

# Host Species and Body Site Explain the Variation in the Microbiota Associated to Wild Sympatric Mediterranean Teleost Fishes

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- 1 Host species and body site explain the variation in the microbiota associated to wild
- 2 sympatric Mediterranean teleost fishes
- 3
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#### **ABSTRACT**

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Microorganisms are an important component shaping the evolution of hosts and as such, 19 the study of bacterial communities with molecular techniques is shedding light on the 20 complexity of symbioses between bacteria and vertebrates. Teleost fish are a 21 heterogeneous group that live in a wide variety of habitats, and thus a good model group 22 to investigate symbiotic interactions and their influence on host biology and ecology. 23 Here we describe the microbiota of thirteen teleostean species sharing the same 24 25 environment in the Mediterranean Sea, and compare bacterial communities among 26 different species and body sites (external mucus, skin, gills and intestine). Our results 27 show that *Proteobacteria* is the dominant phylum present in fish and water. However, the 28 prevalence of other bacterial taxa differs between fish and the surrounding water. Significant differences in bacterial diversity are observed among fish species and body 29 30 sites, with higher diversity found in the external mucus. No effect of sampling time nor species individual were found. The identification of indicator bacterial taxa further 31 32 supports that each body site harbours its own characteristic bacterial community. These results improve current knowledge and understanding of symbiotic relationships among 33 34 bacteria and their fish hosts in the wild, since the majority of previous studies focused on captive individuals. 35

**Keywords**: Bacteria, Metabarcoding, Mediterranean Sea, Microbiota, Teleost fish

#### INTRODUCTION

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Symbiosis among microorganisms and hosts are driving forces of evolution. Among 38 microorganisms involved in symbioses with animals, bacteria are the most widespread 39 and ubiquitous, shaping the evolution of their hosts by contributing both positively (basic 40 functions) and negatively (pathogenicity) to their fitness [1]. In-depth knowledge of the 41 taxonomic composition of the microbiota, and their relationships with their hosts, can 42 provide insights into both the function and dysfunction of the host organisms [2], due to 43 44 the important role that host-microbe interactions play in the physiology and performance 45 of animals [3]. 46 Fish constitute about half of living vertebrate species [4], but the majority of studies on 47 microbiota have been conducted in mammals [5, 6]. High throughput 16S rRNA gene sequencing is being increasingly employed to investigate the fish microbiota (e.g., [7, 8, 48 9,]), producing high-resolution descriptions of their community structure and diversity [2, 49 50 10], and providing further understanding of the consequences of symbioses with bacteria 51 [11]. Despite progress, important gaps remain in our current knowledge regarding the factors that shape fish microbiota [12], such as environmental or phylogenetic variables, 52 53 whose influences could vary among species and / or habitats. Furthermore, most of the information available is focused on the gut of captive species used in aquaculture, i.e., 54 55 fish of economic significance and commercial interest [8, 13], or from model organisms such as the zebrafish [14]. 56 57 Wild teleost fishes exhibit a broad variety of morphologies, physiologies, ecologies and 58 natural histories [11, 15]. Therefore, they represent a good model group to investigate the 59 factors that shape host-bacterial assemblages in nature [16]. Fishes are in intimate contact with the surrounding water, and bacterial colonisation from the environment is thought 60 61 to be one of the primary mechanisms of microbiota acquisition for fishes [16, 17]. Hence, 62 environmental factors influencing water microbial reservoirs, such as water salinity, 63 could ultimately influence fish microbiota [11, 18]. The water environment also hosts 64 high concentrations of potentially pathogenic microorganisms [19] that may enter the fish 65 body. Therefore, the dynamics and diversity of the microbial communities originating from the surrounding water could influence significantly the individuals' fitness [20]. 66 67 The external surfaces of fishes, such as the skin and gills, are coated in a mucus secretion that hosts an indigenous microbiota dominated by bacteria [10, 21, 22] that acts as a 68 69 protective barrier against pathogens [23-26]. The digestive tract of fish also receive water

- and food that are populated with microorganisms that will undoubtedly affect the resident
- 71 microbiota.
- 72 Besides the surrounding water, host-related factors may also shape fish-associated
- microbial communities [18, 27]. In some teleost species, the skin bacterial diversity is
- very different from that of the surrounding bacterioplankton, and varies among different
- 75 parts of the host body [28]. In addition, different species reared in the same water
- environment vary in their gut [18, 29] and gills [9] microbiota.
- 77 We hypothesize that wild teleost microbiota could be influenced by abiotic environmental
- 78 factors and host-related factors. If host-related factors are more important than abiotic
- 79 factors in determining the fish microbiota, we would expect to find specific microbiota
- from each part of the body, and in different fish species, independently of when the fishes
- 81 were captured. To test this hypothesis, and evaluate the importance of these different
- factors, multiple individuals of 13 species of teleost were collected at the same location
- in the shallow Mediterranean Sea on four different occasions and four body sites were
- sampled (mucus, skin, gills, and gut). The microbial community composition of these
- 85 samples was characterized by 16S rRNA gene sequencing and their alpha and beta
- 86 diversity compared. We also tried to determine indicator bacterial taxa that could be
- 87 representative for each teleost species and body site, being both unique to a given group
- 88 (exclusivity) and occurring in all sample units within a group (fidelity) [30, 31].
- 89 This study is novel in characterizing the bacteria associated with wild fish, while the
- 90 majority of previous studies addressed bacterial assemblages in captive fish.

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### MATERIAL & METHODS

- 93 Fish sampling
- 94 Fishes were captured in the NW Mediterranean Sea, Bay of Banyuls (Gulf of Lion,
- 95 Banyuls-sur-mer, SE France, 42°29'4.618''N, 3°8', 35.39''E) on 4 different days in
- 2017: June 21, June 26, July 18, and October 4, and several physicochemical variables
- 97 for each sampling were recorded (Table S1). We captured a total of 59 individuals
- 98 belonging to 5 families and 13 species (see Table 1). For all fish individuals except the
- 99 Family Gobiidae, one gill net was placed between 0 and 6 m depth during the entire night
- period, and at sunrise, it was recovered with the fish (42°29'15.073"N, 3°7', 49.688"E).
- Fish were collected dead, handled with gloves and stored into individual plastic bags.

They were immediately brought from the vessel to the laboratory. They were kept at 4 °C 102 until dissection, within the next 48 h, mostly within 6 h. Individuals from the Family 103 104 Gobiidae were captured with one net placed for just 2 hours close to the seashore. 105 All thirteen species share nearly the same environment since they were captured in the same place at the bay, and most of these species have similar feeding habits. In general, 106 107 they are omnivorous, eating mainly small crustaceans, invertebrates and small fishes, but 108 they can also ingest, to different degrees, other particles such as algae and phytoplankton [33]. There is an exception for the species S. salpa, in which juveniles are omnivorous 109 110 (mainly carnivores), but adults are exclusively herbivores [33]. The adult stage is reached at about three years, when the body size is longer than 20 cm [34]. The length of 111 individuals belonging to S. salpa that were captured were shorter than 20 cm for four of 112 the five individuals (the lengths were 16.8, 17.2, 15.5 and 14 cm). The fifth individual 113 was of adult size (23.8 cm.) This is the only individual, from all fish investigated here, 114 whose feeding would be exclusively vegetarian. For the other 12 species, no significant 115 116 differences in feeding habits according to age are described [33]. Once in the laboratory, each sample was taken as follows: (i) the skin mucus was scraped 117 118 with a sterile scalpel from the entire body surface; (ii) when the mucus was completely removed, a 3 cm<sup>2</sup> piece of skin was cut from the central part of the body, close to the 119 120 lateral line; (iii) then, one gill arch was cut from each side of the body; finally, (iv) 5 cm 121 of the intestine distal part was cut. We cut the final part of the gut because, due to 122 defecation, it reflects the bacterial community of the entire intestinal tract [35, 36]. Because of possible differences in bacterial communities among different parts of the 123 124 same organ [28], samples were always taken from the same part of the body in all the different species, sterilizing the material by flaming before taking each part of the same 125 126 individual. Samples were immediately placed into sterile Eppendorf tubes and kept at -127 80 °C until DNA extraction. In the case of the species Scorpaena notata, there was no 128 mucus on the skin, so the skin piece was cut directly. At each sampling site, 2 litres of seawater were taken from the same place where the nets 129 130 were installed and the water stored in a sterile glass bottle. Briefly, in the lab, the water 131 was vacuum filtered through a 47 mm diameter membrane filter with a pore size of 0.2 132 μm (Fisherbrand, Thermo Fisher Sientific, France). This filter was kept at -80 °C prior to

DNA extraction.

## 135 <u>DNA sequencing</u>

- A total DNA extraction was performed using the Kit Quick-DNA Fecal/Soil Microbe
- 137 MiniPrep Kit (Zymo Research, Orange, California), following the manufacturer's
- instructions. The V4-V5 regions from the 16S rRNA-encoding gene of isolated DNA
- were amplified by means of PCR, using the universal primers 515F-Y (5'-
- 140 GTGYCAGCMGCCGCGGTAA) and 926R (5'-CCGYCAATTYMTTTRAGTTT])
- 141 [37]. The PCR mix contained 5 µl of KAPA 2G, 0.2 µl of each primer, 3.6 µl of ultrapure
- water and 1 µl of DNA for a final volume of 10 µl. After 3 min of initial denaturation at
- 95 °C, the following conditions were applied: 22 cycles of 95 °C for 45 s (denaturation),
- 144 50 °C for 45 s (annealing) and 68 °C for 90 s (extension), ending with a final extension
- at 68 °C for 5 min. For each sample, three PCRs were performed in the same conditions,
- to increase the DNA quantity, while minimizing cycle numbers to avoid PCR bias [38].
- 147 The product of each PCR was verified by agarose gel electrophoresis and triplicate
- reactions were pooled.
- 149 A second PCR was performed to attach the Illumina adapters and 8-bp barcodes for
- multiplexing. They were added in a reaction mix in which barcode sequences were
- individually added for each sample. The mix for this second PCR contained 12.5 µl of
- 152 KAPA 2G, 0.5 µl of each barcode primer (Nextera Index Sequences in
- http://seq.liai.org/204-2/), 10.5 μl ultrapure water and 1 μl of DNA for a final volume of
- 25 μl. PCR conditions were as follows: initial denaturation at 98 °C for 30 s, 8 cycles of
- 98 °C for 10 s, 60 °C for 20 s, 72 °C for 30 s, and a final extension at 72 °C for 2 min.
- 156 PCR products were purified using the USB ExoSAP-IT PCR Product Cleanup
- 157 (Thermofisher, France) kit by incubating the samples at 37 °C for 30 min, followed by 15
- min at 85 °C. The concentration of samples was normalized with the SequalPrep
- Normalization Plate (96 well) Kit (Thermofisher, France). Thereafter, all the samples
- with different barcode sequences belonging to each run were pooled, and the pooled
- products were quantified by using the Quant-iT<sup>TM</sup> PicoGreen (Thermofisher, France).
- The normalized amplicons were concentrated by using the Wizard SV Gel and PCR Clean
- up Kit (Promega, France) and amplicons were sequenced one run in an Illumina® MiSeq
- sequencer using the  $2 \times 250$  bp protocol by FASTERIS SA, Switzerland.

## Sequence analyses

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Sequence analysis was performed by using a combination of tools, including the USEARCH v9.0.2132 [39] program, Qiime V.1.9.1 [40] and bash scripts. Briefly, from demultiplexed fastq files obtained from the sequencing center, forward and reverse reads were merged to create consensus sequences in a single fastq file using usearch9 fastq mergepairs. Assembled reads were quality trimmed by the usearch9 -fastq filter command. Primer sequences were removed from raw amplicon sequences using strip\_primers\_exclude.py. At this point, sequences were dereplicated and denoised using usearch9 -unoise (minampsize 8). As a certain number of artifactual short sequences remained, sequences less than 360 bp were removed with a combination of bash scripts and the filter\_fasta.py command from Qiime V.1.9.1. OTU tables were generated by usearch9 -usearch global against the primer-stripped raw sequences with a 97 % identity to OTU representatives ordered by abundance. OTUs were identified using Qiime V.1.9.1 assign\_taxonomy.py -m rdp and a previously described modified version of the Greengenes [41] August 2013 database [9]. The taxonomy assignments were corrected to contain full paths from phylum to species. Final OTU tables were generated using biomformat. Sequences matching "Archaea", "Eukaryota", "Unassigned", "Chloroplasts" and "Mitochondria" were discarded using filter\_taxa\_from\_otu\_table.py. Details of data analysis, and the analysis environment are described in the supplemental methods. Further details on the bioinformatics methods, as well as the samples characteristics, including the number of reads and of sequences, are in the Electronic Supplementary Material. All the resultant sequences were deposited in the Sequence Read Archive (SRA, http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/sra) (Accession number: PRJNA531247).

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#### Statistical analyses

R 3.5.0 [42] was used to calculate both  $\alpha$ -diversity (Shannon diversity index) and  $\beta$ -diversity matrices of distances among samples. Matrices of genera were used since they contained the most detailed information on the total community, because in many cases species assignment was not possible using the rdp classifier and the sequenced region. However, in some of the OTUs, the genus classification was not possible, and in those cases we used the most precise taxonomic level that we could identify (for example the family, or the class). The Shannon diversity index based on OTUs was estimated by the R *vegan* package [43]. Due to the high variation of the index values, it was standardized

199 before subsequent analyses. This technique is very useful and provides simplification, 200 since it modifies the scale and considers the mean as zero (e.g., [44]). This variable was 201 fitted on a normal distribution and met the normality criteria. Differences in Shannon's diversity between fish species and body parts were analysed using one-way ANOVA in 202 203 Statistica 7.1 [45]. In addition, a General Linear Mixed Model (GLMM) was applied to 204 identify which variables (fish species, body part and sampling date, the last being 205 considered as a random factor) influence bacterial richness. 206 To evaluate the effects that the species, body site, individual fish or sampling date would 207 have in explaining the variability of the bacterial communities' composition in teleosts (i.e., β-diversity), we performed a PERMANOVA analysis. First, a distance matrix on 208 209 resultant OTUs was constructed with the function *vegdist* in the R package "vegan", which was considered as the dependent variable. Here, bacterial communities of each 210 sample are compared with all the rest, by means of the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity index for 211 212 pairs of samples [43]. The index values ranging from 0 to 1: a value of 0 (i.e., no distance) 213 indicated that two samples share all the bacterial taxa in the same abundances, and 1 (i.e., 214 maximum distance) indicated that they did not share any of the detected OTUs. This 215 distance matrix was considered as the dependent variable in further analysis. Then, the adonis function of the "vegan" R package was used with all the previously mentioned 216 217 explanatory factors, considering the sampling date as the stratification variable. Bray-Curtis distances were also represented by means of a non-metric multidimensional scaling 218 219 (NMDS), implemented in the R package *phyloseq* [46]. Because for some of the groups 220 we have less than 3 replicates (Table 1), we performed the analyses with and without 221 those groups, obtaining virtually the same results. We show here the results with N > 3222 for each category, and in the supplementary material, the results obtained with the whole 223 dataset (Tables S2, S3 and S4). 224 Finally, we performed an analysis to determine indicator species of the community in 225 which the patterns of species distribution were compared among different categories (all body sites within each fish species), by using the Indicspecies R package [47, 48]. The 226 227 results display only bacterial taxa that are significantly (p < 0.05) prevalent in a given category while absent in the rest. A target taxon is considered as "indicator" if it is 228 exclusive to a given group (exclusivity) and occurs in all sample units within a group 229 (fidelity). In this way, the analysis is based on the abundance within particular groups 230 (exclusivity), and on the relative frequency of species within groups (fidelity; [31, 49]). 231

However, groups may be composed of a single or multiple categories (such as the case where indicator species are present in all of the samples of both categories but absent from the rest). An indicator value index is assigned between a species and each group, identifying the group with the highest association value. Then, randomization methods (permutation tests) are used to test the statistical significance of values [31, 49].

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## **RESULTS**

Bacterial taxonomic composition of the fish and water samples

240 We obtained a total of 2,964,227 sequences assigned to bacteria (i.e., filtering out reads 241 belonging to Archaea, Eukarya and unidentified reads). After filtering, the remaining 242 OTUs belonged to 181 genera, spread over 108 families, 67 orders, 37 classes and 13 243 phyla. The most abundant bacterial group in the fish samples was Proteobacteria, when 244 considering both body site (Table 2) or host species (Table 3), and this group was also 245 the most abundant in the water column. The second most abundant group in the water samples was Bacteroidetes (34.1 %), while in fishes this group was not highly 246 247 represented, except in S. salpa (16.1 %). In fishes, the other abundant bacterial phyla were Fusobacteria and Firmicutes, that were rare in the surrounding water (0.7 and 0.3 % 248 249 respectively). Of the most abundant taxa (> 1% of total sequences) Proteobacteria 250 showed a relative abundance of around 80 % in the mucus, skin and gills, although its abundance was only 37.6 % in the intestine. The other most abundant taxa in the intestine 251 252 were Tenericutes, Firmicutes (25.9 %), and Fusobacteria (13.7 %), and these groups 253 were either absent from (Tenericutes), or showed lower abundances in the other three 254 body sites. In detail, the majority of the OTUs retrieved from fishes belonged to the family 255 256 Vibrionaceae (Proteobacteria, class Gammaproteobacteria), and were mainly assigned to the genera Vibrio and Photobacterium, followed by the genus Cetobacterium 257 258 (Fusobacteria; Table 2). The relative abundances of these three genera were similar in 259 mucus, skin and gills, although in the latter tissue, Cetobacterium were more abundant 260 than *Photobacterium* (Table 2). In the intestine, the most abundant group was the order Clostridiales (Firmicutes), and the Genus Cetobacterium (Fusobacteria). Within the 261 family Vibrionaceae, the most abundant genera in the intestine included Aliivibrio and 262

Photobacterium. Vibrio was clearly less abundant in the intestine compared to external

- surfaces. The proportion of each bacterial group (for groups that represent more than 1%
- of the total abundance) varied among different species (Table 3), although
- 266 *Photobacterium* and *Vibrio* were predominant in the majority of the species.
- Flavobacteriales (Bacteroidetes phylum) were abundant in the seawater samples (30 %)
- as were the Rhodobacterales (family Rhodobacteraceae) and Rickettsiales (family
- 269 Pelagibacteriaceae) orders of the Alphaproteobacteria class, showing respectively
- 270 relative abundances of 18.7% and 14.5%. The class Gammaproteobacteria constituted
- 7.2 %, with Vibrio representing 1.5 % of total reads of this class and the
- 272 Synechococcaceae family (Cyanobacteria) accounted for 4.2 of the total sequences.

## 274 Alpha-diversity of bacterial communities

- There were significant differences in levels of Shannon  $\alpha$ -diversity when comparing all
- the different fish species and water ( $F_{12,174} = 2.16$ , p = 0.015, Figure 1). However, when
- 277 removing the water from the analyses, differences among species were no longer
- significant ( $F_{11,171} = 1.54$ , p = 0.12). This result implied that differences were among the
- water and the rest of species, with water displaying a higher  $\alpha$ -diversity than all the fish
- species (Fig. 1). When separating by the water and different body sites, we found
- significant differences among groups, with again water showing the highest  $\alpha$ -diversity,
- and then the mucus ( $F_{4,82} = 20.39$ , p < 0.0001, Fig. 2). Post-hoc tests revealed no
- significant differences among the water and the mucus samples (p = 0.28), while both
- categories were different from the other three groups (all p < 0.001). Therefore, in this
- case, when removing the water from the analyses, significant differences remained due
- to differences between the mucus and the rest of body sites  $(F_{3,179} = 23.13, p < 0.0001)$ .
- No differences were found when comparing the skin, gills and intestine (all p > 0.1, Fig.
- 288 2). Results with all the dataset are presented in Table S2.
- The GLMM results suggest that fish species ( $F_{11.165} = 1.82$ , p = 0.05) and body site ( $F_{3.165}$
- = 23.84, p < 0.0001), but not the sampling day (F<sub>3.165</sub> = 0.85, p = 0.47), influenced the
- 291 Shannon diversity index. Results were the same with the entire dataset (Table S3). The
- $\alpha$ -diversity comparisons among the body sites in each species, and in all the species for
- each body site, are presented in Fig. S1 and S2.

## Beta-diversity

The PERMANOVA results based on Bray-Curtis distances (i.e., β-diversity, Fig. S3) determined that both factors, fish species and body site, explained the variation in bacterial community composition among the samples (Table 4). This means that individual fish within a given species have significantly more similar bacterial communities than with fish from other species, which is also the case with the different body sites. However, individuals and sampling date did not have any significant effect on the structure of the microbiota, which means that individuals from the same species share their microbiota, independently of the sampling date (Table 4). This result clearly discards the possibility of any contamination among fishes at the same sampling date. Tests done with the whole dataset were similar (Table S4).

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### Indicator bacteria

- 308 Several indicator bacterial groups were significant (all p < 0.05, listed in Supplementary 309 material, Table S5). Results displayed a high variation among different fish species regarding indicator microbial species. Sarpa salpa hosts the highest bacterial diversity, 310 311 and also the highest number of indicator bacteria (95 in total, see Table S5). In addition, only this species hosted the phylum Bacteroidetes, which was relatively abundant in the 312 313 water. No indicator bacterium was found in Gobius cruentatus, nor in the water samples. 314 In all fish species except S. salpa, the gut samples did not share any indicator bacteria 315 with the other three body sites. For the other body sites, gills and mucus shared indicator 316 bacteria in five host species, the gills with the skin in two species, and the mucus with the 317 skin in seven species. In six fish species, the mucus, skin and gills shared several indicator bacterial taxa (Table S5). 318
- The body site with the highest number of indicator bacteria was the mucus (Table S5).
- However, in the species S. notata that lacks external mucus, indicator bacteria from skin
- were by far the most numerous in this part of the body (18 taxa against nine in S. salpa,
- and one in G. bucchichi). In the rest of the species, no indicator bacteria were found
- exclusively in the skin.
- An overview of indicator bacteria from all fish species showed that mucus had the highest
- number of exclusive bacterial taxa (30 taxa), followed by skin (15 taxa, Fig. 3). Although
- 326 there were many bacterial taxa that were shared between the different categories, the

highest number was shared by mucus, skin and gills, whereas the gut shared a lower number of indicator bacteria with the other three body sites (Fig. 3).

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#### **DISCUSSION**

331 Our results confirm that *Proteobacteria* was the predominant phylum in water and teleost fish in the Mediterranean Sea, as it was indicated by previous studies [50]. However, the 332 333 prevalence of Bacteroidetes, Fusobacteria and Firmicutes differed among the water and 334 fish samples. Both environmental and/or host-associated factors may shape fish microbiota at different 335 levels [9, 51, 52, 53]. Previous studies found that the mucus microbiota may be highly 336 337 variable and dynamic, depending on the environmental conditions including seasonality 338 [54, 55]. However, other studies suggested that genetic factors have greater effect than 339 environmental factors in shaping mucus bacterial assemblages [56, 57]. In our study, we 340 have found that individuals from the same species shared significantly more bacterial 341 communities than they did with individuals of the other species. This was observed despite being captured in the same place and having overall similar feeding habits, which 342 343 suggests species-specific assemblages. These results are in accordance with previous 344 works claiming that the autochthonous microbes are not a passive reflection of their 345 habitat communities [11], i.e., fish have their own microbiota. We did not detect any 346 effect of the sampling date, although the variation in abiotic factors was moderate among 347 our four samplings (see Table S1). Therefore, other factors may influence teleosts' 348 microbiota, such as seasonal environmental variation throughout the year (e.g. related to temperature or salinity changes), which should be tested in future studies. 349 350 Bacterial communities from a given body site were significantly more similar among 351 themselves than with communities from other body sites. Although the majority of 352 bacteria from mucus, skin and gills belong to the Family Vibrionaceae, there are 353 differences in the relative prevalence of genera among the gills with respect to mucus and skin. The highest bacterial diversity in the body was found in the outermost external layer, 354 i.e., the mucus, which is in intimate contact with water, thus a continuous exchanging of 355 356 bacteria among them could be expected. The mucus acts as a protective barrier for fishes, since it may impede the penetration of potentially pathogenic microorganisms inside the 357 358 body [24]. Our findings that the mucus had a significantly higher diversity than the rest

of the body (including the skin), is in accordance with this protection hypothesis, suggesting that environmental bacteria remain trapped here. Moreover, the fact that *S. notata*, the only fish species without mucus from our sample, had the highest diversity of indicator species in the skin, also supports this hypothesis since in this case, the skin is the direct interface between the fish and the environment. However, we cannot exclude that since the mucus is rich in polysaccharides (e.g. [58, 59]), it may also constitute a food source that attracts heterotrophic bacteria, which may in turn lead to a more diverse community.

Pathogenic bacteria can enter the host fish through the skin, gills or gastrointestinal tract, and the integrity of these physical and immunological barriers determine the outcome of host-pathogen interactions (reviewed in [13]). Balanced and complex interplays within the mucus layer are thus key to disease resistance [60], and are essential for supporting host health and fitness [61].

Differences in the relative abundance of bacteria between different sites on the body are more pronounced between the gut and the other three external body parts (mucus, skin and gills, Table 2). For instance, the phylum Proteobacteria was found at lower relative prevalence in the intestine than in the other three parts, and relative abundance of Firmicutes and Fusobacteria also differ. In addition, we found that indicator bacteria can be shared between the gills, mucus and skin (see Table S5); however, almost no indicator bacteria were shared by the gut and those three external body sites. Therefore, our results suggest that, although we found that body site explains a significant fraction of the variance observed in bacterial communities over all the body, it is mostly because the intestine differs markedly from the rest of the body sites. Overall, these results were not unexpected given the very different physico-chemical conditions (oxygen, pH and organic substrate levels) occurring in guts compared to external body parts. Bacterial community composition has been previously shown to vary in the gut depending on the life cycle stage, diet, environment, and region of the gastrointestinal tract, and even varies greatly among individuals within the same species [2, 5, 10, 16, 61, 62]. In our study, we only examined the distal part of the gut, and individuals from the same species were adults, so we did not find any significant within-species effect, while the fish species explained most of the variance in bacterial assemblages.

There are some groups that predominate in the gut of marine fish across different studies, such as *Proteobacteria*, *Firmicutes*, *Actinobacteria* and *Bacteroidetes*. Also,

Fusobacteria, Clostridia, Bacilli and Verrucomicrobia have been identified (reviewed in [2, 10]), as well as *Mycoplasma* [5], a group that we found exclusively in the gut samples of teleosts. There is some congruence in the identity of bacterial taxa we found in the gut (including Vibrio, Clostridium and Mycoplasma) with other marine fish belonging to different species, including some from aquaculture (e.g. Atlantic salmon, [5]). The presence of similar bacterial taxa in the gut-associated microbiota across different fish species, populations or geographic locations, suggests that these microbes are important contributors to host gut functions, such as digestion, nutrient absorption and immune response [63]. In general, although the intestine ecosystem is expected to harbour a dense population of microbes, sequence-based analyses have demonstrated that it comprises the lowest phylogenetic diversity compared to external parts of the body [2]. This was also observed in the present study when comparing  $\alpha$ -diversity (Shannon diversity index) to the external mucus layer. Previous works also found a higher bacterial diversity in external organs such as skin or gills than in the gut [56, 60], which could be due to a reflection of environmental diversity in the exterior of the body, whereas the gut may offer more stable habitats leading to a more specialized microbial communities [60].

There was no evidence that sampling day had an effect on the microbiota, which is in accordance with the difference between fish and water microbiota. That is, the identity of the fish species was more important in the structuring of bacterial communities than environmental conditions at the moment of their capture. This observation suggests that our results are not biased by the sampling date, and that fishes display their characteristic microbiota independently of the external conditions, at least between these two time points. Different samplings in the same location and with the same species could be performed throughout the year to verify an effect of seasonality on the bacterial diversity of our fish community as described in other aquatic systems (e.g. [54]).

In conclusion, we found that the thirteen Mediterranean teleost species studied here, living in the same environment and sharing most ecological traits, differed in their bacterial microbiota composition. This suggests that host taxonomic status mainly shapes fish microbiota. In addition, we found a characteristic microbial community in different parts of the body, indicating that microbiota are also influenced by local characteristics of their animal-associated microhabitats. The absence of a significant effect of individuals on the bacterial communities that they host suggests that the level of intra-specific variation is significantly lower than the level of inter-tissue and inter-species variations

in shaping fish microbiota. Interestingly, the mucus cover showed the highest bacterial diversity, which supports the hypothesis that it is a barrier between the fish and its environment. That is, bacteria may be retained in this layer but do not reach the skin, and therefore do not penetrate into the body. This physical barrier may thus help to impede pathogenic infections.

Microbial communities associated with fishes are key factors in host physiology, ecology and evolution [1, 64]. Therefore, the knowledge of the factors shaping microbiota may help predict how changes in abiotic or biotic conditions affect bacterial assemblages and their functions. Our results help to clarify these factors in wild fish, highlighting the importance of fish species and body sites. Further studies should investigate the possible functions of bacterial taxa on their hosts, and also investigate environment-induced variations through time-series samplings.

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#### **Ethics statement**

All applicable international, national, and/or institutional guidelines for the use of animals were followed. The Observatoire Océanologique de Banyuls sur Mer holds the authorization from the "Direction interrégionale de la Mer Méditerrannée" for fishing and handling wild Mediterranean teleosts. Wild fish were caught (see above for details) by competent persons on the research vessel "Nereis II" and in accordance with the European Union Regulations concerning the protection and welfare of experimental animals (European directive 91/492/CCE).

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**Table 1**. Total number of DNA samples sequenced, by category: fish species, body site, and water. Note that *Spicara maena* is considered as belonging to the family Sparidae based on phylogenetic evidence [32].

Fish Family	Fish species	No. of individuals	Mucus	Skin	Gills	Gut
	Gobius bucchichi	5	3	5	5	3
Gobiidae	Gobius cruentatus	2	2	2	2	2
	Gobius niger	3	2	3	3	3
Labridae	Symphodus tinca	5	5	5	5	3
Scorpaenidae	Scorpaena notata	5	-	5	5	4
Serranidae	Serranus scriba	5	5	5	5	3
	Diplodus annularis	5	5	5	5	3
	Diplodus vulgaris	5	2	5	5	2
	Oblada melanura	5	4	4	5	3
Sparidae	Pagellus bogaraveo	4	3	4	4	2
	Pagellus erythrinus	5	5	5	5	5
	Sarpa salpa	5	5	5	5	3
	Spicara maena	5	5	5	5	2
Total of each category		59	46	58	59	38
Water samples (1	Water samples (1 per sampling)					
Total samples			205			

Table 2. Percentage of the most abundant bacterial taxa (abundance higher than 1 % in the total community) found in the Mediterranean teleost fish captured in the present work, in total and in each body site.

Taxonomy						Relative abundance (% of reads)						
Phylum	Class	Order	Family	Genera	Total	Mucus	Skin	Gills	Intestine	Water		
Firmicutes Clostridia		Clostridiales	Lachospiraceae	Clostridium	2.2	-	1.5	-	8.6	-		
Firmicutes Clostridia	Clostridiales	Peptostreptococcaceae	<b>,</b>	3.4	1.7	2.3	-	12.8	-			
Eventuation Eventuation		Fusobacteriales	Fusobacteriaceae	Cetobacterium	10.5	5.7	6.2	18.2	13.2	0.68		
Fusobacteria Fusobacteriia	rusobacteriales	rusobacteriaceae	Propionigenium	1.5	2.7	1.4	1.5	-	0.08			
	Betaproteobacteria	1		2.3	-	-	8.6	-	1.06			
<u> </u>		Alteromonadales	Shewanellaceae	Shewanella	5.5	6.3	6.5	7.3	-	-		
		Oceanospirillales	Endozoicomonaceae	Endozoicomonas	2.1	-	1	6.4	-	-		
Proteobacteria	Commonuetachestoria			Aliivibrio	3.2	3.1	5.8	2.2	12.4	0.03		
	Gammaproteobacteria	V:hai analaa	Vibrianasa	Enterovibrio	1.4	1.5	1.7	-	2.2	0.1		
		Vibrionales	Vibrionaceae	Photobacterium	15.3	21.9	20.4	15.5	9.7	0.35		
				Vibrio	29.5	42.5	38	25.1	1.5	6.2		
Tenericutes	Mollicutes	Mycoplasmatales	Mycoplasmataceae		3.1	-	-	-	15.4	-		

Table 3. Percentage of the most abundant bacterial taxa (abundance higher than 1 % in the total community) in each fish species. Legend: DA:

Diplodus annularis; DV: Diplodus vulgaris; GB: Gobius bucchichi; GC: Gobius cruentatus; GN: Gobius niger; OM: Oblada melanura; PB:

Pagellus bogaraveo; PE: Pagellus erythrinus; SM: Spicara maena; SN: Scorpaena notata; SSa: Sarpa salpa; SSc: Serranus scriba; ST: Simphodus tinca.

Taxonomy					Relative abundance (% of reads)													
Phylum	Class	Order	Family	Genera	Total	DA	DV	GB	GC	GN	OM	PB	PE	SM	SN	SSa	SSc	ST
Firmicutes	Clostridia	Clostridiales	Clostridiaceae	Clostridium	2.2	0.36	0.83	0.16	0.24	3.43	0.39	0.37	4.08	0.6	21.87	1.65	5.72	0.25
Tillicutes	Ciostrala	Closululaies	Peptostreptococcacea	e	3.4	1.81	10.68	11.81	0.52	7.82	0.52	2.72	12.34	0.23	1.58	0.32	0.26	3.93
Fusobacteria	Fusobacteriia	Fusobacteriales	Fusobacteriaceae	Cetobacterium	10.5	5.34	8.71	5.03	16.21	2.81	10.27	24.86	19.25	23.98	3.93	8.84	15.78	10.41
1 usobaciena	i usobacterna	Fusobacteriales	гизорастепасеае	Propionigenium	1.5	3.02	1.11	3.67	0.37	1.79	0.49	2	0.12	0.82	0.02	0.72	0.36	7.77
	Betaproteobacteria			2.3	0.64	4.52	4.6	0.03	9.04	0.01	6.71	0.02	0	0.42	18.38	-	-	
	Alteromonadales	Shewanellaceae	Shewanella	5.5	6.64	3.93	4.43	2.08	1.88	8.97	6.56	10.91	7.69	1.84	2.42	1.11	18.72	
		Oceanospirillales	Endozoicimonaceae	Endozoicomonas	2.1	0.01	0.01	11.41	1.71	7.51	0.14	-	-	-	25.07	-	0.01	0.01
Proteobacteria				Aliivibrio	3.2	0.73	13.64	0.74	1.12	0.48	7.94	1.16	1.16	6.34	2.36	8.17	5.18	2.2
Tioteobacteria	Gammaproteobacteria		Vibrionaceae	Enterovibrio	1.4	1.12	1.77	0.21	0.3	12.19	4.21	0.43	0.66	0.46	2.67	0.75	0.83	0.57
		Vibrionales	Vibrionaccac	Photobacterium	15.3	16.09	11.52	9	10.87	5.76	16.71	19.88	33.16	24.41	19.94	26.78	25.89	8.84
				Vibrio	29.5	56.94	42.83	25.5	48.14	27.76	46.55	32.82	19.3	34.77	18.82	31.38	43.77	35.62
		Vibrionaceae			1.7	7.3	0.44	0.23	0.1	0.19	3.54	2.46	0.11	0.7	0.71	0.55	0.97	6.24
Tenericutes	Mollicutes	Mycoplasmatales	Mycoplasmataceae		3.1	0.01	0.01	23.21	18.31	19.34	0.26	0.05	-	-	0.75	0.07	0.12	5.42

Table 4. Results of PERMANOVA on factors explaining bacterial communities
 composition (β-diversity). Significant results are in bold.

	$\mathbf{F}$	D. f.	p-value
Species	2.74	12,169	0.001
<b>Body site</b>	4.68	3,169	0.001
Individual	1.63	1,169	0.173
Sampling event	1.72	1,169	0.117

**Figure 1**. Standardized Shannon diversity index of species and water. Vertical bars denote 0.95 confidence intervals.

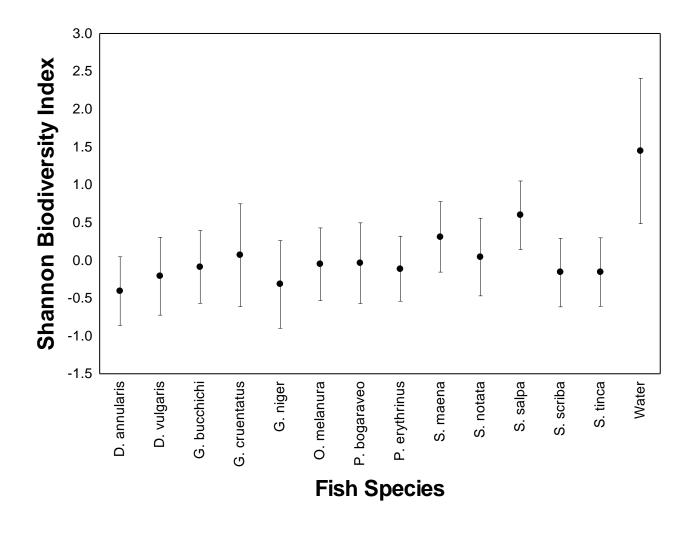
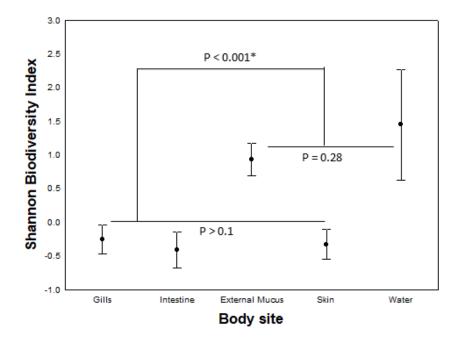


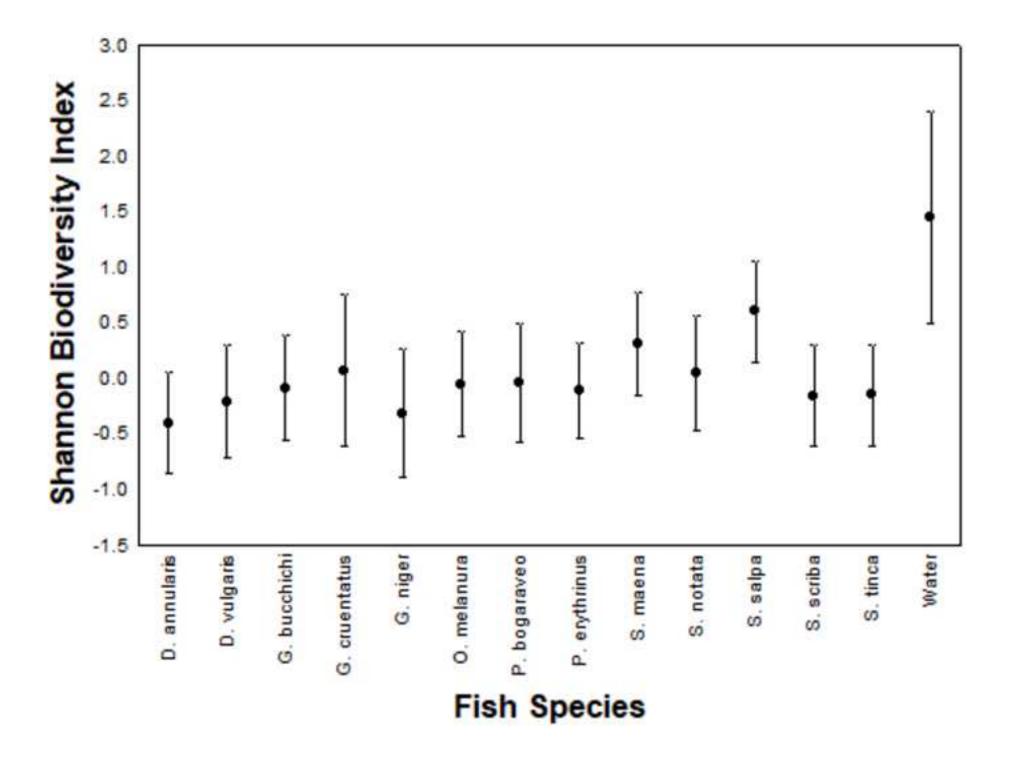
Figure 2. Standardized Shannon diversity index of different body parts and water.

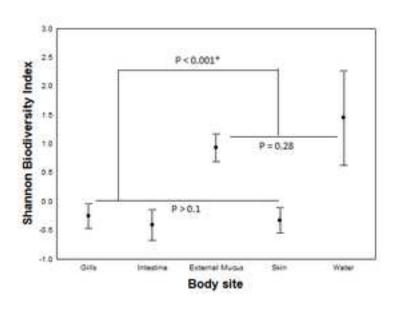
Vertical bars denote 0.95 confidence intervals.

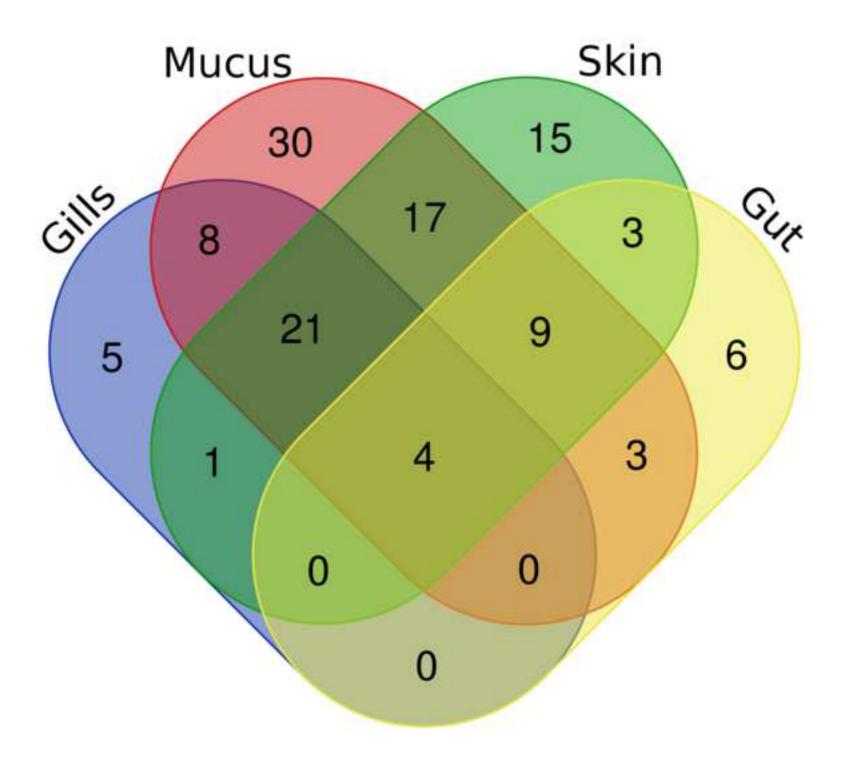


**Figure 3**. Venn diagram representing how many indicator bacterial taxa are exclusive or shared among the different body sites across all the fish species. More information on the specific indicator bacteria is given in Table S5.

Skin Mucus CH 







**Table S1**. Abiotic descriptors for each sampling day obtained from the station SOLA (http://sooob.obs-banyuls.fr/fr/les\_sites\_d\_observation/le\_site\_sola.html), located in the Bay of Banyuls-sur-Mer, close to the fish sampling sites. All captures were performed in 2017.

	June 21	June 21			July 18		October 4	1
	Surface	Seabed	Surface	Seabed	Surface	Seabed	Surface	Seabed
Temperature °C	20.92	16.319	27.97	15.986	22.235	14.5	19.378	18.015
Salinity (PSU)	37.896	38.223	37.798	38.012	37.952	38.457	38.098	38.228
Oxygen (ml/l)	5.29	5.64	5.07	5.78	4.84	5.33	5.24	5.27
pН	8.14	8.14	8.11	8.14	8.07	8.08	8.03	8.07
NH4 (µmol/l)	0	0.01	0.09	0.04	0.052	0.034	0.014	0.019
NO <sub>3</sub> (µmol/l)	0.08	0.04	0.18	0.21	0.08	0.54	0.11	0.02
NO <sub>2</sub> (µmol/l)	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.09	0.02	0.01
PO <sub>4</sub> (µmol/l)	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.06	0.01	0.01
SiOH4 (µmol/l)	0.6	0.86	0.5	0.6	0.55	1.52	0.76	0.8

**Table S2**. Results of ANOVA testing on differences in  $\alpha$ -diversity (Shannon diversity index) among different species, body sites and water, including all the samples, i.e., with categories in which N < 3.

	F	df	p					
Species with water	1.82	13, 191	0.04					
Species without water	1.21	12, 188	0.28		Fisher LS	D Post-h	ocs	
				Water vs. m	ucus		p = 0.24	
<b>Body sites with</b>	23.44	4, 200	< 0.0001	Water	Gills			
water	23.44	4, 200	< 0.0001	Mucus	vs.	Skin	p < 0.001	
				Wideus		Gut		
						Gills		
<b>Body sites</b>	18.07	3, 197	< 0.0001	Mucus	vs.	Skin	p < 0.001	
without water	16.07	3, 197	< 0.0001			Gut		
				Skin vs. Gil	ls vs. Gut		All p > 0.36	

 $\begin{table}{\bf Table S3}. Results of the GLMM analysis considering all the dataset (i.e., including those categories with N < 3). \end{table}$ 

	F	df	p
Fish species	1.83	12,185	0.04
Body site	29.17	3,185	< 0.0001
Sampling day	0.75	3,185	0.50

**Table S4.** Results of the PERMANOVA analysis considering all the dataset (i.e., including those categories with N < 3).

	${f F}$	<b>D.</b> f.	p-value
Species	2.50	13,169	0.001
<b>Body site</b>	5.06	3,169	0.001
Individual	1.57	1,169	0.193
Sampling day	1.91	1,169	0.054

**Table S5**. Distribution of indicator bacterial groups among all the body sites, in each fish species. Legends: G: Gills, I: Intestine, M: Mucus, S: Skin

Fish species	No. bacterial taxa	No. indicator bacterial taxa	Distribution in the body	Bacterial taxa					
			G	Unidentified Betaproteobacteria, Neorickettsia					
			Ι	Unidentified Peptostreptococcaceae					
Diplodus annularis	59	12	M + S	Pseudoalteromonas					
Dipioaus annuiaris	39		G+M	Bacillus, Unidentified Saprospiraceae, Tenacibaculum, Hyphomonadaceae, Croceitalea, Verrucomicrobium, Winogradskyella,					
			G + M + S	Clostridium					
			G	Bacillales					
Diplodus vulgaris 66 3		3	M Unidentified Deltaproteobacteria						
			M + S	Unidentified Ruminococcaceae					
		17	G	Polynucleobacter, Unidentified Betaproteobacteria					
Gobius bucchichi	43		I	Unidentified Rhodobacteraceae, Actibacter, Unidentified Planctomycetes, Loktanella, Lutimonas, Unidentified Desulfobulbaceae, Thiohalorhabdales, Aliivibrio, Lawsonia, Unidentified Desulfovibrionaceae					
			M	Flexibacter					
			S	Spironema					
			M + S	Bacillus					
			G + M	Francisella					
			G + M + S	Shewanella					
Gobius cruentatus	63	0							
Cobius nigar	38	3	G	Unidentified Betaproteobacteria					
Gobius niger	36	3	I	Roseobacter, Unidentified Phyllobacteriaceae					
Oblada melanura	69	6	I	Unidentified Mycoplasmataceae					
Oblada melanara	09	0	M	Winogradskyella, Actibacter, Hyphomonadaceae, Polaribacter, Tenacibaculum					
Dagallus baggnayaa	30	6	M	Kiloniellales, Unidentified Betaproteobacteria, Croceitalea					
Pagellus bogaraveo	30	6	M + S	Unidentified Flavobacteriaceae, Unidentified Bacillales, Saprospiraceae					
Pagellus erythrinus	24	7	G	Unidentified Betaproteobacteria					
1 agenus er ymrthus	<i>24</i>	/	M + S	Bacillus, Planomicrobium					

			G+M	Moritella					
			G + S	Propionigenium					
			G + M + S	Shewanella, Psychrilyobacter					
Cnicana macna	31	5	M	Eudoraea, Planomicrobium, Unidentified Flavobacteriaceae, Unidentified Planococcaceae					
Spicara maena	31	3	M + S	Unidentified Bacillales					
Scorpaena notata 66 24		S	Unidentified Acidimicrobiales, Halomicronema, Unidentified Trueperaceae, Unidentified Chromatiales, Unidentified Saprospiraceae, Unidentified Phyllobacteriaceae, Unidentified Rhodobacteraceae, Kiloniellales, Eudoraea, Lutimonas, Amaricoccus, Sulfitobacter, Unidentified Anaerolineae, Unidentified Pseudanabaenaceae, Unidentified Alphaproteobacteria, Unidentified Unidentified Sphingomonadales, Thiothrix, Unidentified Acidimicrobiales (2)						
			G + S	Unidentified Flavobacteriaceae, Unidentified Planococcaceae, Unidentified Alphaproteo Endozoicomonas, Psychroserpens, Pseudoalteromonas					
			G	Unidentified Chlamydiia, Unidentified Burkholderiales					
			Ī	Unidentified Rickettsiales					
Sarpa salpa 189		95	М	Agrococcus, Pseudonocardia, Fulvivirga, Unidentified Chloroflexi, Rivularia, Unidentified Sphingomonadaceae, Unidentified Bacteriovoracaceae, Unidentified Verrucomicrobiaceae, Unidentified Rhizobiales, Unidentified Spirochaetaceae, Unidentified Kiloniellales, Unidentified Chroococcales, Unidentified Actinomycetales, Unidentified Myxococcales, Unidentified Nocardioidaceae, Enterococcus, Unidentified Trueperaceae, Unidentified Chromatiales, Unidentified Gaiellales, Devosia, Unidentified Acidimicrobiales, Lutibacterium, Fluviicola, Thiohalorhabdales, Halorhodospira, Loktanella, Lysobacter, Leptolyngbya, Unidentified Bacteroides, Planctomyces, Turicibacter, Alcanivorax, Cytophaga					
			S	Salegentibacter, Coccinimonas, Roseivirga, Odoribacter, Anaerofilum, Unidentified Mollicutes, Unidentified Desulfobulbaceae, Coraliomargarita, Paludibacter					
			M + S	Piscirickettsiaceae, Polaribacter, Unidentified Porphyromonadaceae, Unidentified Flavobacteriales, Desulfovibrio, Winogradskyella, Eudoraea, Unidentified Bacillales, Bacillus, Clostridium, Croceitalea, Planctomycete, Unidentified Flammeovirgaceae, Unidentified Spirobacillales, Grimontia, Unidentified Saprospiraceae, Marixanthomonas, Unidentified Deferribacteraceae, Anaerotruncus, Dinoroseobacter, Unidentified Desulfarculaceae					
			G + M	Unidentified Hyphomonadaceae, Unidentified Verrucomicrobiaceae, Unidentified Anaplasmataceae					

			G + M + S	Unidentified Flammeovirgaceae, Aliivibrio, Unidentified Flavobacteriaceae, Unidentified Alteromonadales, Tenacibaculum, Unidentified Pirellulaceae, Unidentified Rhodobacteraceae,			
				Unidentified Planctomycete, Unidentified Hyphomicrobiacea, Enterovibrio			
			I + M + S	Unidentified Macellibacteroides, Unidentified Cerasicoccaceae, Unidentified Opitutae, Unidentified Bacteroidales, Unidentified Rikenellaceae, Unidentified Ruminococcaceae,			
			1 1 141 1 5	Unidentified Alphaproteobacteria, Unidentified Mollicutes, Subdoligranulum, Unidentified Victivallaceae			
			G	Pseudoalteromonas, Arcobacter			
Serranus scriba	30	7	M	Psychrobacter, Methylobacterium			
			G + M + S	Propionigenium, Shewarella, Moritella			
			M	Endozoicomonas			
Simphodus tinca	Simphodus tinca 29 6		G+M	Octadecabacter, Unidentified Bacillales			
			G + M + S	Moritella, Propionigenium, Unidentified Vibrionaceae			

```
# Sequences were previously demultiplexed into forward and reverse reads
# Example:
# 171222 SN1126 A L001 JIC-2-171 R2.fastq.gz and 171220 SN234 A L001 JIC-1-
193 AdapterTrimmed R2.fastq.gz
# In the mapping file fields 16 and 17 contains prefixes and suffixes given by the sequencing center
first field is the sample code
# Unzip files
Is *.gz | awk '{print "gzip -df "$1}' | /bin/sh
# Rename files to have new sample name. Forward first
cat map.txt |sed '1d' | awk '{print "mv "$16"_"$17"_R1.fastq "$1"_R1.fastq"}' |/bin/sh
cat map.txt |sed '1d' | awk '{print "mv "$16"_"$17"_R2.fastq "$1"_R2.fastq"}' |/bin/sh
# Usearch 9 merges reverse and forward from all reads, renames samples based on file name
usearch9 -fastq_mergepairs *R1*.fastq -fastq_maxdiffs 0 -fastqout merged.fastq -relabel @ 2>
fastqmergepairs.log &
# Usearch 9 filters bad quality reads
usearch9 -fastq_filter merged.fastq -fastq_maxee 1.0 -fastaout merged.fasta -fasta_cols 0 &
# T. Walters https://gist.github.com/walterst/2fce207ff38ad04c0bcbb2e8531ac230 script to remove
primers
strip_primers_exclude.py map.txt merged.fasta merged1.fasta log
# Denoise with Usearch 9,
                  # 1 dereplicate
usearch9 -fastx uniques merged1.fasta -fastaout uniques.fasta -sizeout
                  # 2 denoise
usearch9 -unoise uniques.fasta -tabbedout uniques unoise.txt -fastaout uniques denoised.fasta
# Remove sequences shorter than 360 bp
# Make single line fasta
my uniques denoised.fasta uniques denoised
cat uniques_denoised | awk '{if ($1 \sim />.*/){printf ("%s","\n");printf ("%s",$0);printf ("%s","\n")}else
{printf ("%s",$0)}}' | sed '1d' > uniques_denoised.fasta"
# Identify reads shorter than 360 bp
cat\ uniques\_denoised.fasta\ |\ gawk\ -F\ ""\ '\{if(\$1^{\sim}/{>}/)\{printf("\%s\ ",\$0)\}else\{printf("\%s\ ",NF)\}\}'\ |\ awk\ -F\ ""\ '\{if(\$1^{\sim}/{>}/)\{printf("\%s\ ",NF)\}'\ |\ awk\ -F\ ""\ '\{if(\$1^{\sim}/{>}/)\{printf(",NF)\}'\ |\ awk\ -F\ ""\ '\{if(\$1^{\sim}/{>}/)\{printf(",NF)\}'\ |\ awk\ -F\ ""\ '\{if(\$1^{\sim}/{>}
'{if($NF<360)print $1}' >less360
```

```
# Qiime1 removes reads less than 360 bp identified above
filter fasta.py -n -s less360 -f uniques denoised.fasta -o uniques denoised plus360.fasta
# Make OTU table
usearch9 -usearch_global merged1.fasta -db uniques_denoised_plus360.fasta -strand plus -id 0.97 -
otutabout otu table.txt
# Qiime1 assigns taxonomy with rdp classifier and a modified green genes 13 8 database (Reverter
et al., 2017)
assign taxonomy.py -m rdp -i uniques denoised plus360.fasta -t
/Volumes/data/greengenesrdp/gg_13_8_otus/taxonomy/99_otu_taxonomy_species.txt -r
/Volumes/data/greengenesrdp/gg_13_8_otus/rep_set/99_otus.fasta -o
gg_13_8Assigned_tax_species --rdp_max_memory=4000 &
# Fix names in taxonomy table since it is different from the OTU table (i.e. contains read count)
cat gg_13_8Assigned_tax_species/uniques_denoised_plus360_tax_assignments.txt | awk
\{\{sub(/; *;/,"", $1)\}; print $1"\t"$2"\t"$3\}' > tax assignments
# Add missing phylogenetic levels to taxonomy
cat tax assignments | gawk -F "\t"
'{if($2!~/p__/){printf("%s\t",$1);printf("%s;p__;c__;f__;g__;s__\t",$2);printf("%s\n",$3)}else{print
$0}}'| gawk -F "\t"
'{if($2!~/c__/){printf("%s\t",$1);printf("%s;c__;f__;g__;s__\t",$2);printf("%s\n",$3)}else{print $0}}' |
gawk -F "\t" '{if($2!~/f__/){printf("%s\t",$1);printf("%s;f__;g__;s__\t",$2);printf("%s\n",$3)}else{print
$0}}'|gawk -F "\t"
'{if($2!~/g__/){printf("%s\t",$1);printf("%s;g__;s__\t",$2);printf("%s\n",$3)}else{print $0}}'|gawk -F
"\t" '{if($2!~/s__/){printf("%s\t",$1);printf("%s;s__\t",$2);printf("%s\n",$3)}else{print
$0}}'>tax assignments fixed
# biom http://biom-format.org/ , convert table to biom format
biom convert --table-type="OTU table" -i otu_table.txt -o otu_table.biom --to-json &
# biom, add taxonomy
biom add-metadata --sc-separated taxonomy --observation-header OTUID,taxonomy --observation-
metadata-fp tax_assignments_fixed -i otu_table.biom -o otu_table_final.biom
filter taxa
# Qiime remove chloroplasts, mitochondria, archaea and unclassified taxa from table
filter_taxa_from_otu_table.py -i otu_table_final.biom -o otu table final f.biom -n
c Chloroplast,f mitochondria, k Archaea, Unclassified
# Summarize table
```

biom summarize-table -i otu table final f.biom -o summary.txt; less summary.txt

#### # System configuration

uname -a > version system\_profiler SPSoftwareDataType >> version pip freeze >> version conda list >> version

#### # Version:

Darwin woese.obs-banyuls.fr 15.6.0 Darwin Kernel Version 15.6.0: Tue Apr 11 16:00:51 PDT 2017; root:xnu-3248.60.11.5.3 $^{\sim}$ 1/RELEASE\_X86\_64 x86\_64 Software:

#### System Software Overview:

System Version: OS X 10.11.6 (15G1510)

Kernel Version: Darwin 15.6.0

Boot Volume: woese Boot Mode: Normal Computer Name: woese

User Name: Marcelino Suzuki (suzuki) Secure Virtual Memory: Enabled System Integrity Protection: Enabled Time since boot: 111 days 6:45

appnope==0.1.0

backports.shutil-get-terminal-size==1.0.0

biom-format==2.1.5 biopython==1.68 bitarray==0.8.1 burrito==0.9.1

burrito-fillings==0.1.1

bz2file==0.98

checkm-genome==1.0.5

click==6.6 cogent==1.5.3

decorator==4.0.11

DendroPy==4.1.0

EMIRGE==0.61.1

emperor==0.9.51

enum34==1.1.6

funcsigs==1.0.2

future==0.16.0

gdata==2.0.18

h5py==2.6.0

ipython==5.1.0

ipython-genutils==0.1.0

joblib==0.9.3

khmer==2.0

matplotlib==1.4.3

mmtf-python==1.0.5

mock==2.0.0

```
msgpack-python==0.4.8
natsort==3.5.0
nose==1.3.7
numpy==1.10.4
pandas==0.18.1
pathlib2==2.2.0
pbr==1.10.0
pexpect==4.2.1
pickleshare==0.7.4
PICRUSt==1.1.0
Pillow==4.0.0
poretools==0.6.0
prompt-toolkit==1.0.9
ptyprocess==0.5.1
Pygments==2.1.3
pygobject==3.10.0
pynast==1.2.2
pyparsing==2.0.3
pyqi==0.3.2
pysam==0.10.0
python-dateutil==2.3
pytz==2016.10
qcli = 0.1.1
qiime==1.9.1
qiime-default-reference==0.1.3
quast==4.4
reportlab==3.3.0
ruffus==2.6.3
scandir==1.4
scikit-bio==0.2.3
scipy = = 0.17.1
ScreamingBackpack==0.2.333
screed==0.9
seaborn==0.7.1
simplegeneric==0.8.1
simplejson==3.8.1
six = 1.10.0
traitar==1.1.2
traitlets==4.3.1
wcwidth==0.1.7
# packages in environment at /usr/local/miniconda3/envs/bioinfo2:
appnope
                        0.1.0
                                         py27_0
backports
                        1.0
                                         py27_0
bamtools
                                         3
                                                           bioconda
                        2.4.0
bcftools
                                                           bioconda
                        1.6
                                         1
biom-format
                                                           bioconda
                        2.1.5
                                         py27_1
                                                           bioconda
biopython
                                         py27_0
```

1.68

0.8.1

py27\_0

bitarray

boost	1.60.0	py27_0	
boost	1.2.0	py27_0 py27_0	bioconda
burrito	0.9.1	py27_0 py27_0	bioconda
burrito-fillings	0.1.1	py27_0 py27_0	bioconda
bz2file	0.98	py27_0 py27_0	Diocorida
	1.0.6	· · · —	
bzip2	1.0.5	hd86a083_4	hi a a a a d a
checkm-genome		py27_0	bioconda
click	6.6	py27_0	bioconda
cogent	1.5.3	py27_0	bioconda
curl	7.45.0	2	bioconda
decorator	4.0.11	py27_0	
dendropy	4.1.0	py27_0	bioconda
emirge	0.61.1	py27_0	bioconda
emperor	0.9.51	py27_0	bioconda
enum34	1.1.6	py27_0	
freetype	2.5.5	1	
funcsigs	1.0.2	py27_0	
future	0.16.0	py27_1	
gdata	2.0.18	py27_0	
get_terminal_size	1.0.0	py27_0	
google-sparsehash	2.0.3	1	bioconda
h5py	2.6.0	np110py27_7	conda-forge
hdf5	1.8.17	2	
hmmer	3.1b2	2	bioconda
htslib	1.3.2	0	bioconda
icu	54.1	0	
infernal	1.1.2	0	bioconda
ipython	5.1.0	py27_1	
ipython_genutils	0.1.0	py27_0	
java-jdk	8.0.92	1	bioconda
jbig	2.1	0	
jemalloc	3.6.0	1	bioconda
joblib	0.9.3	py27_0	bioconda
jpeg	9b	0	bioconda
khmer	2.0	py27_1	bioconda
libgcc	4.8.5	1	
libpng	1.6.17	0	
libtiff	4.0.6	3	
lordec	0.8	0	atgc-montpellier
matplotlib	1.4.3	np110py27_3	arge montpellier
mkl	11.3.3	0	
mmtf-python	1.0.5	py27_0	bioconda
mock	2.0.0	py27_0 py27_0	Diocoliua
		· · · —	
msgpack-python	0.4.8	py27_0	
natsort	3.5.0	py27_0	
nose	1.3.7	py27_1	

numpy	1.10.4	py27_2	
openssl	1.0.2k	0	
pandas	0.18.1	np110py27_0	
path.py	10.0	py27_0	
pathlib2	2.2.0	py27_0	
pbr	1.10.0	py27_0	
pear	0.9.6	3	bioconda
perl	5.22.0.1	0	conda-forge
perl-threaded	5.22.0	pl5.22.0_12	bioconda
pexpect	4.2.1	py27_0	
pickleshare	0.7.4	py27_0	
picrust	1.1.0	py27_0	bioconda
pillow	4.0.0	py27_0	
pip	9.0.1	py27_1	
poretools	0.6.1a1	py27_5	bioconda
prompt_toolkit	1.0.9	py27_0	
ptyprocess	0.5.1	py27_0	
pygments	2.1.3	py27_0	
pygobject	3.10.0	py27_1	vgauthier
pygtk	2.24.0	py27_1	vgauthier
pynast	1.2.2	py27_0	bioconda
pyparsing	2.0.3	py27_0	
pyqi	0.3.2	py27_0	bioconda
pyqt	4.11.4	py27_4	
pysam	0.10.0	py27_1	bioconda
python	2.7.13	0	
python-dateutil	2.3	py27_0	bioconda
pytz	2016.10	py27_0	
qcli	0.1.1	py27_0	bioconda
qiime	1.9.1	np110py27_0	bioconda
qiime-default-			
reference	0.1.3	py27_0	bioconda
qt	4.8.7	4	
quast	4.4	boost1.60_1	bioconda
readline	6.2	2	
reportlab	3.3.0	py27_0	
ruffus	2.6.3	py27_0	bioconda
samtools	1.3.1	5	bioconda
scandir	1.4	py27_0	
scikit-bio	0.2.3	np110py27_0	bioconda
scipy	0.17.1	np110py27_1	
screamingbackpack	0.2.333	py27_0	bioconda
screed	0.9	py27_0	bioconda
seaborn	0.7.1	py27_0	
seqtk	1.2	0	bioconda
setuptools	27.2.0	py27_0	

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7_0 bioconda
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