

A strain affiliated to *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens* alleviates high-carbohydrate diet- induced metabolic syndrome by restoration of acetate-producing bacteria in fish intestines

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Research

Keywords: Nile tilapia, Intestinal microbiota, SCFA, Metabolism, GLP-1, Carbohydrate utilization

Posted Date: May 14th, 2020

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3.rs-27653/v1>

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1 **A strain affiliated to *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens* alleviates**
2 **high-carbohydrate diet-induced metabolic syndrome by**
3 **restoration of acetate-producing bacteria in fish intestines**

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21

22

23 **Abstract**

24 **Background:** Increasing the utilization efficiency of high-carbohydrate diet has the
25 potential to promote “protein sparing effects” in farmed fish; however, many fish
26 utilize carbohydrates poorly. The intestinal microbiota plays an important role in
27 carbohydrate degradation. Whether the addition of functional bacteria could increase
28 the carbohydrate utilization efficiency and alleviate high-carbohydrate diet-induced
29 adverse effects is unknown.

30 **Results:** A bacterial strain that could degrade starch *in vitro* was isolated from the
31 intestines of Nile tilapia (*Oreochromis niloticus*). The bacterium was affiliated to
32 *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens* (designated as *B. amy SSI*) based on 16S rRNA gene
33 sequencing. Three diets, including control diet (CON), high-carbohydrate diet (HCD),
34 and high-carbohydrate diet supplemented with *B. amy SSI* (HCB), were used to feed
35 Nile tilapia for 10 weeks. The beneficial effects of *B. amy SSI* on weight gain and
36 protein accumulation were observed. The HCB decreased blood glucose levels and
37 reduced lipid deposition compared with the HCD group. To detect the possible
38 mechanism, the intestinal microbiota composition was characterized using
39 high-throughput sequencing. The HCB increased the abundance of short-chain fatty
40 acid-producing bacteria. Gas chromatographic analysis indicated that the
41 concentration of acetate increased dramatically in the HCB group compared with that
42 in the HCD group. Glucagon-like peptide-1 (GLP-1) levels increased in the intestine
43 and serum of the HCB group. Different concentrations of sodium acetate (low (HLA),
44 900 mg/kg; medium (HMA), 1800 mg/kg, and high (HHA), 3600 mg/kg) were added

45 to the HCD to feed the fish for eight weeks. The HMA and HHA groups mirrored the
46 effects of the HCD supplemented with *B. amy SSI* by increasing serum GLP-1 levels.
47 Increased acetate concentrations stimulated GLP-1 production, which might account
48 for the effects caused by the addition of *B. amy SSI* to the HCD.

49 **Conclusions:** This study systematically analyzed the influence of *B. amy SSI* on fish
50 metabolism, suggesting that *B. amy SSI* treatment alleviates the metabolic syndrome
51 caused by HCD by enriching acetate-producing bacteria in fish intestines. Regulating
52 the intestinal microbiota and their metabolites might represent a powerful strategy for
53 fish nutrition modulation and health maintenance in future.

54 **Keywords:** Nile tilapia, Intestinal microbiota, SCFA, Metabolism, GLP-1,
55 Carbohydrate utilization

56

57 **Background**

58 With the increasing cost and limited supply of fishmeal in aquaculture, the
59 utilization of non-protein energy is becoming increasingly important [1].
60 Carbohydrates are one of the most abundant and cost-effective energy sources [2]. It
61 is commonly accepted that appropriate levels of carbohydrates incorporated into fish
62 diets will decrease the catabolism of protein and lipids to allow for protein sparing
63 effects [3]. However, teleost fish are generally considered to be glucose intolerant [4].
64 An excess proportion of carbohydrates in their diet causes metabolic syndrome,
65 including decreased growth performance [5], persistent hyperglycemia [6], and excess
66 lipid deposition [7, 8]. The glucose regulation mechanism in fish has been discussed

67 in numerous studies; however, until now, most metabolic genes related to
68 carbohydrate/glucose utilization have been found to be conserved in vertebrates [9].
69 These studies suggested that in research on the carbohydrate metabolism
70 characteristics in fish, we need to consider the function of the gut microbiota, which is
71 closely related to host nutrition and metabolism, and is referred as the “second
72 genome” [10].

73 The intestinal microbiota harbors multiple enzymes for the degradation and
74 fermentation of dietary carbohydrates. Two *Bacteroides* strains, *Bacteroides*
75 *intestinalis* and *Bacteroides ovatus*, are particularly enriched in genes encoding
76 enzymes for the digestion of carbohydrates [11]. *Ruminococcus bromii* possesses a
77 superior degradative ability with respect to resistant starch, and the released products
78 from resistant starch can be utilized by other gut bacteria to produce short chain fatty
79 acids (SCFAs), which have wide-ranging impacts on host physiology, including
80 serving as an energy source for host cells or stimulating the production of gut
81 hormones [12, 13]. A high-carbohydrate diet altered the fecal microbiome by
82 increasing the carbohydrate degradation members and SCFAs excretion in humans
83 [14]. However, a study in the grass carp (*Ctenopharyngodon idellus*) showed that
84 SCFA levels were lower in the hindgut when they were fed with a
85 high-fiber/low-protein diet compared with that under a high-protein/low-fiber diet
86 [15], indicating that the gut microbiota in the grass carp, which is a predominantly
87 herbivorous fish, does not tend to ferment fiber to SCFAs. These results suggested
88 that the limited utilization efficiency of carbohydrates by the intestinal microbiota

89 might account for the glucose intolerance of fish.

90 The intestinal microbiota shows a great potential for maintaining glucose
91 homeostasis; however, the response to regulation by the intestinal microbiota in the
92 context of glucose homeostasis is strongly linked with the baseline microbiota
93 composition. Research on humans with prediabetes showed that exercise-induced
94 changes in the gut microbiota correlated with improved glucose metabolism and
95 insulin sensitivity [16]. The microbiome of responders exhibited an enhanced capacity
96 to produce SCFAs and catabolize branched-chain amino acids, suggesting that the gut
97 microbiota is a key determinant for the variability of glycemic control [16]. A similar
98 observation was made in a cohort of healthy individuals exposed to barley
99 kernel-based bread (BKB), which suggested that humans harboring a higher
100 *Prevotella/Bacteroides* ratio exhibited improved glucose metabolism following 3-day
101 consumption of BKB [17]. Fish harbor a *Proteobacteria*-dominated microbiota, which
102 is different from the dominant microbiota in human or mice [18, 19]. Whether
103 regulation of the intestinal microbiota could increase the carbohydrate utilization
104 efficiency and alleviate the adverse effects caused by high-carbohydrate diets in fish
105 remains unknown.

106 Nile tilapia (*Oreochromis niloticus*) is an economically important fish species
107 and is an ideal fish model for nutritional and metabolic studies because of its fast
108 growth, high resistance to disease, and available genomic information [20]. In the
109 present study, we isolated a strain that could degrade starch *in vitro* from the intestine
110 of Nile tilapia. 16S rRNA gene sequencing showed that the strain was affiliated to

111 *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens* (designated as *B. amy SSI*). Three diet treatments,
112 including control diet (CON), high-carbohydrate diet (HCD), and high-carbohydrate
113 diet supplemented with *B. amy SSI* (HCB) were used to feed Nile tilapia for ten
114 weeks. The host physiology and metabolic characteristics were identified in these
115 three groups and the possible mechanism by which *B. amy SSI* regulates carbohydrate
116 utilization was investigated.

117

118 **Results**

119 **A strain isolated from the intestine of Nile tilapia improved the growth** 120 **performance of fish.**

121 To isolate bacteria that could degrade starch in fish gut, starch was used as the main
122 carbon source in the culture medium. About two hundred colonies were screened and
123 one colony, which had a larger transparent zone on starch agar medium after the
124 addition of iodine solution, was selected for the further research. 16S rRNA gene
125 sequencing showed that the strain was affiliated to *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens* ATCC
126 39320 (Fig. 1a). The selected strain was named as *B. amy SSI* in the present study.
127 DNS analysis confirmed the amylase activity of *B. amy SSI in vitro* (Fig. 1b) and gas
128 chromatography showed that *B. amy SSI* could ferment corn starch to mainly produce
129 acetate and butyrate (Fig. 1c).

130 To detect whether the addition of *B. amy SSI* could influence the growth
131 performance of fish under an HCD, three treatments, including CON, HCD, and HCD
132 with *B. amy SSI* (HCB) were used to feed fish for 10 weeks. Weight gain was

133 detected every two weeks. The results showed that the average weight was
134 significantly higher in the HCD group than in the CON group; moreover, the average
135 weight was further increased by *B. amy SSI* treatment in the HCB group (Fig. 1d).
136 The addition of *B. amy SSI* to the HCD resulted in the highest weight gain among the
137 three groups (Fig. 1e) and the feed efficiency was higher in the HCB group compared
138 with that in the HCD group (Fig. 1f).

139

140 **The addition of *B. amy SSI* to the HCD decreased glucose levels by activating the**
141 **PI3K/AKT insulin signaling pathway and enhancing glycolysis of Nile tilapia.**

142 One of the metabolic disorders caused by HCD is the persistent hyperglycemia in
143 fish [6, 21]. To address whether the addition of *B. amy SSI* to the HCD had a
144 metabolic protective effect, the fasting glucose levels were detected. The results
145 showed that the addition of *B. amy SSI* reduced the high fasting glucose level caused
146 by the HCD (Fig. 2a). The IGTT test showed that the addition of *B. amy SSI*
147 markedly reduced the persistently higher blood glucose level caused by the HCD (Fig.
148 2b, c), i.e., *B. amy SSI* improved glucose tolerance. Considering the important role of
149 insulin in glucose homeostasis, the fasting insulin level was detected; however, no
150 significant difference was found among the groups (Fig. 2d), suggesting that the
151 addition of *B. amy SSI* to the HCD might elevate insulin sensitivity rather than its
152 amount. Glucose homeostasis induced by *B. amy SSI* was further supported by
153 significantly decreased liver glycogen levels (Fig. 2e). To investigate whether the
154 insulin signaling pathway was activated by the addition of *B. amy SSI*, the expression

155 levels of crucial proteins, including phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase (PI3K) and protein
156 kinase B (AKT), were detected using western blotting. The total levels of PI3K and
157 AKT were similar among the groups; however, the levels of phosphorylated PI3K and
158 AKT were significantly increased by *B. amy SSI* administration (Fig. 2f, g),
159 suggesting that the addition of *B. amy SSI* to the HCD improved glucose tolerance via
160 activating the PI3K/AKT insulin signaling pathway.

161 Enhanced glycolysis might improve glucose homeostasis; therefore, three key
162 enzymes of glycolysis, hexokinase (HK), phosphofructokinase (PFK) and pyruvate
163 kinase (PK) were analyzed. The glycolytic enzyme activities in the liver were all
164 increased in *B. amy SSI*-treated fish (Fig. 2h-j). The mRNA expression of glycolysis
165 targeted genes, including *gck*, *pfk*, *pk*, and *ir* in the liver were downregulated in the
166 HCD group, but upregulated by the addition of *B. amy SSI* (Fig. 2k). These data
167 strongly suggested that the addition of *B. amy SSI* to the HCD enhanced glycolysis by
168 activating the pivotal enzymes related to glycolysis in the liver.

169

170 **The addition of *B. amy SSI* to the HCD reduced lipid deposition by activating the**
171 **AMPK/ACC signaling pathway to increase energy expenditure in Nile tilapia.**

172 An HCD causes excess lipid accumulation in fish, which further aggravates the
173 metabolic imbalance [22]. The hepatic somatic index (HSI) was mostly increased in
174 the HCD group compared with that in the CON group, and the HCB group showed a
175 decreased trend in HSI, although no significant difference was detected (Fig. 3a). The
176 hepatic lipid content was significantly increased in the HCD group compared with

177 that in the CON group, but it was decreased by the addition of *B. amy SSI* (Fig. 3b).
178 The addition of *B. amy SSI* to the HCD also exhibited protective effects against
179 HCD-induced liver damage, including lower content of triglyceride (TG),
180 non-esterified fatty acid (NEFA), and total cholesterol (T-CHO) in the liver (Fig. 3c-e).
181 Furthermore, hematoxylin eosin staining (H&E) and oil red O staining also indicated
182 that the addition of *B. amy SSI* to the HCD markedly reduced lipid accumulation (Fig.
183 3f-i). The mRNA levels of genes related to lipid synthesis, including *fas*, *acca*, *dgat2*,
184 and *ppar γ* , showed no significant difference in the liver among the groups (Fig. 3j).
185 However, compared with that in the HCD group, the HCB group showed substantial
186 up-regulation of genes targeted to lipolysis, including *atgl*, *cpt1*, *hsl*, and *ppara* in the
187 liver (Fig. 3k). These findings suggested that the addition of *B. amy SSI* to the HCD
188 activated lipolysis to decrease lipid deposition in the liver.

189 To address whether activated lipolysis was associated with energy homeostasis,
190 the levels of key proteins involved in this process were detected using western
191 blotting. The phosphorylation of acetyl CoA carboxylase α (ACC), a rate-limiting
192 enzyme of fatty acid synthesis, was inhibited by the addition of *B. amy SSI* to the
193 HCD (Fig. 3l, m). Moreover, the level of phosphorylated AMP-activated protein
194 kinase (AMPK), a key molecule in the regulation of biological energy metabolism,
195 was markedly increased in *B. amy SSI*-treated fish (Fig. 3l, m). Taken together, these
196 results demonstrated that HCD supplemented with *B. amy SSI* reduced lipid
197 deposition by activating the AMPK/ACC signaling pathway, which was likely to
198 increase energy expenditure.

199 Besides lipid accumulation in the liver, we also detected the content of total lipid
200 in the body. Notably, a decrease in the total lipid content was observed in the *B. amy*
201 *SSI*-treated fish (Fig. 3n). Moreover, mesenteric fat index (MFI) was lower in HCB
202 group compared with that in the HCD group (Fig. 3o). *B. amy SSI* administration also
203 reduced the cell size of adipocytes (Fig. 3p, q). Meanwhile, the serum TG, NEFA,
204 T-CHO, and low-density lipoprotein (LDL) levels were reduced by the addition of *B.*
205 *amy SSI* to the HCD, whereas high-density lipoprotein (HDL) levels increased
206 markedly in the *B. amy SSI*-treated fish (Fig. 3r-v). Taken together, these results
207 further demonstrated that the addition of *B. amy SSI* to the HCD reduced lipid
208 deposition in the fish.

209

210 **The addition of *B. amy SSI* to the HCD increased protein accumulation by**
211 **activating the mTOR/S6 signaling pathway in Nile tilapia.**

212 We further assessed the impact of *B. amy SSI* on body protein accumulation. The
213 results showed that the addition of *B. amy SSI* to the HCD increased the carcass index
214 and carcass protein content significantly (Fig. 4a, b). The mRNA expression of *mtor*
215 and *s6*, which are related to protein synthesis, were detected. The results indicated that
216 *mtor* was significantly up-regulated by *B. amy SSI* administration, but no significant
217 difference was observed for *s6* among the groups (Fig. 4c). Western blotting analysis
218 demonstrated that the levels of phosphorylated mTOR and S6 increased significantly
219 after the addition of *B. amy SSI* to the HCD; however, no significant difference was
220 found in the total levels of these proteins (Fig. 4d, e). Overall, these data implied that

221 the HCD supplemented with *B. amy SSI* induced protein accumulation by activating
222 the mTOR/S6 signaling pathway.

223

224 **The addition of *B. amy SSI* to the HCD altered the intestinal microbial**
225 **community composition of Nile tilapia.**

226 The gut microbiota has critical roles in host nutrition and metabolic processes.
227 High-throughput sequencing was used to investigate the effects of *B. amy SSI* on the
228 intestinal microbiota composition. Decreased Ace, Chao1, Shannon, and Sobs indexes
229 in the HCD group were notably increased by *B. amy SSI* treatment (Table 1),
230 suggesting that supplementation with *B. amy SSI* in the HCD restored the richness
231 and diversity of the intestinal microbial community. To assess the overall composition
232 of the bacterial community in the different groups, we analyzed the microbiota
233 composition at the phylum level. The intestinal microbiota was dominated by
234 *Firmicutes*, *Proteobacteria*, *Bacteroidetes*, *Actinobacteria*, and *Fusobacteria* in Nile
235 tilapia (Fig. 5a). Compared with that in the CON group, the HCD group displayed a
236 significant increase in the abundance of *Firmicutes*, while the addition of *B. amy SSI*
237 to the HCD decreased the proportion of *Firmicutes* (Fig. 5b).

238 OTU-based principal co-ordinates analysis (PCoA) revealed that the HCD
239 changed the intestinal microbiota compared with that of the CON group, while the
240 addition of *B. amy SSI* modulated the microbiota composition, resulting in a
241 composition similar to that of the CON group (Fig. 5c). The abundances of 46 OTUs
242 in the HCD group showed significant differences among groups (Fig. 5d). Among

243 these OTUs, 12 were increased and 34 were decreased in the HCD group, while these
244 OTUs showed the opposite trend in the HCB group. OTU4496, OTU782
245 (*Streptococcus*), and OTU4496 (*Lactococcus*) were induced by the HCD, but were
246 markedly reduced by the addition of *B. amy SSI*. Moreover, the HCD decreased the
247 abundances of OTU209 (*Weissella*); OTU6174 (*Romboutsia*); OTU938
248 (*Faecalibacterium*); OTU6929 and OTU2196 (*Ruminococcus*); OTU3573 (*Blautia*);
249 OTU4850 and OTU4857 (*Prevotellaceae*); OTU5921, OTU4958, and OTU3077
250 (*Bacteroides*); and OTU6083 (*Bifidobacterium*), while the addition of *B. amy SSI*
251 increased the abundances of these OTUs. We noticed that these bacteria were
252 commonly associated with SCFA production [23, 24]. Collectively, these results
253 indicated that compared with that in the HCD group, the addition of *B. amy SSI* to the
254 HCD restored the abundance of SCFA production bacteria in Nile tilapia.

255

256 **The addition of *B. amy SSI* to the HCD promoted the secretion of GLP-1 via the**
257 **p38 MAPK pathway.**

258 The results of the previous section showed that the abundance of SCFA-producing
259 bacteria was restored by *B. amy SSI* treatment; therefore, the concentration of SCFAs
260 in the intestines was determined. The result suggested that the reduced concentration
261 of acetate in the HCD group was dramatically elevated by the addition of *B. amy SSI*
262 (Fig. 5e). The propionate content was below the detection limit and the content of
263 butyrate showed marked intra-group difference (data not shown). The mRNA
264 expression of *ffar2*, which encodes free fatty acid receptor 2 (the receptor of SCFAs in

265 fish), was notably up-regulated in the liver after the addition of *B.amy SSI* to the HCD
266 (Fig. 5f).

267 Considering glucagon-like peptide (GLP-1) is the main target of FFAR2, the
268 amounts of GLP-1 in the intestine and serum were detected. The results suggested that
269 intestinal and serum GLP-1 levels increased significantly after the addition of *B. amy*
270 *SSI* to the HCD (Fig. 5g, h). To determine how the signal is transduced, p38
271 mitogen-activated protein kinases (p38 MAPK), which regulates the production of
272 GLP-1 [25], was detected. The results showed that the level of phosphorylated p38
273 MAPK was evidently increased by *B.amy SSI* administration, although no significant
274 difference of total p38 MAPK was observed among groups (Fig. 5i, j). These data
275 demonstrated that the increased production of acetate induced by the addition of *B.*
276 *amy SSI* to the HCD might account for the increased secretion of GLP-1.

277

278 **Addition of sodium acetate mimicked the effects of *B. amy SSI* supplementation** 279 **of the HCD.**

280 To further verify the function of microbial metabolites, different concentrations of
281 sodium acetate (HLA, 900 mg/kg; HMA, 1800 mg/kg and HHA, 3600 mg/kg) were
282 added to the HCD to feed Nile tilapia for eight weeks. The fasting glucose test and
283 IGTT showed that blood glucose levels were obviously reduced in the HMA and
284 HHA groups compared with those in the HCD group (Fig. 6a-c), suggesting that the
285 addition of certain concentrations of sodium acetate to the HCD could improve
286 glucose homeostasis of fish. Additionally, the HSI was noticeably decreased in the

287 HMA and HHA groups (Fig. 6d). In parallel, liver TG levels were reduced in the
288 HMA and HHA groups (Fig. 6e, f). Accordingly, liver histology via H&E staining
289 showed that the percentage of the lipid area exhibited was reduced substantially in the
290 HMA and HHA groups compared with that in the HCD group (Fig. 6g, h).
291 Importantly, we also found that GLP-1 levels were elevated in the serum from the
292 HMA and HHA groups (Fig. 6i). Western blotting analysis revealed that levels of
293 phosphorylated AKT and AMPK increased significantly in the three sodium acetate
294 supplementation groups, while the level of phosphorylated mTOR was only increased
295 in the HMA and HHA groups (Fig. 6j, k). These data indicated that the addition of
296 sodium acetate to the HCD could elevate the secretion of GLP-1 to improve glucose
297 homeostasis and reduce the lipid deposition caused by the HCD, and that these effects
298 are dose-dependent. In brief, the addition of acetate could mimic the metabolic effects
299 caused by addition of *B. amy SSI* to the HCD.

300

301 **Discussion**

302 Increasing research in humans and other vertebrates have shown that the intestinal
303 microbiota plays an important role in carbohydrate degradation and fermentation [26,
304 27]. In aquaculture, how to increase the carbohydrate utilization efficiency and
305 alleviate the metabolic syndrome caused by an HCD is vitally important. In the past,
306 administration of benfotiamine and bile acids showed the potential to increase the
307 carbohydrate utilization efficiency in fish [28, 29]; however, the influence of the
308 intestinal microbiota on host carbohydrate metabolism is unknown. In the present

309 study, *B.amy SSI* isolated from the intestine of Nile tilapia showed an ability to
310 alleviate metabolic syndrome caused by an HCD by restoration of acetate-producing
311 bacteria in the intestines, suggesting that modulation of the intestinal microbiota has
312 great potential to regulate the host metabolism of fish.

313 The intestinal microbiota produces key enzymes for carbohydrate degradation and
314 fermentation to produced SCFAs, which are considered to be beneficial to the host [11,
315 30]. Consistent with previous research [15], we also found that the abundance of
316 bacterial members closely related to SCFA production was decreased under an HCD,
317 suggesting that the HCD diminished the numbers of functional bacteria, which might
318 be related to the metabolic syndrome caused by the HCD in fish. The addition of *B.*
319 *amy SSI* to the HCD restored the bacteria that are believed to be involved in the
320 degradation of carbohydrates or production of SCFAs. OTU209 is affiliated to
321 *Weisells*, which is commonly expanded in a carbohydrate-rich setting and has the
322 ability to ferment polysaccharides to produce SCFAs [24, 31]. OTU938 is affiliated to
323 *Faecalibacterium*, which is one of the dominant bacteria in the hindgut, with higher
324 levels of SCFAs being observed in *Hermosilla azurea* [32]. An expansion of
325 *Faecalibacterium* and significantly greater SCFA concentrations were found in the
326 colon of pigs fed with a high resistant starch diet [33]. The abundance of OTU6929
327 and OTU2196, belonging to *Ruminococcus*, were increased by the addition of *B. amy*
328 *SSI* to the HCD. It has been reported that *Ruminococcus* could ferment resistant
329 starch into SCFAs [12, 34]. OTU4850 and OTU4857 are affiliated to *Prevotellaceae*,
330 which were increased in both humans and rats fed with higher dietary starch and are

331 related to increased SCFA production [23]. We also found that abundance of
332 OTU6083, belonging to *Bifidobacterium*, was lower in the HCD group but enriched in
333 the HCB group. The abundance of *Bifidobacteria* was increased in the human gut by
334 supplementing the diet with resistant starch from potatoes [12].

335 The metabolic syndrome induced by an HCD are hyperglycemia and hepatic
336 steatosis in mammals [35]. To determine the mechanism by which *B. amy SSI*
337 alleviated these metabolic disorders in fish, we detected the key signaling pathways
338 related to glucose and lipid metabolism. We found that acetate production increased in
339 the intestines of Nile tilapia after the addition of *B. amy SSI* to the HCD. Increased
340 levels of SCFAs stimulate GLP-1 production via the p38 MAPK signaling pathway
341 [25], and in line with the previous research, our results showed higher level of p38
342 MAPK and GLP-1 in the HCB group. The important roles of GLP-1 in glucose
343 homeostasis and lipid metabolism have been well documented [36, 37]. In mammals,
344 GLP-1 decreases glucose levels via stimulation of insulin release and inhibition of
345 nutrient absorption in the gastrointestinal tract. Meanwhile in teleost fish, it was
346 reported that GLP-1 increased glucose levels via activation of glycogenolysis and
347 gluconeogenesis in the liver [38]. Our results showed that GLP-1 improved glucose
348 homeostasis by enhancing insulin sensitivity to activate the PI3K/AKT insulin
349 signaling pathway in the HCB group, which is consist with findings in mice [39].
350 Besides glucose homeostasis, GLP-1 also regulates lipid metabolism. GLP-1
351 suppresses hepatic lipogenesis via activation of the AMPK pathway in chicken and
352 rats [25, 40]. However, to date, there has been no study on the regulation of lipid

353 metabolism by GLP-1 in fish. The results of the present study showed that GLP-1
354 modulated the reduction of lipid deposition by decreasing fatty acid synthesis and
355 activating the AMPK/ACC signaling pathway in the HCB group. Taken together, our
356 results demonstrated that the addition of *B. amy SSI* to the HCD stimulated the GLP-1
357 signaling pathway, which is responsible for the alleviation of metabolic syndrome in
358 fish, suggesting a conserved function of GLP-1 in glucose homeostasis and lipid
359 metabolism between fish and other vertebrates.

360 It is important for fish to produce more body protein in aquaculture [41, 42].
361 Many attempts have been made to increase body protein levels in fish. It was reported
362 that dietary methionine increased protein synthesis by improving amino acid
363 metabolism in turbot (*Scophthalmus maximus L.*) [43]. In the same fish species,
364 replacement of fish meal by soybean meal reduced protein synthesis via
365 nutrient-sensing [44]. In this study, our results showed that the addition of *B. amy SSI*
366 to the HCD increased the carcass protein proportion in fish. Increased protein
367 synthesis is commonly associated with activation of mTOR [45, 46]. Our results
368 showed that the mTOR/S6 signaling pathway was activated in the HCB group. To our
369 knowledge, this is the first study to show a relationship between the intestinal
370 microbiota and protein accumulation in fish, suggesting that the intestinal microbiota
371 might be a new target for protein synthesis in fish.

372 The benefits of sodium acetate have been reported extensively in animals,
373 including improving growth performance, suppressing intestinal inflammation, and
374 maintaining energy homeostasis [47, 48]. Previously, our laboratory found that the

375 addition of sodium acetate to an HCD could increase the acetate concentration in the
376 intestine of Nile tilapia [48]. In the present study, the addition of sodium acetate to the
377 HCD mirrored the beneficial metabolic effects of *B. amy SSI* supplementation. The
378 addition of a certain concentration of sodium acetate to the HCD could induce the
379 production of GLP-1 to improve glucose tolerance and decrease lipid deposition. It
380 should be noted that phosphorylated mTOR levels increased in the HMA and HHA
381 groups, but no significant difference in the carcass protein content was found among
382 treatments (data not shown). The possible reasons are that the increased protein
383 accumulation might be induced by other microbial metabolites besides acetate, or the
384 feeding period should be prolonged.

385

386 **Conclusions**

387 In summary, our study demonstrated that the addition of *B. amy SSI*, a bacterium
388 affiliated to *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens*, in an HCD could promote growth
389 performance, improve glucose tolerance, reduce lipid deposition, and increase protein
390 accumulation in Nile tilapia. The addition of *B. amy SSI* to an HCD rebuilt the
391 microbiota composition, and especially, increased the abundance of acetate-producing
392 bacteria in the intestines of fish. The addition of sodium acetate to the HCD mirrored
393 the beneficial effects of *B. amy SSI* supplementation in ameliorating metabolic
394 syndrome. Collectively, this study enhanced our understanding of methods to alleviate
395 metabolic syndrome caused by an HCD in fish by adding functional bacteria, which
396 might represent a novel strategy to regulate fish metabolism.

397 **Methods**

398 **Bacteria isolation**

399 Healthy Nile tilapia were anesthetized using MS-222 for 1 h. After 75%
400 alcohol disinfection, the fresh intestinal content was aseptically collected and placed
401 into a pre-weighed sterile tube. The diluted intestinal content was plated on a starch
402 agar medium containing tryptone (10 g/liter), yeast extract (5 g/liter), starch (5 g/liter),
403 sodium chloride (10 g/liter), and agar (0.75 g/liter) at 28 °C overnight. The plates
404 were dropped with Lugol's iodine solution, and the colony with the largest transparent
405 zone was picked and inoculated into Luria-Bertani (LB) broth medium and cultured at
406 28 °C overnight. The genomic DNA of the strain was extracted using a bacterial
407 genome DNA extraction kit (Tiangen, Beijing, China, DP302) according to the
408 manufacturer's protocol. 16S rRNA was then amplified using primers 27F
409 (5'-AGAGTTTGATCCTGGCTCAG-3') and 1492R
410 (5'-GGTACCTTGTTACGACTT-3'). The PCR reaction was performed using the
411 following program: 94 °C for 5 min; 35 cycles at 94 °C for 30 s, 55 °C for 30 s and
412 72 °C for 90 s; and 72 °C for 10 min. The 16S rRNA gene was sequenced by Majorbio
413 Bio-Pharm Technology Co., Ltd., (Shanghai, China). The similarity of the 16S rRNA
414 sequence of the isolated bacterium to other reference sequences was identified in
415 GenBank (<http://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi>). A phylogenetic tree was
416 constructed using the neighbor-joining method in MEGA 7.0. The bootstrap
417 confidence values were obtained based on 100 replicates. The 16S rRNA gene
418 sequence was submitted to GenBank (NCBI) with the accession number MT226660.

419

420 **Detection of amylase activity**

421 The amylase activity of the bacterium was detected as described previously [49]. In
422 brief, a 1.0-mL LB broth culture, as a crude enzyme source, was reacted with 4.0 mL
423 of substrate solution (1% starch solution) at 45 °C for 30 min. The enzyme reaction
424 was interrupted by the addition of 1 mL 3,5-dinitrosalicylic acid (DNS) reagent
425 (Leagene, TC0030). The reaction solution was heated for 5 minutes in boiling water
426 and then cooled in running tap water. After the addition of water to 10 mL, the optical
427 density at 540 nm (OD540) of the solution was determined.

428 **Measurement of SCFAs**

429 SCFA concentrations were determined using gas chromatography (GC). First, 200 µL
430 bacteria solution of was mixed with 0.1 mL of 50 % sulfuric acid and vortexed for 30
431 s. For intestinal SCFA measurement, 0.1 g of intestinal content was homogenized with
432 0.2 mL of water for 2 min. Then, 0.4 mL of pre-cooled ether was added to the mixture
433 and vortexed for 30 s. The mixture was centrifuged at 12000 × g for 10 min at 4 °C.
434 The ether phase was detected in a gas chromatograph (Shimazu, Japan) under the
435 following conditions: An initial column temperature of 100 °C, held for 2 min,
436 increased at a rate of 5 °C/min to 180 °C, and then held for 2 min; the flow rate was
437 kept at 1 mL/min; the inlet temperature was set to 220 °C; and the sample amount was
438 1 µL with nitrogen as the carrier gas.

439

440 **Animal feeding experiment**

441 *Experiment 1*

442 Nile tilapia juveniles were obtained from Shanghai Ocean University (Shanghai,
443 China). All fish were acclimated at 28 ± 1 °C and fed with a commercial diet
444 (Chengdu, China) twice per day for two weeks. After acclimation, 225 uniformly
445 sized fish (1.63 ± 0.05 g) were randomly distributed into three groups (three replicates
446 for each group, 25 fish per replicate), including a common diet (CON), a
447 high-carbohydrate diet (HCD), and a high-carbohydrate diet supplemented with *B.*
448 *amy SSI* (HCB). All fish were fed twice daily (8:30 a.m. and 20:30 p.m.) at a feeding
449 rate of 4% body weight. The formulations of the diets are listed in Additional file 1:
450 Table S1. The total weight of fish in each tank was recorded every two weeks, and the
451 feeding amount was adjusted accordingly.

452 *Experiment 2*

453 Four treatments were set up in the second trial: HCD; HCD with a low dose of sodium
454 acetate (900 mg/kg) (HLA); HCD with a medium dose of sodium acetate (1800
455 mg/kg) (HMA); and HCD with high dose of sodium acetate (3600 mg/kg) (HHA).
456 Three replicates were set for each treatment and each replicate contained 25 fish. The
457 formulations of the diets are listed in Additional file 1: Table S2.

458

459 **Sampling collection**

460 At the end of each trial, all fish were fasted for 24 h before being weighted. Nine fish
461 from each group (three per tank) were euthanized using MS-222 at 20 mg/L. The liver,
462 muscle, and visceral adipose tissue were collected for subsequent biochemical and

463 molecular biological assays. Blood was collected from the caudal vein and
464 centrifuged to separate the serum ($1750 \times g$, 10 min). The serum was immediately
465 frozen at $-80\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ for further analysis. The average weight, weight gain, hepatic
466 somatic index (HSI), mesenteric fat index (MFI), and feed efficiency were calculated
467 according to the following formulae:

468
$$\text{Average weight (g)} = \text{Total body weight} / \text{Total tails}$$

469
$$\text{Weight gain (\%)} = 100 \times (\text{Final fish weight} - \text{Initial fish weight}) / \text{Initial fish}$$

470
$$\text{weight}$$

471
$$\text{Hepatic somatic index (HSI, \%)} = 100 \times (\text{Liver weight} / \text{body weight})$$

472
$$\text{Mesenteric fat index (MFI, \%)} = 100 \times (\text{Mesenteric fat weight} / \text{body weight})$$

473
$$\text{Carcass protein (\%)} = 100 \times (\text{Carcass weight} / \text{body weight})$$

474
$$\text{Feed efficiency (\%)} = 100 \times (\text{Final fish weight} - \text{Initial fish weight}) / \text{Feed intake}$$

475

476 **Detection of body composition**

477 The chemical compositions of the experimental diets and the body composition of
478 Nile tilapia were determined according to standard methods (AOAC) [50]. Moisture
479 was analyzed by drying the samples at $105\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ until they reached a constant weight.
480 Subsequently, samples were pulverized and stored in a glass desiccator at room
481 temperature ($25\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$) to analyze the protein and lipid contents. Total lipid was
482 quantified by the method of Bligh and Dyer using a vacuum drying oven (DZF-6050,
483 Jinghong, Ltd, Shanghai, China). Protein was determined by the Kjeldahl method
484 ($\text{N} \times 6.25$) using a Kjeltac™ 8200 instrument (Foss, Hoganas, Sweden).

485

486 **Biochemical analysis**

487 Hexokinase (HK), phosphofructokinase (PFK), and pyruvate kinase (PK); glycogen;
488 triglyceride (TG); non-esterified fatty acid (NEFA); total cholesterol (T-CHO);
489 low-density lipoprotein (LDL); and high-density lipoprotein (HDL) were detected
490 using a biochemical assay kit (Nanjing Jiancheng Bioengineering Institute, China).
491 Glucagon-like peptide-1 (GLP-1) was analyzed by using an enzyme-linked
492 immunosorbent assay (ELISA) kit (Hengyuan biotechnology, China). All operations
493 are carried out according to the manufacturer's instructions.

494

495 **Intra-peritoneal glucose tolerance test (IGTT)**

496 An intra-peritoneal injection glucose tolerance test (IGTT) was performed. After 24 h
497 of fasting, 200 mg/kg dextrose solution was administered via intra-peritoneal injection.
498 The blood glucose levels at time 0 (fasting glucose, taken before glucose injection),
499 0.5, 1.5, and 3 hours after glucose injection were analyzed using a OneTouch
500 glucometer (Bayer, USA). The glucose level was plotted against time and the areas
501 under curve (AUC) were calculated using GraphPad Prism 7.0 (GraphPad Software,
502 Inc., La Jolla, CA, USA). The fasting insulin concentration in serum was analyzed
503 using a fish insulin ELISA kit (Hengyuan biotechnology, China).

504

505 **Hematoxylin and Eosin (H&E) Staining**

506 Liver and adipose tissues were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde. After gradient ethanol

507 dehydration, the tissues were embedded in paraffin and sliced into 5- μ m sections for
508 H&E staining. The histological features were observed and captured under a light
509 microscope (Nikon, Tokyo, Japan). Quantification and statistical analysis were
510 conducted by using Image J (Oracle, USA).

511

512 **Oil Red O Staining**

513 Oil red O staining was performed to identify the lipid accumulation in the liver. Liver
514 tissue was embedded in optimum cutting temperature compound (OCT, Sakura, USA)
515 and immediately frozen at -80°C . Approximately 5–10 μ m sections were gently
516 flushed with 60% isopropanol for a few seconds. Frozen liver sections were stained
517 with oil red O and counterstained with hematoxylin to visualize the lipid droplets. The
518 histological features were observed and captured under a light microscope (Nikon).
519 Quantification and statistical analysis was conducted using Image J.

520

521 **Illumina high-throughput sequencing**

522 Genomic DNA extraction from intestinal contents was performed using an E.Z.N.A.[®]
523 Soil DNA Kit (OMEGA, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. DNA
524 quantity and quality were measured using a NanoDrop 2000 Spectrophotometer
525 (Thermo, USA). The V3–V4 region of the bacteria 16S rRNA gene was amplified by
526 PCR using primers 338F (5'-ACTCCTACGGGAGGCAGCA-3') and 806R
527 (5'-GGACTACHVGGGTWTCTAAT-3'). Unique eight-base barcodes were added to
528 each primer to distinguish the different PCR products. The PCR reactions were

529 performed in a 20 mL mixture containing 4 mL of 5× Fast Pfu Buffer, 2 mL of 2.5
530 mM dNTPs, 0.8 mL of each primer (5 mM), 0.4 mL of FastPfu Polymerase (TransGen,
531 China), and 10 ng of template DNA. The PCR conditions were as follows: 95 °C for 3
532 min; followed by 95 °C for 30 s, 55 °C for 30 s and 72 °C for 45 s for 29 cycles; and
533 extension at 72 °C for 10 min. Purified PCR products were subjected to Illumina
534 based high-throughput sequencing (carried out by Majorbio Bio-Pharm Technology,
535 Co., Ltd.). The raw pair-end reads were subjected to quality-control procedures using
536 Quantitative Insights Into Microbial Ecology (QIIME, version 1.17). The qualified
537 reads were clustered to generate operational taxonomic units (OTUs) at the 97 %
538 similarity level using UPARSE (version 7.1). Chimeric sequences were identified and
539 removed using UCHIME (version 4.1). Taxonomic richness and diversity estimators
540 were determined using the Mothur software. Principal co-ordinates analysis (PCoA)
541 and heat-map analysis were performed in a MATLAB R2016a environment. Forty-six
542 OTUs were selected for heat-map analysis based on: 1) The abundances of these
543 OTUs were higher than 0.01% in each sample; 2) the abundance of these OTUs were
544 significantly different among groups as assessed using the one-way ANOVA with
545 Tukey's adjustment analysis. The high-throughput sequencing data of intestinal
546 microbiota are available in the NCBI short read archive (SRA)
547 (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/sra>) with the BioProject accession number
548 PRJNA615286.

549

550 **Quantitative Real-time Reverse Transcription PCR (qRT-PCR)**

551 The total RNA was isolated from tissues by using the TRIzol Reagent (Magen, China).
552 The total RNA concentration was measured using a NanoDrop 2000C
553 spectrophotometer. RNA with an absorbance ratio OD 260/280 between 1.9 to 2.2 and
554 an OD 260/230 greater than 2.0 was used for subsequent analysis. As the template,
555 800 ng of total RNA was used to synthesize cDNA using a PrimeScript™ RT Reagent
556 Kit (Takara, Japan) in a S1000™ Thermal Cycler (Bio-Rad, USA). The primers for
557 quantitative real-time polymerase chain reaction (qPCR) analysis were designed at
558 NCBI and the sequences are shown in Additional file 1: Table S3. *β-actin* and *eflα*
559 were used as the reference genes. The qPCR reaction volume was 25 μL containing
560 2.0 μL of cDNA template, 12.5 μL of 2 × SYBR qPCR Mixture (Aidlab, China), 2.0
561 μL of PCR primers (5 μM), and 6.5 μL of nuclease-free water and was performed in a
562 CFX96 Connect Real-Time System (Bio-Rad, USA). The qPCR conditions consisted
563 of one cycle at 95 °C for 30 s, followed by 40 cycles at 95 °C for 5 s and an annealing
564 step at 60 °C for 20 s. Melting curves of the amplified products were generated to
565 ensure the specificity of the assays at the end of each qPCR run. The relative gene
566 expression values were calculated by using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$ method [51].

567

568 **Western blotting**

569 Radio immunoprecipitation assay (RIPA) (Beyotime Biotechnology, China)
570 containing 1 mM PMSF (Beyotime Biotechnology) was used to extract proteins from
571 liver tissues. Protein concentrations were measured using a BCA Protein Assay Kit
572 (Beyotime Biotechnology). Forty micrograms of protein were subjected to

573 SDS-PAGE and the separated proteins were transferred to a nitrocellulose membrane.
574 Proteins on the membrane were reacted with the indicated antibodies. Immunoblots
575 were performed using antibodies against the following proteins: phospho-
576 phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase (PI3K) p85 (Tyr458)/p55 (Tyr199) antibody (CST,
577 #4228), phospho-AKT (Ser473) antibody (CST, #4060), phospho-Acetyl Coenzyme A
578 Carboxylase (Ser79) antibody (Abcam, ab31931), phospho-AMP-activated kinase
579 alpha 1 subunit (AMPK α) (Thr172) antibody (CST, #2531), phospho-mechanistic
580 target of rapamycin (mTOR) (Ser2448) antibody (CST, #2971), phospho-S6
581 ribosomal protein (Ser235/236) antibody (CST, #4856), phospho- p38 mitogen
582 activated protein kinase (p38 MAPK) (Thr180/Tyr182) antibody (Affinity, AF4001),
583 PI3K p85 antibody (CST, #4292), AKT antibody (CST, #9272), AMPK α antibody
584 (CST, #2532), mTOR (CST, #2972), S6 ribosomal protein antibody (CST, #2217),
585 and p38 MAPK antibody (Affinity, AF6456).

586

587 **Statistical analysis**

588 Statistical analysis of all data was performed using GraphPad Prism 7.0. The results
589 of biological assays are presented as means \pm SEM. Datasets were assessed using
590 one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Tukey's adjustment. In the figures: *, P
591 < 0.05 ; **, $P < 0.01$; ***, $P < 0.001$; ****, $P < 0.0001$.

592

593 **Additional file**

594 **Additional file 1.** Supplementary Tables S1-S3.

595

596 **Abbreviations**

597 HSI: Hepatic somatic index; MFI: Mesenteric fat index; IGTT: Intra-peritoneal
598 injection glucose tolerance test; OTU: Operational taxonomic unit; PCoA: Principal
599 coordinate analysis; Glucagon-like peptide-1 (GLP-1); Short chain fatty acids
600 (SCFAs); HK: Hexokinase; PFK: Phosphofructokinase; PK: Pyruvate kinase; TG:
601 triglyceride; NEFA: non-esterified fatty acid; T-CHO: total cholesterol; H&E:
602 Hematoxylin eosin staining; ACC: acetyl CoA carboxylase α ; AMPK: AMP-activated
603 protein kinase; LDL: low density lipoprotein; HDL: high-density lipoprotein; p38
604 MAPK: p38 mitogen-activated protein kinases; ELISA: enzyme-linked
605 immunosorbent assay.

606

607 **Declarations**

608 **Ethics approval and consent to participate**

609 All experiments were conducted under the Guidance of the Care and Use of
610 Laboratory Animals in China. This study was approved by the Committee on the
611 Ethics of Animal Experiments of East China Normal University (F20190101).

612 **Consent for publication**

613 Not applicable.

614 **Availability of data and material**

615 The datasets supporting the conclusions of this article are available in the GenBank
616 repository, [MT226660 (<http://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi>) (16S rRNA)] and in

617 the NCBI short read archive (SRA) [Bioproject PRJNA615286;
618 (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/sra>) (high-throughput sequencing data of intestinal
619 microbiota)].

620 **Competing Interests**

621 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

622 **Funding**

623 This work was supported by the National Key R&D program (grant number
624 2018YFD0900400), and the National Natural Science Foundation of China (grant
625 number 31972798).

626 **Authors' contributions**

627 All authors contributed experimental assistance and intellectual input to this study.
628 The original concept was conceived by MLZ and ZYD. Experimental strategies and
629 sampling design were developed by MLZ, ZYD, and LQC. RX and ML performed
630 the feeding experiments. TW and CJS contributed to the collection of samples. RX
631 and YWZ performed the molecular and biochemistry detection. RX performed the
632 bioinformatic analysis of the intestinal samples for microbial composition, and
633 performed the statistical analyses. MLZ, ZYD and FQ contributed to the
634 interpretation of the data. The manuscript was written by MLZ and RX. All authors
635 read and approved the final manuscript.

636 **Acknowledgments**

637 Not applicable.

638 **Author's information**

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640 Shanghai, China.

641

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768

769 **Figure legends**

770 **Fig. 1** Characteristics of *B. amy SSI* isolated from intestine of Nile tilapia *in vitro* and

771 *in vivo*. **a** Phylogenetic tree of *B. amy SSI*. **b** Amylase activity of *B. amy SSI in vitro*.
772 **c** SCFA production ability of *B. amy SSI in vitro*. **d** Average weight. **e** Weight gain. **f**
773 Feed efficiency. Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM (n = 3 groups). One-way ANOVA
774 with Tukey's adjustment was used for data analysis.

775 **Fig. 2** *B. amy SSI* improved glucose tolerance of Nile tilapia. **a** Fasting blood glucose
776 concentrations. **b** Intra-peritoneal glucose tolerance test (IGTT), glucose levels at 0 h,
777 0.5 h, 1.5 h, and 3 h. **c** Area under the curves of IGTT, #: CON vs. HCD, #*P* < 0.05,
778 ###*P* < 0.01; * HCD vs. HCB: **P* < 0.05. **d** Fasting insulin concentrations. **e** Glycogen
779 content in the liver. **f** Western blotting analysis of the levels of p-PI3K and p-AKT in
780 the liver. **g** Quantitation of the levels of p-PI3K and p-AKT normalized to that of
781 GAPDH. **h-j** Glycolytic enzyme activities of HK (h), PFK (i) and PK (j) in the liver. **k**
782 Relative mRNA expression levels of *gck*, *pk*, *pfk*, and *ir* in the liver. Data are
783 expressed as mean \pm SEM (n = 6). One-way ANOVA with Tukey's adjustment was
784 used for data analysis.

785 **Fig. 3** *B. amy SSI* reduced lipid deposition of Nile tilapia. **a** Hepatic somatic index. **b**
786 Hepatic lipid content. **c-e** Content of TG (c), NEFA (d) and T-CHO (e) in the liver. **f-i**
787 Histological analysis of liver (n=3), liver tissue stained with H&E (f) and statistical
788 analysis of lipid area percentage (g), liver tissue stained with oil red O (h) and
789 statistical analysis of lipid area percentage (i), scale bar = 100 μ m. **j-k** Relative
790 mRNA expression of genes related to lipid synthesis: *fas*, *acca*, *dgat2* and *ppary* in
791 the liver (j) and lipolysis: *atgl*, *cpt1*, *hsl*, *fatp* and *ppara* in the liver (k). **l** Western
792 blotting analysis of the levels of p-ACC and p-AMPK in the liver. **m** Quantitation of

793 the levels of p-ACC and p-AMPK normalized to that of GAPDH. **n** Total lipid content
794 in the whole body of Nile tilapia at the end of the feeding trial. **o** Mesenteric fat index.
795 **p-q** Histological analysis of fat tissue (n = 3), fat tissue stained with H&E (p) and
796 relative size of adipocyte (q), scale bar = 100 μ m. **r-v** Content of TG (r), NEFA (s),
797 T-CHO (t), LDL (u), and HDL (v) in serum. Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM (n =
798 6). One-way ANOVA with Tukey's adjustment was used for data analysis.

799 **Fig. 4** *B. amy SSI* increased protein accumulation of Nile tilapia. **a** Carcass index. **b**
800 Carcass protein content. **c** Relative mRNA expression of *mtor* and *s6* in the liver. **d**
801 Western blotting analysis of the levels of p-mTOR and p-S6 in the liver. **e**
802 Quantitation of the levels of p-mTOR and p-S6 were normalized to that of GAPDH.
803 Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM (n = 6). One-way ANOVA with Tukey's
804 adjustment was used for data analysis.

805 **Fig. 5** *B. amy SSI* altered the intestinal microbial community composition and
806 microbial metabolites of Nile tilapia. **a** Percent of community abundance at the
807 phylum level. **b** Histogram of community abundance at the phylum level. **c** Principal
808 co-ordinates analysis (PCoA) of the intestinal bacterial community. **d** Heat-map of the
809 bacterial abundance in the intestine. **e** Acetate content in the intestine. **f** Relative
810 mRNA expression of *ffar2* in the liver. **g-h** Content of GLP-1 in intestine (g) and
811 serum (h). **i** Western blotting analysis of the levels of p-p38 MAPK in the liver. **j**
812 Quantitation of the levels of p-p38 MAPK normalized to that of GAPDH. Data are
813 expressed as mean \pm SEM (n = 6). One-way ANOVA with Tukey's adjustment was
814 used for data analysis.

815 **Fig. 6** Sodium acetate mirrored the metabolic benefits of *B. amy SSI*. **a** Fasting blood
816 glucose concentrations. **b** Intra-peritoneal glucose tolerance test (IGTT). **c** Area under
817 the curve (AUC) of IGTT. **d** Serum GLP-1. **e** Hepatic somatic index. **f-g** Histological
818 analysis of the liver (n = 3): Liver tissue stained with H&E (f) and statistical analysis
819 of lipid area percentage (g), scale bar =100 μ m. **h-i** Content of TG in the liver (h) and
820 serum (i). **j** Western blotting analysis of the levels of phosphorylated p-AKT,
821 p-AMPK, and p-mTOR in the liver. **k** Quantitation of the levels of p-AKT, p-AMPK,
822 and p-mTOR were normalized to that of GAPDH. Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM
823 (n = 6). One-way ANOVA with Tukey's adjustment was used for data analysis.

824

825 **Table 1** *B. amy SSI* changed the intestinal microbial community abundance and
826 diversity of Nile tilapia.

827

Figures

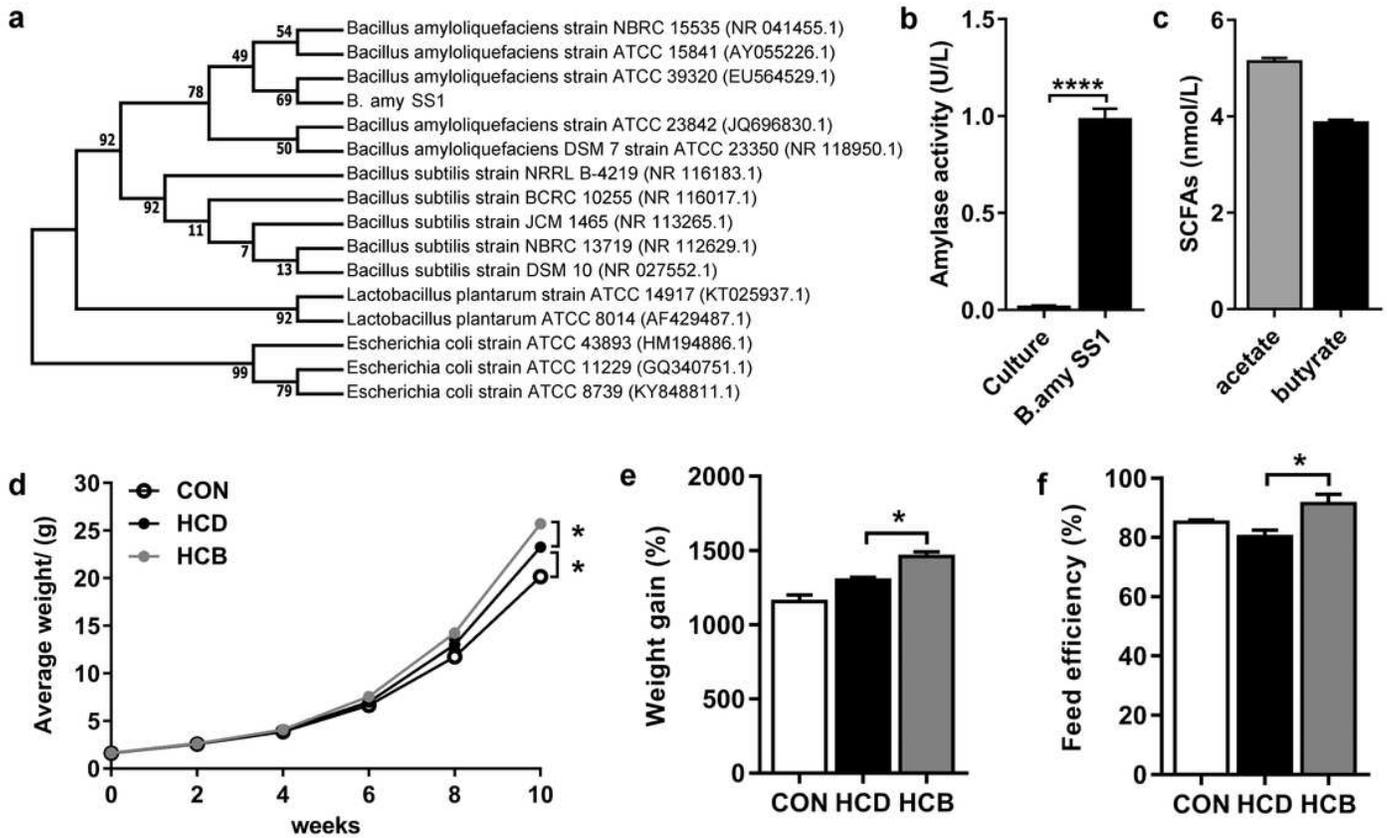


Figure 1

Characteristics of *B. amy* SS1 isolated from intestine of Nile tilapia in vitro and in vivo. a Phylogenetic tree of *B. amy* SS1. b Amylase activity of *B. amy* SS1 in vitro. c SCFA production ability of *B. amy* SS1 in vitro. d Average weight. e Weight gain. F Feed efficiency. Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM (n = 3 groups). One-way ANOVA with Tukey's adjustment was used for data analysis.

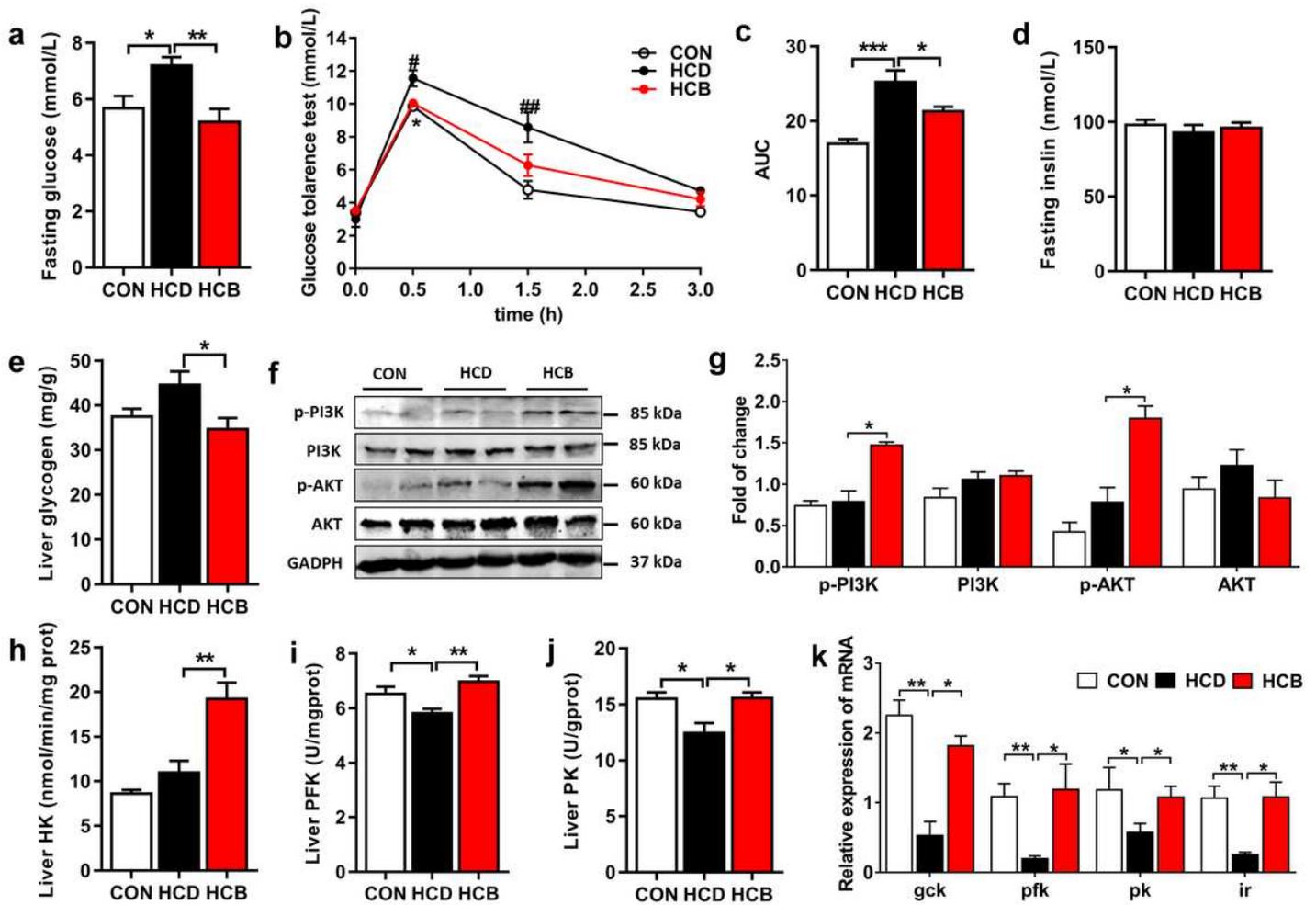


Figure 2

B. amy SS1 improved glucose tolerance of Nile tilapia. a Fasting blood glucose concentrations. b Intra-peritoneal glucose tolerance test (IGTT), glucose levels at 0 h, 0.5 h, 1.5 h, and 3 h. c Area under the curves of IGTT, #: CON vs. HCD, #P < 0.05, ##P < 0.01; * HCD vs. HCB: *P < 0.05. d Fasting insulin concentrations. e Glycogen content in the liver. f Western blotting analysis of the levels of p-PI3K and p-AKT in the liver. g Quantitation of the levels of p-PI3K and p-AKT normalized to that of GAPDH. h-j Glycolytic enzyme activities of HK (h), PFK (i) and PK (j) in the liver. k Relative mRNA expression levels of gck, pk, pfk, and ir in the liver. Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM (n = 6). One-way ANOVA with Tukey's adjustment was used for data analysis.

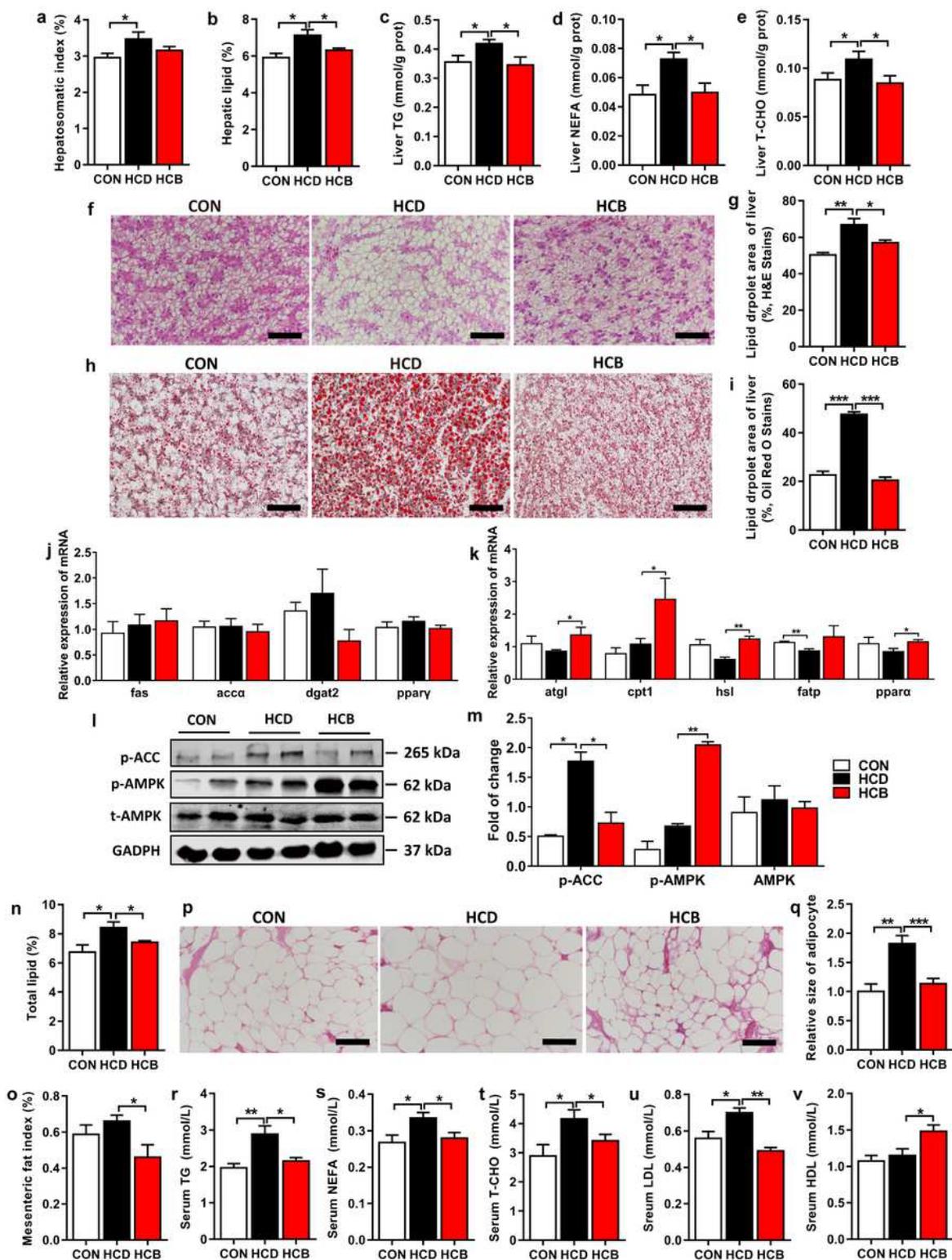


Figure 3

B. amy SS1 reduced lipid deposition of Nile tilapia. a Hepatic somatic index. B Hepatic lipid content. c-e Content of TG (c), NEFA (d) and T-CHO (e) in the liver. f-i Histological analysis of liver (n=3), liver tissue stained with H&E (f) and statistical analysis of lipid area percentage (g), liver tissue stained with oil red O (h) and statistical analysis of lipid area percentage (i), scale bar = 100 μ m. j-k Relative mRNA expression of genes related to lipid synthesis: *fas*, *acca*, *dgat2* and *ppary* in the liver (j) and lipolysis: *atgl*, *cpt1*, *hsl*,

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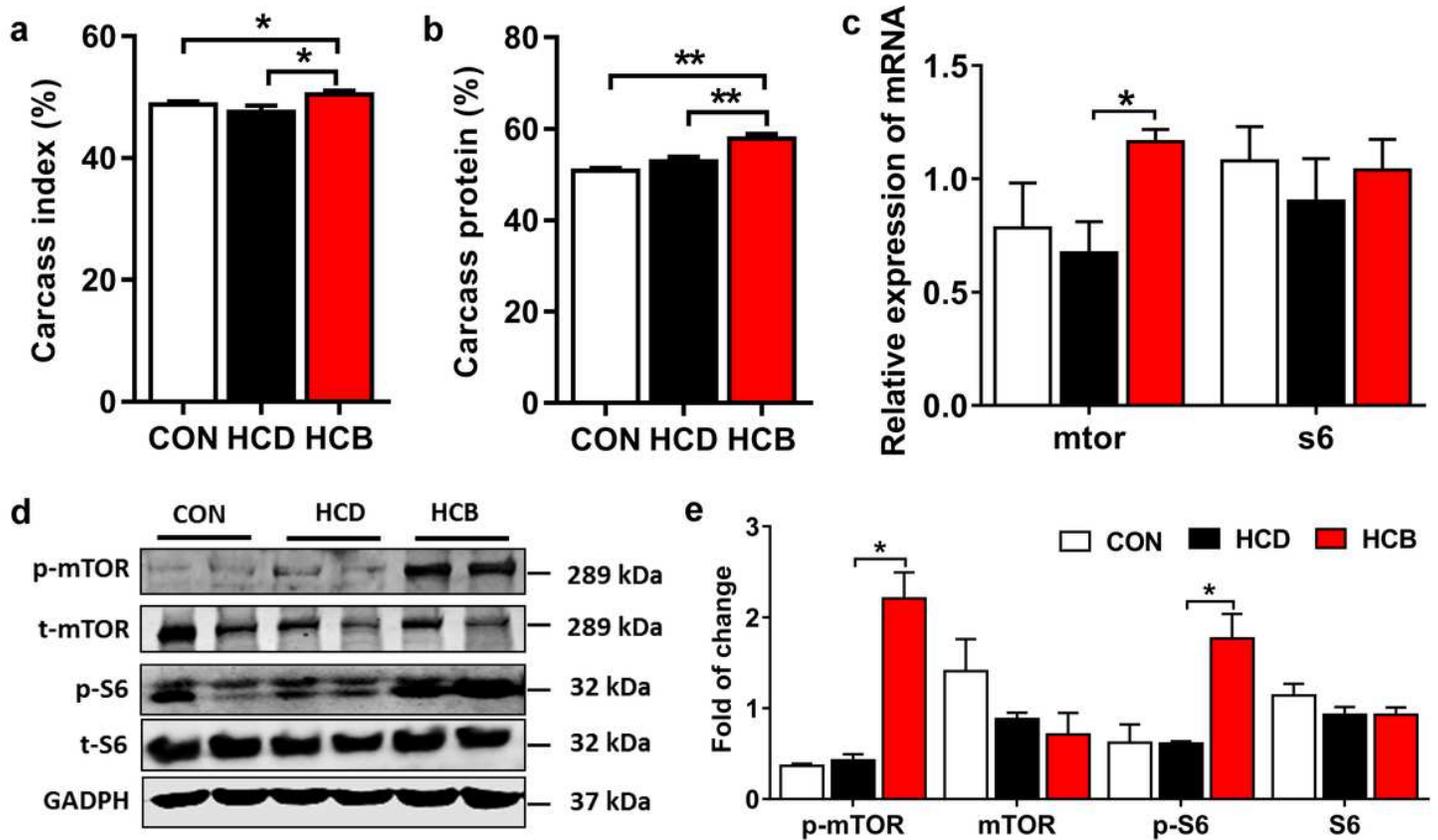


Figure 4

B. amy SS1 increased protein accumulation of Nile tilapia. a Carcass index. B Carcass protein content. c Relative mRNA expression of mtor and s6 in the liver. d Western blotting analysis of the levels of p-mTOR and p-S6 in the liver. e Quantitation of the levels of p-mTOR and p-S6 were normalized to that of GAPDH. Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM (n = 6). One-way ANOVA with Tukey's adjustment was used for data analysis.

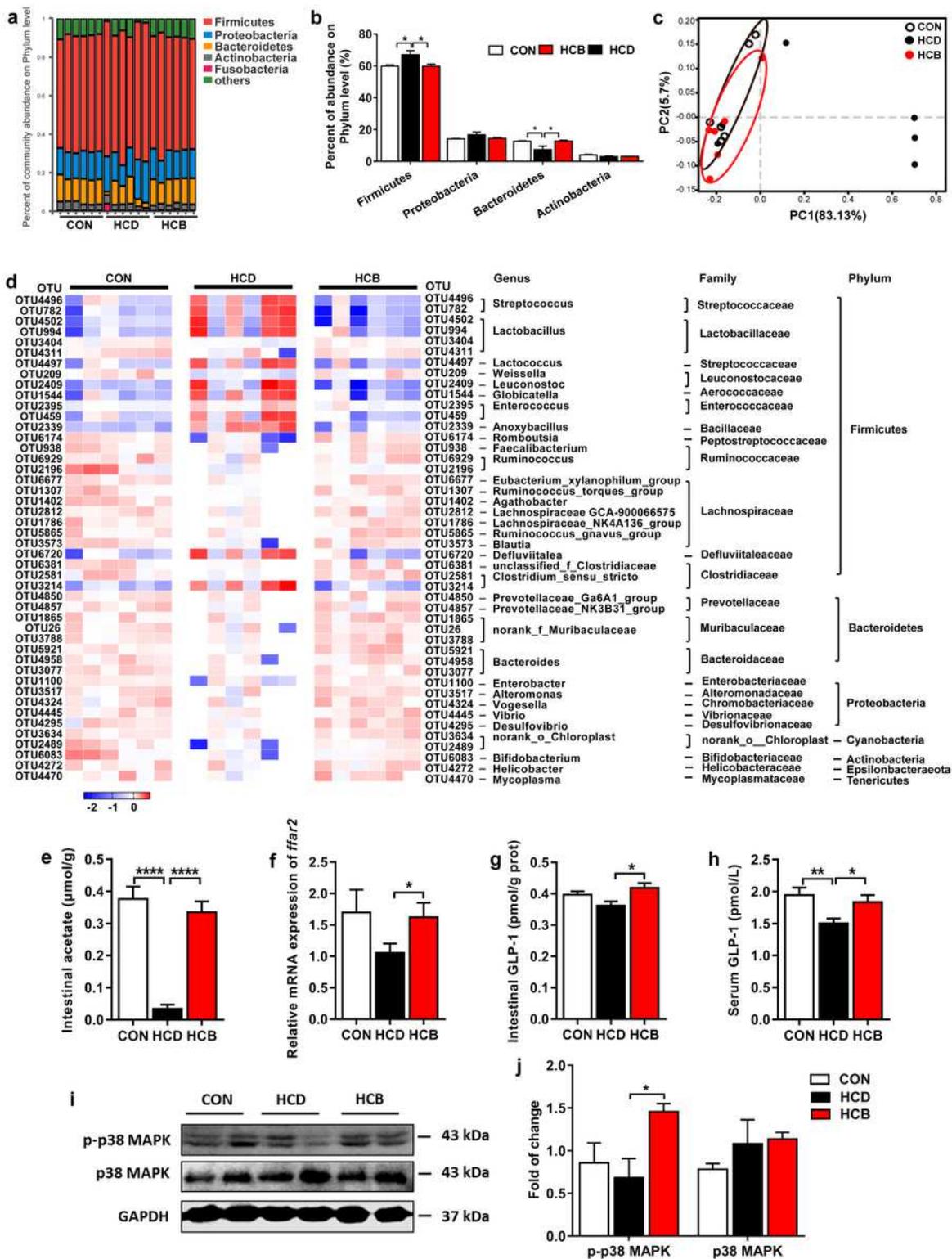


Figure 5

B. amy SS1 altered the intestinal microbial community composition and microbial metabolites of Nile tilapia. a Percent of community abundance at the phylum level. b Histogram of community abundance at the phylum level. c Principal co-ordinates analysis (PCoA) of the intestinal bacterial community. d Heat-map of the bacterial abundance in the intestine. e Acetate content in the intestine. f Relative mRNA expression of *ffar2* in the liver. g-h Content of GLP-1 in intestine (g) and serum (h). i Western blotting

analysis of the levels of p-p38 MAPK in the liver. j Quantitation of the levels of p-p38 MAPK normalized to that of GAPDH. Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM (n = 6). One-way ANOVA with Tukey's adjustment was used for data analysis.

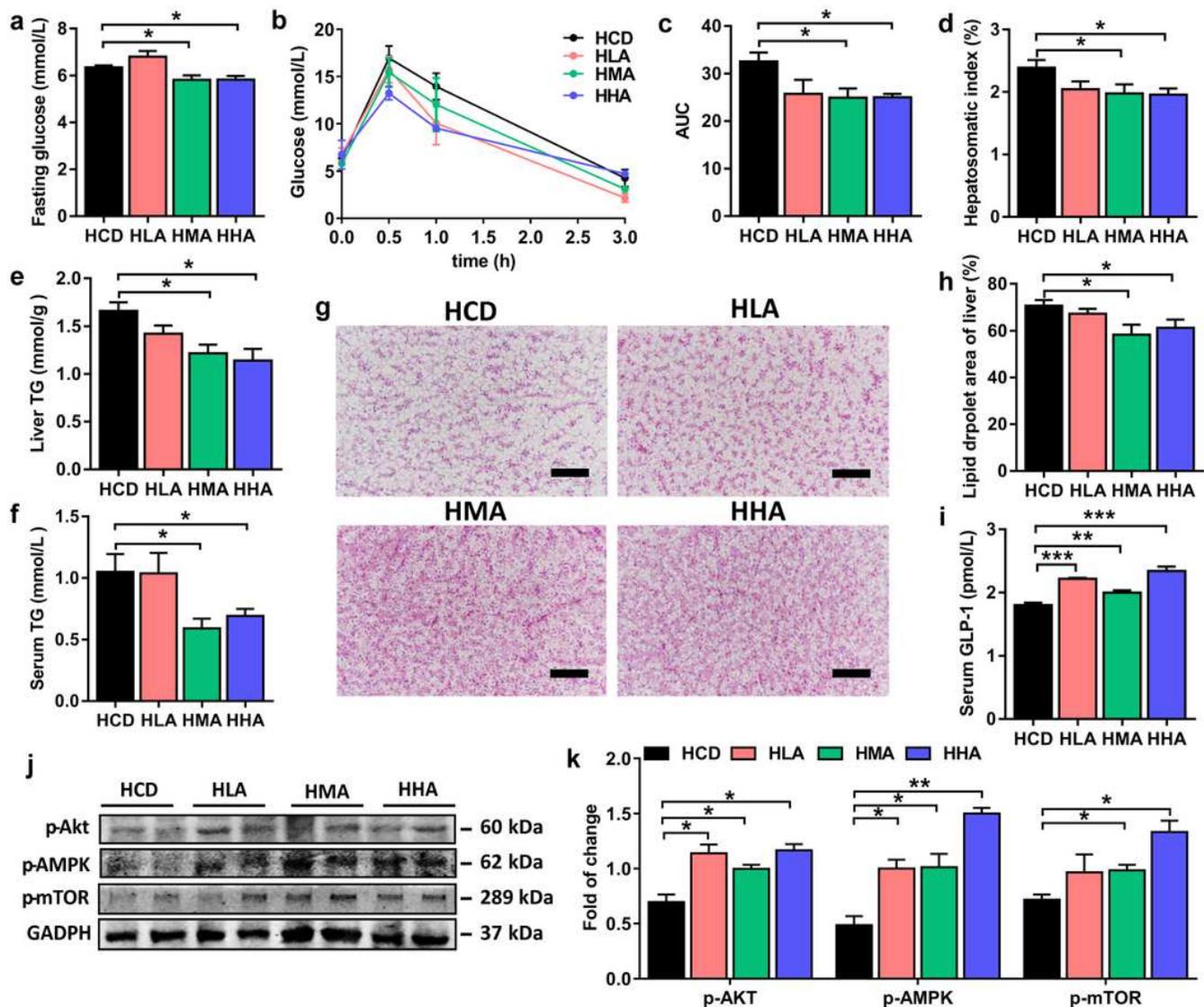


Figure 6

Sodium acetate mirrored the metabolic benefits of *B. amy* SS1. a Fasting blood glucose concentrations. b Intra-peritoneal glucose tolerance test (IGTT). c Area under the curve (AUC) of IGTT. d Serum GLP-1. e Hepatic somatic index. f-g Histological analysis of the liver (n = 3): Liver tissue stained with H&E (f) and statistical analysis of lipid area percentage (g), scale bar = 100 μ m. h-i Content of TG in the liver (h) and serum (i). j Western blotting analysis of the levels of phosphorylated p-AKT, p-AMPK, and p-mTOR in the liver. k Quantitation of the levels of p-AKT, p-AMPK, and p-mTOR were normalized to that of GAPDH. Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM (n = 6). One-way ANOVA with Tukey's adjustment was used for data analysis.

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