

Mining zebrafish microbiota reveals key community-level resistance against fish pathogen infection

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1	Mining zebrafish microbiota reveals key community-level				
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4	Franziska A. STRESSMANN ^{1,2†} , Joaquin BERNAL-BAYARD ^{1,3†} , David PEREZ-				
5	PASCUAL ¹ , Bianca AUDRAIN ¹ , Olaya RENDUELES ^{1,4} , Valérie BRIOLAT ⁵ ,				
6	Sebastian BRUCHMANN ^{6,7} , Stevenn VOLANT ⁸ , Amine GHOZLANE ⁸ , Susanne				
7	HAUSSLER ^{6,9} , Eric DUCHAUD ¹⁰ Jean-Pierre LEVRAUD ⁵ and Jean-Marc GHIGO ¹ *				
8					
10	¹ Genetics of Biofilms Laboratory, Institut Pasteur, UMR CNRS2001, Paris 75015, France				
11 12 13	² current address: Leibniz-Institute of Freshwater Ecology and Inland Fisheries, Department of Chemical Analytics and Biogeochemistry, Müggelseedamm 310, 12587, Berlin, Germany				
14 15 16	³ Departamento de Genética, Facultad de Biología, Universidad de Sevilla, Apartado 1095, 41080 Sevilla, Spain				
17 18	⁴ current address: Microbial Evolutionary Genomics Laboratory, Institut Pasteur, UMR3525, Paris 75015, France				
20 21 22	⁵ Macrophages and Development of Immunity Laboratory, Institut Pasteur, UMR3738 CNRS, Paris 75015, France				
23 24 25	⁶ Department of Molecular Bacteriology, Helmholtz Centre for Infection Research, Braunschweig, Germany.				
26	⁷ current address: University of Cambridge, Department of Veterinary Medicine, Madingley Road Cambridge CB3 0ES, UK				
29 30	⁸ Hub de Bioinformatique et Biostatistique – Département Biologie Computationnelle, Institut Pasteur, USR 3756 CNRS, Paris, France				
32	⁹ current address:Department of Clinical Microbiology, Rigshospitalet; Copenhagen, 2100, Denmark				
34 35	¹⁰ Unité VIM, INRAE, Université Paris-Saclay, 78350 Jouy-en-Josas, France.				
36 37	† FS and JBB equally contributed to this work.				
38	* Corresponding author: Jean-Marc Ghigo (jmghigo@pasteur.fr).				
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44 ABSTRACT

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46 The identification of commensal bacteria conferring resistance against pathogens is often 47 hindered by the complexity of host microbial communities. We used germ-free, 48 conventional and re-conventionalized zebrafish as a model to study the determinant of 49 microbiota-associated colonization resistance against the fish pathogen Flavobacterium 50 columnare. We showed that a consortium of 10 culturable endogenous bacterial species 51 protects zebrafish from lethal intestinal damages caused by F. columnare infection using 52 two different scenarios that do not rely on host innate immunity. Alteration of microbiota 53 composition upon antibiotic dysbiosis first identified Chryseobacterium massilliae as a 54 key bacterium protecting both larvae and adult zebrafish. We also showed that an 55 assembly of 9 species that do not otherwise protect individually confer a community-level 56 resistance to infection. Our study reveals the ecological strategies at play in microbiota-57 based protection against pathogens in a low-complexity in vivo model, opening 58 perspectives for the rational engineering of resilient microbial communities. 59

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62 INTRODUCTION

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64 Animal resident microbial consortia form complex and long-term associations with 65 important community-level functions essential for host development and physiology 66 (Rolig et al. 2015, McFall-Ngai 2002). Microbial ecosystems also provide protection 67 against exogenous pathogens by inhibition of pathogen settlement and growth and/or stimulation of the host immune system (van der Waaij, Berghuis-de Vries, and 68 69 Lekkerkerk-van der Wees 1972, Cani and Delzenne 2009, Stecher and Hardt 2008, 2011, 70 Falcinelli et al. 2016, Olsan et al. 2017). From the perspective of microbial community 71 composition, a shift or reduction in resident microbial diversity, a phenomenon generally 72 referred to as dysbiosis, is often associated with increased susceptibility to infection due 73 to the loss or change in abundance of key microbial community members (Littman and 74 Pamer 2011, van der Waaij, Berghuis-de Vries, and Lekkerkerk-van der Wees 1972). 75 These observations early supported the notion that addition or promotion of individually 76 or communally protective bacteria (such as probiotics) could minimize microbiota 77 dysbiosis or directly prevent infection to restore host health (Heselmans et al. 2005, 78 Boirivant and Strober 2007, Robinson, Bohannan, and Young 2010).

79 Although the efficacy of probiotics has been shown in animal and humans, their 80 mechanisms of action are poorly understood and low throughput experimental models 81 often offer limited information on the individual contribution of probiotic species to 82 community functions (Vollaard and Clasener 1994, Gill 2003, Stecher and Hardt 2011, 83 Rolig et al. 2015, Falcinelli et al. 2016). Moreover, characterization of bacterial strains 84 improving colonization resistance is still hindered by the complexity of host-commensal 85 ecosystems. Zebrafish have recently emerged as a powerful tool to study microbe-86 microbe and host-microbe interactions (Rawls, Samuel, and Gordon 2004, Milligan-87 Myhre et al. 2011, Burns and Guillemin 2017, Douglas 2019, Flores et al. 2020). 88 Zebrafish can be easily reared germ-free or gnotobiotically in association with specific 89 bacterial species (Rawls, Samuel, and Gordon 2004, Melancon et al. 2017). Moreover, 90 zebrafish bacterial communities are increasingly well characterized and a number of 91 phylogenetically distinct zebrafish gut bacteria can be cultured, making this model system 92 directly amenable to microbiota manipulation and assessment of probiotic effect on host 93 infection resistance (Cantas et al. 2012, Rendueles et al. 2012, Caruffo et al. 2016, Perez94 Ramos et al. 2018). Several studies have used zebrafish to evaluate the effect of 95 exogenous addition of potential probiotics on host resistance to infection by various 96 pathogens (Rendueles et al. 2012, Chu et al. 2014, Caruffo et al. 2016, Wang et al. 2016, 97 Qin et al. 2017, Perez-Ramos et al. 2018, Girija et al. 2018, Lin et al. 2019). However, 98 the role of the endogenous microbial community in protecting against invasive pathogen 99 was rarely assessed and the reported protections were often partial, illustrating the 910 difficulty in identifying fully protective exogenous probiotics.

- 101 Here we used germ-free and conventional zebrafish larvae to mine the indigenous 102 commensal microbiota for bacterial species protecting against Flavobacterium 103 columnare, a bacterial pathogen affecting wild and cultured fish species. We identified 104 two distinct infection resistance strategies preventing mortality caused by F. columnare, 105 mediated either by an individual member of the microbiota, the Bacteroidetes 106 Chryseobacterium massiliae or by an assembly of 9 individually non-protecting bacterial 107 species that formed a protective community. Our results demonstrated that mining host microbiota constitutes a powerful approach to identify key mediators of intrinsic 108 109 colonization resistance, providing insight into how to engineer ecologically resilient and 110 protective microbial communities.
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- 113

114 **RESULTS**

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116 Flavobacterium columnare kills germ-free but not conventional zebrafish

117 To investigate microbiota-based resistance to infection in zebrafish, we compared the 118 sensitivity of germ-free (GF) and conventional (Conv) zebrafish larvae to F. columnare, 119 an important fish pathogen affecting carp, channel catfish, goldfish, eel, salmonids and 120 tilapia and previously shown to infect and kill adult zebrafish (Soto et al. 2008, Olivares-Fuster et al. 2011, Declercq et al. 2013, Li et al. 2017, Robinson, Bohannan, and Young 121 122 2010). We used bath immersion to expose GF and Conv zebrafish larvae at 6 days post 123 fertilization (dpf), to a collection of 28 F. columnare strains, belonging to four different 124 genomovars for 3h at 5.10⁵ colony forming units (cfu)/mL. Daily monitoring showed that 125 16 out of 28 F. columnare strains killed GF larvae in less than 48h (Supplementary Fig. 126 S1A), whereas Conv larvae survived exposure to all tested virulent F. columnare strains 127 (Supplementary Fig. S1B). Exposure to the highly virulent strain ALG-00-530 (hereafter F. columnare^{ALG}) also showed that GF mortality was fast (1 day) and dose-dependent and 128 129 that Conv zebrafish survived all but the highest dose (10⁷ cfu/mL) (Fig. 1). Similar 130 survival of infected Conv larvae was obtained with zebrafish AB strain eggs obtained 131 from 4 different zebrafish facilities (Supplementary Fig. S2), suggesting that 132 conventional zebrafish microbiota could provide protection against F. columnare 133 infection.

134

A community of 10 culturable bacterial strains protect against *F. columnare* infection

137 In our rearing conditions, the conventional larval microbiota is acquired after hatching 138 from microorganisms present on the egg chorion and in fish facility water. To test the 139 hypothesis that microorganisms associated with conventional eggs provided protection against F. columnare^{ALG}, we exposed sterilized eggs to either fish facility tank water or 140 141 to non-sterilized conventional eggs at 0 or 4 dpf (before or after hatching, respectively). 142 In both cases, these re-conventionalized (re-Conv) zebrafish survived F. columnare^{ALG} infection as well as Conv zebrafish (Supplementary Fig. S3). To determine the 143 144 composition of conventional zebrafish microbiota, we generated 16S rRNA gene clone 145 libraries from homogenate pools of Conv larvae aged 6 and 11 dpf exposed or not to F.

columnare^{ALG}, sampled over 3 months from 3 different batches of larvae (n=10). A total 146 147 of 857 clones were generated for all samples. We identified 15 operational taxonomical units (OTUs), 10 of which were identified in all experiments (Table 1, Suppl. Table S1). 148 149 Two OTUs (belonging to an Ensifer sp. and a Hydrogenophaga sp.) were only detected 150 once, and a *Delftia* sp., a *Limnobacter* sp. and a *Novosphingobium* sp. were detected more 151 than once (2, 3 and 2 times, respectively), but not consistently in all batches of fish (Table 152 1, Suppl. Table S1). Moreover, deep-sequencing of the 16S rRNA V3-V4 region of 153 gDNA retrieved from larvae originating from the other four zebrafish facilities described 154 above, revealed that OTUs for all of these 10 strains were also detected in Conv larvae, 155 with the exception of A. veronii strain 2 that was not detected in all samples (Suppl. Table 156 S2).

157 To isolate culturable zebrafish microbiota bacteria, we plated dilutions of homogenized 158 6 dpf and 11 dpf larvae pools on various growth media and we identified 10 different 159 bacterial morphotypes. 16S-based analysis followed by full genome sequencing 160 identified 10 bacteria corresponding to 10 strains of 9 different species that were also consistently detected by culture-free approaches (Table 1). To assess the potential 161 162 protective role of these 10 strains, we re-conventionalized GF zebrafish at 4 dpf with a 163 mix of all 10 identified culturable bacterial species (hereafter called Mix10), each at a 164 concentration of 5.10^5 cfu/mL and we monitored zebrafish survival after exposure to F. columnare^{ALG} at 6 dpf. We showed that zebrafish re-conventionalized with the Mix10 165 (Re-Conv^{Mix10}) displayed a strong level of protection against all identified highly virulent 166 167 F. columnare strains (Supplementary Fig. S4). These results demonstrated that the Mix10 168 constitutes a core protective bacterial community providing full protection of zebrafish larvae against F. columnare infection. 169

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171 Community dynamics under antibiotic-induced dysbiosis reveal a key contributor 172 to resistance to *F. columnare* infection

173 To further analyze the determinants of Mix10 protection against *F. columnare*^{ALG} 174 infection, we inoculated 4 dpf larvae with an equal-ratio mix of the 10 bacteria (at 5.10^5 175 cfu/mL each) and monitored their establishment over 8 hours. We first verified that whole 176 larvae bacterial content (OTU abundance) was not significantly different from content of 177 dissected intestinal tubes (p=0.99, two-tailed t-test) (Supplementary Fig. S5) and

178 proceeded to use entire larvae to monitor bacterial establishment and recovery in the rest 179 of the study. We then collected pools of 10 larvae immediately after re-180 conventionalization (t₀), and then at 20 min, 2 hours, 4 hours and 8 hours in three 181 independent experiments. Illumina sequencing of the 16S rRNA gene was used to follow 182 bacterial relative abundance. At t_0 , all species were present at > 4% in the zebrafish, apart 183 from A. veronii strains 1 (0.2%) and 2 (not detected) (Supplementary Fig. S6). Aeromonas 184 caviae was detected as the most abundant species (33%), followed by Stenotrophomonas 185 maltophilia (23%) and Chryseobacterium massiliae (12%), altogether composing 68% of 186 the community (Supplementary Fig. S6). The relative species abundance, possibly 187 reflecting initial colonization ability, was relatively stable for most species during 188 community establishment, with similar species evenness at t_0 (E = 0.84) and t_{8h} (E = 0.85). Whereas both Conv and Re-Conv^{Mix10} larvae were protected against F. columnare^{ALG} 189 infection, the global structure of the reconstituted Mix10 population was different from 190 191 the conventional one at 4 dpf (Supplementary Fig. S6).

192 To test the sensitivity to disturbance and the resilience of the protection provided by Mix10 bacterial community, we subjected Re-Conv^{Mix10} zebrafish to non-toxic antibiotic 193 treatment at 4dpf using either 250 µg/mL penicillin/streptomycin combination (all 194 195 members of the Mix10 bacteria are sensitive to penicillin/streptomycin) or 50 µg/mL 196 kanamycin (affecting all members of the Mix10 bacteria except C. massiliae, P. 197 myrsinacearum and S. maltophilia) (Suppl. Fig. S7). At 5 dpf, after 16 hours of exposure, antibiotics were washed off and zebrafish were immediately exposed to F. columnare^{ALG}. 198 Both antibiotic treatments resulted in complete loss of the protection against F. 199 columnare^{ALG} infection observed in Re-Conv^{Mix10} (Fig. 2A). We then used the same 200 antibiotic treatments but followed by a 24h recovery period after washing off the 201 202 antibiotics at 5 dpf, therefore only performing the infection at 6 dpf (Fig. 2B). Whilst Re-Conv^{Mix10} larvae treated with penicillin/streptomycin showed similar survival to infected 203 GF larvae, kanamycin-treated Re-Conv^{Mix10} zebrafish displayed restored protection after 204 205 24h recovery and survived similarly to untreated conventionalized fish (Fig. 2B). Sampling and 16S gene analysis during recovery experiments at different time points 206 207 showed that bacterial community evenness decreased after antibiotic administration for 208 both treatments (E = 0.85 for 4 dpf control, E = 0.72 for t₀ kanamycin and E = 0.7 for t₀ 209 penicillin/streptomycin), and continued to decrease during recovery (E = 0.6 and 0.64 for 210 kanamycin and penicillin/streptomycin treatment after 24h recovery, respectively). 211 Although C. massiliae remained detectable immediately after both antibiotic treatments, 212 penicillin/streptomycin treatment led a significant reduction in its relative abundance 213 (0.21%) (Fig. 2C). By contrast, C. massiliae relative abundance rebounded 6h after 214 cessation of kanamycin treatment and was the dominant member (52%) of the 215 reconstituted microbiota after 24h recovery period (Fig. 2D), suggesting that the 216 protective effect observed in the kanamycin-treated larvae might be due to the recovery 217 of C. massiliae.

218

219 Resistance to *F. columnare* infection is provided by both individual and

220 community-level protection

To test the potential key role played by C. massiliae in protection against F. columnareALG 221 222 infection, we exposed 4 dpf GF zebrafish to C. massiliae only and showed that it conferred individual protection at doses as low as 5.10² cfu/mL (Fig. 3). Whereas none 223 224 of the 9 other species composing the Mix10 were protective individually (Fig. 3A), their equiratio combination (designated as Mix9) conferred protection to zebrafish, although 225 not at doses lower than 5.10^4 cfu/mL and not as reproducibly as with C. massiliae (Fig. 226 3B). To identify which association of species protected Re-Conv^{Mix9} zebrafish against F. 227 228 columnare^{ALG} infection, we tested all 9 combinations of 8 species (Mix8), as well as several combinations of 7, 6, 4 or 3 species and showed no protection (Suppl. Fig. S8A 229 230 and Suppl. Table S4). We then tested whether lack of protection of Mix8 compared to 231 Mix9 could rely on a density effect by doubling the concentration of any of the species 232 within the non-protective Mix8a (Suppl. Fig. S8B) and showed no protection. These results therefore indicated that microbiota-based protection against F. columnareALG 233 234 infection relied on either C. massiliae-dependent membership effect or on a community-235 dependent effect mediated by the Mix9 consortium.

236

Pro- and anti- inflammatory cytokine production does not contribute to microbiotamediated protection against *F. columnare*^{ALG} infection.

239 To test the contribution of the immune response of zebrafish larvae to resistance to F.

240 columnare infection, we used qRT-PCR to measure cytokine mRNA expression in GF

and Conv zebrafish exposed or not to F. columnare^{ALG}. We also tested the impact of re-

conventionalization with C. massiliae (re-Conv^{Cm}), Mix10 (re-Conv^{Mix10}) or with Mix4 242 243 (A. caviae, both A. veronii spp., P. mossellii) as a non-protective control (Suppl. Table 244 S4). We tested genes encoding IL1 β (pro-inflammatory), IL22 (promoting gut repair), 245 and IL10 (anti-inflammatory) cytokines. While we observed some variation in il10 246 expression among non-infected re-conventionalized larvae, this did not correlate with protection. Furthermore, *il10* expression was not modulated by infection in any of the 247 248 tested conditions (Fig. 4A). By contrast, we observed a strong induction of *illb* and *il22* in GF zebrafish exposed to F. columnare^{ALG} (Fig. 4BC). However, although this 249 induction was reduced in protected Conv, Re-Conv^{Cm} and Re-Conv^{Mix10}, it was also 250 observed in non-protective Re-Conv^{Mix4} larvae, indicating that down-modulation of the 251 252 inflammatory response induced by F. columnare does not correlate with resistance to infection. Consistently, the use of a myd88 mutant, a key adaptor of IL-1 and toll-like 253 254 receptor signalling deficient in innate immunity(Cheesman et al. 2011, van der Vaart et al. 2013), showed that Conv or Re-Conv^{Mix10}, but not GF myd88 mutants survived F. 255 256 columnare as well as wild-type zebrafish (Figure 4D). Moreover, *illb* induction by F. 257 columnare infection was observed only in GF larvae and was mvd88-independent (Suppl. 258 Figure S9). These results therefore indicated that the tested cytokine responses do not 259 play a significant role in the microbiota-mediated protection against F. columnare 260 infection.

261

262 C. massiliae and Mix9 protect zebrafish from intestinal damages upon F.

263 *columnare*^{ALG} infection

Histological analysis of GF larvae fixed 24h after exposure to F. columnare^{ALG} revealed 264 265 extensive intestinal damage (Fig. 5A) prior to noticeable signs in other potential target organs such as gills or skin. To test the requirement for gut access in F. columnareALG 266 267 infection process, we modified our standard rearing protocol of GF fish, which involves feeding with live germ-free T. thermophila. We found that, if left unfed, GF zebrafish did 268 not die after F. columnareALG exposure, while feeding with either T. thermophila or 269 270 another food source such as sterile fish food powder, restored sensitivity to F. columnare^{ALG} infection (Suppl. Fig S10), suggesting that successful infection requires 271 272 feeding and ingestion.

Histological sections consistently showed severe disorganization of the intestine with blebbing in the microvilli and vacuole formation in *F. columnare*^{ALG}-infected GF larvae (Fig. 5). In contrast, zebrafish pre-incubated with either *C. massiliae* or Mix9 consortium at 4 dpf, and then exposed to *F. columnare*^{ALG} at 6 dpf showed no difference compared to non-infected larvae or conventional infected larvae (Fig. 5), confirming full protection against *F. columnare*^{ALG} at the intestinal level.

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280 C. massiliae protects larvae and adult zebrafish against F. columnare

The clear protection provided by C. massiliae against F. columnare^{ALG} infection 281 282 prompted us to test whether exogenous addition of this bacterium could improve 283 microbiota-based protection towards this widespread fish pathogen. We first showed that zebrafish larvae colonized with C. massiliae were fully protected against all virulent F. 284 285 columnare strains identified in this study (Fig. 6A). To test whether C. massiliae could 286 also protect adult zebrafish from F. columnare infection, we pre-treated conventional 3-287 4-month-old Conv adult zebrafish with C. massiliae for 48h before challenging them with a high dose (5.10⁶ cfu/mL) F. columnare^{ALG}. Monitoring of mortality rate showed that 288 pre-treatment with C. massiliae significantly increased the survival rate of adult zebrafish 289 upon F. columnare^{ALG} infection compared to non-treated conventional fish (p=0.0084 290 291 Mann-Whitney test, Figure 6B). Taken together, these results show that C. massiliae is a 292 putative broad-spectrum probiotic protecting zebrafish against columnaris disease caused 293 by *F. columnare*.

294

296 **DISCUSSION**

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298 In this study, we used re-conventionalization of otherwise germ-free zebrafish larvae to 299 show that conventional-level protection against infection by a broad range of highly virulent F. columnare strains is provided by a set of 10 culturable bacterial strains, 300 301 belonging to 9 different species, isolated from the indigenous standard laboratory 302 zebrafish microbiota. With the exception of the Bacteroidetes C. massiliae, this protective 303 consortium was dominated by Proteobacteria such as Pseudomonas and Aeromonas spp., 304 bacteria commonly found in aquatic environments (Mena and Gerba 2009, Goncalves 305 Pessoa et al. 2019). Despite the relative permissiveness of zebrafish larvae microbiota to 306 environmental variations and inherent variability between samples (Stephens et al. 2016), 307 we showed that these ten bacteria were consistently identified in four different zebrafish 308 facilities, suggesting the existence of a core microbiota with important colonization 309 resistance functionality. Use of controlled combinations of these 10 bacterial species 310 enabled us to show a very robust species-specific protection effect in larvae monoassociated with C. massiliae. We also identified a community-level protection provided 311 312 by the combination of the 9 other species that were otherwise unable to protect against F. columnare when provided individually. This protection was however less reproducible 313 and required a minimum inoculum of 5.10^4 cfu/mL, compared to 5.10^2 cfu/mL with C. 314 315 massiliae. These results therefore suggest the existence of two distinct microbiota-based 316 protection scenarios: one based on a membership effect provided by C. massiliae, and the other mediated by the higher-order activity of the Mix9 bacterial community. 317

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Although protection against F. columnare infection does not seem to rely on 319 320 microbiota-based immuno-modulation, we cannot exclude that, individually, some 321 members of the studied core zebrafish microbiota could induce pro- or anti-inflammatory 322 responses masked in presence of the full Mix10 consortium (Rolig et al. 2015).Further studies will be required to characterize the different mechanisms of the two identified 323 324 colonization resistance scenarios, which could include nutrient depletion, adhesion 325 inhibition, direct contact-growth inhibition or release of inhibitory molecules leading to 326 niche exclusion (Vollaard and Clasener 1994, Stecher and Hardt 2011). In the case of the 327 protection provided by C. massilliae against F. columnare, these two phylogenetically 328 close bacteria could compete for similar resources and directly antagonize each other, as

329 shown to occur between Bacteroidetes species (Chatzidaki-Livanis, Coyne, and 330 Comstock 2014, Russell et al. 2014, Roelofs et al. 2016, Jacobson et al. 2018). 331 Interestingly, infected larvae re-conventionalized with either C. massiliae or Mix9 332 showed no signs of the intestinal damage displayed by germ-free larvae, suggesting that 333 both C. massiliae and Mix9 provide similar intestinal resistance to F. columnare 334 infection. Whereas microbial colonization contributes to gut maturation and stimulates 335 the production of epithelial passive defences such as mucus (Kamada et al. 2013, Ganz, 336 Melancon, and Eisen 2016), lack of intestinal maturation is unlikely to be contributing to 337 F. columnare-induced mortality, as mono-colonized larvae or larvae re-conventionalized 338 with non-protective mixes died as rapidly as germ-free larvae.

339 Several studies have monitored the long-term assembly and development of the 340 zebrafish microbiota from larvae to sexually mature adults, however little is known about 341 the initial colonization establishment of the larvae after hatching (Bates et al. 2006, Yan, 342 van der Gast, and Yu 2012). Neutral (stochastic) and deterministic (host niche-based) processes (Costello et al. 2012, Rogers et al. 2013, Burns et al. 2016) lead to microbial 343 344 communities that are mostly represented by a limited number of highly abundant species 345 with highly diverse low-abundant populations. In our experiments, the Mix10 species 346 inoculum corresponded to an equiratio bacterial mix, thus starting from an engineered 347 and assumed total evenness (E = 1) (Hibbing et al. 2010, Shafquat et al. 2014). Evenness 348 was still relatively high (0.84) and remained similar up until 8h in our study, indicating 349 that most of the ten species were able to colonize the larvae. From the perspective of 350 community composition, a loss of diversity is often associated with decreased 351 colonization resistance, but it remains unclear whether this increased susceptibility is due 352 to the loss of certain key member species of the microbial community and/or a change in 353 their prevalence (van der Waaij, Berghuis-de Vries, and Lekkerkerk-van der Wees 1972, 354 Littman and Pamer 2011).

We further investigated resistance to infection by exposing established bacterial communities to different antibiotic perturbations, followed by direct challenge with *F*. *columnare* (to study core microbiota sensitivity to disturbance) or after recovery (to study its resilience) (Robinson, Bohannan, and Young 2010, Shade et al. 2012). Antibiotics are known to shift the composition and relative abundances of the microbiota according to their spectrum (Vollaard and Clasener 1994, Willing, Russell, and Finlay 2011). We 361 observed that penicillin/streptomycin treatment that would affect most of the core species, 362 reduced the abundance of all but two species (A. veronii 1 and P. myrsinacearum) that 363 became relatively dominant during recovery, but failed to provide protection against F. 364 columnare. With the kanamycin treatment, colonization resistance was fully restored at 365 the end of the 24h recovery period, indicative of a resilience that could result from species 366 recovering quickly to their pre-perturbation levels due to fast growth rates, physiological 367 flexibility or mutations (Brugman et al. 2009). Interestingly, even taking into account 368 potential biases associated with the use of the 16S rRNA as a proxy index to determine 369 relative abundance (Salonen et al. 2010, Kunin et al. 2010), evenness was similarly 370 reduced during recovery for both treatments, but abundance at phylum level changed to 371 48% for Proteobacteria, and 52% for Bacteroidetes compared to the >98% of 372 Proteobacteria with the penicillin/streptomycin treatment. Furthermore, C. massiliae was 373 detected as rare (<1%) in conventional larvae, suggesting that it could have a 374 disproportionate effect on the community or that community-level protection provided 375 by the nine other bacteria was also responsible for the protection of conventional larvae 376 to F. columnare infection.

377 Our study showed that germ-free zebrafish larvae are highly susceptible to a 378 variety of different F. columnare genomovars isolated from different hosts, 379 demonstrating that they are a robust animal model for the study of its pathogenicity. 380 Recently, F. columnare mutants in Type 9 secretion system (T9SS) were shown to be 381 avirulent in adult zebrafish, suggesting that proteins secreted by the T9SS are likely to be key, but still largely unidentified, F. columnare virulence determinants (Li et al. 2017). 382 383 Body skin, gills, fins and tail are also frequently damaged in salmonid fish, whereas 384 severe infection cases are associated with septicemia (Bernardet and Bowman 2006). We 385 could not identify such clear F. columnare infection sites in zebrafish larvae, perhaps due 386 to the very low dose of infection used, with less than 100 cfu recovered from infected 387 moribund larvae. However, several lines of evidence suggest that the gut is the main target 388 of F. columnare infection in our model: (i) unfed germ-free larvae survived exposure, (ii) 389 histology analysis showing severe disruption of the intestinal region just hours after 390 infection in germ-free larvae, and (iii) induction of *il22* in germ-free larvae exposed to F. 391 columnare, since a major function of IL-22 is to promote gut repair (Shabgah et al. 2017). 392 This induction appears to be a consequence of the pathogen-mediated damage, as there was no observed induction in conventional or re-conventionalized larvae. The very rapid
death of larvae likely caused by this severe intestinal damage may explain why other
common target organs of columnaris disease showed little damage.

396

397 In this study, we showed that C. massiliae is a promising probiotic candidate that 398 could contribute to reduce the use of antibiotic to prevent columnaris diseases in research 399 and aquaculture settings. Whereas C. massiliae provided full and robust protection 400 against all tested virulent F. columnare genomovars and significantly increased survival 401 of exposed adult conventional zebrafish, further studies are needed to elucidate C. 402 massiliae protection potential in other teleost fish. However, the endogenous nature of C. 403 massiliae suggests that it could establish itself as a long-term resident of the zebrafish 404 larval and adult microbiota, an advantageous trait when seeking a stable modulation of 405 the bacterial community over long periods (Lemon et al. 2012).

406

In conclusion, the use of a simple and tractable zebrafish larval model to mine indigenous host microbial communities allowed us to identify two independent protection pathways against the same pathogen. Whereas further study will determine how these pathways may contribute to protection against a wider range of pathogens, this work also provides insights into how to the engineering of stable protective microbial communities with controlled colonization resistance functions.

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417 MATERIALS AND METHODS

418

419 Bacterial strains and growth conditions. Bacterial strains isolated from zebrafish 420 microbiota are listed in Table 1. F. columnare strains (Suppl. Table S3) were grown at 421 28°C in tryptone yeast extract salts (TYES) broth [0.4 % (w/v) tryptone, 0.04 % yeast 422 extract, 0.05 % (w/v) MgSO₄ 7H₂O, 0.02 % (w/v) CaCl₂ 2H₂O, 0.05 % (w/v) D-glucose, 423 pH 7.2]. F. columnare strains were assigned into four genomovar groups using 16S rRNA 424 restriction fragment length polymorphism analysis, including genomovar I, I/II, II, and 425 III (Garcia et al. 2018). All 10 strains of the core zebrafish microbiota species were grown 426 in TYES or LB at 28°C.

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428 Ethics statement

429 All animal experiments described in the present study were conducted at the Institut Pasteur (larvae) or at INRA Jouy-en-Josas (adults) according to European Union 430 431 guidelines handling of for laboratory animals 432 (http://ec.europa.eu/environment/chemicals/lab animals/home en.htm) and were 433 approved by the relevant institutional Animal Health and Care Committees.

434

435 General handling of zebrafish. Wild-type AB fish, originally purchased from the 436 Zebrafish International Resource Center (Eugene, OR, USA), or myd88-null mutants (mvd88^{hu3568/hu3568}) (van der Vaart et al. 2013), kindly provided by A.H Meijer, (Leiden 437 438 University, the Netherlands), were raised in our facility. A few hours after spawning, eggs 439 were collected, rinsed, and sorted under a dissecting scope to remove faeces and 440 unfertilized eggs. All following procedures were performed in a laminar microbiological 441 cabinet with single-use disposable plasticware. Fish were kept in sterile 25 cm³ vented 442 cap culture flasks containing 20 mL of water (0-6 dpf- 15 fish per flasks) or 24-well 443 microtiter plates (6-15 dpf-1 fish per 2 mL well) in autoclaved mineral water (Volvic) at 444 28°C. Fish were fed 3 times a week from 4 dpf with germ-free Tetrahymena thermophila 445 protozoans (Rendueles et al. 2012). Germ-free zebrafish were produced after sterilizing 446 the egg chorion protecting the otherwise sterile egg, with antibiotic and chemical 447 treatments (see below), whereas conventional larvae (with facility-innate microbiota) 448 were directly reared from non-sterilized eggs and then handled exactly as the germ-free 449 larvae.

450

451 Sterilization of zebrafish eggs. Egg sterilization was performed as previously described 452 with some modifications (Rendueles et al. 2012). Freshly fertilized zebrafish eggs were 453 first bleached (0.003%) for 5 min, washed 3 times in sterile water under gentle agitation and maintained overnight in groups of 100 eggs per 75 cm³ culture flasks with vented 454 455 caps containing 100 mL of autoclaved Volvic mineral water supplemented with 456 methylene blue solution (0.3 µg/mL). Afterwards, eggs were transferred into 50 mL 457 Falcon tubes (100 eggs per tube) and treated with a mixture of antibiotics (500 µL of 458 penicillin G: streptomycin, 10,000 U/ml: 10 mg/mL GIBCO #P4333), 200 µL of filtered 459 kanamycin sulfate (100 mg/mL, SERVA Electrophoresis #26899) and antifungal drug 460 (50 μL of amphotericin B solution Sigma-Aldrich (250 μg/mL) #A2942) for 2 h under 461 agitation at 28°C. Eggs were then washed 3 times in sterile water under gentle agitation 462 and bleached (0.003%) for 15 min, resuspending the eggs every 3 min by inversion. Eggs 463 were washed again 3 times in water and incubated 10 min with 0.01% Romeiod (COFA, 464 Coopérative Française de l'Aquaculture). Finally, eggs were washed 3 times in water and transferred into 25 cm³ culture flasks with vented caps containing 20 mL of water. After 465 466 sterilization, eggs were transferred with approximately 30 to 35 eggs / flasks and were 467 transferred into new flasks at 4 dpf before re-conventionalization with 10 to 15 fish / 468 flask. We monitored sterility at several points during the experiment by spotting 50 µL of 469 water from each flask on LB, TYES and on YPD agar plates, all incubated at 28°C under 470 aerobic conditions. Plates were left for at least 3 days to allow slow-growing organisms 471 to multiply. Spot checks for bacterial contamination were also carried out by PCR 472 amplification of water samples with the 16S rRNA gene primers and procedure detailed 473 further below. If a particular flask was contaminated, those fish were removed from the 474 experiment.

475

476 **Procedure for raising germ-free zebrafish.** After hatching, fish were fed with germ-477 free *T. thermophila* 3 times per week from 4 dpf onwards. *(i) T. thermophila stock.* A 478 germ-free line of *T. thermophila* was maintained at 28°C in 20 mL of PPYE (0.25% 479 proteose peptone BD Bacto #211684, 0.25% yeast extract BD Bacto #212750) 480 supplemented with penicillin G (10 unit/mL) and streptomycin (10µg/mL). Medium was 481 inoculated with 100 µL of the preceding *T. thermophila* stock. After one week of growth, 482 samples were taken, tested for sterility on LB, TYES and YPD plates and restocked again.

483 (ii) Growth. T. thermophila were incubated at 28°C in MYE broth (1% milk powder, 1% 484 yeast extract) inoculated from stock suspension at a 1:50 ratio. After 24 h of growth, T. 485 thermophila were transferred to Falcon tubes and washed (4400 rpm, 3 min at 25°C) 3 486 times in 50 mL of autoclaved Volvic water. Finally, T. thermophila were resuspended in 487 sterile water and added to culture flasks (500 μ L in 20 mL) or 24-well plates (50 μ L / 488 well). Sterility of T. thermophila was tested by plating and 16S rRNA PCR as described 489 in the section above. (iii) Fine-powder feeding. When indicated, fish were fed with 490 previously y-ray-sterilized fine-powdered food suitable for an early first feeding gape size 491 (ZM-000 fish feed, ZM Ltd) every 48 hours (Pham et al. 2008).

492

493 **Re-conventionalization of germ-free zebrafish**. At 4 dpf, just after hatching, zebrafish 494 larvae were re-conventionalized with a single bacterial population or a mix of several. 495 The 10 bacterial strains constituting the core protective microbiota were grown for 24h 496 in suitable media (TYES or LB) at 28°C. Bacteria were then pelleted and washed twice 497 in sterile water, and all adjusted to the same cell density ($OD_{600} = 1$ or 5.10⁷ cfu/mL) (i) Re-conventionalization with individual species. Bacteria were resuspended and 498 499 transferred to culture flasks containing germ-free fish at a final concentration of 5.10^5 500 cfu/mL. (ii) Re-conventionalization with bacterial mixtures. For the preparation of 501 Mix10, Mix9, Mix8 and all other mixes used, equimolar mixtures were prepared by adding each bacterial species at initial concentration to 5.107 cfu/mL. Each bacterial 502 503 mixture suspension was added to culture flasks containing germ-free fish at a final 504 concentration of 5.10^5 cfu/mL.

505

506 Infection challenges. F. columnare strains (Suppl. Table S3) were grown overnight in TYES broth at 28°C. Then, 2 mL of culture were pelleted (10,000 rpm for 5 min) and 507 508 washed once in sterile water. GF zebrafish were brought in contact with the tested 509 pathogens at 6 dpf for 3h by immersion in culture flasks with bacterial doses ranging from 5.10² to 5.10⁷ cfu/mL. Fish were then transferred to individual wells of 24-well plates, 510 511 containing 2 mL of water and 50 μ L of freshly prepared GF T. thermophila per well. 512 Mortality was monitored daily as described in (Rendueles et al. 2012) and as few as 54±9 513 cfu/larva of F. columnare were recovered from infected larvae. All zebrafish experiments 514 were stopped at day 9 post-infection and zebrafish were euthanized with tricaine (MS-515 222) (Sigma-Aldrich #E10521). Each experiment was repeated at least 3 times and

516 between 10 and 15 larvae were used per condition and per experiment.

517

518 Collection of eggs from other zebrafish facilities. Conventional zebrafish eggs were 519 collected in 50 mL Falcon tubes from the following facilities: Facility 1 - zebrafish facility 520 in Hospital Robert Debré, Paris; Facility 2 - Jussieu zebrafish facility A2, University Paris 521 6; Facility 3 - Jussieu – zebrafish facility C8 (UMR7622), University Paris 6; Facility 4: 522 AMAGEN commercial facility, Gif sur Yvette; Larvae were treated with the same rearing 523 conditions, sterilization and infection procedures used in the Institut Pasteur facility.

524

525 Determination of fish bacterial load using cfu count. Zebrafish were euthanized with 526 tricaine (MS-222) (Sigma-Aldrich #E10521) at 0.3 mg/mL for 10 minutes. Then they 527 were washed in 3 different baths of sterile PBS-0.1% Tween to remove bacteria loosely 528 attached to the skin. Finally, they were transferred to tubes containing calibrated glass 529 beads (acid-washed, 425 µm to 600 µm, SIGMA-ALDRICH #G8772) and 500 µL of 530 autoclaved PBS. They were homogenized using FastPrep Cell Disrupter (BIO101/FP120 531 QBioGene) for 45 s at maximum speed (6.5 m/s). Finally, serial dilutions of recovered 532 suspension were spotted on TYES agar and cfu were counted after 48h of incubation at 533 28°C.

534

Characterization of zebrafish microbial content. Over 3 months, the experiment was 535 536 run independently 3 times and 3 different batches of eggs were collected from different 537 fish couples in different tanks. Larvae were reared as described above. GF and Conv 538 larvae were collected at 6 dpf and 11 dpf for each batch. Infected Conv larvae were exposed to F. columnare^{ALG} for 3h by immersion as described above. For each 539 experimental group, triplicate pools of 10 larvae (one in each experimental batch) were 540 541 euthanized, washed and lysed as above. Lysates were split into 3 aliquots, one for culture 542 followed by 16S rRNA gene sequencing (A), one for 16S rRNA gene clone library 543 generation and Sanger sequencing (B), and one for Illumina metabarcoding-based 544 sequencing (C).

545

546 A) Bacterial culture followed by 16S rRNA gene-based identification

547 Lysates were serially diluted and immediately plated on R2A, TYES, LB, MacConkey,

548 BHI, BCYE, TCBS and TSB agars and incubated at 28°C for 24-72h. For each agar,

549 colony morphotypes were documented, and colonies were picked and re-streaked on the 550 same agar in duplicate. In order to identify the individual morphotypes, individual 551 colonies were picked for each identified morphotype from each agar, vortexed in 200 µL 552 DNA-free water and boiled for 20 min at 90°C. Five µL of this bacterial suspension were 553 used as template for colony PCR to amplify the 16S rRNA gene with the universal primer 554 pair for the Domain bacteria 8f (5'-AGA GTT TGA TCC TGG CTC AG-3') and 1492r 555 (5'-GGT TAC CTT GTT ACG ACT T-3'). Each primer was used at a final concentration 556 of 0.2 µM in 50 µL reactions. PCR cycling conditions were - initial denaturation at 94°C 557 for 2 min, followed by 32 cycles of denaturation at 94 °C for 1 min, annealing at 56°C for 558 1 min, and extension at 72°C for 2 min, with a final extension step at 72°C for 10 min. 559 16S rRNA gene PCR products were verified on 1% agarose gels, purified with the 560 QIAquick® PCR purification kit and two PCR products for each morphotype were sent 561 for sequencing (Eurofins, Ebersberg, Germany). 16S rRNA sequences were manually 562 proofread, and sequences of low quality were removed from the analysis. Primer 563 sequences were trimmed, and sequences were compared to GenBank (NCBI) with BLAST, and to the Ribosomal Database Project with SeqMatch. For genus determination 564 565 a 95% similarity cut-off was used, for Operational Taxonomic Unit determination, a 98% 566 cut-off was used.

- 567
- 568

B) 16S rRNA gene clone library generation

569 Total DNA was extracted from the lysates with the Mobio PowerLyzer® Ultraclean® kit 570 according to manufacturer's instructions. Germ-free larvae and DNA-free water were 571 also extracted as control samples. Extracted genomic DNA was verified by Tris-acetate-572 EDTA-agarose gel electrophoresis (1%) stained with GelRed and quantified by applying 573 2.5 µL directly to a NanoDrop[®] ND-1000 Spectrophotometer. The 16S rRNA gene was 574 amplified by PCR with the primers 8f and 1492r, and products checked and purified as 575 described in section A. Here, we added 25-50 ng of DNA as template to 50 µL reactions. 576 Clone libraries were generated with the pGEM®-T Easy Vector system (Promega) 577 according to manufacturer's instructions. Presence of the cloned insert was confirmed by 578 colony PCR with vector primers gemsp6 (5'-GCT GCG ACT TCA CTA GTG AT-3') 579 and gemt7 (5'-GTG GCA GCG GGA ATT CGA T-3'). Clones with an insert of the 580 correct size were purified as above and sent for sequencing (Eurofins, Ebersberg, 581 Germany). Blanks using DNA-free water as template were run for all procedures as

582 controls. For the three independent runs of the experiment, 10 Conv fish per condition (6 583 and 11 dpf, exposed or not to F. columnare) and per repeat were pooled. Each pool of 10 584 fish was sequenced separately, generating 3 replicates for each condition (n=12), resulting 585 in a total of 857 clones. Clone library coverage was calculated with the following formula 586 $[1-(n_1/N_2)] \ge 100$, where n₁ is the number of singletons detected in the clone library, and 587 N₂ is the total number of clones generated for this sample. Clone libraries were generated 588 to a minimum coverage of 95%. Sequence analysis and identification was carried out as 589 in section A.

590

591 C) by 16S rRNA V3V4 Amplicon Illumina sequencing

592 To identify the 16S rRNA gene diversity in our facility and fish collected from 4 other 593 zebrafish facilities, fish were reared as described above. GF fish were sterilised as above, 594 and uninfected germ-free and conventional fish were collected at 6 dpf and 11 dpf. Infection was carried out as above with F. columnare^{ALG} for 3h by bath immersion, 595 596 followed by transfer to clean water. Infected conventional fish were collected at 6 dpf 6h 597 after infection with F. columnare and at 11 dpf, the same as uninfected fish. GF infected 598 larvae were only collected at 6 dpf 6h post infection, as at 11 dpf all larvae had succumbed 599 to infection. Triplicate pools of 10 larvae were euthanized, washed and lysed as above. 600 Total DNA was extracted with the Mobio PowerLyzer® Ultraclean® kit as described above and quantified with a NanoDrop® ND-1000 Spectrophotometer and sent to IMGM 601 602 Laboratories GmbH (Germany) for Illumina sequencing. Primers Bakt 341F (5'-603 CCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG-3') Bakt 805R and (5'-604 GACTACHVGGGTATCTAATCC-3'), amplifying variable regions 3 and 4 of the 16S 605 gene were used for amplification (Lemon et al. 2012).

606 Each amplicon was purified with solid phase reversible immobilization (SPRI) 607 paramagnetic bead-based technology (AMPure XP beads, Beckman Coulter) with a 608 Bead:DNA ratio of 0.7:1 (v/v) following manufacturer's instructions. Amplicons were 609 normalized with the Sequal-Prep Kit (Life Technologies), so each sample contained 610 approximately 1 $ng/\mu l$ DNA. Samples, positive and negative controls were generated in 611 one library. The High Sensitivity DNA LabChip Kit (was used on the 2100 Bioanalyzer system (both Agilent Technologies) to check the quality of the purified amplicon library. 612 613 For cluster generation and sequencing, MiSeq® reagents kit 500 cycles Nano v2 614 (Illumina Inc.) was used. Before sequencing, cluster generation by two-dimensional bridge amplification was performed, followed by bidirectional sequencing, producing 2
x 250 bp paired-end (PE) reads.

MiSeq® Reporter 2.5.1.3 software was used for primary data analysis (signal processing,
de-multiplexing, trimming of adapter sequences). CLC Genomics Workbench 8.5.1
(Qiagen) was used for read-merging, quality trimming and QC reports and OTU

620 definition were carried out in the CLC plugin Microbial Genomics module.

621

622 **Comparison of whole larvae vs intestinal bacterial content.** Larvae re-623 conventionalized with Mix10 and infected with *F. columnare*^{ALG} at 6 dpf for 3h were 624 euthanized and washed. DNA was extracted from pools of 10 whole larvae or of pools of 625 10 intestinal tubes dissected with sterile surgical tweezer and subjected to Illumina 16S 626 rRNA gene sequencing. GF larvae and dissected GF intestines were sampled as controls. 627 As dissection of the larval guts involved high animal loss and was a potential important 628 contamination source, we proceeded with using entire larvae for the rest of the study.

629

Whole genome sequencing. Chromosomal DNA of the ten species composing the core
of zebrafish larvae microbiota was extracted using the DNeasy Blood & Tissue kit
(QIAGEN) including RNase treatment. DNA quality and quantity were assessed on a
NanoDrop ND-1000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific).

634 DNA sequencing libraries were made using the Nextera DNA Library Preparation Kit 635 (Illumina Inc.) and library quality was checked using the High Sensitivity DNA LabChip 636 Kit on the Bioanalyzer 2100 (Agilent Technologies). Sequencing clusters were generated 637 using the MiSeq reagents kit v2 500 cycles (Illumina Inc.) according to manufacturer's 638 instructions. DNA was sequenced at the Helmholtz Centre for Infection Research by 639 bidirectional sequencing, producing 2 x 250 bp paired-end (PE) reads. Between 1,108,578 640 and 2,914,480 reads per sample were retrieved with a median of 1,528,402. Reads were 641 quality filtered, trimmed and adapters removed with trimmomatic 0.39 (Bolger, Lohse, 642 and Usadel 2014) and genomes assembled using SPAdes 3.14 (Bankevich et al. 2012).

643

644 Bacterial species identification. Whole genome-based bacterial species identification
645 was performed by the TrueBac ID system (v1.92, DB:20190603)
646 [https://www.truebacid.com/; (Ha et al. 2019). Species-level identification was

647 performed based on the algorithmic cut-off set at 95% ANI when possible or when the
648 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity was >99 %.

649

650 Monitoring of bacterial dynamics. Three independent experiments were run over 6 651 weeks with eggs collected from different fish couples from different tanks to monitor establishment and recovery. Larvae were reared, sterilized and infected as above with the 652 653 only difference that 75 cm³ culture flasks with vented caps (filled with 50 mL of sterile 654 Volvic) were used to accommodate the larger number of larvae required, as in each 655 experiment. Larvae for time course Illumina sequencing were removed sequentially from 656 the experiment that monitored the survival of the larvae. Animals were pooled (10 larvae 657 for each time point/condition), euthanized, washed and lysed as described above and 658 stored at -20°C until the end of the survival monitoring, and until all triplicates had been 659 collected.

660

661 *A)* Community establishment

In order to follow the establishment of the 10 core strains in the larvae, GF larvae were re-conventionalized with an equiratio Mix10 as above. Re-con^{Mix10} larvae were sampled at 4 dpf immediately after addition of the 10 core species and then 20 min, 2h, 4h and 8h after. Germ-free, conventional larvae and the inoculum were also sampled as controls.

666

667 B) Induction of dysbiosis

668 Different doses of kanamycin (dose 1= 200 μ g/mL; dose 2= 50 μ g/mL; dose 3= 25 669 μ g/mL) and a penicillin/streptomycin antibiotic mix (dose 1= 250 μ g/mL; dose 2= 15.6 670 μ g/mL were tested on re-con^{Mix10} 4 dpf zebrafish larvae by adding them to the flask water 671 to identify antibiotic treatments that were non-toxic to larvae but that caused dysbiosis. 672

After 16 hours of treatment, antibiotics were extensively washed off with sterile water and larvae were challenged with *F. columnare*^{ALG}, leading to the death of all larvae – e.g. successful abolition of colonization resistance with best results in all repeats with 250 μ g/mL penicillin/streptomycin and 50 μ g/mL kanamycin as antibiotic treatment.

677

678 *C)* Community recovery

679 As in B) after 8h of incubation, 4 dpf recon^{Mix10} larvae were treated with 250 μ g/mL 680 penicillin/streptomycin and 50 μ g/mL kanamycin for 16h. Antibiotics were extensively 681 washed off and larvae were now left to recover in sterile water for 24h to assess resilience 682 of the bacterial community. Samples (pools of 10 larvae) were taken at 3h, 6h, 12h, 18h 683 and 24h during recovery and sent for 16S rRNA Illumina sequencing. Larvae were then 684 challenged at 6 dpf with *F. columnare*^{ALG} for 3h and survival was monitored daily for 9 685 days post-infection. All time course samples were sequenced by IMGM Laboratories 686 GmbH, as described above.

687

688 Statistical analysis of metataxonomic data. 16S RNA analysis was performed with 689 SHAMAN (Volant et al. 2019)]. Library adapters, primer sequences, and base pairs 690 occurring at 5' and 3'ends with a Phred quality score <20 were trimmed off by using 691 Alientrimmer (v0.4.0). Reads with a positive match against zebrafish genome (mm10) 692 were removed. Filtered high-quality reads were merged into amplicons with Flash 693 (v1.2.11). Resulting amplicons were clustered into operational taxonomic units (OTU) 694 with VSEARCH (v2.3.4) (Rognes et al. 2016). The process includes several steps for de-695 replication, singletons removal, and chimera detection. The clustering was performed at 696 97% sequence identity threshold, producing 459 OTUs. The OTU taxonomic annotation was performed against the SILVA SSU (v132) database (Quast et al. 2012) completed 697 698 with 16S sequence of 10 bacterial communities using VSEARCH and filtered according 699 to their identity with the reference (Yarza et al. 2014). Annotations were kept when the 700 identity between the OTU sequence and reference sequence is $\geq 78.5\%$ for taxonomic 701 Classes, $\geq 82\%$ for Orders, $\geq 86.5\%$ for Families, $\geq 94.5\%$ for Genera and $\geq 98\%$ for species. Here, 73.2% of the OTUs set was annotated and 91.69% of them were annotated 702 703 at genus level.

704 The input amplicons were then aligned against the OTU set to get an OTU contingency 705 table containing the number of amplicon associated with each OTU using VSEARCH 706 global alignment. The matrix of OTU count data was normalized for library size at the 707 OTU level using a weighted non-null count normalization. Normalized counts were then 708 summed within genera. The generalized linear model (GLM) implemented in the DESeq2 709 R package (Love, Huber, and Anders 2014) was then applied to detect differences in 710 abundance of genera between each group. We defined a GLM that included the treatment 711 (condition) and the time (variable) as main effects and an interaction between the 712 treatment and the time. Resulting P values were adjusted according to the Benjamini and 713 Hochberg procedure.

The statistical analysis can be reproduced on shaman by loading the count table, the taxonomic results with the target and contrast files that are available on figshare https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.11417082.v2.

717

718 Determination of cytokine levels. Total RNAs from individual zebrafish larvae were 719 extracted using RNeasy kit (Qiagen), 18h post pathogen exposure (12h post-wash). 720 Oligo(dT17)-primed reverse transcriptions were carried out using M-MLV H- reverse-721 transcriptase (Promega). Quantitative PCRs were performed using Takyon SYBR Green 722 PCR Mastermix (Eurogentec) on a StepOne thermocycler (Applied Biosystems). Primers 723 for efla (housekeeping gene, used for cDNA amount normalization), illb, ill0 and il22 724 are described in (Rendueles et al. 2012). Data were analysed using the $\Delta\Delta$ Ct method. Four larvae were analysed per condition. Zebrafish genes and proteins mentioned in the text: 725 726 efla NM 131263; illb BC098597; il22 NM 001020792; ill0 NM 001020785; myd88 727 NM 212814.

728

Histological comparisons of GF, Conv and Re-Conv fish GF infected or not with *F*. *columnare*

Fish were collected 24h after infection (7 dpf) and were fixed for 24h at 4°C in Trump fixative (4% methanol-free formaldehyde, 1% glutaraldehyde in 0.1 M PBS, pH 7.2) and sent to the PIBiSA Microscopy facility services (https://microscopies.med.univ-tours.fr/) in the Faculté de Médecine de Tours (France), where whole fixed animals were processed, embedded in Epon. Semi-thin sections (1 μ m) and cut using a X ultra-microtome and then either dyed with toluidine blue for observation by light microscopy and imaging or processed for Transmission electron microscopy.

738

739 Adult zebrafish pre-treatment with C. massiliae

The zebrafish line AB was used. Fish were reared at 28°C in dechlorinated recirculated water, then transferred into continuous flow aquaria when aging 3-4 months for infection experiments. *C. massiliae* was grown in TYES broth at 150 rpm and 28°C until stationary phase. This bacterial culture was washed twice in sterile water and adjusted to $OD_{600nm} =$ Adult fish re-conventionalization was performed by adding *C. massiliae* bacterial suspension directly into the fish water (1L) at a final concentration of 2.10⁶ cfu/mL. Bacteria were maintained in contact with fish for 24 h by stopping the water flow then bioRxiv preprint doi: https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.04.23.058222. this version posted April 24, 2020. The copyright holder for this preprint (which was not certified by peer review) is the author/funder. All rights reserved. No reuse allowed without permission.

subsequently removed by restoring the water flow. *C. massiliae* administration was
performed twice after water renewal. In the control group, the same volume of sterile
water was added.

750

751 Adult zebrafish infection challenge

752 F. columnare infection was performed just after fish re-conventionalization with C. 753 massiliae. The infection was performed as previously described by Li and co-workers 754 with few modifications [Li et al., 2017]. Briefly, F. columnare strain ALG-0530 was 755 grown in TYES broth at 150 rpm and 28 °C until late-exponential phase. Then, bacterial 756 cultures were diluted directly into the water of aquaria (200 mL) at a final concentration of 5.10⁶ cfu/mL. Bacteria were maintained in contact with fish for 1 h by stopping the 757 758 water flow then subsequently removed by restoring the water flow. Sterile TYES broth 759 was used for the control group. Bacterial counts were determined at the beginning of the 760 immersion challenge by plating serial dilutions of water samples on TYES agar. Water 761 was maintained at 28°C and under continuous oxygenation for the duration of the immersion. Groups were composed of 10 fish. Virulence was evaluated according to fish 762 763 mortality 10 days post-infection.

764

765 Statistical methods. Statistical analyses were performed using unpaired, non-parametric
766 Mann-Whitney test or unpaired t-tests. Analyses were performed using Prism v8.2
767 (GraphPad Software).

768 Evenness: The Shannon diversity index was calculated with the formula (Hs = -

769 $\Sigma[P(\ln(P)])$ where P is the relative species abundance. Total evenness was calculated for

770 the Shannon index as $E = H_S/H_{max}$. The less evenness in communities between the species

771 (and the presence of a dominant species), the lower this index is.

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774

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794

795 AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS:

796

F. A. S., J. B. B., D.P.-P., J.-P. L. and J.-M.G. designed the experiments. O.R. contributed
to the initial experiments. V.B. and J.-P. L. provided zebrafish material and advice. F. A.
S, J. B. B., D.P.-P., B.A., V.B. and J.-P. L. performed the experiments. S.B., S.H.
performed bacterial genome sequencing and analysis, A.G., S.V., F. A. S and D.P.-P.
performed the bioinformatic and sequence analyses. F. A. S, J. B. B., D.P.-P., J.-P. L. and
J.-M.G. analysed the data and wrote the paper with significant contribution from O.R.
and E.D..

805 COMPETING FINANCIAL INTERESTS

The authors of this manuscript have the following competing interests: a provisional
patent application has been filed: "*bacterial strains for use as probiotics, compositions thereof, deposited strains and method to identify probiotic bacterial strains*" by J.-M.G,
F. A. S., D.P.-P. and J. B. B. The other authors declare no conflict of interest in relation
to the submitted work.

811

812 DATA AVAILABILITY

813

Bacterial genome sequences obtained in the present study are available at the European 814 815 Nucleotide Archive with the project number PRJEB36872, under accession numbers numbers ERS4385993 (Aeromonas veronii 1); ERS4386000 (Aeromonas veronii 2); 816 817 (Aeromonas caviae); ERS4385998 (Chrvseobacterium massiliae); ERS4385996 818 ERS4385999 (Phyllobacterium *mvrsinacearum*); ERS4406247 (Pseudomonas 819 sediminis); ERS4385994 (Pseudomonas mossellii) ERS4386001 (Pseudomonas nitroreducens); ERS4385997 (Pseudomonas peli); ERS4385995 (Stenotrophomas 820 821 *maltophilia*); 822

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1059 **FIGURES**





1062 Figure 1. Flavobacterium columnare kills germ-free but not conventional zebrafish. 1063 6 dpf (corresponding to 0 dpi) GF or Conv zebrafish larvae were exposed to different doses of *F. columnare*^{ALG} by bath immersion and transferred after 3h into sterile water. 1064 1065 Mean survival is represented by a thick horizontal bar with standard deviation. For each condition, n = 12 zebrafish larvae. Larvae mortality rate was monitored daily and 1066 1067 surviving fish were euthanized at day 9 post infection. Statistics correspond to unpaired, non-parametric Mann-Whitney test comparing all conditions to non-infected GF (left) or 1068 Conv (right). ****: p<0.0001; ***: p<0.001; *: p<0.05, absence of *: non-significant. 1069 Blue mean bars correspond to non-exposed larvae and red mean bars correspond to larvae 1070 1071 exposed to F. columnare. 1072

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1077 Figure 2 Analysis of protection against F. columnare infection after antibiotic dysbiosis. A: Response of zebrafish larvae to exposure to F. columnare^{ALG} after 1078 antibiotic-induced dysbiosis with a diagram showing timing and treatments of the 1079 experiment. **B**: A 24h period after antibiotic treatment allows the recovery of protection 1080 1081 in kanamycin-treated zebrafish larvae with a diagram showing timing and treatments. 1082 Mean survival is represented by a thick horizontal bar with standard deviation. For each 1083 condition, n = 12 zebrafish larvae. Blue mean bars correspond to larvae not exposed to the pathogen and red mean bars correspond to exposed larvae. Larvae mortality rate was 1084 1085 monitored daily and surviving fish were euthanized at day 9 post exposition to the 1086 pathogen. Indicated statistics correspond to unpaired, non-parametric Mann-Whitney 1087 test. ****: p<0.0001; absence of *: non-significant. C: Community recovery profile with streptomycin/penicillin treatment. D: Community recovery profile with kanamycin 1088 1089 treatment. Pools of 10 larvae were collected for 16S rRNA sequencing.





Figure 3. Protection against F. columnare in zebrafish re-conventionalized with 1091 1092 individual or mixed bacterial strains isolated from zebrafish. A: Determination of the 1093 level of protection provided by each of the 10 bacterial strains composing the core 1094 protective zebrafish microbiota. Bacteria were added individually to the water on 1095 hatching day (dose 5.10⁵ cfu/mL). **B**: Level of protection provided by different amount of C. massiliae and Mix9. Mix9 only protected at the highest inoculum doses. Mean 1096 1097 survival is represented by a thick horizontal bar with standard deviation. For each 1098 condition, n = 12 zebrafish larvae. Blue mean bars correspond to larvae not exposed to 1099 the pathogen and red mean bars correspond to exposed larvae. Larvae mortality rate was monitored daily and surviving fish were euthanized at day 9 post exposition to the 1100 pathogen. Indicated statistics correspond to unpaired, non-parametric Mann-Whitney 1101 test. ****: p<0.0001; absence of *: non-significant. 1102

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1107 Figure 4. Zebrafish immune response to F.columnare infection. A-C: qRT-PCR analysis of host gene expression, 18 hours after exposure to F. columnare, in larvae re-1108 1109 conventionalized with indicated bacteria or bacterial mixes; each point corresponds to an 1110 individual larva. Expression of *il10* (A), *il1b* (B), and *il22* (C), by wild-type AB zebrafish; 1111 **D**: Comparison of the survival of myd88-/- and background-matched myd88+/+ zebrafish after re-conventionalization and exposure to F. columnareALG. Mean survival is 1112 1113 represented by a thick horizontal bar with standard deviation. For each condition, n = 121114 zebrafish larvae. Larvae mortality rate was monitored daily and surviving fish were 1115 euthanized at day 9 post exposition to the pathogen. A-D: Blue bars correspond to larvae not exposed to the pathogen and red mean bars correspond to exposed larvae. Indicated 1116 1117 statistics correspond to unpaired, non-parametric Mann-Whitney test. ****: p<0.0001; **: p<0.005*: p<0.05, absence of *: non-significant. 1118 1119



1121

1122 Figure 5. Intestine of infected germ-free zebrafish displays severe disorganization.

1123 Germ-free, conventional and re-conventionalized zebrafish larvae. Re-conventionalized

zebrafish were inoculated at 4 dpf with Mix9 or C. massiliae. A: Representative picture 1124

1125 of intestines of non-infected larvae. Fish were fixed for histology analysis or electron

- 1126 microscopy at 7 dpf. B: Representative picture of intestines of infected larvae exposed
- at 7 dpf to F.columnareALG. In A and B: Left column: Toluidine blue staining of Epon-1127
- embedded zebrafish larvae for Light microscopy. Right column: Transmission electron 1128
- microscopy. at 7 dpf (*right*). L= intestinal lumen. 1129
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1134 Figure 6. Pre-exposure to *C. massiliae* protects larval and adult zebrafish against

1135 *F. columnare* infection

1136 A: Zebrafish larvae were inoculated at 4 dpf with 5.10⁵ cfu/mL of C. massiliae for 48h before infection at 6 dpf with virulent F. columnare strains. B: Survival of adult zebrafish 1137 1138 with or without pre-exposure to C. massiliae (2.10⁶ cfu/mL for 48h) followed by exposure to F. columnare^{ALG} (5.10⁶ cfu/mL for 1h) Mean survival is represented by a thick 1139 1140 horizontal bar with standard deviation. For each condition, n = 12 zebrafish larvae or 10 adult. Zebrafish mortality rate was monitored daily and surviving fish were euthanized at 1141 1142 day 9 post exposition to the pathogens. Blue bars correspond to larvae not exposed to the 1143 pathogen and red mean bars correspond to exposed larvae. Indicated statistics correspond to unpaired, non-parametric Mann-Whitney test. ****: p<0.0001; **: p<0.005; absence 1144 of *: non-significant. 1145

1147 TABLES

1148

1149 Table 1. The 10 strains composing the core of zebrafish larvae microbiota

1150 Bacterial strains consistently detected at all time points (6 and 11 dpf) in all experiment

1151 runs and constituting the core of conventional zebrafish larval microbiota and their

- 1152 taxonomic affiliation.
- 1153

Bacterial species of the core zebrafish microbiota	ANI % ^a	16S rRNA (%) ^b	<i>recA</i> (%) ^c	<i>rplC</i> (%) ^d
Aeromonas veronii 1	96.52	98.27	97.00	99.84
Aeromonas veronii 2	96.58	99.53	98.31	99.68
Aeromonas caviae	97.97	99.94	98.78	99.84
Chryseobacterium massiliae	95.85	99.86	96.61	99.84
Phyllobacterium myrsinacearum	98.58	99.86	<i>99.72</i>	100
Pseudomonas sediminis	96.12	<i>99.73</i>	97.70	99.84
Pseudomonas mossellii	99.39	98.27	100	99.84
Pseudomonas nitroreducens*	92.14	99.80	94.95	99.06
Pseudomonas peli*	88.84	99.20	91.51	95.44
Stenotrophomas maltophilia [*]	90.94	97.85	95.38	99.08

- 1154
- 1155 ^a Average Nucleotide Identity value
- 1156 ^b 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity
- 1157 *crecA* gene sequence similarity
- 1158 ^d*rplC* gene sequence similarity
- 1159 *Species ambiguously identified