0.040	*
<i>Post hoc</i> analysis				
Time: day 1 vs day 3			p=0.0001	***
Time: day 1 vs day 14			p=0.0418	*
Time: day 3 vs day 7			p=0.0078	**
Time: day 3 vs day 14			p<0.0001	***
Time: day 7 vs day 14			p=0.0008	***

Figure 5.15: Expression of the bacterial 16S rDNA gene in the gut of common carp (*C. carpio*) within an injection trial (n=120). Carp were divided into 5 treatment groups: non injected control fish were sampled 0 days post injection, water, MacroGard®, MSS1 low dose (5mg kg⁻¹) and MSS1 high dose (10mg kg⁻¹) injected carp were sampled 1, 3, 7 and 14 days post injection. Bars represent average gene expression for each treatment group (n=6). Error bars are given as standard error of the mean. Grubbs test was utilised to identify any statistical outliers which were removed before any further statistical analysis. Data was checked for normality using the Anderson-Darling test on both raw data and residual data, and Levene's test for equal variance. Raw data was not normally distributed therefore was subject to a Box Cox transformation before further analysis. Details of the statistical analysis are shown beneath the graph. Degrees of freedom, F distribution and P values for overall significance are given with significant (p<0.05) *post hoc* comparisons being listed. Both in the graph and table, * signifies p<0.05, ** signifies p<0.01, and *** signifies p<0.001.

Grouping	Marker
Water injected control	Diamond
MacroGard® injection	Square
MSS1 5mg injection	Triangle
MSS1 10mg injection	Circle
Day 0	Blue
Day 1	Green
Day 3	Red
Day 7	Orange
Day 14	Black

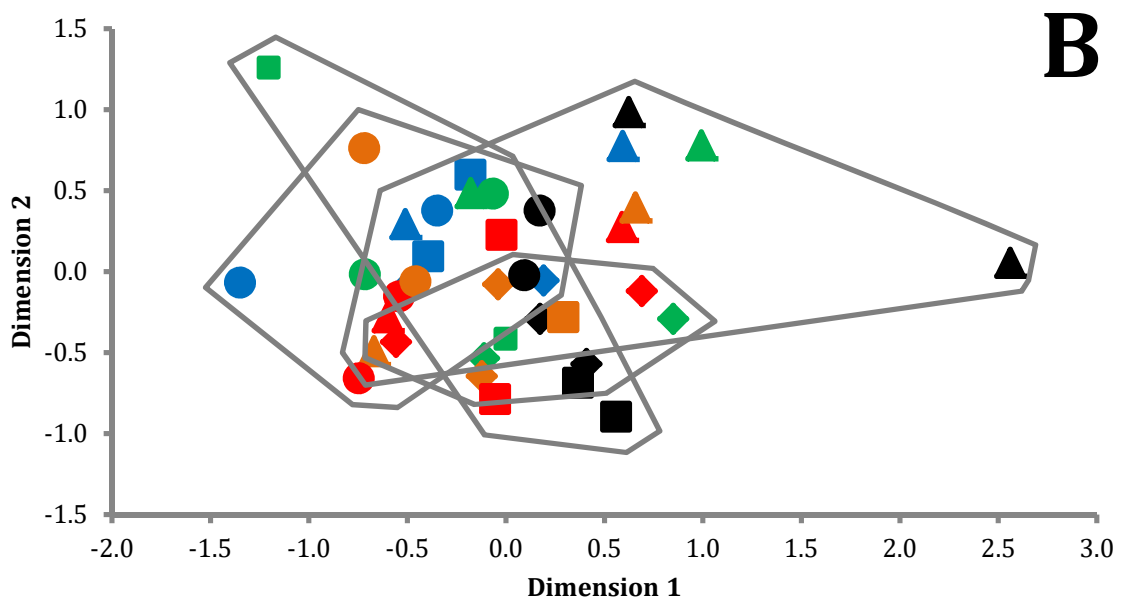
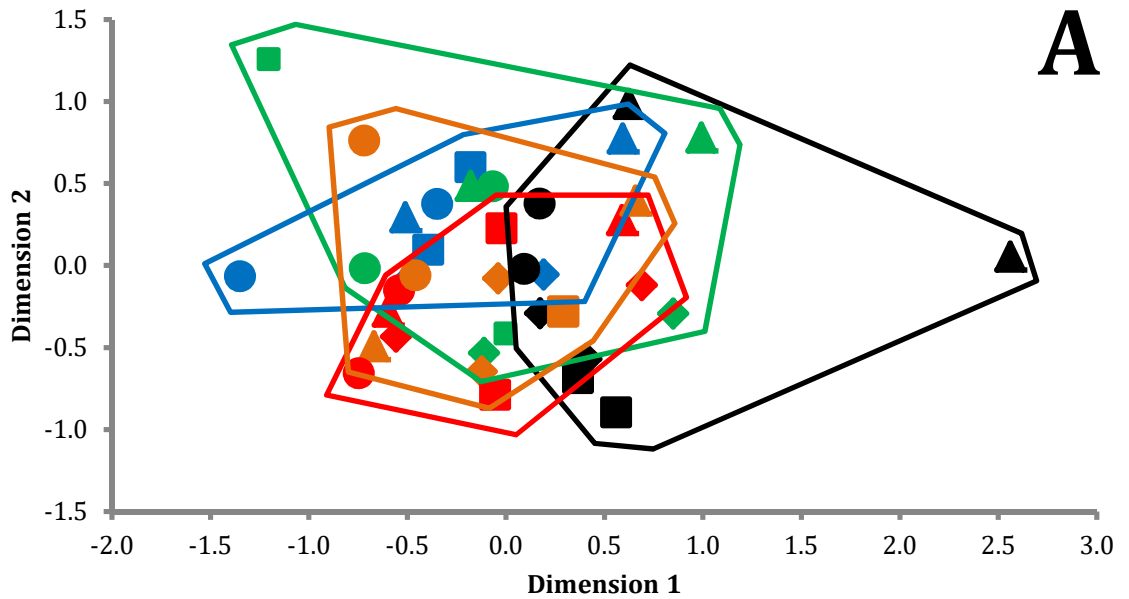


Figure 5.16: Non metric Multidimensional Scaling (nMDS) ordination (stress: 0.0809) of Bray-Curtis dissimilarities looking at the differences in species richness based on PCR-DGGE band patterns of carp within a large injection trial. Carp were divided into 5 treatment groups: non injected control fish were sampled 0 days post injection, water, MacroGard® MSS1 low dose (5mg kg^{-1}) and MSS1 low (10mg kg^{-1}) injected carp were sampled 1, 3, 7 and 14 days post injection. Data is shown twice to easily visualise groupings by time point (A) and by treatment (B).

5.3.3 – Statistical analysis of innate immune gene expression and overall bacteria population size.

Expression levels of each of the immune genes analysed was compared to expression of the 16S rDNA gene using the non-parametric Spearman's rank order correlation test (Table 5.4). This revealed a weak negative correlation between the 16S rDNA gene and bf/C2 ($\rho=-0.228$, $p=0.014$), ApoA1 ($\rho=-0.383$, $p<0.001$) and HAMP1 expression ($\rho=-0.223$, $p=0.016$). There was no correlation with expression of iNOS, CRP2, Muc2 or LEAP2.

Table 5.4: The probability of a linear relationship between each of the immune genes analysed in the gut of common carp during a 14 day injection trial and the size of the bacterial population within the gut as measured by total 16s rDNA expression (n=116). Carp were divided into 5 treatment groups: non injected control fish were sampled 0 days post injection, water, MacroGard®, MSS1 low dose (5mg kg⁻¹) and MSS1 high dose (10mg kg⁻¹) injected carp were sampled 1, 3, 7 and 14 days post injection. As data was not normally distributed, Spearman's test was used to calculate the correlation coefficient, i.e. how linear a correlation is, and the statistical significance. A rating as to how strong the correlation is (as described by Fowler *et al.* (Fowler, Cohen *et al.* 1998)) is also given with a coefficient of 0.00-0.19 being a very weak correlation, 0.20-0.39 being a weak correlation, 0.40-0.69 being a modest correlation, 0.70-0.89 being a strong correlation and 0.90-1.00 being a very strong correlation.

Gene	Correlation coefficient (ρ)	P value	Correlation
iNOS	-0.129	0.168	Very weak
CRP2	-0.127	0.175	Very weak
bf/C2	-0.228	0.014	Weak (negative)
Muc2	-0.074	0.432	Very weak
ApoA1	-0.383	<0.001	Weak (negative)
LEAP2	0.159	0.087	Very weak
HAMP1	-0.223	0.016	Weak (negative)

5.4 – Discussion.

This chapter aimed to ascertain if injection with MacroGard® caused a decrease in the amount of bacteria within the gut. The data presented revealed a significant effect on overall gut microbiota population size and indicates there may be an impact upon species richness however, interpretation must at this stage be cautious due to the relatively low sample size. The differences seen indicate that LPS and MacroGard® have a limited effect on the gene expression of the selected innate immune parameters. A lack of upregulation of the inflammation markers, IL-1 β and TNF α , suggests a systemic immune response did not occur within the gut. Additionally, C3, the central marker for an activation of the complement pathways, was not affected by injection with LPS or MacroGard®, however an upregulation of iNOS was seen for LPS injected carp. In contrast however, there was more than a 95% reduction in overall gut bacteria population size after LPS and MacroGard® injection. A lack of correlation between the decrease in bacteria population size and iNOS expression, however, does not preclude NO production as having an impact upon the gut microbiota population. For example, whilst Pijanowski *et al.* (2015) showed higher expression of the iNOS gene in stressed carp neutrophils, this did not correlate with production of superoxide anion as determined by NBT assay. Both Falco *et al.* (2012b) and Syakuri *et al.* (2013) showed IL-1 β expression to be increased within the gut within the first 24 hours after injection (*A. salmonicida* and CyHV-3 respectively) however the levels of expression return to similar to control levels by 24 hours. IL-1 β and TNF α are signals that induce immune cascades rather than directly act upon microbes and therefore the lack of correlation with bacterial population size does not exclude their role in the reduction of gut bacteria population size. Indeed, studies in

other systems have noted a possible link between gut microflora and these immune signals, for example Irritable Bowel Disease (IBD) in humans is a disharmony between the intestinal immune response and the commensal bacteria population within the gut. TNF α blockers are used as a treatment for the symptoms of this disease, possibly indicating a role of signalling molecules, e.g. TNF α , in dysbiosis between host and microbiota (de Bie *et al.* 2012, Jones-Hall *et al.* 2015, Tursi *et al.* 2015).

In this chapter the immunomodulatory properties of a formulated β -glucan, MSS1, on gut immune status was also investigated. As with the initial smaller trial, only a limited effect of MacroGard[®] injection was seen upon the immune responses analysed, however the lower dose of MSS1 had a significant effect upon several of the immune genes studied. MSS1 was selected out of a range of β -glucans generated from MacroGard[®] for its stimulation of cell proliferation/lack of toxicity in *in vitro* studies working with carp leucocyte cells (CLCs) and head kidney cells (Nawroz Kareem, unpublished data). Where MSS1 is a singular β -glucan structure rather than a mix of different chain lengths, degrees of branching and solubility, MacroGard[®] is a heterogenous mix. The initial carbohydrate material from which MSS1 was generated was MacroGard[®] therefore it is likely that MacroGard[®] will contain some of the same β -glucan structures as MSS1, i.e. the same chain lengths, degrees of branching and solubility. The data presented in this chapter shows that the particular β -glucan structure of MSS1 has a stronger immunomodulatory capability than MacroGard[®]. That MSS1 did not have the same affect at the higher concentration (10mg kg⁻¹ versus 5mg kg⁻¹), however, is intriguing. This indicates that there is an optimal concentration at which MSS1 has an effect. The expression levels of the genes analysed in carp

injected with the higher concentration of MSS1 (10mg kg⁻¹) are generally lower than expression levels seen in carp injected with the lower concentration (5mg kg⁻¹), therefore there could be a potentially inhibitory affect above a certain concentration. A dose dependent immune response has also been seen after the oral application of lyophilised whole yeast cells (*S. cerevisiae*) to gilthead seabream (Ortuno *et al.* 2002) with an increase in phagocytic ability/capacity of head kidney leucocytes as the concentration of yeast cells within the diet increased. The data presented by Ortuno *et al.* (2002), however, did not indicate a maximum concentration at which the yeast was effective in inducing a greater immune response. Chitin, a β -1,4 linked N-acetyl-D-glucosamine polymer, shows different dose dependent responses in Catla (*Catla catla*) when comparing between *in vitro* and *in vivo* trials (Sangma and Kamilya 2015). When catla were fed diets containing chitin, production of superoxide anion by head kidney leucocytes increased as the concentration of chitin increased, however *in vitro* studies showed the lowest concentration of chitin (0.01mg/ml) showed the highest increase with a dose dependent decrease in production as the concentration of chitin was increased (Sangma and Kamilya 2015). The concept of dose dependent inhibition of activity has been considered since the 1980s in relation to anti-cancer drugs as reviewed by (Powis 1983) however studies looking at MacroGard® have only previously shown a dose dependent increase in activity at higher concentrations of the carbohydrate (Kuhlwein *et al.* 2013, Vera-Jimenez *et al.* 2013).

The decrease in gut bacterial population size was greater in MacroGard® injected carp than those that received MSS1. This is interesting considering the significantly higher levels of gene expression of the immune parameters seen within this trial. The limited correlation between immune parameters and bacterial numbers

seen within the gut indicates that, if indeed the immune response is directly responsible for the decrease in bacteria population size, it is not via the pathways considered within this study or it is simply not detectable on the level of gene expression. Further studies in determining what causes the reduction in bacteria numbers could focus on Pattern Recognition Receptors (PRRs) such as Toll Like Receptors (TLRs) e.g. TLR4 which recognises LPS, a bacteria associated endotoxin (Swain *et al.* 2008) rather than bactericidal activity.

Whilst Tapia-Paniagua *et al.* (2015) used Principle Component Analysis (PCA) as a statistical means of comparing immune activity in the liver of Senegalese sole with the intestinal microbiota, immune genes in the studies presented in this thesis were compared individually to total 16S rDNA expression. This was done due to data not being normally distributed which is an assumption of PCA. Whilst Spearman's rank order correlation revealed slight correlation between expression of the three antimicrobial peptides analysed and the bacteria population size, biologically it is most likely that it is a combination of multiple immune parameters working together that are affecting the gut microbiota rather than one individual parameter. Examples of different immune pathways working together to reduce infections in carp models include infection with Cyprinid herpesvirus (CyHV) 3 and the parasite *Trypanoplasma borreli*. During CyHV-3 infection, there is an increase in expression of genes associated with the complement pathway, iNOS, interferon, CRP, lysozyme and a decrease in defensin B (Adamek *et al.* 2013, Pionnier *et al.* 2014), and nitric oxide, Immunoglobulin M and complement are indicated to work together resulting in lysis during *T. borreli* infection (Forlenza *et al.* 2009b).

As previously stated, this is the first trial in which quantification of the gut

microbiota population size has been compared against immune gene expression in the gut in an ichthyo-model. As has been shown through studying gnotobiotic models, the presence of bacteria is highly important for the development of the immune system from hatching and, in zebrafish (*Danio rerio*), the species diversity of the gut microbiota population is thought to stabilise by the time the fish are considered as juveniles (Rombout *et al.* 2011). Examples of dysbiosis within the symbiont, i.e. an instability in bacterial species diversity and over activation of the host immune response, are found in disease conditions such as Ulcerative Colitis in which a loss of α -diversity has been seen (Alipour *et al.* 2015). The lack of variation in bacterial species richness seen in the trials presented here, however, implies this may not be a suitable comparison due to IBDs being chronic conditions, whereas the model presented here could be considered acute, i.e. a singular event rather than continuous modulation of the immune response due to the lack of differences in species richness between injected (irrespective of treatment) and non-injected carp.

Due to there being no strong correlation between any of the immune parameters analysed and overall gut microbiota population size, alternative means as to how the reduction in gut bacteria population size occurred were considered. Carp have been shown to slough their mucosal layer within the gut as a means of ejecting pathogens during CyHV-3 infection trials (Adamek *et al.* 2013) which, if a sloughing event occurred during the trial presented here, this would give an explanation as to the lower number of bacteria within the mucus layer 1 day post injection. Analysis of Muc2, the gene expressed in the gut that encodes for mucin, the backbone of the peptoglycan molecules that are the main constituents of mucus (Van der Marel *et al.* 2012), did not show any difference either between treatment groups or over time,

nor was there any correlation with total 16S expression. Unfortunately, histological analysis of the gut was not performed to determine if any change in the thickness of the mucosal membrane occurred, however due to the lack of change in gene expression, it is likely there was no effect as an increase in Muc2 gene expression would be expected in order to replenish the mucosal membrane.

Chapter 6 – Studying the effect of combining different methods of applying MacroGard® on the gut microbiota population.

The modulation of the intestinal microbiome in favour of so called “good” bacteria, i.e. species which promote health of the host organism, is currently receiving a lot of attention as an alternative means of reducing incidents of pathogenic infection in aquaculture (for reviews, see Gatesoupe 1999, Wang *et al.* 2008, Nayak 2010b, Perez *et al.* 2010, Saad *et al.* 2013, Merrifield *et al.* 2014). Whilst the oral application of MacroGard® is capable of influencing bacterial species diversity within the intestine of carp at higher concentrations (Kuhlwein *et al.* 2013, Jung-Schroers *et al.* 2015a), this is not the primary reason for including it into the diet of commercial fish species and, indeed, the data presented in Chapter 4 shows there is no effect upon bacterial species richness when fish are fed MacroGard® at a comparable concentration to that found in commercial diets.

Chapter 5, however, revealed that injection with MacroGard® was capable of reducing the population size of the gut microbiota by more than 95% (as measured by 16S copy number). Research using mammalian models has also shown that β -glucans to be effective adjuvants in combination with vaccines (Bromuro *et al.* 2010, Huang *et al.* 2013, Berner *et al.* 2015). Although the majority of research as to the immunomodulatory properties of β -glucans in ichthyo-models focuses on oral application, there are examples of its use as an adjuvant in fish species (Midtlyng and Lillehaug 1998, Guselle *et al.* 2006, Kubilay *et al.* 2008). The adjuvant concept is important as injection has also been cited as the application method of choice used

for the majority of vaccines in aquaculture (Plant and LaPatra 2011).

The influence of orally and injected application of β -glucan bacterial species diversity within the gut, could have potential uses within aquaculture, i.e. timing of injection based vaccination programs with β -glucan based feeding regimes in order to achieve both immune protection against specific pathogens through vaccination and an overall “better” gut microbiota that promotes health within the host organism and can outcompete potential pathogens from colonising the gut.

Considering the concepts of orally applied MacroGard® influencing gut microbiota species diversity at higher concentrations and injection of MacroGard® reducing the gut microbiota population size, the aim of this chapter is to establish if a combination of orally applied and injected MacroGard® can influence gut bacterial species diversity, so as to improve overall health of the fish by injection and maintaining or improving a diverse gut microbiome. To achieve this a combination feeding and injection trial where carp will be maintained on either a 0% or 0.1% MacroGard® diet and fish from both feed groups will receive an injection of MacroGard® will be undertaken. Assessment of the impact of this β -glucan exposure regime expression of a range of immune related genes will be undertaken. IL-1 β and C3 gene expression has been previously shown to be effected by orally applied MacroGard® during infection trials (Falco *et al.* 2012b, Miest *et al.* 2012, Pionnier *et al.* 2014), and the iNOS gene was shown to have higher expression levels 1 day post injection with a β -glucan in chapter 5. Therefore these three genes were selected as markers of host immunomodulation. The bacterial 16S rDNA gene was used as a measure of gut microbiota population size and next generation sequencing techniques were utilised in order to ascertain if orally applied MacroGard® was

capable of influencing bacterial species diversity within the gut after carp were additionally injected with MacroGard®.

During the development of experimental design from the injection trials described in Chapter 5 to the combination feeding and injection trial presented here, the decision was made to alter the way in which the non-injected negative controls were handled. As shown in Chapter 4, significant changes in gut microbiota population size would occur over a 2 week period, and it was concluded that fish should be compared to non-injected controls sampled at the same time point rather than comparing them against fish that were sampled up to 2 weeks previous, as would occur if non injected controls were only taken at the time of injection. This, however, brought up logistical complications in terms of experimental design, and in particular, if handling fish i.e. netting, submersion in anaesthetic and tail clipping affected the gut microbiota population size. An initial trial was therefore undertaken to investigate this.

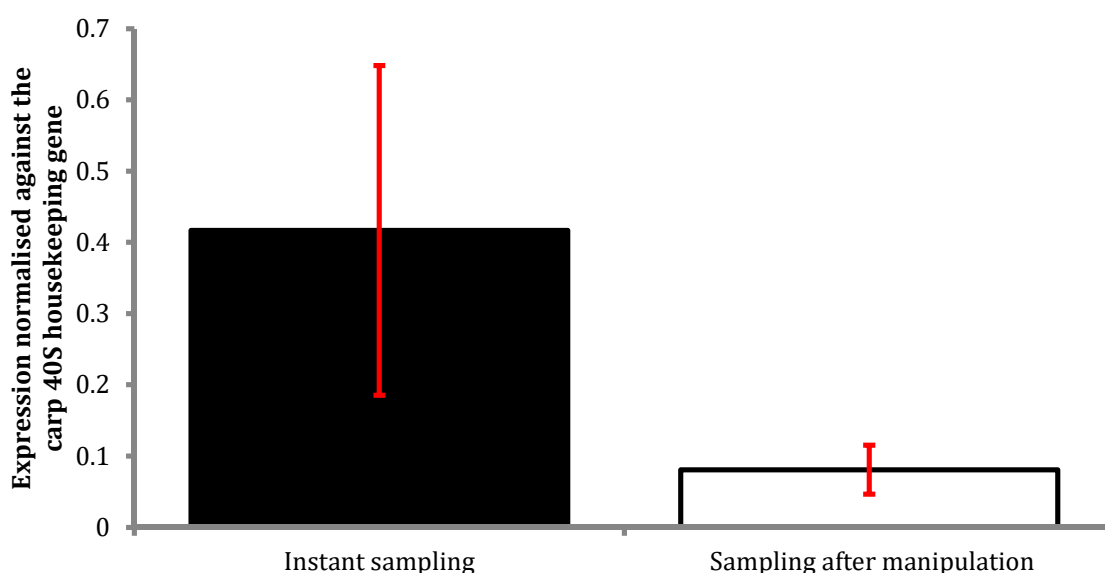
6.1 – Comparison of gut microbiota population size when different handling techniques for non-injected negative controls are used.

6.1.1 Materials and Methods.

Ten carp were selected from the stock population acquired from Hampton Spring Fisheries, UK, in October 2014 and were moved to a single tank and maintained as described in section 4.1.2 until the start of the trial and fed at a rate of 1% body weight per day on a 0% MacroGard® diet (section 4.1.3). All carp were removed from the tank simultaneously with 5 being subject to manipulation, i.e. fish dipped briefly (approximately 30 seconds) to anaesthetise in 2-phenoxyethanol (1ml/5L) before their tails were cut and then returned back to their tank. Five carp were euthanized straight away by submersion in 2-phenoxyethanol followed by destruction of the brain before dissection. Gut samples were taken as described in section 4.3.3 with samples of total gut, gut wall and gut contents being stored in *RNAlater* at -80°C until further use. 24 hours after the first group of carp were sampled, the 5 fish that were subject to manipulation were euthanized and gut samples taken for analysis. Tail cuts were performed by Professor Dave Hoole (Keele University, UK). RNA was isolated from gut wall samples as outlined in section 0 and treated with DNase before being translated to cDNA as described in sections 4.3.4.2 and 4.3.4.3. RT-qPCR analysis was performed as outlined in section 4.3.4.4 with the primer pairs 40S (carp) and uniBact_16S (bacteria). Primer sequences are listed in Appendix 3. Statistical analysis was performed using a 1-way ANOVA after a Box-Cox transformation in order to ensure data did not violate the assumptions of normality and homoscedasticity.

6.1.2 Results.

Although there was a decrease in 16S expression (relative to expression of the 40S gene) when comparing the two methods of handling, this difference was not significant (Figure 6.1). It was therefore concluded that non injected negative controls within the combination feeding and injection trial would be handled in the same way as injected fish.



Box Cox transformation		$\lambda=0.13$		
Anderson-Darling for normality	p=0.380	Levene's test for equal variance	p=0.982	
One way ANOVA (R ² =25.26%)	Degrees of freedom	F distribution	P value	Significance
Overall effect of handling	1	2.37	0.168	

Figure 6.1: Expression of the bacterial 16S rDNA gene in carp (*C. carpio*) that were either sampled straight after removal from the tank or were briefly dipped in anaesthetic, had their tails cut and were returned to the tank for 24 hours before sampling as a comparison of the two different methods employed for handling non injected negative controls (total n=10). Bars represent average gene expression for each treatment group (n=5). Error bars are given as standard error of the mean. Grubbs test was utilised to identify any statistical outliers which were removed before any further statistical analysis. One outlier was identified from the group of carp that were sampled after manipulation. Data was checked for normality using the Anderson-Darling test on both raw data and residual data, and Levene's test for equal variance. Raw data was not normally distributed therefore was subject to a Box Cox transformation before further analysis. A one way ANOVA was performed to determine statistical significance. Details of the statistical analysis are shown in the table below the graph. Degrees of freedom, F distribution and P values for overall significance are given.

6.2 – Analysing the effect of orally applied MacroGard® in combination with application via intraperitoneal injection.

6.2.1 – Materials and methods.

120 Carp were acquired from Hampton Spring Fisheries, UK, in October 2014 and divided between two tanks maintained at 18°C. All fish were fed on a 0% MacroGard® diet prior to the start of the trial at a rate of 1% body weight per day for 4 months (see sections 4.1.2 and 4.1.3 for details on fish husbandry and feed composition). During the trial carp were either fed with a 0% MacroGard® diet (n=60) or a 0.1% MacroGard® diet (n=60) at a rate of 1% body weight per day for 3 weeks prior to injection and for the duration of the experiment. Carp were anaesthetised (30 seconds in 2-phenoxyethanol at 1ml/5l) before receiving an injection and a cut to their tail fin for identification of treatment groups. Fish were observed for 10 minutes before being returned to their original tank. Carp received either no injection, PBS injection, MacroGard® 2mg kg⁻¹, or inactivated *Aeromonas salmonicida* sp. *salmonicida* (reference strain NCIMB 1102, see section 4.2.2. 10⁵ CFU per fish) with details for the preparation of each injection being found in section 6.2.1.1. 30 fish received each treatment as described in Table 6.1. Samples were taken 1, 8 and 15 days post injection as described in section 4.3.3. Carp were euthanized by submersion in 2-phenoxyethanol (1ml/5L) and samples of the total gut, gut wall and gut content were stored in RNAlater at -80°C until further use.

Table 6.1: Experimental design for a trial studying the effect of combining both oral application of MacroGard® and intraperitoneal injection with either PBS, MacroGard® (2mg kg⁻¹) or heat inactivated *Aeromonas salmonicida* subsp. *salmonicida* (10⁵ CFU per fish) to common carp (*C. carpio*). Carp were split into 2 tanks, one of which received the 0% MacroGard® experimental feed and the other was maintained on the 0.1% MacroGard®. All fish were fed at a rate of 1% body weight per day for a 3 week period on each diet before injection and for the remainder of the trial. In order to distinguish between treatment groups, fish were marked with an incision in the tail fin.

Feed	Injection	Time point (days)		
		1	8	15
0% MacroGard®	No injection	5	5	5
	PBS	5	5	5
	MacroGard®	5	5	5
	A. salmonicida	5	5	5
0.1% MacroGard®	No injection	5	5	5
	PBS	5	5	5
	MacroGard®	5	5	5
	A. salmonicida	5	5	5

6.2.1.1 – Preparation of MacroGard® and inactivated *Aeromonas salmonicida* subsp. *salmonicida* for injection.

MacroGard® was prepared at a final concentration of 2mg kg⁻¹ per fish in 100µl of PBS as described in section 3.1.

Aeromonas salmonicida subsp. *salmonicida* (NCIMB 1102, see section 4.2.2 for details of this strain) was incubated for 18 hours in 50ml nutrient broth at room temperature (approximately 25°C). Undiluted broth was heat inactivated by autoclaving at 121°C for 15 minutes. Before the bacteria was autoclaved, a serial 1:10 dilution (1x10⁻¹ to 1x10⁻¹⁰) was performed using 50µl nutrient broth applied to a nutrient agar plate (in triplicate for each dilution) and incubated at 20°C for 24 hours. The number of bacteria present within the undiluted broth was calculated based upon colony forming unit (CFU) count. Confirmation of successful heat inactivation was performed in triplicate by applying 50µl of undiluted autoclaved bacteria to nutrient agar plates which were incubated at 20°C for 72 hours after which no colonies were produced.

6.2.1.2 – Quantitative analysis of innate immune gene expression and total 16S rDNA expression in the gut.

Gut wall, gut content and total gut samples were taken as described in section 4.3.3 and stored in RNA*later* at -80°C until further use. RNA was isolated as outlined in section 0, treated with DNase before being reverse transcribed to cDNA as described in sections 4.3.4.2 and 4.3.4.3. RT-qPCR analysis was performed as outlined in section 4.3.4.4 to establish gene expression for C3, IL-1 β , iNOS and the bacterial 16S rDNA gene. Correlation analysis of gene expression of the 16S rDNA gene against the analysed immune parameters was performed as described in section 4.3.4.5.

6.2.1.3 – Next generation sequencing analysis of species diversity in MacroGard® injected carp from both feed groups.

Carp sampled 8 and 15 days post injection that received an injection with MacroGard® irrespective of feed were analysed by the Fish Health and Nutrition group at the University of Plymouth (United Kingdom) using next generation sequencing analysis. genDNA from gut wall samples was isolated and OTU identification was performed to the genus level. genDNA isolation was performed as outlined in section 4.3.5.1.

Next Generation Sequencing Analysis was performed by Dr. Ana Rodiles of the University of Plymouth (United Kingdom) and Appendix 4 gives the full report including methodologies provided by Dr. Daniel Merrifield. Briefly, the V1-V2 region of the 16S rDNA gene was amplified in a reaction mix consisting of the primer pair 16S_seq (see Appendix 3 for sequences) at a final concentration of 0.568 μ M, 50 μ l of MyTaq™, and 2 μ l of genDNA in a total volume of 88 μ l. PCR was performed using the

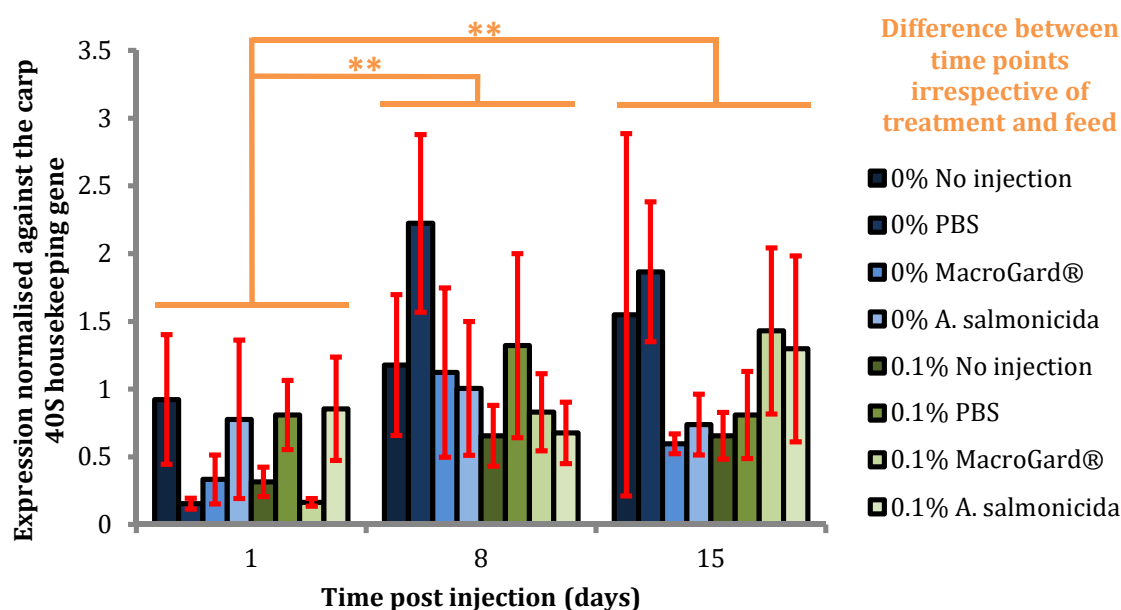
following protocol and a TC-512 thermal cycler: initial denaturation at 94°C for 7 min, then 10 cycles at 94°C for 30 sec, followed by a touchdown of 1°C per cycle from 62 - 53°C for 30 sec and 72°C for 30 sec. A further 20 cycles were performed at 94°C for 30 sec, 53°C for 30 sec and 72°C for 30 sec before a final extension for 7 min at 72°C. PCR products were subject to electrophoresis using an agarose gel and bands of the correct expected size (300bp) isolated and cleaned using a QIAquick Gel Extraction Kit as per the manufacturer's instructions. Samples were then adjusted to a concentration of 26pM before being prepared using an Ion PGMTM Template OT2 kit. Sequencing was performed using an Ion Torrent Personal Genome Machine.

6.2.2 – Results

As with the previous chapters results will be considered by analysis of the expression of 3 innate immune genes utilised, followed by analysis of the overall gut microbiota size in all samples and NGS analysis of the species richness within the gut. Finally, a comparison of innate immune gene expression and the overall size of the microbiota population was carried out.

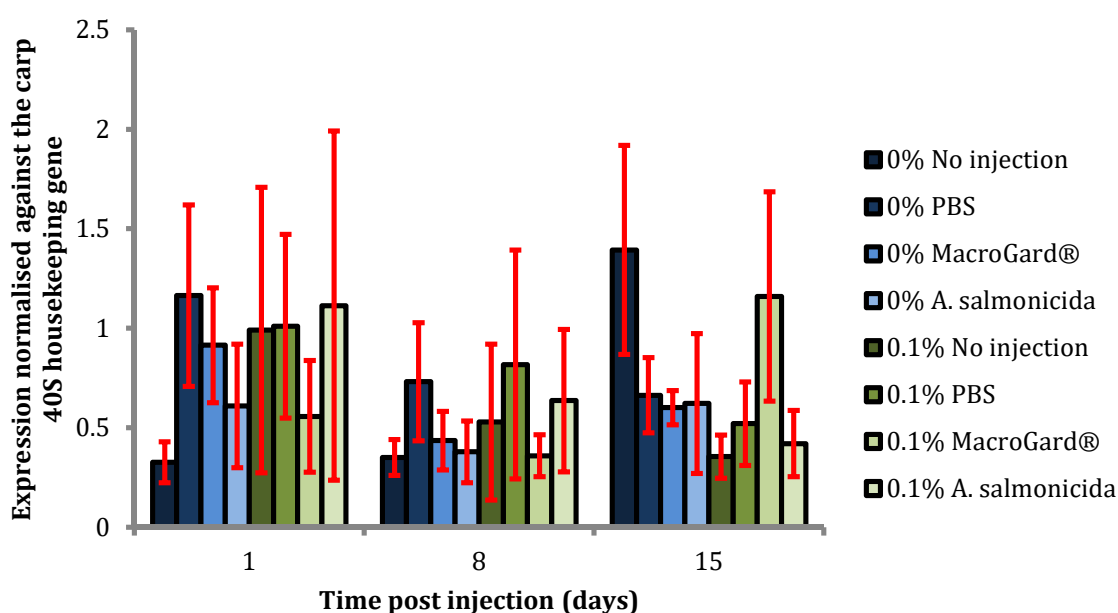
6.2.2.1 – Innate immune gene expression.

Although expression of iNOS gene was significantly influenced by time ($p=0.001$), treatment or feed regime did not appear to affect the expression of iNOS (Figure 6.2). Expression 1 day post injection was significantly lower than expression at 8 ($p=0.0037$) and 15 ($p=0.0025$) days post injection. In contrast, C3 gene expression was not significantly different over time, between injection or between feed groups (Figure 6.3). Whilst IL-1 β expression (Figure 6.4) was not significantly affected by injection, there was a significant difference between feed groups ($p=0.001$) and time point within feed groups ($p=0.024$). Gene expression for IL-1 β in fish fed 0.1% MacroGard® was significantly higher 1 and 8 days post injection ($p=0.0146$ and $p=0.0433$ respectively) compared to 0% MacroGard® fed fish.



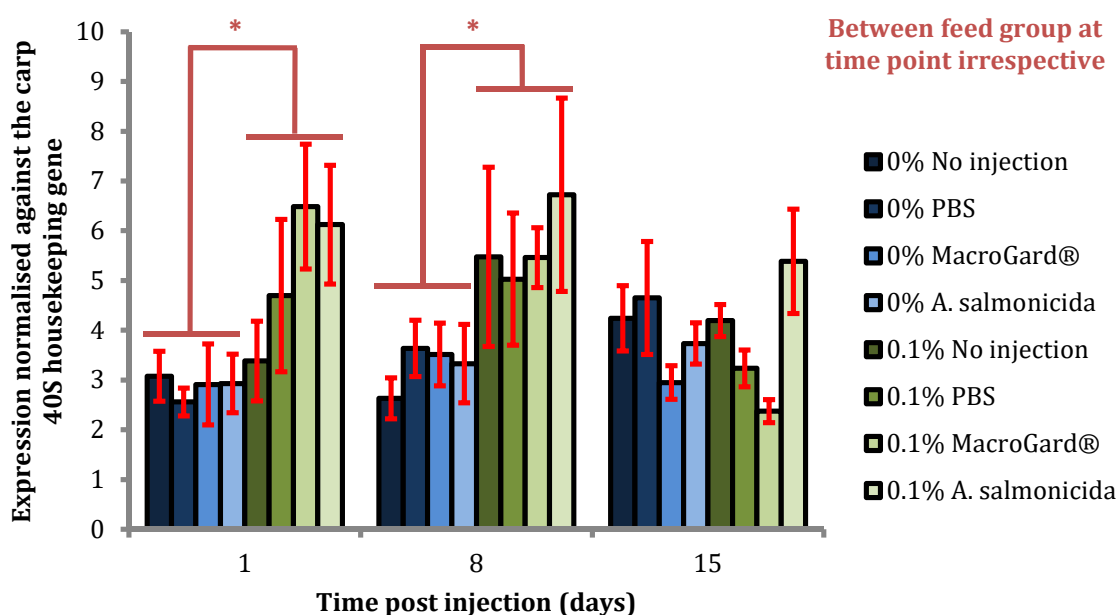
Box Cox transformation		$\lambda=0.01$		
Anderson-Darling test for normality	p=0.953	Levene's test for equal variance	p=0.626	
3-way ANOVA with <i>post hoc</i> Tukey's (R ² =25.68%)	Degrees of freedom	F distribution	P value	Significance
Overall effect of time	2	7.64	0.001	**
Overall effect of injection	3	1.04	0.380	
Overall effect of feed	1	0.11	0.739	
Interaction between time and injection	6	0.81	0.563	
Interaction between time and feed	2	0.36	0.700	
Interaction between injection and feed	3	0.16	0.922	
Interaction between all variables	6	1.35	0.244	
<i>Post hoc</i> analysis				
Time: day 1 vs day 8			p=0.0037	**
Time: day 1 vs day 15			p=0.0025	**

Figure 6.2: Expression of iNOS in the gut of common carp (*C. carpio*) within a combined feeding and injection trial (n=120). Carp were fed either a 0% or 0.1% MacroGard® diet and were further divided into one of 4 treatment groups: no injection, PBS injection, MacroGard® injection, inactivated *A. salmonicida* injection. Carp were sampled 1, 8 and 15 days post injection (n=5). Bars represent average gene expression for each treatment group (n=6). Error bars are given as standard error of the mean. Grubbs test was utilised to identify any statistical outliers which were removed before any further statistical analysis. One outlier was identified from the non-injected group of carp that received the 0% MacroGard® diet at time point 15 days. Data was checked for normality using the Anderson-Darling test on both raw data and residual data, and Levene's test for equal variance. Raw data was not normally distributed therefore was subject to a Box Cox transformation before further analysis. Details of the statistical analysis are shown beneath the graph. Degrees of freedom, F distribution and P values for overall significance are given with significant (p<0.05) *post hoc* comparisons being listed. Both in the graph and table, * signifies p<0.05, ** signifies p<0.01, and *** signifies p<0.001.



Box Cox transformation		$\lambda=-1.98$		
Anderson-Darling test for normality	p=0.007	Levene's test for equal variance	p=0.998	
3-way ANOVA with <i>post hoc</i> Tukey's (R ² =25.68%)	Degrees of freedom	F distribution	P value	Significance
Overall effect of time	2	1.41	0.249	
Overall effect of injection	3	1.74	0.164	
Overall effect of feed	1	1.06	0.307	
Interaction between time and injection	6	0.94	0.473	
Interaction between time and feed	2	0.05	0.947	
Interaction between injection and feed	3	0.67	0.574	
Interaction between all variables	6	0.86	0.525	

Figure 6.3: Expression of C3 in the gut of common carp (*C. carpio*) within a combined feeding and injection trial (n=120). Carp were fed either a 0% or 0.1% MacroGard® diet and were further divided into one of 4 treatment groups: no injection, PBS injection, MacroGard® injection, inactivated *A. salmonicida* injection. Carp were sampled 1, 8 and 15 days post injection (n=5). Bars represent average gene expression for each treatment group (n=6). Error bars are given as standard error of the mean. Grubbs test was utilised to identify any statistical outliers which were removed before any further statistical analysis. Four statistical outliers were identified: inactivated *A. salmonicida* injection 0.1% MacroGard® feed at time point day 1, PBS injection 0% MacroGard® feed at time point day 8, MacroGard® injection 0% MacroGard® feed at time point day 8, and PBS injection 0.1% MacroGard® feed at time point day 8. Data was checked for normality using the Anderson-Darling test on both raw data and residual data, and Levene's test for equal variance. Raw data was not normally distributed therefore was subject to a +1 followed by Box Cox transformation before further analysis. Details of the statistical analysis are shown beneath the graph. Degrees of freedom, F distribution and P values for overall significance are given with significant ($p < 0.05$) *post hoc* comparisons being listed. Both in the graph and table, * signifies $p < 0.05$, ** signifies $p < 0.01$, and *** signifies $p < 0.001$.



Box Cox transformation		$\lambda=0.09$		
Anderson-Darling test for normality	p=0.305	Levene's test for equal variance	p=0.769	
3-way ANOVA with <i>post hoc</i> Tukey's (R ² =29.03%)	Degrees of freedom	F distribution	P value	Significance
Overall effect of time	2	0.69	0.505	
Overall effect of injection	3	0.67	0.575	
Overall effect of feed	1	12.30	0.001	**
Interaction between time and injection	6	1.23	0.298	
Interaction between time and feed	2	3.87	0.024	*
Interaction between injection and feed	3	0.93	0.432	
Interaction between all variables	6	0.67	0.675	
<i>Post hoc</i> analysis				
Time and feed: day 1 between feeds		p=0.0146		*
Time and feed: day 8 between feeds		p=0.0433		*

Figure 6.4: Expression of IL-1 β in the gut of common carp (*C. carpio*) within a combined feeding and injection trial (n=120). Carp were fed either a 0% or 0.1% MacroGard® diet and were further divided into one of 4 treatment groups: no injection, PBS injection, MacroGard® injection, inactivated *A. salmonicida* injection. Carp were sampled 1, 8 and 15 days post injection (n=5). Bars represent average gene expression for each treatment group (n=6). Error bars are given as standard error of the mean. Grubbs test was utilised to identify any statistical outliers which were removed before any further statistical analysis. Data was checked for normality using the Anderson-Darling test on both raw data and residual data, and Levene's test for equal variance. Raw data was not normally distributed therefore was subject to a Box Cox transformation before further analysis. Details of the statistical analysis are shown beneath the graph. Degrees of freedom, F distribution and P values for overall significance are given with significant (p<0.05) *post hoc* comparisons being listed. Both in the graph and table, * signifies p<0.05, ** signifies p<0.01, and *** signifies p<0.001.

6.2.2.2 – Analysis of the gut microbiota population.

Analysis of total 16S rDNA expression.

Expression of the bacterial 16S rDNA gene (Figure 6.5) was significantly affected by time ($p < 0.001$) and a combination of time and feed group ($p = 0.001$), but not by injection group. 16S expression levels 1 day post injection were significantly lower than expression on days 8 and 15 post injection irrespective of feed group and injection treatment ($p < 0.0001$ in both cases). For all 4 injection treatment groups, there is a general trend of an increase in total 16S expression over time. Non injected negative controls showed a non-significant increase in 16S expression for the duration of the trial irrespective of diet. Similarly, PBS injected negative controls also showed a trend of increased 16S expression for the duration of the trial irrespective of diet, however expression in carp fed with the 0% MacroGard® diet was significantly higher ($p = 0.0006$) 15 days post injection compared to 1 day post injection. There was no significant difference in 16S expression between time points for carp that received the 0.1% MacroGard® diet and PBS injection. For both MacroGard® and inactivated *A. salmonicida* injected carp that were fed the 0.1% MacroGard® diet, 16S expression followed the same trend as both negative controls, i.e. an increase in expression over time. This increase was not significant for either injection treatment. For 0% MacroGard® fed carp that received an injection of either MacroGard® or *A. salmonicida*, however, a significant increase in expression was seen 8 days post injection in comparison to 1 day post injection (MacroGard® $p = 0.0017$, *A. salmonicida* $p = 0.0059$). Expression levels then decreased by 15 days post injection in both injection groups. Expression at day 15 in MacroGard® injected carp was still significantly higher than 1 day post injection ($p = 0.0306$).

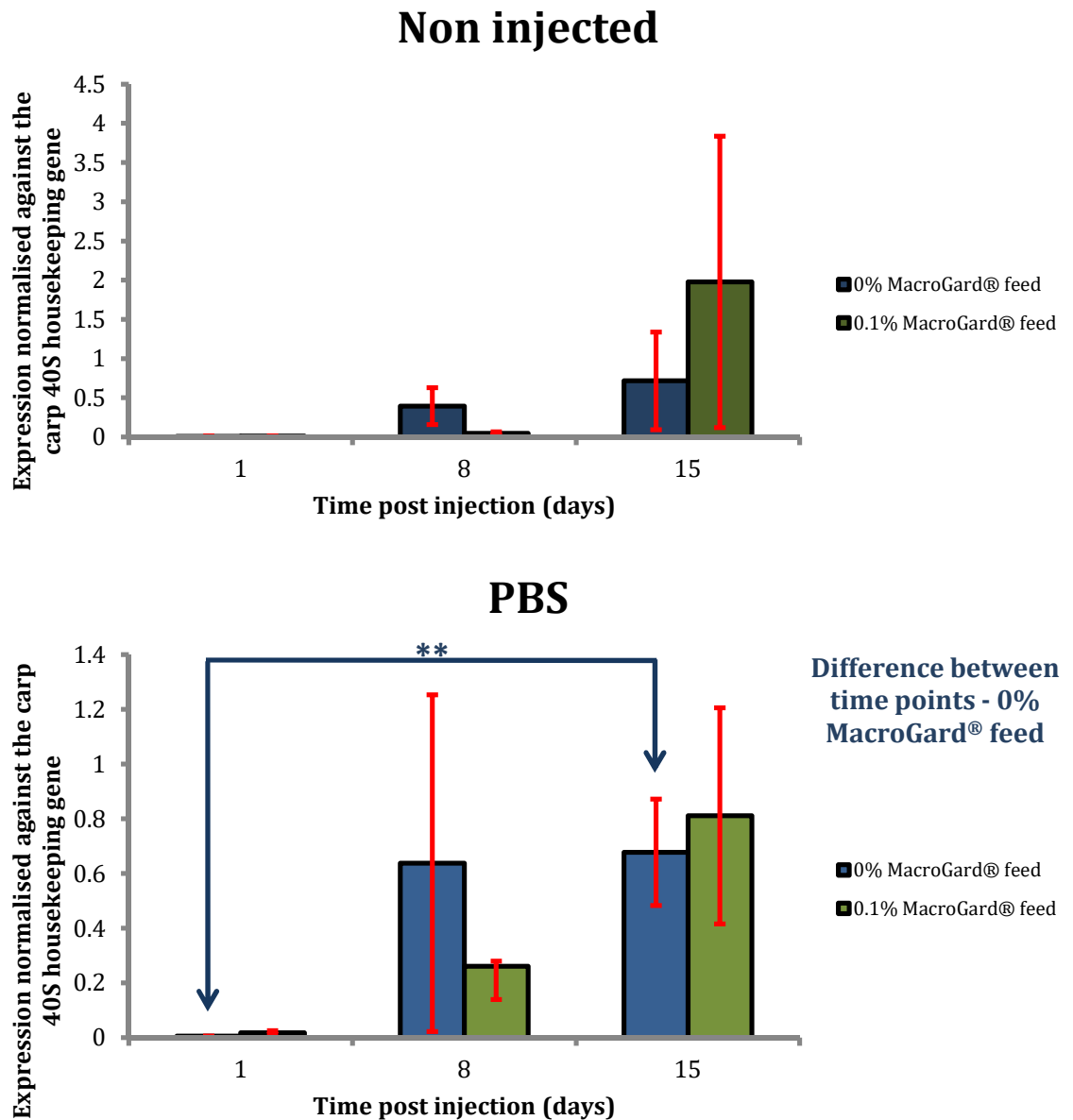


Figure 6.5: (part A) Expression of the bacterial 16S rDNA gene in the gut of common carp (*C. carpio*) within a combined feeding and injection trial (n=120). Carp were fed either a 0% or 0.1% MacroGard® diet and were further divided into one of 4 treatment groups: no injection, PBS injection, MacroGard® injection, inactivated *A. salmonicida* injection. Carp were sampled 1, 8 and 15 days post injection (n=5). Bars represent average gene expression for each treatment group (n=6). Error bars are given as standard error of the mean. Grubbs test was utilised to identify any statistical outliers which were removed before any further statistical analysis. Data was checked for normality using the Anderson-Darling test on both raw data and residual data, and Levene's test for equal variance. Raw data was not normally distributed therefore was subject to a Box Cox transformation before further analysis. Details of the statistical analysis are shown in part C of this figure. Degrees of freedom, F distribution and P values for overall significance are given with significant ($p < 0.05$) *post hoc* comparisons being listed. Both in the graph and table, * signifies $p < 0.05$, ** signifies $p < 0.01$, and *** signifies $p < 0.001$.

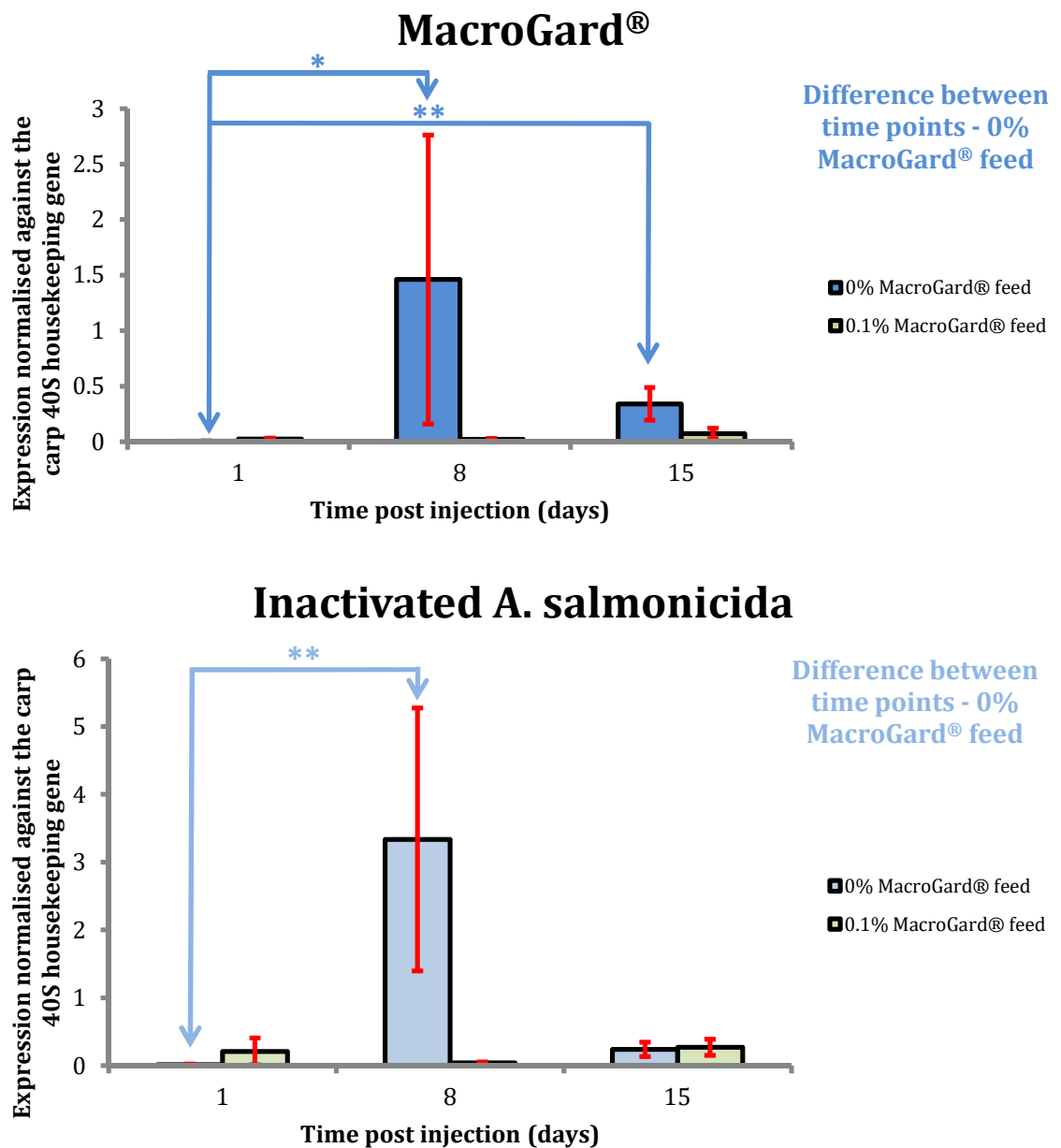


Figure 6.5: (part B) Expression of the bacterial 16S rDNA gene in the gut of common carp (*Cyprinus carpio*) within a combined feeding and injection trial (n=120). Carp were fed either a 0% or 0.1% MacroGard® diet and were further divided into one of 4 treatment groups: no injection, PBS injection, MacroGard® injection, inactivated *A. salmonicida* injection. Carp were sampled 1, 8 and 15 days post injection (n=5). Bars represent average gene expression for each treatment group (n=6). Error bars are given as standard error of the mean. Grubbs test was utilised to identify any statistical outliers which were removed before any further statistical analysis. Data was checked for normality using the Anderson-Darling test on both raw data and residual data, and Levene’s test for equal variance. Raw data was not normally distributed therefore was subject to a Box Cox transformation before further analysis. Details of the statistical analysis are shown in part C of this figure. Degrees of freedom, F distribution and P values for overall significance are given with significant (p<0.05) post hoc comparisons being listed. Both in the graph and table, * signifies p<0.05, ** signifies p<0.01, and *** signifies p<0.001.

Box Cox transformation		$\lambda=-0.24$			
Anderson-Darling test for normality	p=0.538	Levene's test for equal variance		p=0.959	
3-way ANOVA with <i>post hoc</i> Tukey's (R ² =56.19%)		Degrees of freedom	F distribution	P value	Significance
Overall effect of time		2	44.73	p<0.001	***
Overall effect of injection		3	0.68	0.565	
Overall effect of feed		1	0.00	0.968	
Interaction between time and injection		6	0.34	0.916	
Interaction between time and feed		2	7.47	0.001	**
Interaction between injection and feed		3	0.74	0.529	
Interaction between all variables		6	1.28	0.276	
<i>Post hoc</i> analysis					
Time: day 1 vs day 8				p<0.0001	***
Time: day 1 vs day 15				p<0.0001	***
Time and feed: day 0, 0% versus 0.1%				p=0.0346	*
0% feed: PBS day 1 vs PBS day 15				p=0.0006	***
0% feed: MacroGard® day 1 vs MacroGard® day 8				p=0.0306	*
0% feed: MacroGard® day 1 vs MacroGard® day 15				p=0.0017	**
0% feed: A. salmonicida day 1 vs A. salmonicida day 8				p=0.0059	**

Figure 6.5: (part C) Expression of the bacterial 16S rDNA gene in the gut of common carp (*Cyprinus carpio*) within a combined feeding and injection trial (n=120). Carp were fed either a 0% or 0.1% MacroGard® diet and were further divided into one of 4 treatment groups: no injection, PBS injection, MacroGard® injection, inactivated A. salmonicida injection. Carp were sampled 1, 8 and 15 days post injection (n=5). Bars represent average gene expression for each treatment group (n=6). Error bars are given as standard error of the mean. Grubbs test was utilised to identify any statistical outliers which were removed before any further statistical analysis. Data was checked for normality using the Anderson-Darling test on both raw data and residual data, and Levene's test for equal variance. Raw data was not normally distributed therefore was subject to a Box Cox transformation before further analysis. Details of the statistical analysis are shown in part C of this figure. Degrees of freedom, F distribution and P values for overall significance are given with significant (p<0.05) post hoc comparisons being listed. Both in the graph and table, * signifies p<0.05, ** signifies p<0.01, and *** signifies p<0.001.

Bacterial species richness and diversity in carp injected with MacroGard®.

Analysis of the bacterial species richness of the autochthonous population in the gut, i.e. gut wall samples, from both feed groups that were injected with MacroGard® at time points 8 and 15 days post injection (n=20), was performed using next generation sequencing technology. In total, 3 011 088 OTUs were obtained for all samples analysed and taxonomic identification was performed to the species level based upon 97% sequence similarity and a 0.8 confidence threshold. Cyanobacteria (2,736 sequences) and Propionibacteriaceae (1,111 sequences) sequences were discarded as contaminants as recommended by Dr. Ana Rodiles of Plymouth University (UK). This left a total of 1 288 902 identified OTUs. Data was analysed based upon overall presence/absence and percentage of sequences obtained per fish as an approximation of relative abundance.

Proteobacteria (61 genera) accounted for 70.1% of identified OTUs followed by Fusobacteria (27.2% - 3 genera) and Firmicutes (2.2% - 39 genera). The remaining genera belonged to the phylum Actinobacteria (17 genera), Bacteroidetes (9 genera), Spirochaetes (1 genus), Verrucomicrobia (1 genus) and 4 different OTUs that were unidentified at the phylum level. Time did not have an effect on the percentage relative abundance of any phylum, however feed had a significant effect on the presence of Fusobacteria and Proteobacteria. Fusobacteria was significantly lower (p=0.03) in 0.1% MacroGard® fed carp in comparison to those fed with the 0% MacroGard® diet. In contrast, there was a significantly higher proportion of Proteobacteria (p=0.03) in carp fed with the 0.1% MacroGard® diet.

At the class level within the Proteobacteria, the percentage relative abundance

of Alphaproteobacteria is significantly higher ($p=0.016$) in 0.1% MacroGard® fed carp whereas the proportion of Gammaproteobacteria is significantly lower ($p=0.009$) in these fish.

Table 6.2 lists each genus identified and the number of carp per group (by feed and time point) in which it is present at more than 0.1% of the OTUs within a fish. 25 OTUs were present in all fish analysed, however only 3 of these (*Cetobacterium*, *Phyllobacterium* and unknown Rhizobiales genus) were present in all fish with a relative abundance greater than 0.1%. 26 OTUs appeared only in the guts of carp fed with the 0% diet 8 days post injection, however only 5 of these (*Akkermansia*, unknown Acidimicrobiales, unknown Actinobacteria, unknown Deltaproteobacteria and unknown Firmicutes) were present with a relative abundance greater than 0.1%. No OTUs were found exclusively 15 days post injection in carp fed the 0% MacroGard® diet. For carp fed with the 0.1% MacroGard® diet, 1 OTU was found at each time point (unknown Sphingobacteriales at day 8 and unknown Lactobacillales at day 15). Neither of these were more than 0.1% of the relative abundance and both only appeared in 1 fish. Two OTUs were time point specific irrespective of feed (unknown Procabacteriaceae at 8 days post injection and an unidentified OTU 15 days post injection). In both cases, the OTU was found in 4 fish per time point (2 per treatment), however only 1 fish (0.1% feed, 15 days post injection) was shown to have greater than 0.1% relative abundance of the unidentified OTU. No OTU was present at both time points for carp fed with the 0% MacroGard® diet, however one OTU (unknown Actinomycetales) was found at both time points for 0.1% MacroGard® fed carp (1 fish per time point) and represented less than 0.1% of the OTUs identified per fish. 129 unique OTUs were found in at least 1 fish fed with the 0% MacroGard® 8

days post injection, 86 were found in carp fed the 0.1% MacroGard® diet 8 days post injection, 88 were found in carp fed with the 0% MacroGard® diet 15 days post injection, and finally 106 were found in carp fed the 0.1% MacroGard® diet 15 days post injection. Of these, 45%, 62%, 65% and 54% respectively were found in all 5 fish within each treatment group.

Table 6.2: (part A) Bacterial species richness within the gut of common carp (*C. carpio*) within a combined feeding and injection trial (n=20). Carp were fed either a 0% or 0.1% MacroGard® diet and, after 3 weeks of feeding, received an intraperitoneal injection of MacroGard®. Carp were sampled 8 and 15 days post injection (n=5) and gut samples analysed using High Throughput Sequencing. OTUs were analysed using the Greengenes database (DeSantis, Hugenholtz *et al.* 2006) and taxonomic identification was made at the genus level based upon 97% sequence similarity and a 0.8 confidence threshold. Data was first analysed based upon presence/absence and, secondly, presence/absence whereby presence is defined as representing more than 0.1% of OTUs obtained, i.e. relative abundance. When a genus is present in all carp within a treatment group, this is highlighted in bold red. When further analysis of a specific genus has been performed, the genus is highlighted in bold.

Time point	Number of fish where genus is present				Number of fish where genus represents >0.1% of sequences analysed (relative abundance)			
	Day 8		Day 15		Day 8		Day 15	
	0%	0.1%	0%	0.1%	0%	0.1%	0%	0.1%
Percentage MacroGard® in diet								
Unknown bacteria	2	3	1	4	1	-	-	-
Unknown Microthrixaceae	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Unknown Acidimicrobiales	1	-	-	-	1	-	-	-
Unknown Actinomycetales	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	-
<i>Corynebacterium</i>	4	4	2	4	-	-	1	-
<i>Cryocola</i>	2	2	2	4	-	-	-	-
<i>Microbacterium</i>	5	5	5	4	1	1	-	-
Unknown Microbacteriaceae	1	-	-	1	1	-	-	1
<i>Mycobacterium</i>	4	3	3	4	-	-	-	-
<i>Rhodococcus</i>	1	5	2	3	-	-	-	-
<i>Propionicimonas</i>	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
Unknown Nocardioideaceae	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
Unknown Pseudonocardiaceae	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Unknown Actinomycetales	4	5	5	5	1	-	-	1
<i>Bifidobacterium</i>	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>Collinsella</i>	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>Patulibacter</i>	5	5	5	5	1	5	2	4

Table 6.2: (part B) Bacterial species richness within the gut of common carp (*C. carpio*) within a combined feeding and injection trial (n=20). Carp were fed either a 0% or 0.1% MacroGard® diet and, after 3 weeks of feeding, received an intraperitoneal injection of MacroGard®. Carp were sampled 8 and 15 days post injection (n=5) and gut samples analysed using High Throughput Sequencing. OTUs were analysed using the Greengenes database (DeSantis, Hugenholtz *et al.* 2006) and taxonomic identification was made at the genus level based upon 97% sequence similarity and a 0.8 confidence threshold. Data was first analysed based upon presence/absence and, secondly, presence/absence whereby presence is defined as representing more than 0.1% of OTUs obtained, i.e. relative abundance. When a genus is present in all carp within a treatment group, this is highlighted in bold red. When further analysis of a specific genus has been performed, the genus is highlighted in bold.

Time point	Number of fish where genus is present				Number of fish where genus represents >0.1% of sequences analysed (relative abundance)			
	Day 8		Day 15		Day 8		Day 15	
	0%	0.1%	0%	0.1%	0%	0.1%	0%	0.1%
Percentage MacroGard® in diet	0%	0.1%	0%	0.1%	0%	0.1%	0%	0.1%
Unknown Actinobacteria	1	-	-	-	1	-	-	-
<i>Sediminibacterium</i>	2	-	1	1	-	-	-	-
<i>Paludibacter</i>	1	1	2	2	-	-	-	1
Unknown Rikenellaceae	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Unknown Rikenellaceae	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>Chryseobacterium</i>	5	5	5	5	-	-	-	-
Unknown Weeksellaceae	3	4	4	4	-	-	-	-
<i>Flavobacterium</i>	5	5	5	5	2	2	-	3
Unknown Sphingobacteriales	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>Sphingobacterium</i>	2	-	-	3	-	-	-	1
<i>Bacillus</i>	5	4	4	4	-	-	-	-
Unknown Bacillaceae	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
<i>Brevibacillus</i>	2	3	4	5	-	-	-	-
<i>Staphylococcus</i>	5	4	5	5	-	-	-	-
Unknown Bacillales	3	1	3	2	-	-	-	-
Unknown Gemellales	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
<i>Aerococcus</i>	1	-	2	2	-	-	-	-

Table 6.2: (part C) Bacterial species richness within the gut of common carp (*C. carpio*) within a combined feeding and injection trial (n=20). Carp were fed either a 0% or 0.1% MacroGard® diet and, after 3 weeks of feeding, received an intraperitoneal injection of MacroGard®. Carp were sampled 8 and 15 days post injection (n=5) and gut samples analysed using High Throughput Sequencing. OTUs were analysed using the Greengenes database (DeSantis, Hugenholtz *et al.* 2006) and taxonomic identification was made at the genus level based upon 97% sequence similarity and a 0.8 confidence threshold. Data was first analysed based upon presence/absence and, secondly, presence/absence whereby presence is defined as representing more than 0.1% of OTUs obtained, i.e. relative abundance. When a genus is present in all carp within a treatment group, this is highlighted in bold red. When further analysis of a specific genus has been performed, the genus is highlighted in bold.

Time point	Number of fish where genus is present				Number of fish where genus represents >0.1% of sequences analysed (relative abundance)			
	Day 8		Day 15		Day 8		Day 15	
	0%	0.1%	0%	0.1%	0%	0.1%	0%	0.1%
Percentage MacroGard® in diet	0%	0.1%	0%	0.1%	0%	0.1%	0%	0.1%
<i>Carnobacterium</i>	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
<i>Enterococcus</i>	4	4	4	5	1	-	-	-
<i>Vagococcus</i>	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
Unknown Enterococcaceae	4	2	4	3	-	-	-	-
Unknown Lactobacillaceae	1	2	-	1	-	-	-	1
<i>Lactobacillus</i>	5	5	5	5	1	-	3	2
<i>Pediococcus</i>	1	-	-	2	-	-	-	1
Unknown Leuconostocaceae	5	5	5	5	1	-	-	-
<i>Leuconostoc</i>	5	5	5	5	1	-	3	2
<i>Weissella</i>	5	5	5	5	1	-	-	1
Unknown Leuconostocaceae	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>Lactococcus</i>	4	4	5	5	-	-	-	1
<i>Streptococcus</i>	5	5	5	5	2	-	4	2
Unknown Streptococcaceae	5	5	5	4	-	-	-	-
Unknown Lactobacillales	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
Unknown Bacilli	4	4	5	4	-	1	1	-
Unknown Clostridiales	1	-	-	1	1	-	-	-

Table 6.2: (part D) Bacterial species richness within the gut of common carp (*C. carpio*) within a combined feeding and injection trial (n=20). Carp were fed either a 0% or 0.1% MacroGard® diet and, after 3 weeks of feeding, received an intraperitoneal injection of MacroGard®. Carp were sampled 8 and 15 days post injection (n=5) and gut samples analysed using High Throughput Sequencing. OTUs were analysed using the Greengenes database (DeSantis, Hugenholtz *et al.* 2006) and taxonomic identification was made at the genus level based upon 97% sequence similarity and a 0.8 confidence threshold. Data was first analysed based upon presence/absence and, secondly, presence/absence whereby presence is defined as representing more than 0.1% of OTUs obtained, i.e. relative abundance. When a genus is present in all carp within a treatment group, this is highlighted in bold red. When further analysis of a specific genus has been performed, the genus is highlighted in bold.

Time point	Number of fish where genus is present				Number of fish where genus represents >0.1% of sequences analysed (relative abundance)			
	Day 8		Day 15		Day 8		Day 15	
	0%	0.1%	0%	0.1%	0%	0.1%	0%	0.1%
Percentage MacroGard® in diet	0%	0.1%	0%	0.1%	0%	0.1%	0%	0.1%
Unknown Mogibacteriaceae	3	-	-	-	1	-	-	-
<i>Finegoldia</i>	2	1	4	4	-	-	-	1
Unknown Christensenellaceae	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>Christensenella</i>	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>Clostridium</i>	4	5	5	5	-	-	-	-
Unknown Clostridiaceae	5	5	5	5	-	-	1	1
<i>Epulopiscium</i>	3	2	4	3	-	-	-	-
Unknown Lachnospiraceae	5	3	4	5	2	-	-	-
<i>Oscillospira</i>	2	-	-	1	1	-	-	-
<i>Ruminococcus</i>	3	-	-	-	1	-	-	-
Unknown Ruminococcaceae	2	-	-	-	1	-	-	-
Unknown Clostridiales	5	5	5	5	3	1	3	2
<i>Eubacterium</i>	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>Catenibacterium</i>	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Unknown Firmicutes	1	-	-	-	1	-	-	-
<i>Cetobacterium</i>	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
<i>Psychrilyobacter</i>	3	-	-	1	-	-	-	-

Table 6.2: (part E) Bacterial species richness within the gut of common carp (*C. carpio*) within a combined feeding and injection trial (n=20). Carp were fed either a 0% or 0.1% MacroGard® diet and, after 3 weeks of feeding, received an intraperitoneal injection of MacroGard®. Carp were sampled 8 and 15 days post injection (n=5) and gut samples analysed using High Throughput Sequencing. OTUs were analysed using the Greengenes database (DeSantis, Hugenholtz *et al.* 2006) and taxonomic identification was made at the genus level based upon 97% sequence similarity and a 0.8 confidence threshold. Data was first analysed based upon presence/absence and, secondly, presence/absence whereby presence is defined as representing more than 0.1% of OTUs obtained, i.e. relative abundance. When a genus is present in all carp within a treatment group, this is highlighted in bold red. When further analysis of a specific genus has been performed, the genus is highlighted in bold.

Time point	Number of fish where genus is present				Number of fish where genus represents >0.1% of sequences analysed (relative abundance)			
	Day 8		Day 15		Day 8		Day 15	
	0%	0.1%	0%	0.1%	0%	0.1%	0%	0.1%
Percentage MacroGard® in diet	0%	0.1%	0%	0.1%	0%	0.1%	0%	0.1%
Unknown Fusobacteriaceae	4	1	3	1	1	-	-	-
Unknown bacteria	-	-	2	2	-	-	-	1
Unknown Caulobacteraceae	4	5	5	5	-	-	-	-
<i>Mycoplana</i>	2	3	5	4	-	-	-	-
<i>Phenylobacterium</i>	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Unknown Caulobacteraceae	4	5	5	5	-	2	1	2
<i>Afipia</i>	3	4	5	4	-	-	-	-
<i>Bradyrhizobium</i>	5	5	5	5	4	5	5	5
Unknown Bradyrhizobiaceae	4	5	5	5	1	3	1	3
Unknown Methylobacteriaceae	4	5	4	5	-	1	1	1
Unknown Methylobacteriaceae	3	4	4	2	-	-	-	-
<i>Mesorhizobium</i>	5	5	5	5	2	5	3	4
<i>Phyllobacterium</i>	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
Unknown Phyllobacteriaceae	5	5	5	5	4	5	5	5
<i>Labrys</i>	4	4	3	3	-	-	-	-
Unknown Rhizobiales	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
<i>Amaricoccus</i>	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 6.2: (part F) Bacterial species richness within the gut of common carp (*C. carpio*) within a combined feeding and injection trial (n=20). Carp were fed either a 0% or 0.1% MacroGard® diet and, after 3 weeks of feeding, received an intraperitoneal injection of MacroGard®. Carp were sampled 8 and 15 days post injection (n=5) and gut samples analysed using High Throughput Sequencing. OTUs were analysed using the Greengenes database (DeSantis, Hugenholtz *et al.* 2006) and taxonomic identification was made at the genus level based upon 97% sequence similarity and a 0.8 confidence threshold. Data was first analysed based upon presence/absence and, secondly, presence/absence whereby presence is defined as representing more than 0.1% of OTUs obtained, i.e. relative abundance. When a genus is present in all carp within a treatment group, this is highlighted in bold red. When further analysis of a specific genus has been performed, the genus is highlighted in bold.

Time point	Number of fish where genus is present				Number of fish where genus represents >0.1% of sequences analysed (relative abundance)			
	Day 8		Day 15		Day 8		Day 15	
	0%	0.1%	0%	0.1%	0%	0.1%	0%	0.1%
Percentage MacroGard® in diet	0%	0.1%	0%	0.1%	0%	0.1%	0%	0.1%
<i>Paracoccus</i>	1	-	-	1	1	-	-	-
<i>Phaeobacter</i>	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>Rhodobacter</i>	3	4	2	4	1	-	-	-
<i>Ruegeria</i>	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Unknown Rhodobacteraceae	2	3	3	4	-	-	-	-
Unknown Rhodospirillaceae	5	5	5	5	4	5	5	5
Unknown Pelagibacteraceae	2	2	5	2	-	-	-	-
<i>Novosphingobium</i>	1	1	2	2	-	-	1	-
<i>Sphingobium</i>	5	5	5	4	1	1	1	-
<i>Sphingomonas</i>	1	2	3	3	-	-	1	1
Unknown Sphingomonadaceae	5	5	5	5	-	2	2	2
Unknown Alcaligenaceae	2	-	1	1	-	-	-	-
Unknown Alcaligenaceae	2	-	2	1	-	-	-	-
<i>Burkholderia</i>	3	3	4	3	-	-	-	-
<i>Acidovorax</i>	3	4	5	5	-	-	-	-
<i>Alicyclophilus</i>	1	3	4	2	-	-	-	-
<i>Delftia</i>	1	1	2	2	-	-	-	-

Table 6.2: (part G) Bacterial species richness within the gut of common carp (*C. carpio*) within a combined feeding and injection trial (n=20). Carp were fed either a 0% or 0.1% MacroGard® diet and, after 3 weeks of feeding, received an intraperitoneal injection of MacroGard®. Carp were sampled 8 and 15 days post injection (n=5) and gut samples analysed using High Throughput Sequencing. OTUs were analysed using the Greengenes database (DeSantis, Hugenholtz *et al.* 2006) and taxonomic identification was made at the genus level based upon 97% sequence similarity and a 0.8 confidence threshold. Data was first analysed based upon presence/absence and, secondly, presence/absence whereby presence is defined as representing more than 0.1% of OTUs obtained, i.e. relative abundance. When a genus is present in all carp within a treatment group, this is highlighted in bold red. When further analysis of a specific genus has been performed, the genus is highlighted in bold.

Time point	Number of fish where genus is present				Number of fish where genus represents >0.1% of sequences analysed (relative abundance)			
	Day 8		Day 15		Day 8		Day 15	
	0%	0.1%	0%	0.1%	0%	0.1%	0%	0.1%
Percentage MacroGard® in diet	0%	0.1%	0%	0.1%	0%	0.1%	0%	0.1%
<i>Limnohabitans</i>	-	2	1	1	-	-	-	-
Unknown Comamonadaceae	4	5	5	4	-	-	-	-
<i>Polynucleobacter</i>	5	5	5	5	2	2	-	3
Unknown Oxalobacteraceae	4	5	4	2	2	-	-	-
Unknown Burkholderiales	1	-	2	3	-	-	-	-
Unknown Procabacteriaceae	2	2	-	-	-	-	-	-
Unknown Deltaproteobacteria	2	-	2	1	-	-	-	-
Unknown Desulfovibrionaceae	3	-	-	-	1	-	-	-
Unknown Deltaproteobacteria	1	-	-	-	1	-	-	-
<i>Arcobacter</i>	2	-	-	-	1	-	-	-
Unknown Campylobacteraceae	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Unknown Aeromonadales	5	5	5	5	5	1	4	2
<i>Shewanella</i>	5	5	5	3	1	-	2	-
<i>Escherichia</i>	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	1
<i>Pantoea</i>	2	3	4	2	-	-	-	-
<i>Plesiomonas</i>	3	3	4	4	-	-	-	-
<i>Trabulsiella</i>	3	5	5	4	-	-	-	-

Table 6.2: (part H) Bacterial species richness within the gut of common carp (*C. carpio*) within a combined feeding and injection trial (n=20). Carp were fed either a 0% or 0.1% MacroGard® diet and, after 3 weeks of feeding, received an intraperitoneal injection of MacroGard®. Carp were sampled 8 and 15 days post injection (n=5) and gut samples analysed using High Throughput Sequencing. OTUs were analysed using the Greengenes database (DeSantis, Hugenholtz *et al.* 2006) and taxonomic identification was made at the genus level based upon 97% sequence similarity and a 0.8 confidence threshold. Data was first analysed based upon presence/absence and, secondly, presence/absence whereby presence is defined as representing more than 0.1% of OTUs obtained, i.e. relative abundance. When a genus is present in all carp within a treatment group, this is highlighted in bold red. When further analysis of a specific genus has been performed, the genus is highlighted in bold.

Time point	Number of fish where genus is present				Number of fish where genus represents >0.1% of sequences analysed (relative abundance)			
	Day 8		Day 15		Day 8		Day 15	
	0%	0.1%	0%	0.1%	0%	0.1%	0%	0.1%
Percentage MacroGard® in diet								
Unknown Enterobacteriaceae	5	5	5	5	1	1	4	3
<i>Acinetobacter</i>	2	4	4	4	-	-	-	-
<i>Enhydrobacter</i>	5	5	5	5	2	5	5	4
<i>Psychrobacter</i>	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	-
<i>Pseudomonas</i>	4	5	5	5	-	-	1	-
<i>Pseudoalteromonas</i>	1	3	-	2	-	-	-	-
<i>Vibrio</i>	5	5	5	5	5	4	5	4
Unknown Vibrionales	5	5	5	5	2	-	4	3
Unknown Sinobacteraceae	5	4	4	4	-	-	-	-
<i>Nevskia</i>	1	2	2	1	-	1	-	-
<i>Stenotrophomonas</i>	5	5	5	5	2	4	2	4
Unknown Gammaproteobacteria	3	3	3	4	-	-	-	-
Unknown Brevinemataceae	3	4	5	2	-	-	-	-
Unknown bacteria	3	1	1	1	-	-	-	-
Unknown bacteria	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>Akkermansia</i>	1	-	-	-	1	-	-	-

Statistical analysis of percentage relative abundance data at different taxonomic levels.

Statistical analysis was performed on percentage relative abundance data on the taxonomic levels of class, order, family and genus when a classification was present in all 20 fish analysed (Table 6.3). For example, the class Gammaproteobacteria was found in all 20 carp therefore statistical analysis was performed, however the genus *Escherichia* was only present in 2 fish therefore statistical analysis was not performed. A 2-way ANOVA was performed when data was or could be normalised. In cases where this was not possible, the Scheirer-Ray-Hare test was utilised.

Out of the 48 data sets analysed across the taxonomic levels of class to genus, 22 showed statistically significant differences. 15 were due to an effect of diet, 4 were due to an effect of time, and 3 showed an interaction between diet and time point. Out of 9 classes, 3 were shown to be significantly different and in each case, based upon the data shown in Table 6.3, diet was determined to be the influential factor. The percentage relative expression of both Thermoleophilia and Alphaproteobacteria was significantly higher in 0.1% MacroGard® fed carp ($p=0.032$ and $p=0.016$ respectively) whereas in contrast, Gammoproteobacteria was significantly lower in 0.1% MacroGard® fed carp ($p=0.009$). Only 1 Thermoleophilia OTU was detected, however 26 unique OTUs were identified as Alphaproteobacteria and 18 unique OTUs were identified as Gammaproteobacteria.

The 26 Alphaproteobacteria OTUs were divided between 6 different orders of which 4 were present in all fish analysed. Of these 4, the percentage relative abundance of Rhizobiales and Rhodospirillales was both shown to be significantly

greater in carp fed with the 0.1% MacroGard® diet in comparison to carp fed with the 0% MacroGard® diet ($p=0.016$ and 0.032 respectively).

Within the order Rhizobiales, 5 families were detected but only 2 of these were found to be present in all fish. The relative abundance of the family Bradyrhizobiaceae was not influenced by diet, however there was a significant difference when comparing over time with a higher percentage relative abundance found 15 days post injection in comparison to 8 days post injection ($p=0.006$). 3 genera within this family were detected with only 1 genus being present in all 20 fish. As with Bradyrhizobiaceae, there was significantly more *Bradyrhizobium* present in samples taken on day 15 than on day 8 ($p=0.005$). The relative abundance of this genus was not significantly affected by diet. The other family present in all 20 fish within the order of Rhizobiales was Phyllobacteriaceae. Unlike Bradyrhizobiaceae, the percentage relative abundance was not affected by time but by diet ($p=0.016$). 3 different OTUs were detected at the genus level and all 3 showed a statistically significantly higher percentage relative expression in 0.1% MacroGard® in comparison to those fed with the 0% MacroGard® diet (*Mesorhizobium* $p=0.023$, *Phyllobacterium* $p=0.015$ and an unknown Phyllobacteriaceae $p=0.018$).

Within the class of Gammaproteobacteria, 18 OTUs were identified. This revealed 7 orders of which 5 were present in all carp analysed and 4 of these showed statistically significant differences. 1 genus belonging to the order Aeromonadales was identified and this was present in significantly lower amounts in carp fed with the 0.1% MacroGard® diet in comparison to those on the 0% MacroGard® diet ($p=0.002$). Within the order Enterobacteriales, only 1 family was identified (Enterobacteriaceae) in which 5 genera were found. Overall, there was a significantly

larger proportion of Enterobacteriales 15 days post injection in comparison to 8 days post injection ($p=0.019$) with no effect of diet. There was a significant difference in the percentage relative abundance of Pseudomonadales (2 families) with a p value of 0.029 for effect of feed and a value of 0.031 for the effect of an interaction between time and feed. Whilst there was no difference in the mean percentage relative abundance between feeds at day 15, there was significantly more in 0.1% MacroGard® fed carp 8 days post injection. Within the order of Pseudomonadales, the family Moraxellaceae showed the same pattern with a significant effect of feed ($p=0.025$) and an interaction between time and feed ($p=0.029$). Out of 3 genera within the Moraxellaceae family, only *Enhydrobacter* was present in all fish analysed. As with its order and family, the same pattern of percentage relative abundance was seen (feed $p=0.026$, interaction $p=0.033$). Finally, the order of Vibrionales, composing of 3 families, was significantly lower ($p=0.003$) in carp fed with the 0.1% MacroGard® diet in comparison to those fed with the 0% MacroGard® diet. Within this order, 3 families were identified, each containing 1 genus. The family Vibrionaceae and an unidentified Vibrionales were present in all fish analysed. The percentage relative abundance of both Vibrionaceae and the unknown Vibrionales was significantly lower ($p=0.002$ and $p=0.025$ respectively) in carp fed with the 0.1% MacroGard® diet in comparison to those on the 0% MacroGard® diet.

Table 6.3: (part A) Bacterial species diversity within the gut of common carp (*C. carpio*) within a combined feeding and injection trial (n=20). Carp were fed either a 0% or 0.1% MacroGard® diet and, after 3 weeks of feeding, received an intraperitoneal injection of MacroGard®. Carp were sampled 8 and 15 days post injection (n=5) and gut samples analysed using High Throughput Sequencing. OTUs were analysed using the Greengenes database (DeSantis, Hugenholtz *et al.* 2006) and taxonomic identification was made to the genus level based upon 97% sequence similarity and a 0.8 confidence threshold. Percentage abundance of each OTU relative to the total number of OTUs per fish was calculated at the levels of class, order, family and genus. Statistical analysis was performed when a level was present in all 20 carp. Data was tested for normality and homoscedasticity using the Anderson-Darling and Levene’s test respectively. Where data was not normally distributed, a BOX-COX transformation was performed (values of λ are given) and statistical differences analysed using a 2-way ANOVA with post hoc Tukeys. In instances where transformed data was still not normally distributed, data was analysed using the Scheirer-Ray-Hare test. Both in the graph and table, * signifies $p < 0.05$, ** signifies $p < 0.01$, and *** signifies $p < 0.001$.

Bacteria			BOX-COX (λ)	Statistical test	R ²	Significant differences			
Taxonomic level	Name	Sublevels				Time	Feed	Interaction	Difference
Class	Actinobacteria	2 orders	-0.09	2-way ANOVA	4.00%				
Order	Actinomycetales	8 families	-0.09	2-way ANOVA	4.10%				
Family	Microbacteriaceae	3 genera	0.11	2-way ANOVA	1.93%				
Class	Thermoleophilia	1 genus	0.05	2-way ANOVA	40.56%		p=0.032		↑ 0.1%
Class	Flavobacteriia	1 order	0.35	2-way ANOVA	12.69%				
Family	Flavobacteriaceae	1 genus	0.25	2-way ANOVA	20.69%				
Family	Weeksellaceae	2 genera		2-way ANOVA	31.84%				
Genus	<i>Chryseobacterium</i>			2-way ANOVA	33.32%	p=0.049			↑ day 15
Class	Bacilli	4 orders	-0.27	2-way ANOVA	25.60%				
Order	Lactobacillales	7 families	-0.29	2-way ANOVA	35.04%				

Table 6.3: (part B) Bacterial species diversity within the gut of common carp (*C. carpio*) within a combined feeding and injection trial (n=20). Carp were fed either a 0% or 0.1% MacroGard® diet and, after 3 weeks of feeding, received an intraperitoneal injection of MacroGard®. Carp were sampled 8 and 15 days post injection (n=5) and gut samples analysed using High Throughput Sequencing. OTUs were analysed using the Greengenes database (DeSantis, Hugenholtz *et al.* 2006) and taxonomic identification was made to the genus level based upon 97% sequence similarity and a 0.8 confidence threshold. Percentage abundance of each OTU relative to the total number of OTUs per fish was calculated at the levels of class, order, family and genus. Statistical analysis was performed when a level was present in all 20 carp. Data was tested for normality and homoscedasticity using the Anderson-Darling and Levene’s test respectively. Where data was not normally distributed, a BOX-COX transformation was performed (values of λ are given) and statistical differences analysed using a 2-way ANOVA with *post hoc* Tukeys. In instances where transformed data was still not normally distributed, data was analysed using the Scheirer-Ray-Hare test. Both in the graph and table, * signifies $p < 0.05$, ** signifies $p < 0.01$, and *** signifies $p < 0.001$.

Bacteria			BOX-COX (λ)	Statistical test	R ²	Significant differences			
Taxonomic level	Name	Sublevels				Time	Feed	Interaction	Difference
Family	Lactobacillaceae	3 genera	-0.25	2-way ANOVA	21.77%				
Genus	<i>Lactobacillus</i>		-0.25	2-way ANOVA	23.34%				
Family	Leuconostocaceae	4 genera	-0.18	2-way ANOVA	27.34%				
Genus	<i>Leuconostoc</i>			2-way ANOVA	24.16%				
Genus	<i>Weissella</i>		-0.09	2-way ANOVA	26.58%				
Family	Streptococcaceae	3 genera	-0.25	2-way ANOVA	29.17%				
Genus	<i>Streptococcus</i>			2-way ANOVA	28.18%				
Class	Clostridia	1 order	-0.11	2-way ANOVA	29.76%				
Order	Clostridiales	8 families	-0.11	2-way ANOVA	17.52%				
Family	Clostridiaceae	2 genera		2-way ANOVA	22.79%				

Table 6.3: (part C) Bacterial species diversity within the gut of common carp (*C. carpio*) within a combined feeding and injection trial (n=20). Carp were fed either a 0% or 0.1% MacroGard® diet and, after 3 weeks of feeding, received an intraperitoneal injection of MacroGard®. Carp were sampled 8 and 15 days post injection (n=5) and gut samples analysed using High Throughput Sequencing. OTUs were analysed using the Greengenes database (DeSantis, Hugenholtz *et al.* 2006) and taxonomic identification was made to the genus level based upon 97% sequence similarity and a 0.8 confidence threshold. Percentage abundance of each OTU relative to the total number of OTUs per fish was calculated at the levels of class, order, family and genus. Statistical analysis was performed when a level was present in all 20 carp. Data was tested for normality and homoscedasticity using the Anderson-Darling and Levene’s test respectively. Where data was not normally distributed, a BOX-COX transformation was performed (values of λ are given) and statistical differences analysed using a 2-way ANOVA with *post hoc* Tukeys. In instances where transformed data was still not normally distributed, data was analysed using the Scheirer-Ray-Hare test. Both in the graph and table, * signifies $p < 0.05$, ** signifies $p < 0.01$, and *** signifies $p < 0.001$.

Bacteria			BOX-COX (λ)	Statistical test	R ²	Significant differences			
Taxonomic level	Name	Sublevels				Time	Feed	Interaction	Difference
Family	Fusobacteriaceae	3 genera		2-way ANOVA	29.76%		p=0.030		↓ 0.1%
Genus	<i>Cetobacterium</i>			2-way ANOVA	29.52%		p=0.023		↓ 0.1%
Class	Alphaproteobacteria	6 orders		2-way ANOVA	33.89%		p=0.016		↑ 0.1%
Order	Caulobacterales	1 family 4 genera		2-way ANOVA	20.18%				
Order	Rhizobiales	5 families		2-way ANOVA	33.98%		p=0.016		↑ 0.1%
Family	Bradyrhizobiaceae	3 genera		2-way ANOVA	38.19%	p=0.006			↑ day 15
Genus	<i>Bradyrhizobium</i>			2-way ANOVA	40.18%	p=0.005			↑ day 15
Family	Phyllobacteriaceae	3 genera		2-way ANOVA	34.38%		p=0.016		↑ 0.1%
Genus	<i>Mesorhizobium</i>			2-way ANOVA	28.43%		p=0.023		↑ 0.1%
Genus	<i>Phyllobacterium</i>			2-way ANOVA	34.41%		p=0.015		↑ 0.1%

Table 6.3: (part D) Bacterial species diversity within the gut of common carp (*C. carpio*) within a combined feeding and injection trial (n=20). Carp were fed either a 0% or 0.1% MacroGard® diet and, after 3 weeks of feeding, received an intraperitoneal injection of MacroGard®. Carp were sampled 8 and 15 days post injection (n=5) and gut samples analysed using High Throughput Sequencing. OTUs were analysed using the Greengenes database (DeSantis, Hugenholtz *et al.* 2006) and taxonomic identification was made to the genus level based upon 97% sequence similarity and a 0.8 confidence threshold. Percentage abundance of each OTU relative to the total number of OTUs per fish was calculated at the levels of class, order, family and genus. Statistical analysis was performed when a level was present in all 20 carp. Data was tested for normality and homoscedasticity using the Anderson-Darling and Levene’s test respectively. Where data was not normally distributed, a BOX-COX transformation was performed (values of λ are given) and statistical differences analysed using a 2-way ANOVA with *post hoc* Tukeys. In instances where transformed data was still not normally distributed, data was analysed using the Scheirer-Ray-Hare test. Both in the graph and table, * signifies $p < 0.05$, ** signifies $p < 0.01$, and *** signifies $p < 0.001$.

Bacteria			BOX-COX (λ)	Statistical test	R ²	Significant differences			
Taxonomic level	Name	Sublevels				Time	Feed	Interaction	Difference
Genus	Unknown Phyllobacteriaceae			2-way ANOVA	34.10%		p=0.018		↑ 0.1%
Order	Rhodospirillales	1 family		2-way ANOVA	27.32%		p=0.032		↑ 0.1%
Order	Sphingomonadales	1 family 4 genera	0.06	2-way ANOVA	19.25%				
Class	Betaproteobacteria	2 orders		Scheirer-Ray-Hare	2.68%				
Order	Burkholderiales	5 families		Scheirer-Ray-Hare	2.68%				
Family	Oxalobacteraceae	2 genera	-0.09	2-way ANOVA	12.81%				
Genus	<i>Polynucleobacter</i>		-0.11	2-way ANOVA	8.01%				
Class	Gammaproteobacteria	7 orders	-0.31	2-way ANOVA	39.41%		p=0.009		↓ 0.1%
Order	Aeromonadales	1 genus		2-way ANOVA	48.84%		p=0.002		↓ 0.1%
Order	Enterobacteriales	1 family 5 genera		2-way ANOVA	33.82%	p=0.019			↑ day 15

Table 6.3: (part E) Bacterial species diversity within the gut of common carp (*C. carpio*) within a combined feeding and injection trial (n=20). Carp were fed either a 0% or 0.1% MacroGard® diet and, after 3 weeks of feeding, received an intraperitoneal injection of MacroGard®. Carp were sampled 8 and 15 days post injection (n=5) and gut samples analysed using High Throughput Sequencing. OTUs were analysed using the Greengenes database (DeSantis, Hugenholtz *et al.* 2006) and taxonomic identification was made to the genus level based upon 97% sequence similarity and a 0.8 confidence threshold. Percentage abundance of each OTU relative to the total number of OTUs per fish was calculated at the levels of class, order, family and genus. Statistical analysis was performed when a level was present in all 20 carp. Data was tested for normality and homoscedasticity using the Anderson-Darling and Levene’s test respectively. Where data was not normally distributed, a BOX-COX transformation was performed (values of λ are given) and statistical differences analysed using a 2-way ANOVA with *post hoc* Tukeys. In instances where transformed data was still not normally distributed, data was analysed using the Scheirer-Ray-Hare test. Both in the graph and table, * signifies $p < 0.05$, ** signifies $p < 0.01$, and *** signifies $p < 0.001$.

Bacteria			BOX-COX (λ)	Statistical test	R ²	Significant differences			
Taxonomic level	Name	Sublevels				Time	Feed	Interaction	Difference
Order	Pseudomonadales	1 genus	0.11	2-way ANOVA	45.96%		p=0.029	p=0.031	↑ 0.1% day 8
Family	Moraxellaceae	3 genera	0.07	2-way ANOVA	46.38%		p=0.025	p=0.029	↑ 0.1% day 8
Genus	Enhydrobacter		0.07	2-way ANOVA	45.61%		p=0.026	p=0.033	↑ 0.1% day 8
Order	Vibrionales	3 families	-0.16	2-way ANOVA	43.52%		p=0.003		↓ 0.1%
Family	Vibrionaceae	1 genus	-0.17	2-way ANOVA	45.01%		p=0.002		↓ 0.1%
Family	Unknown Vibrionales	1 genus	-0.02	2-way ANOVA	40.15%		P=0.025		↓ 0.1%
Order	Xanthomonadales	2 families		2-way ANOVA	22.50%				
Family	Xanthomonadaceae	1 genus		2-way ANOVA	20.49%				

Correlation between innate immune gene expression and size of the gut microbiota population.

As with the previous trials, expression of carp innate immune genes was compared to expression of the bacterial 16S rDNA gene, i.e. the total size of the bacteria population within the gut. Spearman's rank test (Table 6.4) showed a significant but weak positive correlation between the 16S rDNA gene and both iNOS ($\rho=0.252$, $p=0.003$) and IL-1 β gene expression ($\rho=0.284$, $p=0.001$). There was no correlation between 16S gene expression and C3 gene expression.

Table 6.4: The probability of a linear relationship between each of the immune genes analysed in the gut of common carp during a combination feeding and injection trial and the size of the bacterial population within the gut as measured by total 16s rDNA expression (n=120). Carp were fed either a 0% or 0.1% MacroGard® diet and were further divided into one of 4 treatment groups: no injection, PBS injection, MacroGard® injection, inactivated *A. salmonicida* injection. Carp were sampled 1, 8 and 15 days post injection (n=5). As data was not normally distributed, Spearman's test was used to calculate the correlation coefficient, i.e. how linear a correlation is, and the statistical significance. A rating as to how strong the correlation is (as described by Fowler *et al.* 1998) is also given with a coefficient of 0.00-0.19 being a very weak correlation, 0.20-0.39 being a weak correlation, 0.40-0.69 being a modest correlation, 0.70-0.89 being a strong correlation and 0.90-1.00 being a very strong correlation.

Gene	Correlation coefficient	P value	Correlation
iNOS	0.252	0.003	Weak (positive)
C3	-0.036	0.346	Very weak
IL-1 β	0.284	0.001	Weak (positive)

6.3 – Discussion.

The aim of this chapter was to ascertain if a combination of oral application and injection of MacroGard® would affect bacterial species diversity within the gut of carp. As shown in Chapter 4, the inclusion of MacroGard® into the diet at 0.1% w/w did not have any influence on bacterial species richness, however Chapter 5 showed injection of MacroGard® was capable of reducing the overall gut bacteria population size by more than 95% relative to non-injected controls. Kuhlwein *et al.* (2013) and Jung-Schroers *et al.* (2015) both showed that influencing the bacterial species richness within the gut is possible at higher concentrations of MacroGard®. It was hypothesised by the author that by reducing the overall bacteria population size, the lower concentration of orally applied MacroGard® may be great enough to influence species diversity, i.e. a reduction in population size should have a similar impact upon bacterial species diversity as an increase in MacroGard® concentration within the food. In addition to analysing bacteria population size and species diversity within the gut, iNOS, IL-1 β and C3 gene expression were analysed as markers of an immune response within the gut. iNOS gene expression was shown in chapter 5 to be increased after injection with MacroGard®, and IL-1 β and C3 gene expression have both been shown to be significantly influenced by MacroGard® feeding during bacterial infection conditions (Falco *et al.* 2012b, Pionnier *et al.* 2013).

iNOS gene expression in the gut did not appear to be influenced either by diet or by injection which supports the observations of (Miest *et al.* 2012) who noted a similar response in the gut of carp injected with live *A. salmonicida* 1 and 3 days post injection. However, they did show significant differences in the iNOS gene expression in the liver and spleen, which may indicate differential organ response, but also

highlighting a systemic response was present. Injection of zebrafish with a pathogenic strain of *A. hydrophila* did not induce an increase in iNOS gene expression in the gut in the first 6 hours post injection irrespective of whether the bacteria was alive or dead (Rodriguez *et al.* 2008). In a review by Wiegertjes *et al.* (2016) iNOS gene expression was proposed as a marker of the presence of M1 type macrophages which directly produce Reactive Oxygen Species (ROS), Nitric Oxide (NO) and Interferon (IFN)- γ , and activated the production of TH1 cells, all of which are involved in defence against bacterial infection. It is feasible, therefore, that the subsequent immune response caused by an increase in M1 cells, as indicated by iNOS gene expression, may have an impact upon the gut microbiota population. Whilst the lack of iNOS expression seen within the trial presented here does not exclude ROS, IFN- γ and T_H1 cell production from having occurred and having been involved in the reduction of the number of bacteria within the gut, it does indicate M1 cells may not have been involved. Analysis such as fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS) should be performed in order to determine if M1 cell presence alters within the gut after injection with MacroGard®, and to ascertain there is a correlation between a specific immune cell type and size of the bacterial population within the gut.

Feed, treatment or time did not appear to have an effect on C3 gene expression. Whilst Gomez *et al.* (2013) noted that there is a distinct lack of publications relating to C3 gene expression at mucosal sites, previous studies at Keele University have shown the complement system may be affected by β -glucan feeding (Pionnier *et al.* 2013, Pionnier *et al.* 2014). In contrast to the work presented here, Pionnier *et al.* (2013) showed a significant increase in C3 expression 3 and 5 days post injection with *A. salmonicida* and a difference in expression between the PBS

injected controls fed with both a 0% and 0.1% MacroGard® diet. Their 2014 paper also revealed a significant increase in C3 gene expression after LPS injection in non MacroGard® fed carp and a significant decrease in expression of this gene in fish fed with MacroGard®. Both these studies contrast with the data presented in this chapter and as discussed in Chapter 4, may result from different strains of carp (Shapira *et al.* 2005, Piackova *et al.* 2013, Adamek *et al.* 2014, Nath *et al.* 2014). Analysis of the effect of different potential probiotics in gnotobiotic cod larvae also revealed that C3 gene expression is not only influenced by the different species of probiotic, but also whether the bacteria are alive or dead (Forberg *et al.* 2012). Changes have been seen in both serum complement levels and the autochthonous gut microbiota population in hybrid tilapia after feeding with DVAQUA® although it is not known if they were correlated (He *et al.* 2009).

The higher levels of IL-1 β gene expression seen in all 0.1% MacroGard® fed carp at 1 and 8 days post injection suggest that MacroGard® feeding influences expression during a systemic immune response irrespective of injection treatment. In contrast, (Falco *et al.* 2012b) did not observe an effect of feeding MacroGard® supplemented diet to carp injected with *A. salmonicida* however, there was a significant increase in IL-1 β gene expression in 0% MacroGard® fed carp that were infected 6 hours post injection. In contrast to the data presented here, Lee *et al.* (2014) observed a decrease in IL-1 β expression in mice after oral application in Irritable Bowel Disease (IBD) models. Lee *et al.* (2014) attribute the recovery of the gut after artificial induction of IBD to the upregulation of anti-inflammatory genes such as IL-10 after β -glucan feeding. This could indicate the involvement of an inflammatory response in the reduction of the gut bacteria population size however,

the increase of IL-1 β expression seen in MacroGard® fed fish did not correlate with a smaller number of bacteria. Further studies should be performed analysing a wider range of pro-inflammatory and also anti-inflammatory markers to determine if it is indeed an inflammation response that is having an impact upon the gut bacteria population size.

Next generation sequencing analysis revealed an increase in Alphaproteobacteria which coincided with a decrease in Gammaproteobacteria in 0.1% MacroGard® fed fish. The presence of Alphaproteobacteria is interesting as they are typically associated with plant roots and soil rather than with gut environments. Three genera of the Alphaproteobacteria, *Bradyrhizobium*, *Phyllobacterium* and *Mesorhizobium*, are examples of nitrogen fixing bacteria which do not have any obvious biological role within the gut of fish. Wu *et al.* (2012) have identified a single *Phyllobacterium* sequence within a clone library of the gut of yellow catfish (*Pelteobagrus fulvidraco*), and *Bradyrhizobium* was identified through pyrosequencing in the gut of European sea bass (*Dicentrarchus labrax*), their function in the gut was however not ascertained (Carda-Dieguez *et al.* 2014). Alphaproteobacteria have also been found in the gut of a limited number of invertebrates such as earthworms, queen European honey bees (*Apis mellifera*) and land snails (*Helix pomatia*) (Depkat-Jakob *et al.* 2010, Nicolai *et al.* 2015, Tarpy *et al.* 2015). If analysis of mixed bacteria populations was still solely reliant upon culture based methodologies, a lack of identification of Alphaproteobacteria within the gut of fish species could be explained by the logic that media selected for the isolation of cultures would favour expected bacteria genera such as *Pseudomonas*, *Vibrio* or *Aeromonas*, and if it was not expected to find Alphaproteobacteria, selection media

specifically for these bacteria would not be used. Advances in molecular biology, however, eliminate the need for specific growth conditions and that identification of Alphaproteobacteria is still limited to 2 publications (Wu *et al.* 2012, Carda-Diequez *et al.* 2014) which indicates their presence within the intestinal system of ichthyo-models is not common. It is therefore likely that the abundance with which they are present within the gut of these carp is opportunistic rather than functional.

Further research into Alphaproteobacteria within the ENA database revealed over 250 sequences encoding for β -glucanases in genera such as *Phyllobacterium*, *Bradyrhizobium* and *Mesorhizobium*. This could account for the significantly higher predominance of *Phyllobacterium* and *Mesorhizobium* OTUs in 0.1% MacroGard® fed carp as the immunomodulant, being a carbohydrate (β -glucan), could be an additional food source.

The decrease in Gammaproteobacteria noted may result of being outcompeted for space (Moons *et al.* 2009) by the Alphaproteobacteria which represent the largest proportion of the bacteria identified within the gut samples. The Gammaproteobacteria comprise several pathogenic bacteria such as *A. salmonicida*, *Pseudomonas anguilliseptica* and *Vibrio anguillarum*, therefore a decrease in the overall presence of Gammaproteobacteria may be beneficial irrespective of whether this is a direct or indirect effect of MacroGard® itself.

As previously stated, the genera of *Phyllobacterium* and *Bradyrhizobium* have only been reported in the gut of fish by Wu *et al.* (2012) and Carda-Diequez *et al.* (2014) and there are no published examples of *Mesorhizobium* sp. in association with a fish species. This therefore leads to an interesting speculation on the source of these

bacteria. The carp used within this investigation were originally reared in outdoor ponds before being transferred into indoor aquaria. Carp are a naturally omnivorous species and eat plant debris within their environment (Barrington 1957), and thus *Phyllobacterium* sp. and *Mesorhizobium* sp. may enter the gut as part of the normal feeding process. The original body of water hosting the carp therefore needs to be analysed for the presence of these bacterial genera, although it should be noted that carp were maintained in indoor aquaria for 3 months before the start of the trial.

To conclude, the aim of this chapter was to ascertain if it was possible to influence the gut microbiota population within the gut of carp with a commercially viable concentration of MacroGard® in the feed, by combining oral application with injection of MacroGard®. The data presented here showed the bacterial species diversity within the gut of carp that received the 0.1% MacroGard® was indeed different to that found in 0% MacroGard® fed carp. An increase in the relative abundance of Alphaproteobacteria was seen in 0.1% MacroGard® fed carp which corresponded with a decrease in Gammaproteobacteria. Examples of Gammaproteobacteria include the fish pathogens *A. salmonicida*, *P. anguilliseptica* and *V. anguillarum*, therefore it was considered beneficial to have an overall smaller proportion of Gammaproteobacteria within the gut. This research highlights the potential benefits of combining injection and oral application of MacroGard® and future work should include ascertaining if it is possible to preferentially promote the growth of, for example, probiotic strains of bacteria such as *Lactobacillus* and *Bacillus* sp..

Chapter 7 – General discussion.

The aim of the study presented in this thesis was to determine if there was an influence of β -glucans on the relationship between the gut immune response of the common carp and its intestinal microbiota population. To this end, the results presented in chapters 4, 5 and 6 show that modulation of the intestinal microbiota population by MacroGard[®], a commercially available β -1/3,1/6-glucan, varies based upon method of application. Chapter 4 reveals that the oral application of MacroGard[®] at a concentration of 0.1% w/w within the feed does not alter the overall bacteria population size within the gut, nor does it have an effect upon bacterial species richness. Injection of MacroGard[®], however, has the ability to drastically reduce the bacterial population size within the gut 24 hours post injection, yet when carp are additionally maintained on a 0% MacroGard[®] diet, there is no effect seen on bacterial species richness (Chapter 5). Interestingly, bacterial species diversity within the gut is influenced when MacroGard[®] is applied in a combination of both oral application and intraperitoneal injection (Chapter 6). There is, however, only a limited amount of correlation seen between the expression of some of the immune genes analysed, i.e. the IL-1 β receptor, IL-1 β , bf/C2, ApoA1, HAMP1 and iNOS and the overall gut bacteria population size. It was essential prior to undertaking the experimentation to meet the whole thesis aim that optimisation of different methods of analysing bacteria, both *in vivo* and *in vitro* was carried out.

One of the major challenges faced when designing genus specific qPCR assays as a means of quantifying individual bacteria genera within a mixed population, such as those found within the gut (Jung-Schroers *et al.* 2015), is the amplification of non-

target DNA sequences. The specificity of genus specific qPCR primers that had been previously published (Thompson *et al.* 2004, Martinez-Puig *et al.* 2007, Adamek *et al.* 2013) was questioned when analysis of *Aeromonas*, *Vibrio* and *Lactobacillus* within a mixed population resulted in more than 100% of the total 16S expression as measured by “universal” primers, i.e. those designed to amplify all bacterial 16S sequences. Prior to initial use, all primer pairs were subject to analysis to determine specificity, which showed primer pairs would only amplify target sequences. This indicated the use of the primer BLAST search was not necessarily appropriate for the bacterial 16S rDNA gene.

The advantage of considering each nucleotide individually within a primer is that the effect of distance from the 3' end of the sequence can be taken into consideration. However, translating this into a numerical output and factoring in the different types of errors, i.e. mismatches or additions/deletions, in order to compare between different numbers of errors, types of errors and location of errors highlighted challenges with assigning values. The use of a score, such as ρ as calculated using Spearman's rank order correlation, would allow for further analysis to determine if the similarity of non-target sequences to PCR primers was statistically different from that between target sequences and primers. However, in addition to determining the most correct means of calculating ρ , i.e. accurate emphasis on mismatches and additions/deletions based upon *ex silico* data, any analysis must also factor in that both primers within a primer pair must successfully anneal to allow amplification. This is something that the initial models considered in Chapter 2 do not do, i.e. they consider each primer separately rather than as a pair. Desai *et al.* (2009) presented genus specific primers for 4 different bacterial genera (*Alcaligenes*,

Bacillus, *Stentrophomonas* and *Enterococcus*) where, whilst having 4 different forward primers, each assay uses the same “universal” reverse primer. It is especially important to ensure the forward primers only amplify target DNA sequence as the reverse primer will not distinguish between different bacterial genera. It highlights that primers must be considered as a pair rather than individually, as whilst one primer may anneal to many non-target sequences, the other primer within the pair must also anneal to the same sequence to result in amplification.

The final model presented in Chapter 2 is less sophisticated than the previous models in that it does not distinguish between types of error and the position of an error is based upon sections of the primer rather than an individual position. However comparison with *ex silico* data showed 21/24 predictions as to annealing to be accurate. Not all scores within the model were given a definitive classification of successful/unsuccessful annealing, i.e. a score of C, E, H or K was classified as unknown if successful annealing will occur. In order to increase the accuracy of the model, *ex silico* analysis should be performed using template DNA with scores of either C, E, H or K therefore allowing determination of whether these scores result in successful annealing. This will further improve the accuracy of the model before future use. As only one set of PCR conditions were utilised within this research, the effectiveness of the model, i.e. ability to accurately predict successful amplification of a DNA sequence, was only compared against this one set of conditions. Successful amplification, however, is not solely dependent upon the similarity of the primer to the template DNA. Temperature, concentration of template, MgCl₂, primer, and type of polymerase can all influence successful annealing (Harris 2013). Future work to improve this model should include testing accuracy under different PCR conditions. It

may be prudent to develop a second layer to the model, i.e. where the scoring of a primer based upon its similarity to a DNA sequence is fixed (number of errors in a specific location), whether or not the likelihood of a score resulting in successful amplification can be varied based upon the PCR conditions being used.

There are both advantages and disadvantages to the use of probability as a means of predicting the successful amplification of a DNA sequence that considers both primers within a pair. The probability of two separate events occurring simultaneously can be calculated which allows for the likelihood of both primers within a primer pair annealing to a DNA sequence being more easily determined. In comparison, the use of Spearman's ρ , as performed within this thesis, considers primers individually and did not take into consideration the fact that both primers must anneal in order for successful amplification to occur. The main disadvantage to probability, however, is that only a small proportion of the sequence data available through databases, such as the ENA database, were analysed. Where statistical analysis gives a more fluid result, i.e. at a confidence level of 0.05, if you were to repeat a trial 20 times with 20 independent data sets, you would expect the same outcome in 19 trials (95%). Probability, however, considers data more rigidly and any additional data analysed would inevitably alter the probability value obtained. Whilst this may not appear to strongly impact the outcome when determining the probability of an individual primer successfully annealing, this could have a larger effect upon the overall probability of annealing when both primers are considered together. Further refinement of the model should take both approaches, i.e. based upon probability and statistical analysis, into consideration.

The overall conclusion from Chapter 2, however, is that the model worked as a

good predictor as to primer specificity, i.e. annealing only to target DNA sequences. Total 16S and genus specific 16S PCR primers used throughout Chapters 4, 5 and 6 were analysed using this model and where initial trials showed the relative proportion of only 3 bacterial genera to be greater than 100%, the summation of the individual genera analysed in Chapter 4 did not exceed 50% of the total 16S expression.

The aim of Chapter 3 was to explore different methods of analysing bacterial growth using *in vitro* models with all methods analysed being subsequently utilised in Chapter 4. Whilst equipment is available to measure bacteria colony sizes, the prohibitive costs of these lead to the development of the image analysis program PENGUIN. This proved to be a cheap, accurate method of measuring bacteria colony sizes.

Whilst PENGUIN was shown to be highly accurate and reliable, the main challenge faced with this method of analysis was ensuring the consistency of the conditions used for analysis. Lighting proved the most difficult factor to control with even different models of the same light bulb resulted in different values of power, i.e. different numbers of comparisons between “Before” and “After” images. Further work in developing this method of analysis should take into consideration variations in lighting thereby allowing its use in a broader range of conditions.

Chapter 4 is the first of three experimental chapters and discussed the impact of direct exposure of the gut microbiota population to MacroGard® through *in vitro* studies and through an oral application *in vivo* trial. Although some bacteria possess β -glucanases and are capable of utilising β -glucans as a substrate (Planas 2000),

MacroGard® showed only a slight impact upon bacterial growth *in vitro*. The number of colonies of *B. subtilis* produced after incubation within a nutrient broth containing 0.01% MacroGard® and the size of ISO 20 colonies after incubation on MacroGard® embedded nutrient agar plates were both reduced indicating a reduction in bacterial survival. Feeding with MacroGard® had no effect upon bacterial species richness or overall bacteria population size within the gut of carp. This can be considered as a positive as this means there was no increase in different potential pathogens, i.e. feeding MacroGard® is unlikely influence the gut microbiota in favour of bacterial disease conditions.

Similarly, whilst injection resulted in changes in the overall bacterial population size, there were no differences in bacterial species richness between the different injection treatments, although a cause of the reduction of the gut microbial population was not apparent. Where the initial trial showed injection with LPS and MacroGard® drastically reduced the bacterial population size, carp injected with PBS did not show this same reduction when compared to non-injected controls. Similarly, the large injection trial revealed the same reduction in gut bacteria population size in MacroGard® injected carp in comparison to non-injected controls. However in contrast, within the combination feeding and injection trial, there was no difference in gut bacteria population size when comparing MacroGard® and PBS injected carp. This is the first known report of the effect of injection of any compound upon bacterial population size within the gut of a fish with previous studies only comparing bacterial species richness (Liu *et al.* 2008, Liu *et al.* 2015). Additionally, no reports of comparable studies could be found in mammalian models therefore more research must be performed to fully elucidate the cause of the reduction in bacterial numbers.

The results of the combination feeding and injection trial initially indicated that handling may have had an effect upon the gut bacterial population, i.e. non handled controls showed the same smaller overall population size on day 1 in comparison to 8 and 15 days post injection as occurred in all injected treatment groups. Stress caused by handling is known to affect immune responses in fish including inhibition of pro-inflammatory cytokines and phagocytosis, lymphocyte proliferation and the production of anti-inflammatory cytokines caused by increase in corticosteroids including cortisol (Tort 2011). Indeed, feeding fish with immunomodulants during periods of stress, i.e. grading, movement between fresh and saltwater, and vaccination, has been shown to be effective in reducing outbreaks of disease (Bricknell and Dalmo 2005). From this, it was considered that handling stress may be involved in causing the much smaller gut bacteria population sizes seen in carp that were injected in comparison to non-injected fish. However, a direct comparison of the two methods used, i.e. instantly sampling a fish versus handling, returning to the tank overnight and sampling after 24 hours, showed no statistical difference in gut bacteria population size. This lead to the conclusion that the reduction in gut bacteria population size may not be as a result of handling stress.

A much more comprehensive method of analysis of the gut microbiota population was employed in Chapter 6 (Next Generation Sequencing) to study the bacteria within the gut of carp than used in Chapter 5 (PCR-Denaturing Gradient Gel Electrophoresis). Interestingly, even though the sensitivity of NGS is much greater than that of PCR-DGGE, a similar number of OTUs were identified as representing >0.1% of the percentage relative abundance with this method as were detected by PCR-DGGE which has a higher detection limit of 1% percentage relative abundance

(Harris 2013). The obvious advantages NGS has over PCR-DGGE, however, are that identification of the OTUs was performed whereas only identification of different OTUs was performed with the method of PCR-DGGE, and quantitative analysis was performed where only qualitative analysis was possible when using PCR-DGGE. This allowed for the identification of both potential pathogens and their proportion within the gut bacterial population, and revealed the presence of Alphaproteobacteria in proportions that have never before been reported in fish. At this point, it is only possible to speculate as to the presence of *Phyllobacterium*, *Mesorhizobium* and other Alphaproteobacteria within the gut of carp injected with MacroGard® in the combination feeding and injection trial. To date, there are only two examples of Alphaproteobacteria being found in the gut of fish. Wu *et al.* (2012) found Bradyrhizobiaceae and Phyllobacteriaceae in the gut of yellow catfish from Niushan Lake in Central China, and Carda-Dieguez *et al.* (2014) observed Bradyrhizobiaceae in the gut of sea bass fed diets containing β -glucans. Given Alphaproteobacteria such as *Phyllobacterium*, *Mesorhizobium* and *Bradyrhizobium* are typically associated with plant systems and soil (Vacheron *et al.* 2013, Laranjo *et al.* 2014), it would make sense that if they were a common component of the gut microbiota of fish, they would not have historically been identified using culture based methods of analysis which will favour the bacterial species expected to be found (Mackie and McCartney, 1956). Recent advances in technology, however, eliminate this need for favouritism (Nayak 2010) and, as such, if Alphaproteobacteria were a common feature in intestinal gut microbiota, logically more examples of their presence would be documented. As this is not the case, this indicates the presence of Alphaproteobacteria seen within the combination feeding and injection trial is likely to be opportunistic rather than

typical. As discussed in Chapter 6, Alphaproteobacteria are able to utilise β -glucans as a potential food source, i.e. they have the sequences for β -glucanases within their genome (ENA database). The significantly higher proportion of Alphaproteobacteria found in carp fed with the 0.1% MacroGard[®] diet is likely due to a higher availability of food that only bacteria with β -glucanases can utilise in comparison to carp fed with the 0% MacroGard[®] diet, i.e. a food source that is unique to these bacteria. Similarly, Carda-Dieguez *et al.* (2014) observed a higher proportion of Bradyrhizobiaceae in diets containing β -glucan in comparison to the diet that had no β -glucan. Due to the limited number of examples of the presence of Alphaproteobacteria within the gut of fish, there is no data available indicating if there is a direct contribution towards fish health. In fish, probiotic species such as *Lactobacillus* sp. and *Bacillus* sp. are associated with good gut health and improved disease resistance (Merrifield *et al.* 2010, Romero *et al.* 2014) however in human models, *Bifidobacterium* sp. are considered to be the promoters of gut health (Nayak 2010a). Further analysis will be required to determine if there are health benefits to having Alphaproteobacteria within the fish gut microbiota population, i.e. are they capable of positively influencing the immune response, defending against invading pathogens and do they aid digestion? The reduction in potential pathogenic bacterial genera seen in conjunction with a higher presence of Alphaproteobacteria after feeding with MacroGard[®], however, indicates they were able to outcompete other bacteria in a way that was potentially beneficial to the carp.

One of the aspects of this thesis was to study the relationship between the gut microbiota population and the immune response of the gut of common carp. The increased interest in the immune capability of the gut of fish (Rombout *et al.* 2011,

Gomez *et al.* 2013) has been driven by a need to find alternative means of improving fish health and resistance to disease to the liberal application of antibiotics. The gut microbiota is essential in the initial development of the host's immune response (Nayak 2010a) and several studies have shown that the immune status of the gut of carp can be affected by infection, e.g. *Aeromonas salmonicida* and CyHV-3 infections have both been shown to influence cytokine and iNOS expression (Falco *et al.* 2012b, Syakuri *et al.* 2013), and *Aeromonas salmonicida* additionally influenced the expression of c1rs, bf/C2, MASP2, i.e. markers of three of the complement pathways, and C3 (Pionnier *et al.* 2013).

It is however only recently that the involvement of the gut microbiome has been considered in conjunction with the immune status of the gut, and there are a limited number of studies of how the whole system i.e. microbiome and gut immune responses interact in either a positive or negative way. The effects of oral application of different dietary ingredients upon the immune response and the microbiota population have been investigated in turbot (β -glucan), red sea bream (*Lactobacillus rhamnosus* and *Lactobacillus lactis*), juvenile beluga sturgeon (*Enterococcus faecium* and FOS), rainbow trout (plant and marine based diets) and hybrid tilapia (soybean meal), however none of these compare immunity against the microbiota population (Ingerslev *et al.* 2014, Zhang *et al.* 2014, Akrami *et al.* 2015, Dawood *et al.* 2016a, Miest *et al.* 2016). Systemic immunity and the gut microbiota of both turbot (Miest *et al.* 2016) and red sea bream (Dawood *et al.* 2016a) were shown to be influenced by their respective diets, however it is not known if this is directly related. In contrast, whilst the number of LAB within the gut of beluga sturgeon did not change after feeding with *Enterococcus faecium* and FOS, the number of leucocytes and

haemoglobin concentration in the blood was increased indicating there is no relationship between LAB counts and these two immune parameters (Akrami *et al.* 2015). The studies in rainbow trout (Ingerslev *et al.* 2014) and hybrid tilapia (Zhang *et al.* 2014) both focused upon gut immunity and, similar to turbot and red sea bream, changes were seen in both the gut microbiota and the immune response yet, again, it cannot be said if these are directly related to each other.

In contrast, Tapia-Paniagua *et al.* (2015) performed a direct comparison of immune genes in the liver and the whole gut microbiota of Senegalese sole using Principle Component Analysis, and showed a negative correlation between the gut microbiota and expression of CASPASE-6 and NAPDH oxidase. To date, this is the only published example of a statistical comparison of an immune response and whole gut microbiota population in a fish model. The data presented in this thesis was, however, analysed considering each gene individually, similar to the studies presented by Gorgoglione *et al.* (2013, 2016) who compare specific pathogen load against immunity. Statistically, it was more appropriate to perform analysis on individual genes in this thesis due to the assumption of PCA as defined by Dytham (2003), i.e. “[data] is continuous and normally distributed”, being violated and raw data required different transformations in order to achieve normality. Any conclusions drawn from PCA analysis would not be accurately substantiated.

Gorgoglione *et al.* (2013, 2016) showed that correlations occurred between specific pathogen load and immune gene expression in *Tetracapsuloides bryosalmonae* versus AMP and pro-inflammatory cytokine expression in rainbow trout, and viral haemorrhagic septicaemia virus or *Yersinia ruckeri* versus novel chemokine expression in brown trout respectively. These correlations were of a

greater magnitude than those observed in this thesis between total bacteria population size and the IL-1 β receptor, IL-1 β , iNOS, ApoA1, and HAMP2. All these studies, however, show varying levels of correlation of the different immune genes against the pathogenic/microbiota component. This highlights that whilst it may be prudent to consider the immune response as a whole, as done by Tapia-Paniagua *et al.* (2015) through their use of PCA, focusing on individual immune responses can be as important. The genes selected for study within this thesis were done so based upon their activity against specifically bacteria, therefore it was expected that a greater level of correlation between their expression and the gut microbiota population as a whole would be seen than actually occurred. Additionally, the lack of consistency in the correlations between the microbiota and individual immune genes when comparing the different trials indicates the interaction between the overall gut immune response and the microbiota is much more complex than linear relationships with individual genes. Further analysis in regards to studying the relationship within the holobiont, i.e. carp and its associated microbiota population, should consider a much larger range of bactericidal immune genes and statistical analysis should, if possible, be performed on both an individual gene and overall immune response level.

What Gorgoglione *et al.* (2013, 2016) and Tapia-Paniagua *et al.* (2015) show with their statistical analysis is the functional relationship between the immune response and the pathogenic/microbial counterpart in their studies. Tapia-Paniagua *et al.* (2015) describe lower expression of NADPH, which is involved in the production of ROS, within the liver of Senegalese sole treated with the antibiotic oxytetracycline (OTC) combined with the probiotic *Shewanella putrefaciens*, in

comparison to OTC alone. Their conclusion is that the probiotic “might exert a protective effect on the hepatocytes” as ROS are capable of destroying host cells in addition to invading pathogens (Dahlgren and Karlsson 1999). Inversely, Gorgoglione *et al.* (2013, 2016) show positive correlations between the pro-inflammatory immune response and the presence of pathogens. Within this thesis, overall gut bacteria population size most commonly negatively correlates with gene expression, i.e. with the IL-1 β receptor, Muc2, and CRP2 in the feeding trial, and bf/C2, ApoA1 and HAMP2 within the large injection trial. This higher level of immune gene expression correlating with lower bacteria numbers within the gut does indicate these genes are important in determining the overall gut bacteria population size, however the lower values of ρ for all of these genes implies they may not be individually responsible, but likely work together. Similarly to Gorgoglione *et al.* (2013), who identified a positive correlation between the presence of *Tetracapsuloides bryosalmonae* and IL-1 β expression in brown trout, a positive correlation between gut microbiota population size and IL-1 β expression in both the feeding trial and the combination feeding and injection trial presented in this thesis. In all cases, however, correlation was relatively low.

The overall conclusion of this thesis is that MacroGard[®] is capable of influencing both the expression of innate immune genes within the gut of carp and also the gut microbiota population however the method of application is critical in this modulation. Oral application of MacroGard[®] at a concentration of 0.1% within the feed alone did not show an effect upon the gut microbiota or immune gene expression yet injection was capable of influencing both. Combining both of these methods of application was able to influence bacterial species diversity within the gut

where only injection of MacroGard® did not. It is not currently known if the significant increase in the presence of Alphaproteobacteria within the gut is directly beneficial to the health of the carp, however the corresponding decrease in the presence of genera such as *Aeromonas* and *Vibrio*, both of which contain examples of fish pathogens (Siwicki *et al.* 1994, Xie *et al.* 2007) can be seen as a positive effect of modulation. Influencing the gut microbiota in favour of a healthier host is a growing field of research and practice (Merrifield *et al.* 2010, 2014), however, many studies as to the effects of pre and probiotics last upwards of 8 weeks (Hartviksen *et al.* 2014, Sun *et al.* 2014, Estruch *et al.* 2015) which may have financial implications when translated to field trials or use within aquaculture, i.e. the cost of feeding specialist diets for long periods of time could become inhibitory when the volume required is scaled up to meet the demands of fisheries. Chapter 6, however, shows modulation of the gut microbiota occurred within a time frame of 15 days, i.e. a much shorter time span than seen in other studies. Further work must be performed in order to determine the stability of these changes in the microbiota and, indeed, as to the effect of Alphaproteobacteria within the fish gut. As an initial study, however, it points in the direction of utilising pre-existing vaccination programs within aquaculture in conjunction with pre and probiotic feeding regimes in order to decrease the time required to generate a “healthy” microbiota population. This could result in a positive economic impact if shorter feeding periods are required to achieve a healthy microbiota, i.e. a reduction in the amount of a specific feed ingredient required which would reduce feeding costs.

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Appendix 1.

Accession numbers for the 16S rDNA sequences analysed in Chapter 2 from different bacterial families and genera.

Aeromonas sp.

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Accession numbers for the 16S rDNA sequences analysed in Chapter 2 from different bacterial families and genera.***Aeromonas* sp.**

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Accession numbers for the 16S rDNA sequences analysed in Chapter 2 from different bacterial families and genera.***Aeromonas* sp.**

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***Bacillus* sp.**

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Accession numbers for the 16S rDNA sequences analysed in Chapter 2 from different bacterial families and genera.

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Accession numbers for the 16S rDNA sequences analysed in Chapter 2 from different bacterial families and genera.***Bacillus* sp.**

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***Enterobacteriaceae* sp.**

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Accession numbers for the 16S rDNA sequences analysed in Chapter 2 from different bacterial families and genera.**Enterobacteriaceae sp.**

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Accession numbers for the 16S rDNA sequences analysed in Chapter 2 from different bacterial families and genera.

Enterobacteriaceae sp.

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Accession numbers for the 16S rDNA sequences analysed in Chapter 2 from different bacterial families and genera.

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Accession numbers for the 16S rDNA sequences analysed in Chapter 2 from different bacterial families and genera.***Lactobacillus* sp.**

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***Pseudomonas* sp.**

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Accession numbers for the 16S rDNA sequences analysed in Chapter 2 from different bacterial families and genera.***Pseudomonas* sp.**

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AM269470 AM269522 AM284989 AM285005 AM285021 AM285023 AJ002801 AJ002813 AJ132994
AJ237965 AM113740 AM113741 AM286272 U26414 Y18235 AM689940 U26417 U26418 U26419
U26420 AM689985 AM690033 AB073312 AF058286 EF426771 EU224277 U63901 U63902 U63903
U63904 AJ306832 AJ306834 U63905 U63906 U63907 U63908 U63909 AJ548920 AJ567594
AJ576114 AJ576116 AJ577093 AM167976 AM421033 AM421034 AM421035 AM421036 AM421037

Accession numbers for the 16S rDNA sequences analysed in Chapter 2 from different bacterial families and genera.***Pseudomonas* sp.**

AM421136 AM421137 AM421138 AM421139 AM421144 AM421145 AM421156 AM421157
AM421158 AM421159 AM421160 AM421161 AM421162 AM421163 AM421164 AM421165
AM421180 AM421181 AM421182 AM421183 AM421196 AM421197 AM421198 AM421199
AM421200 AM421201 AM421202 AM421203 AM421204 AM421205 AM421206 AM421207
AM421208 AM421209 AM421210 AM421211 AM421212 AM421213 AM421214 AM421215
AM421217 AM421218 AM421219 AM421220 AM421221 AM421222 AM421223 AM421224
AM421225 AM421226 AM421227 AM421231 AM421235 AM421238 AM421239 AM421240
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AF448350 AF448351 AF448352 AB257323 AY063234 AY063235 AY074894 AM403600 AM403604
AM403615 AM403625 AM412165 AJ968720 AJ516053 AJ536421 AM710608 AJ842221 AJ842224
AJ842238 AJ842243 AJ842244 AJ842246 AJ842249 AJ842250 AJ842251 AJ842253 AM000005
AM000006 AM000020 AJ291839 AJ291840 AJ291841 AJ291844 AJ291845 AJ344482 AJ344484
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AB247198 AB247199 AB247200 AB247201 AB247202 AB247203 AB247204 AB247218 AB302401
AB302402 AB494443 AB494444 AB494445 AB543806 DQ071557 DQ071559 DQ073449 DQ073450
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HQ840718 HQ848377 HQ874650 HQ880245 KC845571 FJ705888 FM203408 FN996012 FR820588
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EF538425 EF552367 EF552368 EU037096 EU194235 EU194236 EU194237 EU194238 EU194239
EU257454 EU257455 EU350370 EU534410 EU599569 EU661864 JQ669958 JQ691692 JQ691693
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JQ691704 JQ691705 JQ691707 JQ691708 JQ691709 JQ839149 JX010738 GU220068 HF545840
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KC495572 KC505184 KC570343 KC602116 KC631644 KC633744 KC660988 KC663615 KC663616
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KC699541 KC699542 KC699543 KC762216 AF038653 AF074383 EU834943 EU849119 EU930815
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FJ534557 FJ534640 FJ556919 FJ605510 HM014234 HM036358 HM036359 HM101170 HM150717
HM190218 FR668235 FR695882 FR695883 FR695884 HM190219 HM190220 HM190221 HM190222
HM190223 HM190224 FR695885 FR695886 HM224410 HM245963 HM481449 HM582425 KC83432

Accession numbers for the 16S rDNA sequences analysed in Chapter 2 from different bacterial families and genera.***Pseudomonas* sp.**

HM582426 HQ123430 HQ123431 HQ271083 HQ271084 HQ283403 HQ324110 HQ660081 HQ697262
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JF422069 JF495456 KC794741 KC796784 KC796785 KC796786 KC796787 KC796788 KC796789
KC796790 KC796791 KC796792 KC796793 KC796794 KC820813 KC834302 KC834304 KC834305
KC834315 KC834317 KC834322

***Vibrio* sp.**

X99762 L05178 AJ582807 AJ582810 AB038030 AJ316187 AJ515218 AJ515219 AJ515220 AJ515221
AJ515222 AJ515223 AJ515224 AJ515225 AJ515226 AJ515227 AJ515228 AJ582809 FM162399
AB013297 FM162401 FM162402 FM162404 AB010811 AJ630202 AJ630203 X97987 X97988 X97989
X97990 AJ515229 AJ515230 AJ318954 AJ414114 AJ414116 AJ414118 AJ414121 AJ421444 AJ421445
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AJ845020 AJ845022 AJ874352 AJ874353 AJ874354 AJ874359 AJ874363 AJ874364 AJ874367
AJ885017 AJ885024 AJ885034 AJ885035 AJ885036 AJ885041 AJ885044 AJ885045 AJ293802
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AM902263 AJ316174 AJ316182 AJ316184 AJ316185 AJ316188 D11214 AF134581 AJ609638
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KC954166 KC954167 KC954168 AF493809 AB038023 AB038024 AB038025 AB038026 AB038029
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FM204859 FM204860 FM204865 FM204866 FM204867 FM204868 FM204869 FM204870 AF537959
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AY628646 AY800101 AY827492 AY863432 HF541921 HF541922 HF541923 HF541924 HF541925
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HF541936 HF541937 HF541938 HF541939 HF541940 HF541941 HF541942 HF541943 HF541944
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HF541954 HF541955 HF541956 HF541957 HF541958 HF541959 HF541960 HF541961 HF541962

Accession numbers for the 16S rDNA sequences analysed in Chapter 2 from different bacterial families and genera.***Vibrio* sp.**

HF541963 HF541964 DQ298045 DQ298046 DQ298047 DQ298048 DQ304558 HF541965 HF541966
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DQ440943 DQ440945 DQ440947 DQ440948 DQ440949 DQ440950 DQ440951 DQ440953 DQ440956
DQ440959 EF467290 DQ440966 DQ440968 DQ440969 DQ440970 DQ440972 DQ440973 DQ440976
DQ923054 DQ985231 EF178477 EF178478 EF178479 EF178480 EF178481 EF178482 EF178483
EF178484 EF178485 EF178486 HE795129 AY264936 AY332565 HE795130 HE795131 JF731344
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JN188402 JN188403 JN188404 JN188405 JN188408 JN188409 JN188411 JN188413 JN188414
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HQ449747 FJ906812 HQ449748 HQ449749 HQ449750 HQ449751 HQ449752 HQ449753 HQ449754
HQ449755 HQ449756 HQ449757 HQ449758 HQ449759 HQ449760 HQ449761 HQ449762 HQ449763
HQ449764 HQ449765 HQ449766 HQ449767 HQ449768 HQ449769 HQ449770 HQ449771 HQ449772
HQ449773 HQ449774 HQ449775 HQ449776 HQ449777 HQ449778 JQ409372 JX221044 JX221045
KC794715 KC794716 GU064357 GU064358 GU064361 GU064369 GU064371 GU064372 GU064373
GU064375 GU064376 GQ332279 GQ332282 GQ332283 GU064377 GU064378 GU262992 GQ332284
GQ332285 GQ332286 GQ332287 GQ332288 GQ332289 GQ332290 GQ332291 GQ332292 GQ332293
FJ404761 FJ404762 FJ404763 FJ404764 GQ332294 GQ332295 GQ332296 GQ332297 GQ332298
GQ332299 FJ404765 HM996960 HM996961 HM996962 HM996963 HM996964 HM996965
HM996966 HM996967 HM996968 HM996969 HM996970 HM996971 HM996972 HM996973
KC954162 KC954163 KC954164 EU091326 EU091331 EU091332 EU091333 EU091334 EU091335
EU091337 GQ487487 KF150774 KF150776

Appendix 2.

Table outlining all chemicals and equipment utilised within this thesis.

Product	Supplier	Catalogue number
0% MacroGard® experimental feed	Tetra GmbH	N/A
0.1% MacroGard® experimental feed	Tetra GmbH	N/A
2-phenoxyethanol	Sigma	P1126
96 well plate	Sarstedt	83.3924.500
ABI Prism® 9000 Sequence Detection System	Applied Biosystems	N/A
Aeromonas Isolation Agar	Fluka Analytical	17118-500G
Aeromonas Selective Supplement	Fluka Analytical	17119-5VL
<i>Aeromonas salmonicida</i> subsp. <i>salmonicida</i>	NCIMB	NCIMB1102
Ammonium persulfate (APS)	Sigma	A3678
<i>Bacillus subtilis</i> subsp. <i>spizizenii</i>	NCIMB	NCIMB8054
Bioruptor™ UCD-200	Diagenode	N/A
Bermuda Banish Fish Ulcer, Parasite and White Spot Treatment	Glovers Aquatics	N/A
Crystal violet	Pro-lab Diagnostics	PL7001
Dissolved Oxygen Meter	Hanna	H19142
dNTPs	Invitrogen	10297
EconoSpin™ Spin column for DNA (silica membrane)	Epoch Life Sciences	1910-250
EconoSpin™ Spin column for RNA (silica membrane)	Epoch Life Sciences	1940-250
Eheim 2227 filter system	Eheim	N/A
Eppendorf Gradient Mastercycler®	Eppendorf	950000015
Ethidium bromide	Sigma	E8751

Table outlining all chemicals and equipment utilised within this thesis.

Product	Supplier	Catalogue number
Formamide	Sigma	F9037
GeneAmp PCR system 9700 thermocycler	Applied Biosystems	N/A
GoTaq® G2 Flexi DNA polymerase	Promega	M7801
Gram's iodine	Pro-lab Diagnostics	PL7004
"Hi-Pure" Low EEO Agarose	BioGene	300-300
Hot Start KAPA2G Robust Polymerase: 5X KAPA2G buffer A, Polymerase, PCR grade Water	Kapabiosystems	KK5511
Hydrogen peroxide	Fisher	H/1862/15
LPS from <i>E. coli</i> O55:B5	Invivogen	LPS-B5
Loading buffer	Made in house by Dr. Adamek (TiHo)	
Lysozyme from chicken egg white	Sigma	L6876
MacConkey agar	Oxoid	CM0109
MacroGard®	Biorigin	Batch number: 250813
Magnesium Chloride	Promega	A3511
MaxQ 4000 E-class incubator	Barnstead/Labline	N/A
Moloney Murine Leukemia Virus Reverse Transcriptase (M-MuLV RT).	Invitrogen	No longer available

Table outlining all chemicals and equipment utilised within this thesis.

Product	Supplier	Catalogue number
M-MLV Reverse Transcriptase: M-MLV RT, 5X First Strand Buffer, 0.1M DTT	Invitrogen	28025-013
Microsoft Excel	Microsoft	N/A
Minitab 14	Minitab	N/A
M.R.S. agar (de Man, Rogosa and Sharpe)	Oxoid	CM0361
Mx3000P qPCR System	Stratagene	N/A
Nanodrop 1000	Thermo Scientific	N/A
Nikon AF-S DX NIKKOR 55-300mm f/4.5-5.6G VR Lens	Amazon.co.uk	N/A
Nikon D3200 Digital SLR Camera with 18-55mm VR Lens Kit - Black (24.2MP) 3 inch LCD	Amazon.co.uk	N/A
Nutrient agar	Oxoid	CM0003
Nutrient broth	Oxoid	CM0001
Oxidase detection strips	Oxoid	MB0226
PBS	Sigma	P-4417
PCR Buffer II	Invitrogen	4379878
peqGOLD TriFast	Peqlab	30-2010
Primers	Eurofins	N/A
Proteinase K	Peqlab	0706-1G
QIAamp DNA Mini Kit: AL buffer, AW1 buffer, AW2 buffer, AE buffer	Qiagen	51304
Random hexamers	Invitrogen	N8080127

Table outlining all chemicals and equipment utilised within this thesis.

Product	Supplier	Catalogue number
Resazurin	Sigma	R7017-1G
RNaseOUT™ RNase inhibitor	Invitrogen	10777-019
RNAprotect	Qiagen	76506
RNeasy Mini kit : RLT buffer, RW1 buffer, RPE buffer, RNase free water	Qiagen	74104
Roti®-Safe Gel Stain	Carl Roth	3865.1
Rotiphorese® Gel 30 (37.5:1)	Carl Roth	3029.1
RQ1 DNase 10X Reaction Buffer	Promega	M198A
RQ1 DNase Stop Solution	Promega	M199A
RQ1 RNase-Free DNase	Promega	M610A
Safranin	Pro-Lab Diagnostics	PL7013
SeKem® LE Agarose	Lonza	50004
SensiFAST™ SYBR® HiROX kit	Bioline	BIO-92020
SPSS 21	SPSS	N/A
SYBR® Gold Nucleic Acid Gel Stain (10,000X concentrate in DMSO)	Life Technologies	S-11494
Tea light candle	Morrisons	N/A
TEMED	Sigma	T9281
TissueLyser II	Qiagen	85300
TV400-DGGE system (gel size 16.5x17.5cm)	Biostep	TV400-DGGE
Urea	Sigma	U5378
Vaseline	Sainsburys	N/A
Water chiller unit HC300A	Hailea	N/A
Whatman Nucleopore Polycarbonate 47mm, 3µm	Sigma	111112

Appendix 3.

A list of all of the PCR primers used within this thesis. Primer sequences, target, and their intended use is given.

Primer	Sequence (5' → 3')	Target	Reference	Use
16S_seq_27F	AGAGTTTGATCMTGGCTCAG	V1-V2 region of 16S rDNA gene for high throughput sequencing	See appendix 4.	Plymouth University
16S_seq_338R	GCWGCCWCCCGTAGGWGT			
16S_uniBact_fw	AGGATTAGATACCCTGGAGTCCA	Approximation of total bacteria activity – 16S rDNA	Adamek <i>et al.</i> 2013	RT-qPCR Plasmids
16S_uniBact_rv	CATGCTCCACCGCTTGTGC			
40S_fw	CCGTGGGTGACATCGTTACA	Carp – 40S housekeeping gene	Huttenhuis <i>et al.</i> 2006	RT-qPCR
40S_rv	TCAGGACATTGAACCTCACTGTCT			
Aero16S_fw	GCGAAGGCGGCCCCCTGGACAAAGA	<i>Aeromonas</i> sp. activity – 16S rDNA	Adamek <i>et al.</i> 2013	RT-qPCR Plasmids
Aero16S_rv	CCACGTCTCAAGGACACAGCTCCAAATC			
ApoA1_fw	CCATCTCCGCTCCTTTC	Carp – Apolipoprotein 1	Dietrich <i>et al.</i> 2014	RT-qPCR
ApoA1_rv	ATGTGTTAGTGTGTGTGTGCTTC			
Bergmark_16S_fw	ACTTTAAGTTGGGAGGAAGGG	<i>Pseudomonas</i> sp. activity – 16S rDNA	Bergmark <i>et al.</i> 2012	RT-qPCR
Bergmark_16S_rv	ACACAGGAAATTCACCACCC			
Bf/C2_fw	CGGTCATGGGAAAAAGCATTGAGA	Carp – Complement pathway	Forlenza <i>et al.</i> 2009	RT-qPCR
Bf/C2_rv	GATATCTTTAGCATTGTGTCGAG			
CRP1_fw	AGCAATGCAACATTTTTCCGTC	Carp – C-reactive protein isoform	Falco <i>et al.</i> 2012a	RT-qPCR
CRP1_rv	ACTTGCGTCAAAGCCACCCAC			
CRP2_fw	GATGCTGCAGCATTTTTCAGTC	Carp – C-reactive protein isoform	Falco <i>et al.</i> 2012a	RT-qPCR
CRP2_rv	CTCCGCATCAAAGTTGCTCAAAT			
C1rs	CAAGCCCATCTTGGCTCCTGG	Carp – Complement pathway	Forlenza <i>et al.</i> 2009b	RT-qPCR
C1rs	GTCCAGATCAAGCGGGGACGT			
C3_fw	GGTTATCAAGGGGAGTTGAGCTAT	Carp – Complement pathway	Forlenza <i>et al.</i> 2009b	RT-qPCR
C3_rv	TGCTGCTTTGGGTGGATGGGT			
DGGE_fw	CGCCCGCCGCGCGGGCGGGCGGGGCGGGGCGGGGCA CGGGGGCCCTACGGGAGGCAGCAG	Qualitative analysis of bacteria diversity – 16S rDNA	Muyzer <i>et al.</i> 1993	PCR-DGGE
DGGE_rv	ATMTCTACGCATTTACCGCTAC		Steinum <i>et al.</i> 2009	
Flav16S_fw	GGGATAGCCCAGAGAAATTTGGAT	<i>Flavobacterium</i> sp. activity – 16S rDNA	Adamek <i>et al.</i> 2013	RT-qPCR Plasmids
Flav16S_rv	AGTCTTGTAAGCCGTTACCTT			

A list of all of the PCR primers used within this thesis. Primer sequences, target, and their intended use is given.

Primer	Sequence (5' → 3')	Target	Reference	Use
HAMP1_fw	TGGAGAGTGAGGCACACCAGGAG	Carp – Hepcidin antimicrobial peptide 1	Designed by Dr. Adamek (TiHo)	RT-qPCR
HAMP1_rv	TGCCAGGGGATTGGTTTG			
IL1 β _fw	AAGGAGGCCAGTGGCTCTGT	Carp – Interleukin 1 β	Huttenhuis <i>et al.</i> 2006	RT-qPCR
IL1 β _rv	CCTGAAGAAGAGGAGGCTGTCA			
IL1 β _rec_fw	ACGCCACCAAGAGCCTTTTA	Carp – Interleukin 1 β receptor	Designed by Dr. Falco (MHUE)	RT-qPCR
IL1 β _rec_rv	GCAGCCCATATTTGGTCAGA			
iNOS_fw	AACAGGTCTGAAAGGGAATCCA	Carp – Inducible nitric oxidase	Forlenza <i>et al.</i> 2009b	RT-qPCR
iNOS_rv	CATTATCTCTCATGTCCAGAGTCTCTTCT			
LEAP2_fw	GGATCGTGGGCACTAAACCTC	Carp – Liver expressed antimicrobial peptide 2	Designed by Dr. Adamek (TiHo)	RT-qPCR
LEAP2_rv	GCCTTTCCTGCATATTCCTGTC			
Martinez_16S_fw	GCAGGCCTAACACATGCAAGTC	<i>Lactobacillus</i> sp. activity – 16S rDNA	Martinez-Puig <i>et al.</i> 2007	RT-qPCR
Martinez_16S_rv	CTGCTGCCTCCCGTAGGAGT			
MASP2_fw	CAAGCTGTCCAAGGTGATTG	Carp – Complement pathway	Forlenza <i>et al.</i> 2009b	RT-qPCR
MASP2_rv	AGCAGTGAGGACCCAGTTGT			
Muc2_fw	TGACTGCCAAAGCCTCATTC	Carp – Mucin isoform	Van der Marel <i>et al.</i> 2012	RT-qPCR
Muc2_rv	CCATTGACTACGACCTGTTTCTC			
Pseud16S_fw	TGCCTAGGAATCTGCCTGGTAGT	<i>Pseudomonas</i> sp. activity – 16S rDNA	Designed by Dr. Adamek (TiHo)	RT-qPCR Plasmids
Pseud16S_rv	AATCCGACCTAGGTCATCTGATAGCG			
Strept16S_fw	CGGTAAC TAACCAGAAAGGGA	<i>Streptococcus</i> sp. activity – 16S rDNA	Designed by Dr. Adamek (TiHo)	RT-qPCR Plasmids
Strept16S_rv	ATAAATCCGGACAACGCTCGRAGA			
TNF α 1_fw	GAGCTTCACGAGGACTAATAGACAGT	Carp – Tumor necrosis factor α isoform	Forlenza <i>et al.</i> 2009a	RT-qPCR
TNF α 1_rv	CTGCGGTAAGGGCAGCAATC			
TNF α 2_fw	CGGCACGAGGAGAAACCGAGC	Carp – Tumor necrosis factor α isoform	Forlenza <i>et al.</i> 2009a	RT-qPCR
TNF α 2_rv	CATCGTTGTGTCTGTTAGTAAGTTC			
Vib16S_fw	GTTTGCCAGCGAGTAATGTC	<i>Vibrio</i> sp. activity – 16S rDNA	Designed by Dr. Adamek (TiHo)	RT-qPCR Plasmids
Vib16S_rv	TAGCTTGCTGCCCTCTGTATGCG			

Appendix 4.

Report produced by the University of Plymouth detailing the methodologies used for Next Generation Sequencing.



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16S rRNA barcode sequencing analysis of carp intestinal samples

January 2016
School of Biological Sciences.
Plymouth University

1.1. Samples

Twenty DNA extractions were received from Keele University. The samples were divided into two groups: 8MGW and 15MGW, and each group contained 10 replicates. Sample details are listed in Appendices 1 and 2.

1.2. PCR Amplification

The 16S rRNA V1-V2 region was amplified from the DNA extractions using the primers 338R (GCW GCC WCC CGT AGG WGT) and 27F (5' - AGA GTT TGA TCM TGG CTC AG - 3'). The following reagents were included in each PCR tube: 1 μ L of primer 338R and 1 μ L of primer 27F (each 50 pmol μ L⁻¹; Eurofins MWG, Ebersberg, Germany), 2 μ L of DNA template, 50 μ L of MyTaqTM (Bioline, London, UK) and 34 μ L of PCR grade water. Thermal cycling was conducted using a TC-512 thermal cycler (Techne, Staffordshire, UK) under the following conditions: initial denaturation at 94°C for 7 min, then 10 cycles at 94°C for 30 s, followed by a touchdown of 1°C per cycle from 62 -53°C for 30 s and 72°C for 30 s. A further 20 cycles were performed at 94°C for 30 s, 53°C for 30 s and 72°C for 30s before a final extension for 7 min at 72°C.

Agarose gel electrophoresis revealed multiple bands after PCR amplification (Figure 1). PCR reactions were therefore cleaned using a QIAquick Gel Extraction Kit (QIAGEN) following the manufacturer's instructions.

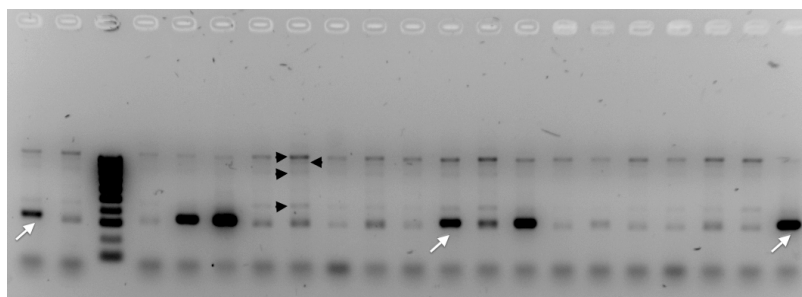


Figure 1. Agarose gel of PCR amplicons. Note several bands (black arrow head) larger than 350 bp (V1-2 region) (white arrows).

1.3. High-throughput sequencing and bioinformatics

Prior to sequencing the amplicons were assessed for fragment concentration using an Ion Library Quantitation Kit (LifeTechnologiesTM, USA), and concentrations were then adjusted to 26 pM. Amplicons were attached to Ion Sphere Particles (ISPs) using Ion PGMTM Template OT2 400 kit (LifeTechnologiesTM, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Multiplexed sequencing was conducted using Ion XpressTM Barcode Adapters (LifeTechnologiesTM) and a 318TM chip (LifeTechnologiesTM) on an Ion Torrent Personal Genome Machine (LifeTechnologiesTM) at the Systems Biology Centre in

Plymouth University (UK). Sequences were binned by sample and filtered within the PGM software to remove low quality reads. Data were then exported as FastQ files.

Taxonomic analyses of sequence reads were performed after the removal of low quality scores (Q score <20 at 80% probability) with FASTX-Toolkit (Hannon Lab, USA). Sequences were concatenated and sorted by sequence similarity into a single fasta file. Sequences were denoised and analyzed with QIIME (Caporaso *et al.*, 2010). Briefly, OTU mapping was performed using the USEARCH quality filter pipeline (Edgar, 2010), to remove putatively erroneous reads (chimeras), then OTU picking was achieved with a minimum pairwise identity of 97%. The most abundant sequence in each OTU were selected to assign a taxonomic classification based on the Greengenes database (DeSantis *et al.*, 2006) using the RDP classifier (Wang *et al.*, 2007), clustering the sequences at 97% similarity with a 0.80 confidence threshold. PyNast was used to create a multiple alignment of the representative sequences for each OTU (Caporaso *et al.*, 2009) with minimum sequence length threshold of 150 base pairs and 95% identification. Sequences were filtered to remove outliers and filter positions with gaps (0.95) and singletons.

Alpha diversity metrics were calculated on rarefied OTU tables with QIIME to assess sampling depth coverage using observed species, Chao1, Shannon's diversity index and Good's coverage. QIIME was also used to calculate Beta diversity metrics among samples using unweighted and weighted Unifrac distances (Lozupone *et al.*, 2007) and Bray-Curtis similarity (Bray and Curtis, 1957). The distance matrices were represented by two dimensional principal coordinates analysis (PCoA) plots. Reads assigned to the *Cyanobacteria* phylum (after Wong *et al.*, 2013) and the *Propionibacteriaceae* Family were considered as contaminants, and thus were removed from downstream analyses.

1.4. Statistics

To test for significant differences among intestinal microbiome data a non-parametric t-test was performed to compare OTUs abundance using STAMP and alpha diversity metrics. Vegan and ape packages of R were used to analyse the beta diversity of the groups. Statistical significance was accepted at the $P < 0.05$ level.

2. Results and Discussion

2.1. High-throughput sequencing analysis

High-throughput sequencing libraries from samples generated 3,011,088 sequences. After trimming, QC and removal of *Cyanobacteria* (2,736 reads) and *Propionibacteriaceae* (1,111 reads), a total of 1,288,902 reads were retained. Good's coverage rarefaction curves for all individual samples reached a plateau close to 1 (i.e. 0.9988-0.9989) (Figure 2; Table 1), thus the microbiome of the samples were fully sampled.

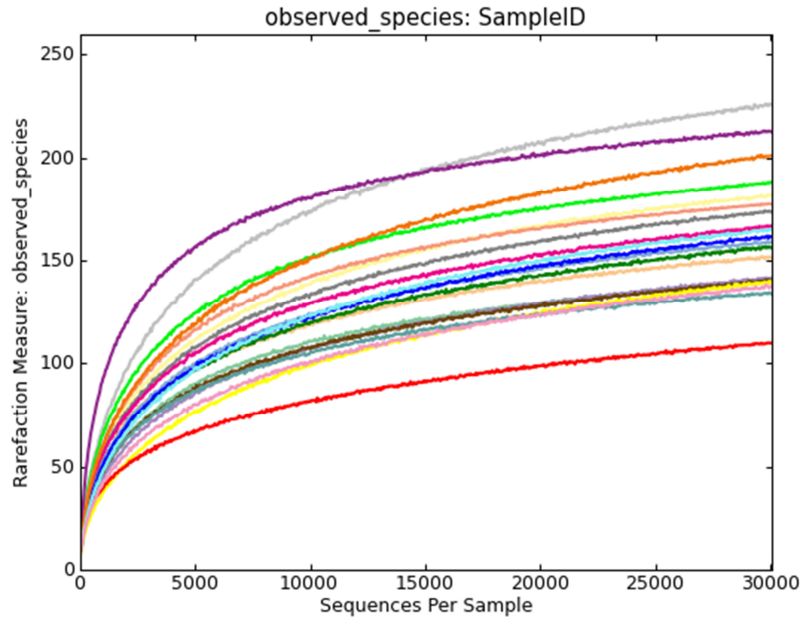


Figure 2. Good's coverage rarefaction curves of the intestine samples.

Table 1. Good's coverage estimations by treatment.

Sample code	Good's coverage
8MGW	0.9988 ± 0.0001
15MGW	0.9989 ± 0.0001

The majority of reads derived from the mucosa samples belonged to members of *Proteobacteria* (accounting for 70.1% of the reads), *Fusobacteria* (27.2%), *Firmicutes* (2.2%) and to a lesser extent *Actinobacteria*, *Bacteroidetes*, *GN02*, *Verrucomicrobia* were also observed (Table 2 and Figure 3). There were no significant differences in the phyla composition between the treatments.

Table 2. Abundance of the OTUs present in the treatments at the phylum level.

Taxon	8MGW	15MGW
<i>Proteobacteria</i>	69.85 ± 34.25	70.27 ± 27.01
<i>Fusobacteria</i>	26.83 ± 30.33	27.54 ± 27.57
<i>Firmicutes</i>	2.66 ± 6.84	1.65 ± 2.62
<i>Actinobacteria</i>	0.37 ± 0.37	0.34 ± 0.28
<i>Bacteroidetes</i>	0.16 ± 0.11	0.15 ± 0.11
<i>GN02</i>	0.00 ± 0.00	0.02 ± 0.05
<i>Verrucomicrobia</i>	0.04 ± 0.14	0.00 ± 0.00
Bacteria (Other)	0.05 ± 0.15	0.00 ± 0.00

Data are represented by mean ± SD.

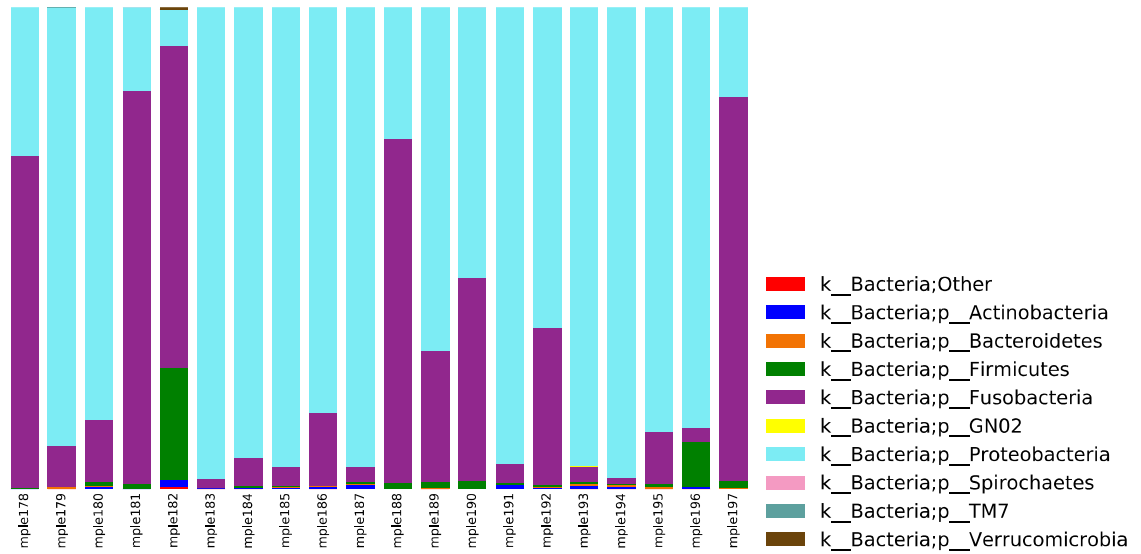


Figure 3. The relative abundance (100% stack bars) of the assigned at the phylum level.

Table 3 and Figure 4 show the most abundant genera per treatment and per sample, respectively. The OTUs composition of the samples was very similar, but some significant differences were observed for OTUs present at relatively low abundances. For example, the abundance of *Bradyrhizobium*, *Enterobacteriaceae*, *Leuconostoc*, *Acidovorax*, *Clostridium*, *Trabulsiella* was significantly higher in the 15 treatment than in the 8 group ($P < 0.05$).

At the species level the samples of the treatment 15 contained significantly higher abundance of *Bradyrhizobium* sp., *Clostridium butyricum*, *Leuconostoc* sp., *Lactobacillus zae*, *Trabulsiella* sp., *Acidovorax* sp., *Brevibacillus reuszeri* and some unknown species of the Genus *Pseudomonas* and *Bradyrhizobium* and unknown species from the Family *Enterobacteriaceae* and *Caulobacteraceae* ($P < 0.05$). Data at the species level is provided in a separate excel file.

Table 3. Abundance of the OTUs at the genus level (where possible). Data represented are means \pm SD of the genera with abundance accounting for $>0.1\%$ of the total reads.

	8MGW	15MGW
<i>Phyllobacterium</i>	55.72 \pm 31.82	52.22 \pm 27.69
<i>Cetobacterium</i>	26.61 \pm 30.06	27.54 \pm 27.57
Family Phyllobacteriaceae (Other)	5.28 \pm 3.03	5.27 \pm 2.64
<i>Vibrio</i>	2.18 \pm 3.15	5.00 \pm 10.27
Family Rhodospirillaceae (Other)	1.86 \pm 1.15	1.79 \pm 1.16
<i>Bradyrhizobium</i>	0.71 \pm 0.45 ^a	1.57 \pm 0.59 ^b
Order Rhizobiales (Other)	1.22 \pm 0.67	1.35 \pm 0.80
<i>Enhydrobacter</i>	0.50 \pm 0.65	0.62 \pm 0.60
Order Aeromonadales (Other)	0.29 \pm 0.28	0.43 \pm 0.46
<i>Lactobacillus</i>	0.03 \pm 0.04	0.42 \pm 1.00
Order Vibrionales (Other)	0.13 \pm 0.21	0.39 \pm 0.68
<i>Mesorhizobium</i>	0.33 \pm 0.21	0.33 \pm 0.21
<i>Patulibacter</i>	0.14 \pm 0.12	0.22 \pm 0.21
<i>Pediococcus</i>	0.00 \pm 0.00	0.21 \pm 0.65
<i>Lactococcus</i>	0.01 \pm 0.01	0.18 \pm 0.46
<i>Stenotrophomonas</i>	0.11 \pm 0.08	0.16 \pm 0.11
Order Clostridiales (Other)	0.88 \pm 2.38	0.16 \pm 0.14
Enterobacteriaceae (Other)	0.06 \pm 0.04 ^a	0.14 \pm 0.09 ^b
Family Bradyrhizobiaceae (Other)	0.12 \pm 0.14	0.14 \pm 0.11
<i>Streptococcus</i>	0.25 \pm 0.62	0.12 \pm 0.12
Family Sphingomonadaceae (Other)	0.06 \pm 0.09	0.12 \pm 0.14
<i>Polynucleobacter</i>	0.40 \pm 0.95	0.11 \pm 0.15
<i>Leuconostoc</i>	0.02 \pm 0.03 ^a	0.09 \pm 0.08 ^b
<i>Flavobacterium</i>	0.11 \pm 0.12	0.08 \pm 0.07
<i>Acidovorax</i>	0.01 \pm 0.01 ^a	0.04 \pm 0.03 ^b
<i>Clostridium</i>	0.00 \pm 0.00 ^a	0.02 \pm 0.01 ^b
Family Lachnospiraceae (Other)	0.74 \pm 2.13	0.01 \pm 0.01
<i>Trabulsiella</i>	0.00 \pm 0.00 ^a	0.01 \pm 0.01 ^b
Family Fusobacteriaceae (Other)	0.20 \pm 0.59	0.00 \pm 0.00
<i>Ruminococcus</i>	0.28 \pm 0.82	0.00 \pm 0.00
Family Desulfovibrionaceae (Other)	0.22 \pm 0.65	0.00 \pm 0.00
Others	1.38 \pm 1.91	1.11 \pm 0.43

^{a,b} different superscripts denote significant differences ($P < 0.05$)

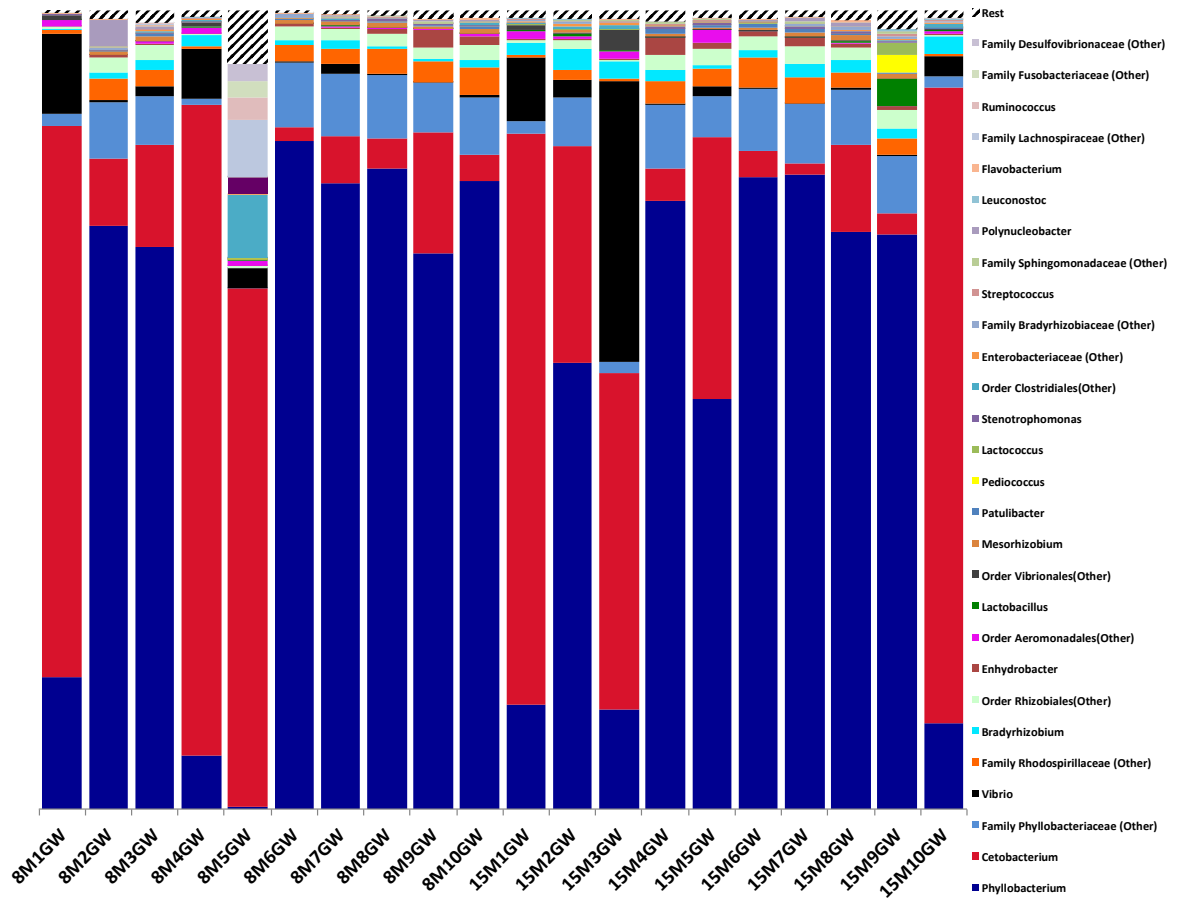


Figure 4. The relative abundance (100% stack bars) of the reads from individual samples, assigned at the genus level. Data shown are those accounting for >0.1% of the total sequence reads.

The alpha diversity parameters are displayed in the Table 4. No significant differences were detected between the treatments.

Table 4. Alpha diversity parameters.

Sample code	Chao1	Observed species	Phylogenetic tree	Shannon
8MGW	189.42 ± 30.26	155.73 ± 29.69	6.48 ± 1.2	2.53 ± 0.61
15MGW	199.4 ± 27.01	170.53 ± 24.11	6.72 ± 0.59	2.78 ± 0.48
t stat	-0.738	-1.16	-0.528	-0.949
P-value	0.463	0.268	0.623	0.353

Data are represented by mean ± SD.

Figure 5 shows the beta diversity of the samples through PCoA plots (unconstrained). Figure 6 shows Distance-based Redundancy Analysis (dbRDA) when the data are constrained by the treatments. No significant differences were observed between the treatments in any of the beta rarefactions statistics.

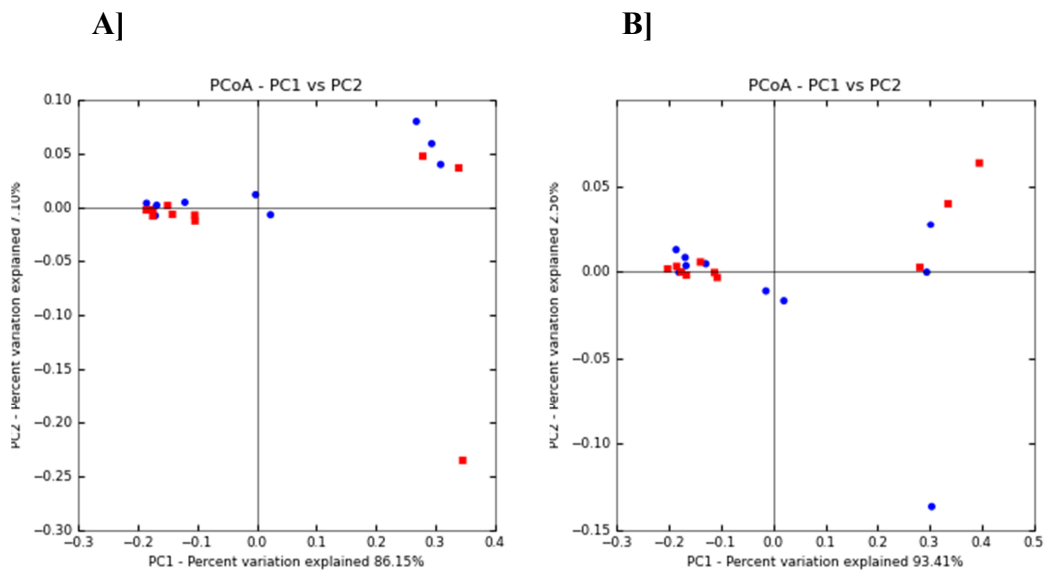


Figure 5. Beta rarefaction PCoA plots of samples using Bray-Curtis (A) and Weighted (B) approaches. 8MGW: red; 15MGW: blue.

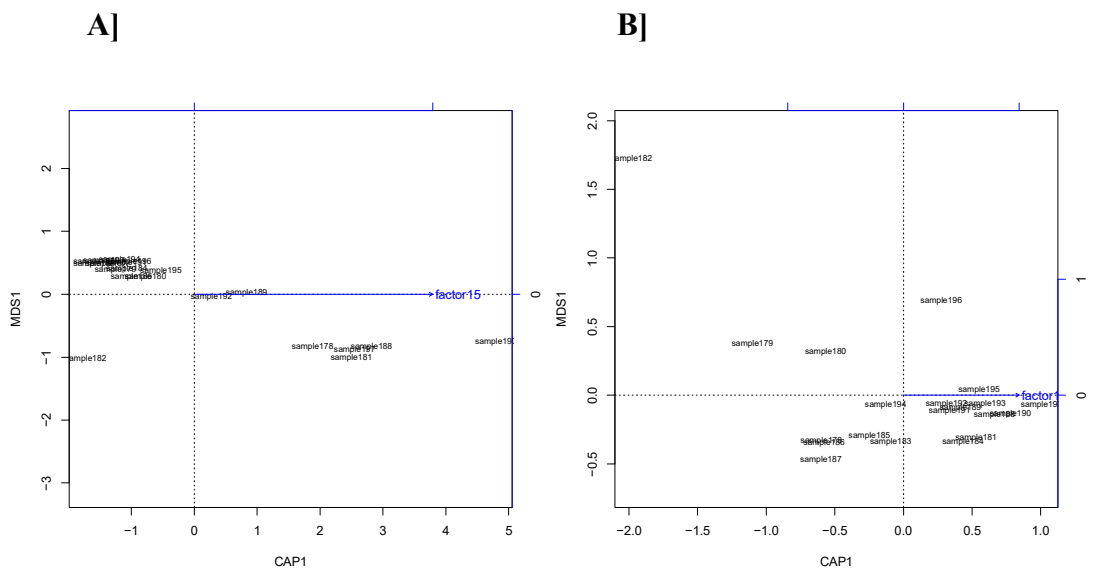


Figure 6. Distance-based ReDundancy Analysis (dbRDA). Beta rarefaction plots of intestines samples following Bray-Curtis (A) and Unweighted (B).

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Appendix 1. Samples provided.**Molecular microbiology analysis**

Group 1 - Samples to analyse (n=10)			
DNA extraction	8M1GW	DNA extraction	8M6GW
DNA extraction	8M2GW	DNA extraction	8M7GW
DNA extraction	8M3GW	DNA extraction	8M8GW
DNA extraction	8M4GW	DNA extraction	8M9GW
DNA extraction	8M5GW	DNA extraction	8M10GW
Group 2 - Samples to analyse (n=10)			
DNA extraction	15M1GW	DNA extraction	15M6GW
DNA extraction	15M2GW	DNA extraction	15M7GW
DNA extraction	15M3GW	DNA extraction	15M8GW
DNA extraction	15M4GW	DNA extraction	15M9GW
DNA extraction	15M5GW	DNA extraction	15M10GW

Appendix 2. Identification of samples used in microbiological analyses and number of sequence reads per sample.

Sample code	Sample ID	Number of reads
sample178	8M1GW	49739
sample179	8M2GW	64042
sample180	8M3GW	47995
sample181	8M4GW	54252
sample182	8M5GW	113940
sample183	8M6GW	89023
sample184	8M7GW	88378
sample185	8M8GW	65637
sample186	8M9GW	103753
sample187	8M10GW	55412
sample188	15M1GW	43512
sample189	15M2GW	36247
sample190	15M3GW	31854
sample191	15M4GW	65047
sample192	15M5GW	57941
sample193	15M6GW	67808
sample194	15M7GW	74304
sample195	15M8GW	63196
sample196	15M9GW	55336
sample197	15M10GW	61486