Stronger together: harnessing natural algal communities as potential probiotics for

inhibition of aquaculture pathogens

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ABSTRACT (250 words)

Intensive fish rearing in aquaculture is challenged by infectious diseases, and although vaccines have been successfully developed for mature fish, alternative disease control measures are needed for fish larvae and juveniles. Probiotics offer a promising alternative to antibiotics, with the potential to reduce the risk of antibiotic resistance. Probiotics are typically isolated and used as pure cultures, however, in natural environments it is the concerted effort of the complex microbiome that keeps pathogens at bay. Here, we developed an *in vitro* assay to evaluate the anti-pathogen efficacy of mixed algal microbiomes from the live-feed microalgae *Tetraselmis suecica* and *Isochrysis galbana.* The inhibition of a GFP-tagged *Vibrio anguillarum*, a key fish pathogen, by microbial communities, was measured and quantified as reduction in fluorescence. The *Isochrysis galbana* microbiome was more inhibitory to *V. anguillarum* than the *Tetraselmis suecica* microbiome. During co-culture with the pathogen, the bacterial density of the *Isochrysis* microbiomes increased whilst the diversity was reduced as determined by metataxonomic analyses. Bacteria isolated from the fully inhibitory microbiomes were members of *Alteromonadaceae, Halomonadaceae, Rhodobacteraceae, Vibrionaceae, Flavobacteriaceae,* and *Erythrobacteraceae*. Although some strains individually inhibited the pathogen, these were not the key members of the microbiome and enhanced inhibition was observed when *Sulfitobacter pontiacus* D3 and *Halomonas campaniensis* D2 were co-cultured, even though neither were inhibitory as monocultures. Thus, this study demonstrates that microbial communities derived from natural algal microbiomes can have anti-pathogen effects, and that bacterial co-cultures may offer synergistic advantages over monocultures as probiotics, highlighting their promise for aquaculture health strategies.

IMPORTANCE

Aquaculture is the fastest growing food protein producing sector and sustainable disease control measures are required. Probiotics have gained interest as a promising solution for combating fish pathogens and using mixtures of microorganisms rather than pure cultures may represent a more stable pathogen control. We developed an assay using GFP-tagging of a fish pathogen, enabling the quantitative assessment of the anti-pathogen effects of complex microbiomes. We show that the efficiency of pathogen suppression can be increased with co-cultures compared to monocultures, thus emphasising the potential in using mixtures of bacteria as probiotics.

INTRODUCTION

As the human population continues to rise, sustainable production of dietary protein is becoming increasingly important. Aquaculture is a key sector in supplying such high quality protein and has for decades been the fastest growing protein producing food sector (1). However, intensive rearing of fish carries with it the risk of disease outbreaks, which are especially damaging during larval development (1, 2) where disease outbreaks can result in substantial economic losses as seen in a 1988 incident where vibriosis led to a 40% loss of juvenile turbot in a Norwegian hatchery (3, 4). Vibrionaceae infections pose a considerable challenge to marine larviculture and can be caused by a number of *Vibrio* species, including *V. anguillarum* that can infect up to 80 different fish species (5, 6). Despite advances in vaccine development, vibriosis remains a significant problem in aquaculture, especially due to fish larvae lacking a mature immune system, rendering vaccination ineffective (1, 2).

Many commercially valuable marine fish species require live feed, such as microalgae, at the larval stages since suitable artificial feed formulations are not available (7, 8), however, live feed can serve as the infection vector for pathogenic bacteria in larval rearing, leading to swift and widespread infections and complicating disease management (8, 9). Historically, antibiotics have been used to control these infections among larvae and juveniles, but since this may lead to spread of antimicrobial resistance (AMR) of both clinical and agri- and aquacultural relevance, alternative approaches are urgently needed (10). A promising strategy to mitigate bacterial pathogen proliferation in live feed and fish larvae is the use of probiotic bacteria which can inhibit pathogenic bacteria (11–13). Probiotic microorganisms, as defined by FAO and WHO, are "live microorganisms that, when administered in adequate amounts, confer a health benefit on the host" (14). As reviewed in Sonnenschein *et al.* (15), probiotics can be an environmentally sustainable and economically viable approach to counteract economic losses due to bacterial pathogens in aquaculture, and have been intensively studied in the past decades (2, 16). However, the vast majority of such studies have focused on utilising pure cultures of single probionts (17) which may pose challenges in terms of prolonged establishment of a probiont in live feed microbiomes (18). In contrast to traditional single-isolate probiotics, complex microbiomes may offer a more holistic approach by capitalising on the synergistic interactions among multiple microorganisms, including bacteria, to effectively combat pathogens (19). Several studies have focused on use of probiotics in larviculture and have suggested that deriving potential probiotic cultures from the aquaculture system offers an ecological advantage when they are re-introduced (11, 15, 20, 21).

Microalgae, such as *Tetraselmis suecica* and *Isochrysis galbana*, that are used as live feed in many

larviculture productions are colonized by a microbiome that can influence the growth and

metabolism of the algae (22–24). The algal microbiome depends on the host species (25), is

taxonomically diverse and harbours a large bioactive potential (26, 27). The microbial world is

characterized by an intricate web of interactions some of which are mediated by small molecules

through which microorganisms exchange information with their neighbours, competitors, and hosts.

These interactions shape the microbial community and its functionality, however, monocultures lack

these interactions that are important for e.g. inducing expression of biosynthetic gene clusters

producing bioactive compounds (28–30). We therefore hypothesize that the collective microalgal

microbiome and not only pure cultures of probionts could serve to counteract invasion of

aquaculture pathogens. Using a complex microbiome to inhibit a target bacterium, *Vibrio*

anguillarum, we hope to harvest the enhanced inhibitory properties promoted by the microbiome

interactions.

Whilst the study of single culture inhibition is relatively simple, the high throughput screening of

pathogen inhibition by a complex microbiome is more challenging, and a purpose of the present

study was to develop a simple screening assay that would allow determining pathogen inhibition by

a complex microbiome. Subsequently we characterized the inhibitory microbiomes by

metataxonomic analyses and tested mixtures of bacteria derived from these inhibitory microbiomes

for their capability to inhibit the fish pathogen.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bacterial and algal strains and culture conditions. The fish pathogen *Vibrio anguillarum* strain NB10

with a fluorescent tag integrated into the large chromosome (NB10_pNQFlaC4-gfp27) (31) (later

referred to as *Vibrio anguillarum* NB10_gfp) was used as target bacterium in the inhibition assays.

The expression of GFPmut3* gene was controlled by a constitutive promoter $P_{A1/04/03}$ (32).

Phaeobacter piscinae strain S26 (21) was used as a known antagonist of *Vibrio* as a positive control

for establishing the fluorescence-based screening assay. *P. piscinae* and *V. anguillarum* were stored

at –80°C and routinely cultivated on Marine Agar (MA; Difco2216 BD) at 25°C or in Marine Broth

(MB; Difco2216 BD) at 25°C and 200 rpm. MA supplemented with 4 µg/mL chloramphenicol was

used to maintain *V. anguillarum* NB10_gfp. All bacterial cultures were stored and cultivated

similarly, including *V. anguillarum* NB10 wild type (WT), and bacterial isolates obtained from algal

cultures and enriched inhibitory microbiomes (see below).

Xenic microalgal cultures of *Tetraselmis suecica* and *Isochrysis galbana* were provided by

aquaculture industry partners. Axenic algae *Isochrysis galbana* CCMP 1323 and *Tetraselmis suecica*

CCAP 66/4 were purchased from the Bigelow National Center for Marine Algae and Microbiota

(NCMA) and the Culture Collection of Algae and Protozoa (CCAP), respectively, and their axenic

status determined by plating on MA. The algae were cultured in f/2 medium without silicate (f/2 –

Si; NCMA; (33, 34) made with 3% Instant Ocean (IO; Aquarium Systems Inc., Sarrebourg, France) and

cultivated at 18°C and constant illumination at ~50 μE m^{-2} s^{-1}. Cultures were maintained by

continuous subculturing every 4 weeks, transferring 1% of the culture to 25 mL fresh medium.

Fluorescence-based screening assay for GFP-labelled target organism. *V. anguillarum* NB10_gfp

was grown overnight as described above and a 10-fold serial dilution was prepared using MB as a

diluent. 180 μL of the dilutions were distributed to the wells of a sterile, black 96-well microplate

with flat, clear bottom (Perkin Elmer, 6005430) in technical triplicates. *V. anguillarum* NB10 WT was

included as a negative control for the fluorescence measurement, and sterile medium as a no-

growth negative control. Fluorescence and absorbance were measured on a BioTek Cytation^{TM} 5

multi-mode microplate reader at 25°C with shaking (linear, continuous, 567 cpm). Measurements

were taken every 20 minutes over 40 hours, measuring fluorescence (excitation: 485/15 nm,

emission: 513/15 nm) and OD$_{600}$.

Fluorescence-based inhibition assay by *Phaeobacter piscinae* S26. *Phaeobacter piscinae* S26 was

co-cultured with *V. anguillarum* NB10_gfp in the fluorescence-based inhibition assay. Overnight

cultures of both bacteria were prepared, 10-fold serially diluted in sterile MB and 90 μL of each

dilution of both bacterial cultures was loaded into sterile, black 96-well microplates allowing crossed

combinations of the two strains at the different dilutions (total well-content of 180 μL). Dilutions of

P. piscinae S26 were included as a negative control for the fluorescence measurement, and sterile

medium as a no-growth negative control. Dilutions of *V. anguillarum* NB10_gfp were included as a

positive control for fluorescence. Absorbance and fluorescence of the plates were measured as

described above. Bacterial counts of the precultures were determined by 10-fold serial dilution and

plating on MA. After the assay, wells showing no fluorescent signal (the inhibitory microbiomes)

were 10-fold serial diluted and plated on MA supplemented with 4 μg/mL chloramphenicol to

confirm decreased *Vibrio* counts.

Inhibition of *Vibrio anguillarum* by complex algal microbiomes. Microbiomes from two xenic

microalgae, *Tetraselmis suecica* and *Isochrysis galbana,* were co-cultured with *V. anguillarum*

NB10_gfp using the fluorescence-based screening assay (Figure 1). Samples from axenic algal

cultures were included as controls without microbiomes. Five algal cultures were tested in the assay

described above. This included the two axenic cultures (AXT: axenic *Tetraselmis*; AXI: axenic

Isochrysis), two xenic cultures of *Tetraselmis suecica* (NT) and *Isochrysis galbana* (NI) that had been

re-cultivated in the lab since 2019 and 2020, respectively, and a newly acquired (2023) *Isochrysis*

galbana culture (NNI) from an aquaculture collaborator. Cultures (200 mL) of the two microalgae,

both axenic and xenic, were prepared by inoculating 10% stock culture to fresh media and

incubating them at 18°C and constant illumination for five days reaching approx. 6 log algal cells mL^{-1}. The *V. anguillarum* NB10_gfp strain was grown overnight, and algal and bacterial counts were

determined at the beginning of the experiment. Bacterial counts were determined by 10-fold serial

dilution and plating on MA. Plates were incubated for two days for *V. anguillarum* and for four days

for the bacterial counts from algal cultures. All CFU counts were log-transformed before further data

handling and plotting. Algal cell counts were determined using microscopy and a Neubauer-

improved chamber. To determine if any pathogen inhibition was caused by the algae or by their

microbiomes, the xenic algal cultures were divided into two 100 mL fractions: the full culture (FC)

with algal and bacterial cells, and a filtered microbiome (FM) fraction, where algal cells were

removed by filtering (47-mm Ø, pore size 3-μm, mixed cellulose ester, Advantec A300A047A). Before

filtering, the cultures were vortexed vigorously to detach bacteria from the algal cells.

To confirm that marine viruses or viral particles did not influence the observed inhibition, the

possible pathogen inhibition was tested with a filtered microbiome (FM) and a cell-free supernatant

(cf-SN) of NT and NI samples. To prepare the cell-free supernatant, a 100 mL fraction of the FM

samples was filtered through 0.22 μm polyethersulfonate (PES) filters (Nalgene™ Rapid-Flow™).

To increase the bacterial density of the microbiome (target ~ 7 – 8 log CFU mL^{-1}), 100 ml of algal

cultures were harvested (2,445 x g, 10 min, 20°C) and resuspended in 1 mL sterile 3% IO. 10-fold

serial dilutions of both up-concentrated algal fractions (FC and FM; 3% IO as diluent), the cell-free

supernatants (cf-SN; 3% IO as diluent) and *Vibrio* cultures (MB as diluent) were prepared, and loaded

into sterile, black 96-well microplates. Combinations of dilutions of the pathogen (target: 3 log CFU

mL^{-1} and 5 log CFU mL^{-1}) and algal samples (10^{-1} to 10^{-5} dilutions) were loaded. Algal cultures with no

addition of the GFP tagged pathogen were included as negative control for the fluorescence

measurement, and sterile medium as a no-growth negative control. Different dilutions of the pure

culture of *V. anguillarum* NB10_gfp were included as a positive control. Fluorescence and OD$_{600}$

were measured as described above. FM samples were measured on a different instrument (BioTek

Synergy HTX) than all other samples, resulting in a different scale of the fluorescence measurements.

To confirm pathogen inhibition after the assay, wells with fluorescence below 5% of the non-

inhibited Vibrio control were 10-fold serial diluted and plated on chloramphenicol-supplemented

plates (MA). The overview of sample preparation and experimental setup are summarized in Figure

1.

Characterizing the enriched inhibitory microbiomes. During the co-culture inhibition assay, the

bacterial density of the algal microbiomes was increased. Several dilutions of the algal microbiomes

inhibited growth of *V. anguillarum* in a "dose dependent" manner and in all co-cultures, the

bacterial density of the algal microbiomes increased. These microbiomes which caused suppression

of the pathogen will be referred to as enriched inhibitory microbiomes. DNA was extracted from a

selection of the wells taking samples from wells exhibiting a complete inhibition and wells allowing

only marginal growth of *V. anguillarum*. Also, samples were taken from no-growth negative controls

of the experiment, resulting in a total of 41 samples. Upon completion of the assay, the plates and

samples were stored at -80°C until further processing, and then thawed at 4°C and samples kept on

ice. 2 x 200 µL lysis buffer (400 mM NaCl, 750 mM sucrose, 20 mM EDTA, 50 mM Tris-HCl, 1 mg/mL

lysozyme [pH 8.5]) was added to the wells. The contents of the wells were then resuspended and

transferred to Eppendorf tubes and incubated at 37°C for 30 min. Proteinase K was added to a final

concentration of 100 mg/mL and sodium dodecyl sulphate (SDS) to a final concentration of 1%

vol/vol, and samples were then incubated overnight at 55°C, 300 rpm (35). The order of handling of

samples was then randomized before extraction. DNA extraction was done by the Promega Maxwell

16 using the Maxwell LEV Blood DNA Kit, and the quality and purity of the DNA were measured using

a DeNovix 439 DS-11+ spectrophotometer (DeNovix Inc., Wilmington, DE, USA) and confirmed by gel

electrophoresis.

The V3-V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene of all samples was amplified by PCR as described in Roager *et*

al. (2023) (36), using the primer set 341f (59-CCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG-39) and 805r (59-

GACTACHVGGGTATCTAATCC-39) tagged with 30 unique octametric barcodes (Table S1). PCR

products were purified using Agencourt AMPure XP magnetic beads (0.8:1 bead volume to DNA

solution; Agencourt Bioscience Corporation, Beverly, MA, USA). Concentrations of the amplicons

were determined using a Qubit 2.0 Fluorometer with the high sensitivity (HS) assay kit (Qubit^TM

dsDNA HS assay; Invitrogen by Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., Eugene, OR, USA). Samples were pooled

in equimolar ratios before library preparation and sequencing on an Illumina NovaSeq 6000 platform

with paired-end 250-bp reads (Novogene; Cambridge, United Kingdom).

Analyses of sequencing data. Sequencing data analyses were performed using QIIME 2 version

2023.5 (37) and R version 4.2.1 (38). The raw reads were imported to QIIME2, demultiplexed, and

primers and barcodes were removed using the cutadapt demux-paired plugin (39). Reads were then

denoised and dereplicated using the DADA2 package (40) and an amplicon sequence variant (ASV)

table was created leaving out sequences shorter than 400bp. A phylogenetic tree was constructed

using MAFFT (41) and FastTree (42), via the phylogeny plugin. Alpha- and beta-diversity metrics were

computed using the diversity plugin (43) at an even sampling depth of 26,226. A classifier trained on

the Silva database 138 (44) and the specific primer sequences employed as mentioned above was

used for taxonomic classification of the reads via the feature-classifier plugin (45, 46). ASVs which

were either not assigned to a phylum, classified as chloroplasts/mitochondria or had a frequency <

10 were filtered out before further analysis in R. Two sterility controls were excluded from the

dataset before further analysis. QIIME 2 artifacts were imported to R v4.2.1 using the qiime2R

package (47) and analysis was continued in RStudio (48) with the tidyverse (49) package. For

multivariate analyses using the vegan package, the ASV table was normalized by square-root

transformation and Wisconsin standardization (50). PERMANOVA analysis was then performed using

the beta-group-significance function of Qiime2 and the adonis plugin (51) in R with 999

permutations to test significant differences in beta diversity as a function of source culture (NI and

NNI), degree of pathogen inhibition, microbiome dilution and sample fraction (FC and FM), based on

Bray-Curtis dissimilarities calculated using the normalized ASV table. The analysis was conducted

both on the complete dataset and on subsets divided by samples before and after the enrichment

assay. Interactive effects were included in the models but were removed due to lack of significance.

Isolation and identification of bacterial strains from *Isochrysis galbana* microbiomes. Culturable

bacterial isolates were obtained from a subset of the enriched inhibitory *I. galbana* microbiomes (NI

and NNI) analysed for their microbiome composition. Culture from wells where *V. anguillarum* was

inhibited by the microbiomes was serially diluted and plated on MA. Isolates were picked

representing colonies with different morphology. Also, strains were picked from the plating of the

algal culture before testing inhibition (native microbiome), resulting in a total of 64 bacterial isolates.

The strains were re-streaked for purity and glycerol stocks (20% v/v) were made and stored at -80°C.

The isolates were later identified by 16S rRNA gene amplification by colony PCR using universal

primers 27F and 1492R and subsequent Sanger sequencing by Macrogen (Amsterdam, Netherlands).

Sequencing results were compared against the NCBI nucleotide database using the BLASTn function

(52) to determine the putative bacterial taxa.

Inhibition of *V. anguillarum* by pure cultures and co-cultures of bacterial isolates. Antagonism of

pure cultures of the 64 bacterial isolates against *V. anguillarum* NB10_gfp was tested using an agar-

based assay (53) using 50 µL of culture to 50 ml of agar and spotting 5 µL of an overnight culture of

the isolates on the pathogen-embedded plates. Plates were incubated at 25°C and visually inspected

for clearing zones after 24 and 48 hours. In a similar manner, dual cultures of isolates from the

enriched inhibitory microbiome were spotted on embedded *Vibrio* and inspected for inhibition. Five

isolates were chosen for investigating co-culture effects as representatives of the five non-*Vibrio*

genera isolated from the enriched inhibitory *I. galbana* microbiomes (Table 2) with complete

inhibition of 5.3 log CFU mL^{-1} starting inoculum of *V. anguillarum*. The strains were grown in liquid

cultures (MB, 25°C, 200 rpm) for 24 hours and then mixed 1:1 in pairs. 10 µL of the mixtures were

spotted on the pathogen-embedded plates. The plates were incubated at 25°C and visually

inspected for clearing zones after 24 and 48 hours. Monocultures of the individual strains mixed 1:1

with MB were used as controls. To validate the results by the co-culture of isolates D2 and D3, their

inhibition was tested against a selection of nine strains of *Vibrio anguillarum* with different virulence

against fish larvae (54). Monocultures and co-cultures were spotted on the pathogen-embedded

plates in biological triplicates, as described above. Biological triplicates of isolate H2 (*Phaeobacter*

piscinae) were used as a positive control.

Whole genome sequencing, annotation and analysis. The five isolates selected for the co-culture

study were whole genome sequenced with Oxford Nanopore sequencing, using the GridION

platform. Genomic DNA was extracted from overnight cultures with the NucleoSpin® Tissue Mini kit

(Macherey-Nagel, 740952.5) protocol for bacteria, with three hours of incubation during pre-lysis.

The quality, purity, and concentration of the DNA was assessed as described for amplicon

sequencing. The library was prepared using the Rapid Barcoding Kit 24 V14 (SQK-RBK114.24). The

resulting reads were processed by the dragonflye pipeline (55). Briefly, adaptors were trimmed using

Porechop and reads smaller than 1000bp were removed with Nanoq. The genomes were then

assembled with Flye and polished with Medaka. The assemblies were then annotated with Bakta

v1.8.2 (56) and profiled for BGCs with antiSMASH 7.0 (57). Subsequently, the assembled genomes

were taxonomically classified using autoMLST (58).

Data availability. The sequencing data from the microbiome analysis and the assembled whole

genomes are available on the Sequencing Read Archive under BioProject ID PRJNA1150956.

RESULTS

Fluorescence-based inhibition assay for GFP-labelled *Vibrio anguillarum*. *V. anguillarum* NB10_gfp,

as expected, grew well in MB reaching an absorbance of 0.929 ± 0.003 at 600 nm (in 19 hours for 5.3

log CFU mL^{-1} starting inoculum). The starting inocula of *V. anguillarum* NB10_gfp ranged between

1.3 to 9.3 log CFU mL^{-1}. In pure culture, the growth of *V. anguillarum* could be followed by the

fluorescent signal indicating the same lag phase, growth rate and stationary phase entry as seen on

the OD$_{600}$ measurements (Figure 2A and 2B). *V. anguillarum* was then co-cultured with a dilution

series of a known antagonist, *Phaeobacter piscinae* S26 in biological triplicates, to provide proof-of-

concept that growth-inhibition of the pathogen could be detected by measuring (lack of)

fluorescence signal of a fluorescently tagged target organism. The starting inocula of *P. piscinae* S26

ranged between 9.1 to 1.1 log CFU mL^{-1}. As expected, lower starting concentrations of *Vibrio* were

more easily inhibited than higher concentrations (data not shown) and, conversely, higher

concentrations of *Phaeobacter* were more inhibitory than lower concentrations (Figure 2C).

Quantifying *Vibrio* on chloramphenicol-supplemented plates after the assay, from the wells with

fluorescent signal < 5% of the *Vibrio* positive control, confirmed inhibition of the pathogen (< 4,34 ±

0,63 log CFU/mL).

Anti-pathogen inhibitory effect of algal microbiomes on *Vibrio anguillarum*. To investigate the

inhibitory effect of their microbiomes on *V. anguillarum* NB10, dilutions of samples from cultures of

two xenic microalgae, *I. galbana* and *T. suecica,* were co-cultured with the GFP-tagged fish

pathogen. In the experiments, the starting inocula of *V. anguillarum* NB10_gfp was 3.1 ± 0.3 log CFU

mL^{-1} (target: 3 log CFU mL^{-1}) and 5.1 ± 0.3 log CFU mL^{-1} (target: 5 log CFU mL^{-1}). Initial algal cell

counts varied between 5.2 and 6.4 log cells mL^{-1} and up-concentration resulted in approx. 1.5 log

increase to between 7.2 and 8.0 log cells mL^{-1}. Initial bacterial counts in the *Isochrysis* samples varied

between 5.7 and 6.6 log CFU mL^{-1} and in the up-concentrated FC fraction between 7.6 and 8.4 log

CFU mL^{-1}, whereas in the up-concentrated FM fraction between 7.6 and 8.1 log CFU mL^{-1} (Table S2).

Microbiomes from both *T. suecica* and *I. galbana* inhibited growth of *V. anguillarum*, with the *I.*

galbana microbiome being more potent (Figure 3A vs. 3D and 3B vs. 3E). The same inhibition pattern

was observed for the filtered microbiomes (algal cells removed) as for the full culture (algal and

bacterial cells) (Figure 3A vs. 3B and 3D vs. 3E). No inhibition was observed from samples from

axenic algae cultures (Figure 3C and 3F) or cell-free supernatants (data not shown), indicating that it is indeed the microbiomes growing in the wells that inhibit the pathogen. Plating on chloramphenicol-supplemented plates from wells with decreased fluorescent signal confirmed that if the GFP signal was less than 10% of the control, the *Vibrio* was inhibited, with an abundance of < 5.67 ± 0.75 log CFU/mL, as opposed to approximately 9 log CFU/mL in the non-inhibited control. OD_{600} measurements can be seen in Figure S1.

Sequence based analysis of microbiomes. In total, 70,542,064 paired end reads were obtained from the 16S rRNA gene amplicons, with a mean of 1,500,894 reads per sample. After denoising, merging, filtering out chloroplasts and mitochondria, removal of short sequences (< 400 bp) and low abundant ASVs (total frequency < 10), this resulted in a total of 320 amplicon sequence variants (ASVs), with a mean read count per sample of 209,507 (Table S3).

Microbiome composition and diversity analyses. The native microbiomes of *I. galbana* were dominated by *Alteromonadaceae, Rhizobiaceae, Flavobacteriaceae, Rhodobacteraceae* and *Hyphomonadaceae*. The microbiome composition of the two *I. galbana* cultures (NI and NNI) differed significantly (PERMANOVA, R^2 = 0.312, p = 0.001), with NNI representing a relatively freshly recruited microbiome and NI representing a semi-adapted microbiome, subcultured many times in the laboratory over four years. The two cultures shared several genera, such as *Flavobacteriaceae, Rhizobiaceae, Alteromonadaceae* and *Rhodobacteraceae*, but also had distinct microbiome compositions. *Hyphomonadaceae* and *Cyclobacteriaceae* were unique to NI, and each culture had several distinct representatives of *Flavobacteriaceae* and *Rhodobacteraceae* (Figure S2).

The enriched inhibitory microbiomes sampled after the *Vibrio* inhibition assay were largely dominated by *Alteromonadaceae* and *Rhodobacteraceae*, with a higher relative abundance of *Vibrionaceae* compared to the native microbiome. As expected, the relative abundance of *Vibrionaceae* was highest in samples with marginal growth of the pathogen, compared to those with complete inhibition of the target pathogenic vibrio. However, *Vibrionaceae* were also detected in lower relative abundances in enriched cultures that fully inhibited *V. anguillarum*, suggesting these sequences could represent growth of native vibrios of the algal microbiome. The relative abundances of *Alteromonadaceae* and *Rhodobacteraceae* increased during the inhibition assay, whereas those of *Rhizobiaceae*, *Flavobacteriaceae*, and *Hyphomonadaceae* decreased.

Community richness (Faith index), diversity (Shannon index), and evenness (Pielou's index) showed

no significant differences between microbiomes with different degrees of pathogen inhibition (p >

0.05). However, based on a pairwise Kruskal-Wallis analysis, significant differences in Pielou's index

were observed between the NI and NNI cultures (p = 0.0041), with the NI culture having a higher

diversity and evenness. PERMANOVA analysis of the full dataset indicated a significant shift in

microbial community composition from before (native microbiome) to after the experiment

(enriched inhibitory microbiome). Therefore, the data was split into two subsets for further analysis.

Post-enrichment, community composition was significantly affected by the source culture (NI vs.

NNI) (PERMANOVA, R^2 = 0.253, p = 0.001), degree of pathogen inhibition (PERMANOVA, R^2 = 0.064,

p = 0.017), microbiome dilution (PERMANOVA, R^2 = 0.098, p = 0.001), and algal fraction (full culture

(FC) vs. filtered microbiome (FM)) (PERMANOVA, R^2 = 0.060, p = 0.025). Residual variation accounted

for 52.5% of the total variation.

In conclusion, the degree of pathogen inhibition was associated with differences in the taxonomic

composition of the sampled *Isochrysis* microbiomes. However, most variation between microbiomes

was explained by differences between the two source cultures (NI and NNI).

Isolation and identification of bacterial strains from *Isochrysis galbana* microbiomes. A total of 64

isolates were obtained from *I. galbana* microbiomes either from the native algal culture (19 strains)

or from the enriched inhibitory microbiomes after *Vibrio* inhibition (45 strains). These were

tentatively identified using full-length 16S rRNA gene sequencing (Table S4). Strains from the native

microbiome were identified as members of the *Alteromonas* (2 isolates)*, Croceibacter* (1 isolate)*,*

Mameliella (1 isolate)*, Phaeobacter* (3 isolates)*, Qipengyuania* (3 isolates)*, Roseovarius* (2 isolates)*,*

Ruegeria (1 isolate) and *Sulfitobacter* (6 isolates) genera (Table 1), whereas strains from the enriched

inhibitory microbiomes were identified as members of the *Alteromonas* (5 isolates)*, Halomonas* (1

isolate)*, Phaeobacter* (18 isolates)*, Roseovarius* (7 isolates)*, Sulfitobacter* (11 isolates) and *Vibrio* (3

isolates) genera (Table 2).

Inhibition of *Vibrio anguillarum* by pure cultures and co-cultures of bacterial isolates. Pure

cultures of all 64 bacterial isolates were tested for their ability to inhibit *V. anguillarum* NB10 and 17

isolates with pronounced inhibitory activity (zone of inhibition in the embedded pathogen) were all

identified as *Phaeobacter* sp. (Table 3, Figure S3). The dual co-cultures of representative isolates

showed inhibition zones in all co-cultures that included *Phaeobacter piscinae* (isolate H2). In some

cases, the co-culture of *P. piscinae* (isolate H2) and *Roseovarius* sp. (isolate C7) resulted in a larger

clearing zone as compared to the monoculture of the *P. piscinae*, however this result was not

consistently reproducible. Of special interest was the co-culture of *Sulfitobacter pontiacus* (isolate

D3) and *Halomonas campaniensis* (isolate D2), which despite showing only slight (*Halomonas*

campaniensis) or no (*Sulfitobacter pontiacus)* inhibition in single culture, were remarkably inhibitory

when grown together (Figure 4). Monocultures and co-cultures of these two isolates were

subsequently tested against eight additional *V. anguillarum* strains with different virulence and the

co-culture showed varying degrees of inhibition against *V. anguillarum* 775, 4299, and PF7 (Table

S5). Isolate H2 showed strong inhibition against all *V. anguillarum* strains.

Whole genome sequencing and genome mining. The species identity of the five chosen isolates was

confirmed through Average Nucleotide Identity (ANI%) analysis: *Roseovarius nubinhibens* (isolate C7,

ANI 90.0%; referred to as *Roseovarius* sp.), *Halomonas campaniensis* (isolate D2, ANI 98.4%),

Sulfitobacter pontiacus (isolate D3, ANI 97.3%), *Alteromonas macleodii* (isolate E2, ANI 99.0%),

Phaeobacter piscinae (isolate H2, ANI 98.2%). Genome assembly of the sequencing data from the

five isolates yielded three closed genomes and two draft genomes (Table 4). According to

antiSMASH (57) analysis, Halomonas *campaniensis* D2 carries seven BGCs (NI-siderophore,

ranthipeptide, redox-cofactor, RIPP-like, T1PKS, betalactone, ectoine) and *Sulfitobacter pontiacus* D3

four BGCs (RiPP-like, betalactone, hserlactone, redox-cofactor), potentially encoding antibacterial

compounds (Table S6). The structure of compounds cannot be accurately predicted due to the low

similarity compared to the known BGCs in MIBiG (Table S6).

DISCUSSION

The rapid spread of pathogenic bacteria within intensive aquaculture systems remains a significant

challenge, especially during the vulnerable larval development stage, and disease outbreaks often

result in substantial economic losses. In this study, we investigated the probiotic potential of the

microbiomes from two algae typically employed as live feed in marine larviculture, *Tetraselmis*

suecica and *Isochrysis galbana*. By identifying microbiomes with disease suppression, we aim to

provide a novel approach to disease control in aquaculture, reducing reliance on antibiotics and the

risk of spread of AMR.

Determining the inhibitory effect of a mixed microbiome against a particular pathogenic bacterium

requires specific detection and quantification of the pathogen. Previous works on fish pathogens

have used several approaches for determining inhibition in a mixed microbial population. For

instance tagging the pathogen with an antibiotic resistance marker enabling specific quantification

by culturing on antibiotic containing media (11, 20, 31), using semi-selective media and distinct

colony morphology in defined co-cultures (8, 59, 60), using flow cytometry to determine

concentrations of a GFP-tagged pathogen (20), or developing specific primers and designing a qPCR

approach has been a strategy for specific detection (8). Both the culturing approaches as well as the

qPCR method are labour-intensive and time-consuming. To enable a faster screen for pathogen-

inhibitory effect of a mixed microbial community, we used a GFP-tagged pathogen and

demonstrated that the fluorescent signal is a robust indication of growth of the pathogen, and that it

can be used to detect its inhibition by other microorganisms. Thus, we developed a simple

methodology for screening mixed microbiomes for their anti-pathogenic potential, thereby offering

a valuable tool for developing sustainable disease management strategies also outside of the

aquaculture sector. The method facilitates identification and selection of microbiomes with the

greatest potential for disease control, contributing to the sustainable growth of aquaculture and the

global effort to combat AMR.

We used the method to demonstrate that both the native, complete microbiomes and diluted

microbiomes of two microalgae used in aquacultures were able to inhibit the growth of fish

pathogen *Vibrio anguillarum*. In contrast to findings from previous studies where cultures of

Isochrysis sp*.* and *Tetraselmis suecica* have themselves been inhibitory to fish pathogenic *Vibrio*

species (59–61), we did not find that *V. anguillarum* was inhibited by axenic *I. galbana* or *T. suecica,*

nor the cell-free supernatants of either culture. Thus, in our study, it was clearly the microorganisms

associated with the algae that inhibited growth of the pathogen, emphasising the crucial role of

microbial communities associated with live feed in larviculture for disease control. These findings

highlight the potential of harnessing natural microbial consortia to enhance disease resistance in

aquaculture settings. Furthermore, in our experiments the *Isochrysis* microbiome inhibited growth

of the pathogen (RFU < 10% of control) at 1:10 (*Vibrio*: *Isochrysis* microbiome) starting inoculation

ratio, showing a more pronounced inhibitory potential as compared to that of a monoculture of *P.*

piscinae S26, where it took an inoculation ratio of 1:100 (*Vibrio*: *P. piscinae* S26) to reach similar

reduction of the RFU, supporting our hypothesis that a mixed microbiome may be more inhibitory to

a pathogen than individual pure cultures.

Sequence-based analysis of *I. galbana* microbiomes found that *Rhizobiaceae*, *Alteromonadaceae*,

and *Flavobacteriaceae* family members dominated the native *I. galbana* microbiome. This is in line

with a number of previous studies reporting these families as members often found in the core

microbiome of microalgae (36, 62, 63). The native microbiome also harboured members of the

Rhodobacteraceae, which is a family commonly associated with microalgae and algal blooms (36,

62–65). The enriched inhibitory microbiomes were dominated by *Alteromonadaceae*,

Rhodobacteraceae, and *Vibrionaceae* members, with decreased relative abundances of *Rhizobiaceae*

and *Flavobacteriaceae* compared to the native microbiome. These shifts are likely heavily influenced

by transferring the algal microbiome to a nutrient rich assay medium (MB) favouring fast-growing,

heterotrophic bacteria. Interestingly, the degree of pathogen inhibition by the enriched inhibitory

microbiomes is not explained by differences in the community richness, diversity, and evenness.

However, it does correlate with distinct patterns in the overall community composition, suggesting

that the inhibitory potential is influenced by the structure of the microbiome and synergistic

interactions within a diverse community. Our findings also imply that complete pathogen inhibition

can be achieved by a range of different enrichment cultures.

Pure cultures of *Phaeobacter piscinae* H2 isolated from the *I. galbana* microbiome inhibited *V.*

anguillarum when tested in an agar-based assay, and this is consistent with numerous previous

studies showing that several *Phaeobacter* species can inhibit *Vibrio* species (20, 21, 66–68). Notably,

all isolates that produced an inhibition zone of the embedded *V. anguillarum* were identified as

Phaeobacter species, however, this genus was not among the ten most abundant genera of the

enriched inhibitory microbiomes. This could indicate that instead of the potent antagonistic effect of

particular genera, it may be a synergistic effect of the microbiome members that inhibits the

pathogen.

The co-culture of *Sulfitobacter pontiacus* D3 and *Halomonas campaniensis* D2, isolated from the *I.*

galbana microbiome, was inhibitory to *V. anguillarum* NB10, despite neither isolate showing

pathogen inhibition as pure cultures. The co-culture also showed varying degrees of inhibition

against three additional *V. anguillarum* strains, belonging to different phylogenetic clades based on

MLSA, including a faint inhibitory effect of the highly virulent *V. anguillarum* PF7. This indicates that

the observed inhibition is not limited to low-virulence strains but also that the effect may not be

universal and that some pathogens are not affected. While it is beyond the scope of the current

study to unravel the molecular and chemical mechanism underlying this co-culture-induced

inhibition, previous research has demonstrated that biosynthetic gene clusters (BGCs) encoding

antibiotic compounds can be elicited by co-cultivation of bacteria (28–30, 69). According to

antiSMASH analyses, the genomes of both bacteria harbour several BGCs. Therefore, future

metabolomic analyses of the mono- and co-cultures could provide insight into the co-culture-

induced antimicrobial mechanism. Moreover, several *Halomonas* species have been reported to

produce an array of hydrolytic enzymes, extracellular polysaccharides (EPS) (70), antibiotics (71),

antifungals (72), and pigments (73). *Halomonas campaniensis* D2, in particular, carries seven

biosynthetic gene clusters potentially encoding antibacterial compounds. This combined with the

lack of inhibition by the monoculture could suggest that the presence of *Sulfitobacter pontiacus* D3

may trigger the inhibitory effect. *Sulfitobacter* species, often associated with marine algae and corals

(74–76), possess the ability to metabolise sulphite (77–79) and dimethylsulfoniopropionate (DMSP)

(74). The breakdown of DMSP produces potentially antimicrobial compounds such as acrylate (80,

81) and dimethyl sulphide (DMS), which could indicate that the sulphur metabolism capabilities of

Sulfitobacter may contribute to pathogen inhibition. Several *Sulfitobacter* species have also been

reported to inhibit fungal pathogens (82) and produce EPS (83) and extracellular cyclodipeptides

(84).

Beiralas et. al reported that *Sulfitobacter pontiacus* is a key species of the *Emiliania huxleyi*

microbiome, protecting its algal host from bacterial pathogens even at low initial abundance (76).

While the mechanism of the algal protector phenotype was not determined, the authors suggest

that harbouring *Sulfitobacter* species in the algal microbiome presents the host with an advantage

and that *Sulfitobacter* species may play a key role in influencing population dynamics. Building on

these findings, we speculate that even a low abundance of *Sulfitobacter pontiacus* in a community or

co-culture may induce synergistic effects that enhance pathogen inhibition, potentially mediated

through the production of bioactive compounds. These insights highlight the importance of

microbial interactions in community functionality and stability.

In conclusion, by introducing an efficient methodology for screening mixed microbiomes, our study

offers a promising approach for identifying candidate microbiomes for sustainable disease

management. Our findings highlight the potential of harnessing natural microbial consortia to

enhance disease resistance in aquaculture and support the importance of microbial co-cultures as

potential disease control strategies.

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LEGENDS FOR TABLES AND FIGURES

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Sulfitobacter pontiacus D3, *Alteromonas macleodii* E2, and *Phaeobacter piscinae* H2 yielded three
closed genomes and two draft genomes.

Figure 1. Yellow panels: Overview of algal cultures used in the *Vibrio* inhibition assays. Xenic cultures:
Tetraselmis suecica (NT) and *Isochrysis galbana* (NI – continuously subcultured, NNI – freshly recruited
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(starting inoculum 10^3 or 10^5 CFU mL^{-1}) in a GFP-based inhibition assay (C). Teal panels: NI and NNI
samples indicated by DNA symbol were analysed through 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing (D).
Bacterial isolates from the native microbiome and the enriched inhibitory microbiome of *I. galbana*
(NI, NNI) were tested for inhibition of *V. anguillarum* in an agar-based assay (E). (Created by
BioRender).

Figure 2. *Vibrio anguillarum* NB10_gfp at different initial concentrations: 10^6 (●), 10^5 (□), 10^4 (▲), 10^3 (○) CFU mL^{-1}, as measured by (A) absorbance at 600 nm and by (B) fluorescence (GFP) using excitation of 485/15 nm and emission of 513/15 nm, and the (C) inhibition profile of *V. anguillarum* NB10_gfp (initial concentration: 10^4 CFU mL^{-1}) by antagonist *Phaeobacter piscinae* S26 at different initial concentrations: 10^7 (△), 10^6 (●), 10^5 (□), 10^4 (▲), 10^3 (○), 10^2 (■) CFU mL^{-1}, as measured by fluorescence (GFP, excitation: 485/15 nm, emission: 513/15 nm).

Figure 3. Inhibition by *Isochrysis galbana* (left) and *Tetraselmis suecica* (right) microbiomes of *Vibrio anguillarum* NB10_gfp (starting inoculum of 3.1 ± 0.3 log CFU mL^{-1}), as measured by fluorescence (GFP, excitation: 485/15 nm, emission: 513/15 nm). The inhibitory effect of serial dilutions (10^{-1} (△), 10^{-2} (●), 10^{-3} (□), 10^{-4} (▲), 10^{-5} (○)) of different fractions of the algal cultures have been tested: full culture (FC; 3A and 3D), with algal and bacterial cells; filtered microbiome (FM; 3B and 3E), where algal cells have been removed; and axenic (AX; 3C and 3F) cultures, where the algae cells are free of bacteria. FM samples were measured on a different instrument, hence a different scale of RFU.

Figure 4. Inhibition of *Vibrio anguillarum* NB10_gfp by co-cultures of bacterial species isolated from the enriched inhibitory *Isochrysis galbana* cultures, in an agar-based pathogen embedding assay. C7: *Roseovarius* sp., D2: *Halomonas campaniensis*, D3: *Sulfitobacter pontiacus*, E2: *Alteromonas macleodii*, H2: *Phaeobacter piscinae*.

Figure 5. Microbial composition (top 10 most abundant genera) of the native (left) and enriched inhibitory (right) microbiomes based on the 16S rRNA amplicon sequencing results. Samples from the enriched inhibitory microbiome are grouped by their inhibition profile: marginal growth of pathogen (*), medium inhibition of pathogen (**), full inhibition of pathogen (***).

Supplementary Tables and Figures

Table S1. List of thirty unique barcodes and primers used to amplify the V3-V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene in DNA from the microbiomes of *Isochrysis galbana* cultures. Primers and barcodes from (85).

Table S2. Algal and bacterial counts of different algal cultures (AXT, AXI, NT, NI and NNI) used in the *Vibrio* inhibition assay, before and after up-concentration ("Before" and "After"), and from different algal sample fractions (Full culture, FC and Filtered microbiome, FM). Counts are reported as mean ±

standard deviation. In cases where standard deviation is not reported, data originated from

unreplicated experimental conditions.

Table S3. DNA concentration after extraction, DNA amount provided for sequencing and number of

sequences obtained from each sample (after denoising and filtering). Sample names indicate replicate

("R1", "R2") source culture ("NI", "NNI"), sample fraction (Full culture: "FC", Filtered microbiome:

"FM"), dilution factor of the algal microbiome (0 to -5), and starting inoculum of *V. anguillarum*

NB10_gfp ("V3", "V5" for 3 or 5 log CFU mL^{-1}) for samples obtained after the inhibition assay. The algal

cultures were sampled before up-concentrating and filtering ("raw", triplicates), and each fraction (FC

and FM) was sampled before the enrichment assay ("bf"). Sterile media controls were included ("MB-

ctrl").

Table S4. 64 bacterial strains isolated from the native („Raw culture", 19 strains) or enriched inhibitory

(„Full culture": FC, or „Filtered microbiome": FM, 45 strains) microbiome of *Isochrysis galbana*, and

tentatively identified using full-length 16S rRNA gene sequencing. The isolates originate from two

different *I. galbana* cultures (NI and NNI), acquired at different times from the same aquaculture unit.

Table S5. Inhibition of nine *V. anguillarum* strains by the co-culture of *Halomonas campaniensis*

(isolate D2) and *Sulfitobacter pontiacus* (isolate D3). *Phaeobacter piscinae* isolate H2 was used as

positive control. Clearing zone of different degrees (+, ++, +++), a faint clearing zone (*), or no clearing

zone (-) after 24 hours of incubation. Virulence ranks as defined by Rønneseth et al (54).

Table S6. Biosynthetic gene clusters (BGCs) predicted by antiSMASH in the genomes of *Halomonas*

campaniensis D2 and *Sulfitobacter pontiacus* D3.

Figure S1. Inhibition assay by *Isochrysis galbana* (left) and *Tetraselmis suecica* (right) microbiomes

against *Vibrio anguillarum* NB10_gfp, at a starting concentration of 3.1 ± 0.3 log CFU mL^{-1}, as measured

by absorbance at 600 nm. The inhibitory effect of serial dilutions (10^{-1} (△), 10^{-2} (●), 10^{-3} (□), 10^{-4} (▲), 10^{-5} (○)) of different fractions of the algal cultures have been tested: full culture (FC; S1A and S1D), with

algal and bacterial cells; filtered microbiome (FM; S1B and S1E), where algal cells have been removed;

and axenic (AX; S1C and S1F) cultures, where the algae cells are free of bacteria.

Figure S2. Native microbiome composition (top 10 most abundant genera) of two *Isochrysis galbana*

cultures of different age based on the 16S rRNA amplicon sequencing results. One culture, NNI has

been newly provided by an aquaculture facility and has a relatively freshly recruited microbiome

(left). The other culture, NI has been regularly subcultured under laboratory conditions for almost

four years (right).

Figure S3. Inhibition of *Vibrio anguillarum* NB10_gfp by 64 isolates from the *Isochrysis galbana*

microbiome. 16 isolates showed a clearing zone of varying size (all identified as *Phaeobacter* sp.),

and 13 isolates showed a faint halo, or a rough agar surface around the colony (identified as

Alteromonas, Sulfitobacter, Qipengyuania and *Croceibacter* sp.).

Table 1. Identification (16S rRNA gene sequence and BLAST) of bacterial isolates from the native *Isochrysis galbana* cultures.

Top BLAST hit (NCBI)	Genus	Family	Number of isolates	Present in enrichment culture
Alteromonas sp.	*Alteromonas*	*Alteromonadaceae*	2	Yes
Croceibacter sp.	*Croceibacter*	*Flavobacteriaceae*	1	No
Mameliella sp.	*Mameliella*	*Rhodobacteraceae*	1	No
Phaeobacter sp.	*Phaeobacter*	*Rhodobacteraceae*	3	Yes
Qipengyuania sp.	*Qipengyuania*	*Erythrobacteraceae*	3	No
Roseovarius nubinhibens	*Roseovarius*	*Rhodobacteraceae*	2	Yes
Ruegeria sp.	*Ruegeria*	*Rhodobacteraceae*	1	No
Sulfitobacter sp.	*Sulfitobacter*	*Rhodobacteraceae*	6	Yes

882 **Table 2.** Identification (16S rRNA gene sequence and BLAST) of bacterial isolates from the enriched inhibitory *Isochrysis galbana* cultures after co-culture

883 with *Vibrio anguillarum* NB10_gfp.

Top BLAST hit (NCBI)	Genus	Family	Number of isolates	In full (**) or marginally (*) inhibitory enrichments	
				**	*
Alteromonas sp.	*Alteromonas*	*Alteromonadaceae*	5	Yes	No
Halomonas alkaliphila	*Halomonas*	*Halomonadaceae*	1	Yes	No
Phaeobacter sp.	*Phaeobacter*	*Rhodobacteraceae*	18	Yes	Yes
Roseovarius nubinhibens	*Roseovarius*	*Rhodobacteraceae*	7	Yes	Yes
Sulfitobacter sp.	*Sulfitobacter*	*Rhodobacteraceae*	11	Yes	Yes
Vibrio sp.	*Vibrio*	*Vibrionaceae*	3	Yes	Yes

885   **Table 3.** Bacterial strains isolated from *Isochrysis galbana* cultures with the ability to inhibit *V.*

886   *anguillarum*. All isolates characterized by a clearing zone of different sizes (+, ++, +++) or a faint

887   clearing zone (*) were identified as *Phaeobacter* sp.

Isolate	Source	Best BLAST hit	ID%	Inhibition of *Vibrio anguillarum* NB10
B7	Raw culture, NI	*Phaeobacter piscinae*	99.57%	++
B9	Raw culture, NI	*Phaeobacter piscinae*	99.43%	+
C3	FC, NNI	*Phaeobacter piscinae*	99.43%	+
D4	FC, NNI	*Phaeobacter piscinae*	99.14%	+
D6	FC, NI	*Phaeobacter piscinae*	99.24%	+++
E4	FC, NI	*Phaeobacter piscinae*	99.42%	+++
E6	FC, NI	*Phaeobacter sp.* M8-4.3	98.24%	+++
E8	FC, NI	*Phaeobacter piscinae*	99.42%	++
E9	FC, NI	*Phaeobacter piscinae*	98.90%	+++
F3	FC, NI	*Phaeobacter sp.* M8-4.3	98.07%	++
F6	FM, NNI	*Phaeobacter piscinae*	98.72%	+
H2	FM, NI	*Phaeobacter piscinae*	98.96%	+++
H3	FM, NI	*Phaeobacter piscinae*	99.33%	*
H8	FM, NI	*Phaeobacter piscinae*	99.33%	++
I1	FM, NI	*Phaeobacter piscinae*	99.14%	+
I2	FM, NI	*Phaeobacter piscinae*	99.04%	++
I3	FM, NI	*Phaeobacter piscinae*	99.24%	+++

899 **Table 4.** Whole genome sequencing results of five bacterial isolates from the *Isochrysis galbana*

900 microbiome. Whole genome sequencing of *Roseovarius* sp. C7, *Halomonas campaniensis* D2,

901 *Sulfitobacter pontiacus* D3, *Alteromonas macleodii* E2, and *Phaeobacter piscinae* H2 yielded three

902 closed genomes and two draft genomes.

Isolate	Total genome length (bp)	N50 (bp)	Number of contigs	GC content (%)	Status of genome
Roseovarius sp. C7	3,819,388	3,578,952	6	62.9	Closed
Halomonas campaniensis D2	4,408,683	4,359,254	3	52.8	Closed
Alteromonas macleodii E2	5,090,176	4,653,070	3	44.5	Closed
Sulfitobacter pontiacus D3	3,995,328	279,876	45	60.2	Draft
Phaeobacter piscinae H2	3,981,236	909,707	11	60.2	Draft

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gene in DNA from the microbiomes of *Isochrysis galbana* cultures. Primers and barcodes from (85).

Barcode no.	Barcode	Forward primer (with barcode)	Reverse primer (with barcode)
1	TTTTAATC	TTTTAATCCCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG	TTTTAATCGACTACHVGGGTATCTAATCC
2	ATAATTAG	ATAATTAGCCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG	ATAATTAGGACTACHVGGGTATCTAATCC
3	ACCAAATT	ACCAAATTCCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG	ACCAAATTGACTACHVGGGTATCTAATCC
4	CTTATCAA	CTTATCAACCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG	CTTATCAAGACTACHVGGGTATCTAATCC
5	TGATCATT	TGATCATTCCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG	TGATCATTGACTACHVGGGTATCTAATCC
6	AGAATCTA	AGAATCTACCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG	AGAATCTAGACTACHVGGGTATCTAATCC
7	TCAAGAAA	TCAAGAAACCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG	TCAAGAAAGACTACHVGGGTATCTAATCC
8	ATCGAAAT	ATCGAAATCCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG	ATCGAAATGACTACHVGGGTATCTAATCC
9	ACATTTAC	ACATTTACCCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG	ACATTTACGACTACHVGGGTATCTAATCC
10	TAGAAAAC	TAGAAAACCCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG	TAGAAAACGACTACHVGGGTATCTAATCC
11	TTATCACC	TTATCACCCCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG	TTATCACCGACTACHVGGGTATCTAATCC
12	AATAGGGT	AATAGGGTCCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG	AATAGGGTGACTACHVGGGTATCTAATCC
13	ATTGCTGA	ATTGCTGACCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG	ATTGCTGAGACTACHVGGGTATCTAATCC
14	TGAGTTCT	TGAGTTCTCCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG	TGAGTTCTGACTACHVGGGTATCTAATCC
15	GGCTATTT	GGCTATTTCCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG	GGCTATTTGACTACHVGGGTATCTAATCC
16	CAAGAGAT	CAAGAGATCCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG	CAAGAGATGACTACHVGGGTATCTAATCC
17	GGAATACA	GGAATACACCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG	GGAATACAGACTACHVGGGTATCTAATCC
18	AAGGCAAT	AAGGCAATCCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG	AAGGCAATGACTACHVGGGTATCTAATCC
19	ACAAAACG	ACAAAACGCCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG	ACAAAACGGACTACHVGGGTATCTAATCC
21	TTGAGTGA	TTGAGTGACCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG	TTGAGTGAGACTACHVGGGTATCTAATCC
22	GCTTCTGA	GCTTCTGACCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG	GCTTCTGAGACTACHVGGGTATCTAATCC
23	GGCAAGAT	GGCAAGATCCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG	GGCAAGATGACTACHVGGGTATCTAATCC
24	GTGCTTTC	GTGCTTTCCCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG	GTGCTTTCGACTACHVGGGTATCTAATCC
25	ACACACTG	ACACACTGCCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG	ACACACTGGACTACHVGGGTATCTAATCC
26	CGATTCTG	CGATTCTGCCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG	CGATTCTGGACTACHVGGGTATCTAATCC
27	GCAGAGTT	GCAGAGTTCCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG	GCAGAGTTGACTACHVGGGTATCTAATCC
30	GCTTGGTT	GCTTGGTTCCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG	GCTTGGTTGACTACHVGGGTATCTAATCC
31	ACAGGCTT	ACAGGCTTCCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG	ACAGGCTTGACTACHVGGGTATCTAATCC
40	GAGAGGGA	GAGAGGGACCTACGGGNGGCWGCA	GAGAGGGAGACTACHVGGGTATCTAATCC

949   **Table S2.** Algal and bacterial counts of different algal cultures (AXT, AXI, NT, NI and NNI) used in the

950   *Vibrio* inhibition assay, before and after up-concentration ("Before" and "After"), and from different

951   algal sample fractions (Full culture, FC and Filtered microbiome, FM). Counts are reported as mean ±

952   standard deviation. In cases where standard deviation is not reported, data originated from

953   unreplicated experimental conditions.

Algal culture	Algal counts (log cells/mL)		Bacterial counts (log CFU/mL)		
	Before	After	Before	After, FC	After, FM
AXT	5.2	7.2	N/A	N/A	N/A
AXI	5.9	7.2	N/A	N/A	N/A
NT	5.7	7.4	6.6	8.4	8.1
NI	6.4 ± 0.1	8.0 ± 0.1	6.0 ± 0.3	7.6 ± 0.2	7.8 ± 0.2
NNI	6.2 ± 0.6	7.5 ± 0.4	5.7 ± 0.6	7.7 ± 0.4	7.6 ± 0.3

Table S3. DNA concentration after extraction, DNA amount provided for sequencing and number of

sequences obtained from each sample (after denoising and filtering). Sample names indicate replicate

("R1", "R2"), source culture ("NI", "NNI"), sample fraction (Full culture: "FC", Filtered microbiome:

"FM"), dilution factor of the algal microbiome (0 to -5), and starting inoculum of *V. anguillarum*

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cultures were sampled before up-concentrating and filtering ("raw", triplicates), and each fraction (FC

and FM) was sampled before the enrichment assay ("bf"). Sterile media controls were included ("MB-

ctrl").

Sample name	DNA concentration after extraction (ng/µL)	Amount of DNA provided for sequencing (ng)	Number of sequences obtained
R1-NNI-FC_0_V5	43.2	250	172,237
R1-NNI-FC_-3_V5	60.8	250	659,903
R1-NNI-FC_-4_V5	54.8	250	141,745
R1-NNI-FC_-5_V3	36.8	250	125,582
R1-NNI-FC_bf	33.2	250	42,434
R1-NNI-FM_0_V5	100	250	37,770
R1-NNI-FM_-2_V5	66.4	250	283,545
R1-NNI-FM_-3_V5	47.8	250	211,372
R1-NNI-FM_-3_V3	77.6	250	422,921
R1-NNI-FM_-4_V3	112	250	275,217
R1-NNI-FM_bf	4.1	192,7	175,885
R1-NNI-MB-ctrl	0.834	39,198	11,352
R1-NNI-raw1	55.4	250	162,772
R1-NNI-raw2	85.4	250	54,564
R1-NNI-raw3	71.6	250	40,223
R2-NNI-FC_0_V5	58.4	250	75,491
R2-NNI-FC_-1_V5	39	250	550,497
R2-NNI-FC_-3_V3	95.4	250	106,340
R2-NNI-FC_-5_V3	73.4	250	324,687
R2-NNI-FC_bf	85	250	62,636
R2-NNI-FM_0_V5	75.4	250	238,018
R2-NNI-FM_-3_V3	120	250	162,818

R2-NNI-FM_-4_V3	48	250	294,405
R2-NNI-FM_bf	17.3	250	145,227
R2-NNI-raw1	43.4	250	25,781
R2-NNI-raw2	72.4	250	49,342
R2-NNI-raw3	72.8	250	74,725
R2-NI-FC_0_V5	81.2	250	291,271
R2-NI-FC_-2_V5	16.2	250	391,227
R2-NI-FC_-3_V3	61.6	250	297,668
R2-NI-FC_-4_V3	74.4	250	224,317
R2-NI-FC_bf	120	250	33,188
R2-NI-FM_0_V5	95.2	250	474,932
R2-NI-FM_-1_V5	61	250	265,940
R2-NI-FM_-2_V3	75	250	229,292
R2-NI-FM_-4_V3	50	250	226,214
R2-NI-FM_bf	16.4	250	367,349
R2-NI-MB-ctrl	1.98	93,06	39,985
R2-NI-raw1	86.8	250	43,457
R2-NI-raw2	92.2	250	169,394
R2-NI-raw3	73.4	250	409,195

Table S4. 64 bacterial strains isolated from the native („Raw culture", 19 strains) or enriched inhibitory („Full culture": FC, or „Filtered microbiome": FM, 45 strains) microbiome of *Isochrysis galbana*, and tentatively identified using full-length 16S rRNA gene sequencing. The isolates originate from two different *I. galbana* cultures (NI and NNI), acquired at different times from the same aquaculture unit.

Isolate	Source	Best BLAST hit	Query Cover	E value	ID%
A1	Raw culture, NNI	*Alteromonas marina*	99%	0.0	98.14%
A2	Raw culture, NNI	*Sulfitobacter pacificus*	99%	0.0	99.17%
A3	Raw culture, NNI	*Roseovarius nubinhibens*	99%	0.0	98.61%
A4	Raw culture, NNI	*Roseovarius nubinhibens*	100%	0.0	98.88%
A5	Raw culture, NNI	*Sulfitobacter* sp.	100%	0.0	98.63%
A6	Raw culture, NNI	*Sulfitobacter pacificus*	100%	0.0	99.71%
A7	Raw culture, NNI	*Qipengyuania nanhaisediminis*	100%	0.0	99.54%
A8	Raw culture, NNI	*Qipengyuania aquimaris*	99%	0.0	98.90%
A9	Raw culture, NNI	*Ruegeria* sp.	100%	0.0	98.29%
B1	Raw culture, NNI	*Alteromonas macleodii*	100%	0.0	97.96%
B2	Raw culture, NNI	*Qipengyuania xiamenensis*	99%	0.0	99.56%
B3	Raw culture, NI	*Croceibacter* sp.	100%	0.0	99.22%
B4	Raw culture, NI	*Mameliella alba*	99%	0.0	98.43%
B5	Raw culture, NI	*Sulfitobacter* sp. LZD014	99%	0.0	99.34%
B6	Raw culture, NI	*Sulfitobacter* sp.	100%	0.0	98.82%
B7	Raw culture, NI	*Phaeobacter piscinae*	100%	0.0	99.57%
B9	Raw culture, NI	*Phaeobacter piscinae*	99%	0.0	99.43%
C1	Raw culture, NI	*Sulfitobacter* sp.	99%	0.0	99.57%
C2	FC, NNI	*Roseovarius nubinhibens*	99%	0.0	99.31%
C3	FC, NNI	*Phaeobacter piscinae*	99%	0.0	99.43%
C5	FC, NNI	*Roseovarius nubinhibens*	100%	0.0	99.37%
C6	FC, NNI	*Sulfitobacter* sp. LZD014	100%	0.0	98.86%
C7	FC, NNI	*Roseovarius nubinhibens*	100%	0.0	99.62%
C8	FC, NNI	*Alteromonas tagae*	99%	0.0	97.35%
C9	FC, NNI	*Sulfitobacter pacificus*	99%	0.0	99.24%
D1	FC, NNI	*Sulfitobacter* sp. LZD014	99%	0.0	99.52%
D2	FC, NNI	*Halomonas alkaliphila*	99%	0.0	98.89%

D3	FC, NNI	*Sulfitobacter* sp.	99%	0.0	97.53%
D4	FC, NNI	*Phaeobacter piscinae*	99%	0.0	99.14%
D5	FC, NNI	*Alteromonas* sp.	98%	0.0	98.10%
D6	FC, NI	*Phaeobacter piscinae*	100%	0.0	99.24%
E2	FC, NI	*Alteromonas macleodii*	99%	0.0	99.14%
E3	FC, NI	*Phaeobacter piscinae*	99%	0.0	99.05%
E4	FC, NI	*Phaeobacter piscinae*	100%	0.0	99.42%
E5	FC, NI	*Sulfitobacter* sp. LZD014	100%	0.0	99.33%
E6	FC, NI	*Phaeobacter* sp. M8-4.3	99%	0.0	98.24%
E7	FC, NI	*Sulfitobacter* sp. LZD014	99%	0.0	99.23%
E8	FC, NI	*Phaeobacter piscinae*	100%	0.0	99.42%
E9	FC, NI	*Phaeobacter piscinae*	100%	0.0	98.90%
F1	FC, NI	*Sulfitobacter* sp.	100%	0.0	98.82%
F2	FC, NI	*Vibrio anguillarum*	100%	0.0	97.43%
F3	FC, NI	*Phaeobacter* sp. M8-4.3	99%	0.0	98.07%
F4	FC, NI	*Sulfitobacter* sp.	94%	0.0	96.22%
F5	FM, NNI	*Vibrio* sp.	100%	0.0	98.70%
F6	FM, NNI	*Phaeobacter piscinae*	100%	0.0	98.72%
F7	FM, NNI	*Sulfitobacter* sp.	99%	0.0	99.33%
F8	FM, NNI	*Roseovarius nubinhibens*	99%	0.0	99.44%
F9	FM, NNI	*Roseovarius nubinhibens*	99%	0.0	99.71%
G1	FM, NNI	*Sulfitobacter* sp.	99%	0.0	99.43%
G2	FM, NNI	*Phaeobacter piscinae*	100%	0.0	99.23%
G3	FM, NNI	*Alteromonas* sp.	97%	0.0	97.75%
G5	FM, NNI	*Roseovarius nubinhibens*	100%	0.0	98.91%
G7	FM, NNI	*Vibrio* sp.	99%	0.0	97.46%
G8	FM, NNI	*Roseovarius nubinhibens*	99%	0.0	99.05%
H1	FM, NI	*Sulfitobacter* sp. LZD014	99%	0.0	99.61%
H2	FM, NI	*Phaeobacter piscinae*	100%	0.0	98.96%
H3	FM, NI	*Phaeobacter piscinae*	99%	0.0	99.33%
H4	FM, NI	*Phaeobacter* sp. M8-4.3	99%	0.0	98.33%
H8	FM, NI	*Phaeobacter piscinae*	99%	0.0	99.33%
H9	FM, NI	*Alteromonas macleodii*	100%	0.0	91.23%
I1	FM, NI	*Phaeobacter piscinae*	100%	0.0	99.14%

I2	FM, NI	*Phaeobacter piscinae*	99%	0.0	99.04%
I3	FM, NI	*Phaeobacter piscinae*	100%	0.0	99.24%
I4	Raw culture, NI	*Phaeobacter piscinae*	99%	0.0	98.94%

975 **Table S5.** Inhibition of nine *V. anguillarum* strains by the co-culture of *Halomonas campaniensis* (isolate D2) and *Sulfitobacter pontiacus* (isolate D3).

976 *Phaeobacter piscinae* isolate H2 was used as positive control. Clearing zone of different degrees (+, ++, +++), a faint clearing zone (*), or no clearing zone (-)

977 after 24 hours of incubation. Virulence ranks as defined by Rønneseth et al (54).

V. anguillarum strain	Virulence rank	Inhibition by *H. campaniensis* D2 monoculture	Inhibition by *S. pontiacus* D3 monoculture	Inhibition by co-culture of *H. campaniensis* D2 and *S. pontiacus* D3	Inhibition by *P. piscinae* H2
90-11-286	High	-	-	-	+++
DSM21597	High	-	-	-	+++
PF7	High	-	-	*	+++
PF4	High	-	-	-	+++
9014/8	Medium	-	-	-	+++
S2 2/9	Medium	-	-	-	+++
4299	Low	*	-	++	+++
NB10	Low	*	-	++	+++
775	N/A	+	-	+	+++

979 **Table S6.** Biosynthetic gene clusters (BGCs) predicted by antiSMASH 7.0 in the genomes of *Halomonas*

980 *campaniensis* D2 and *Sulfitobacter pontiacus* D3.

Strain	Cluster	Type of BGC	Most similar known BGC in MIBiG	Similarity
H. campaniensis D2	1	NI-siderophore	BGC0001572	66%
	2	ranthipeptide	BGC0000413	2%
	3	redox-cofactor	BGC0001131	25%
	4	RiPP-like	/	/
	5	T1PKS	/	/
	6	betalactone	BGC0001103	20%
	7	ectoine	BGC0000859	75%
S. pontiacus D3	1	RiPP-like	/	/
	2	betalactone	/	/
	3	hserlactone	/	/
	4	redox-cofactor	/	/

Isochrysis galbana *Tetraselmis suecica*

Figure S1. Inhibition assay by *Isochrysis galbana* (left) and *Tetraselmis suecica* (right) microbiomes against *Vibrio anguillarum* NB10_gfp, at a starting concentration of 3.1 ± 0.3 log CFU mL^{-1}, as measured by absorbance at 600 nm. The inhibitory effect of serial dilutions (10^{-1} ($\triangle$), 10^{-2} ($\bullet$), 10^{-3} ($\square$), 10^{-4} ($\blacktriangle$), 10^{-5} ($\circ$)) of different fractions of the algal cultures have been tested: full culture (FC; S1A and S1D), with algal and bacterial cells; filtered microbiome (FM; S1B and S1E), where algal cells have been removed; and axenic (AX; S1C and S1F) cultures, where the algae cells are free of bacteria.

991 **Figure S2.** Native microbiome composition (top 10 most abundant genera) of two *Isochrysis galbana* cultures of different age based on the 16S rRNA amplicon

992 sequencing results. One culture, NNI, has been newly provided by an aquaculture facility and has a relatively freshly recruited microbiome (left). The other

993 culture, NI has been regularly subcultured under laboratory conditions for almost four years (right).

997 **Figure S3.** Inhibition of *Vibrio anguillarum* NB10_gfp by 64 isolates from the *Isochrysis galbana*

998 microbiome.

999