Metatranscriptomic Insights into Microbial Dynamics Prior to Disease Onset in Atlantic Salmon Aquaculture

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Abstract

Aquaculture plays a key role in global food security, yet disease outbreaks remain a major challenge. While host transcriptomic response have been widely studied, the role of microbial community in disease risk in aquaculture remains understudied.

Here, we conducted a metatranscriptomic analysis of gill microbiomes in Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*) by repurposing publicly available RNA-seq data originally generated for host transcriptomics. These poly(A)-selected RNA-seq datasets were collected prior to a disease outbreak, allowing us to examine functional microbial patterns retrospectively.

Taxonomic profiles generated by Bracken and MATAM showed strong concordance across dominant genera, confirming that host RNA-seq datasets retain sufficient microbial signal for downstream classification. In addition to tank-dependent microbial variation, our presence-absence analysis revealed survival-associated microbiome shifts. Several taxa, including *Sedimentibacter*, *Fusarium*, and *Demequina* were more observed in non-survived individuals, whereas *Micrococcaceae, Pseudomonas, and Burkholderiaceae* were enriched in survivors. were enriched in survivors. Functional gene analysis revealed distinct transcriptional responses within the same microbial taxa between survivors and non-survivors, particularly in metabolic adaptation, stress response, and host-microbe interactions. These results suggest that host-derived RNA-seq datasets, though not originally designed for microbial analysis, offer new opportunities to investigate early microbial signals and environmental factors associated with disease susceptibility in aquaculture.

Keywords: Metatranscriptomics, Aquaculture, Gill microbiome, Functional profiling, *Salmo salar*

Short Summary: This study shows that host RNA-seq data can be repurposed to reveal early microbial changes and functional shifts associated with disease outcomes in Atlantic salmon aquaculture.

Introduction

Aquaculture is a promising solution for meeting the growing global demand for food and nutrition (Little, Newton and Beveridge 2016; Boyd, McNevin and Davis 2022). Despite advancements in intensive breeding systems that have improved production efficiency, infectious diseases remain a major challenge, because of high fish densities in captive environments (Leung and Bates 2013; Assefa and Abunna 2018; Bouwmeester *et al.* 2021; Ferreira *et al.* 2021; Mougin and Joyce 2022). Disease outbreaks not only cause substantial economic losses and food waste (Stentiford *et al.* 2017) but also affect wild fish populations and surrounding ecosystems as aquaculture environments can serve as reservoirs for pathogens (Diana 2009; Colombo *et al.* 2016; Hamza *et al.* 2017; Bouwmeester *et al.* 2021; Glidden *et al.* 2021).

The frequent occurrence of infectious diseases in aquaculture has led to the widespread use of antibiotics. While this approach offers short-term efficacy, it contributes to the emergence of antibiotic-resistant bacteria, posing challenges to long-term disease management and ecosystem health (Defoirdt, Sorgeloos and Bossier 2011; Muziasari *et al.* 2016; Santos and Ramos 2018; Topp *et al.* 2018; Haro-Moreno *et al.* 2020; Lulijwa, Rupia and Alfaro 2020). Vaccination programs also have been implemented for several pathogens (Park 2009; Rodger 2016; Mkulo *et al.* 2024). However, a comprehensive understanding of pathogen diversity and microbial interactions in aquaculture remains elusive, particularly regarding the complexity and functional dynamics of the aquatic microbiome, which plays a crucial role in host health, immune regulation, and pathogen resistance (Rajeev *et al.* 2021; Canellas *et al.* 2022; Chen *et al.* 2022; Samsing and Barnes 2024).

Recent advances in high-throughput sequencing, particularly metatranscriptomics, have enabled the functional characterization of microbiomes in real-time, providing deeper insights into microbial activity

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and host-microbe interactions (Jiang *et al.* 2016; Ojala *et al.* 2023). Unlike traditional microbiome

analyses that rely on taxonomic profiling, metatranscriptomics allows for the identification of microbial

functional signatures, potentially serving as early warning indicators before clinical symptoms emerge.

Integrating this approach into aquaculture disease monitoring could facilitate a shift from reactive disease

management to proactive risk assessment and control, reducing dependence on antibiotics and

improving biosecurity (Jorth *et al.* 2014; Hua *et al.* 2015; Welti-Chanes *et al.* 2020; Massimino *et al.* 2021)

In the winter of 2021, a severe outbreak of infectious skin disease occurred in an Atlantic salmon (*Salmo*

salar) breeding facility in Western Norway, leading to high mortality rates and revealing the need for early

disease detection strategies. Current disease investigations in aquaculture are largely conducted post-

outbreak, yet microbial and immunological alterations may occur before clinical symptoms appear (de

Bruijn *et al.* 2018). While most transcriptomic studies in aquaculture focus on host immune responses,

an alternative and complementary approach is to examine microbial community function as a predictor

of disease susceptibility (Yilmaz *et al.* 2022). The gill microbiome, in particular, plays a key role in

pathogen defense and host homeostasis (Morshed and Lee 2023), yet their functional activity prior to

disease outbreaks remains largely unexplored.

In this study, we repurposed a publicly available RNA-seq dataset originally generated for host

transcriptomic analyses of Atlantic salmon gill biopsies collected prior to a disease outbreak. At the time

of sampling, fish exhibited no visible disease symptoms, allowing retrospective investigation of microbial

signatures preceding disease emergence. Despite the use of poly(A)-selected libraries, we successfully

retrieved both rRNA and mRNA transcripts from microbial taxa. By comparing microbial taxonomic

profiles and transcriptional patterns between survivors and non-survivors, we identified taxa- and

transcript-level differences that may reflect early microbial responses associated with disease

susceptibility. Our findings demonstrate the potential of host-derived RNA-seq data as an underutilized

resource for microbial ecological analysis in aquaculture systems.

Materials and Methods

Metatranscriptome dataset

The metatranscriptome dataset analyzed in this study was derived from Atlantic salmon gill samples and is publicly available at the European Nucleotide Archive (ENA) under the project number PRJEB47441. These data originated from 109 full-sib families of the Mowi (Mowi Genetics AS) strain, sampled in November 2019. This study did not involve direct handling of fish; instead, it retrospectively analyzed metatranscriptome data to investigate microbial dynamics prior to disease onset. A comprehensive description of the fish population is provided in Gjerde et al. (Gjerde *et al.* 2024) while details on metatranscriptome data generation are outlined in Grønvold et al. (Grønvold *et al.* 2024). The original experiment was performed according to EU regulations concerning the protection of experimental animals (Directive 2010/63/EU). Appropriate measures were taken to minimize pain and discomfort. The experiment was approved by the Norwegian Food and Safety Authority (FOTS id. number 25658) (Gjerde *et al.* 2024).

Fish Rearing and Sampling Timeline

Fish were initially maintained under continuous light (LL) from hatching until they reached approximately 50g. They were then exposed to a 6-week 12:12 photoperiod (12 hours light, 12 hours dark) before returning to LL for 8 weeks, reaching 100g, the standard size for seawater transfer.

In early February 2021, fish were vaccinated with Alpha Ject micro 6 (PHARMAQ®) against *Aeromonas salonicida, Listonella anguillarum O1* and *O2a, Vibrio salmonicida, Moritella viscosa, and IPN virus Sp.*

In June 2021, one week before seawater transfer, gill biopsies were collected for RNA sequencing at a

time when fish showed no visible disease symptoms.

On June 23, 2021, fish were transported to the ARST seawater facility. Approximately eight weeks after

transfer, signs of winter ulcers began to appear, and mortality increased throughout the autumn. Despite

the removal of affected individuals during trait recordings in early November, the prevalence of winter

ulcers persisted into winter. Over the following 10 months, fish were monitored for survival and growth.

Data Selection

To ensure a robust and unbiased investigation into microbial communities associated with health

outcomes, sample selection was based on multiple biological and experimental constraints. The dataset

included 15 surviving fish, alive at five months post-transfer, and 13 non-surviving fish, which died within

40 days post-transfer (**Table 1**). Sex was evenly distributed, with 13 males and 15 females, to account

for potential sex-specific microbial differences. Fish were reared in two separate tanks, C1 and C2,

allowing the assessment of environmental effects. The non-survived group consisted exclusively of fish

with visible wounds, ensuring a consistent disease phenotype, while the survived group included only

wound-free individuals, providing a clear contrast (**Figure 1**). While the selection aimed for a balanced

representation across conditions, final sample availability was constrained by the accessibility of

metatranscriptome data and the biological conditions of the cohort.

Metatranscriptome data preparation

Publicly available RNA-seq data were retrieved in FastQ format from the European Nucleotide Archive

(ENA, project PRJEB47441). The dataset consists of gill metatranscriptome from Atlantic salmon, with

sequencing performed using a paired-end (PE) approach (2×150 bp) generating approximately 20 million

reads per sample. Quality assessment of raw reads was conducted using FastQC (v0.12.0). Adapter

sequences, low-quality bases, and short reads were removed using fastp (Chen *et al.* 2018)(v0.23.4)

with default parameters. Filtered reads were then mapped to the Atlantic salmon reference genome

(Stenløkk 2023) (Ssal_v3.1, GCA_905237065.2) using bwa-mem2 (v2.2.1). Reads that failed to align

with the host genome were extracted and retained for microbiome analysis.

The RNA-seq libraries were prepared using a poly(A) selection method to enrich for mRNA, rather than

actively depleting ribosomal RNA (rRNA). While poly(A) selection primarily targets eukaryotic mRNA,

certain bacteria and some prokaryotic organisms possess polyadenylated mRNA at low frequencies,

which may result in the retention of microbial transcripts. Additionally, host-derived poly(A) transcripts

from Atlantic salmon may be present at a consistent proportion across samples.

For preprocessing, adapter trimming and quality filtering were performed using fastp (v0.23.4), followed

by host genome mapping against the Atlantic salmon reference genome (Ssal_v3.1,

GCA_905237065.2). Unmapped reads were retained for microbiome analysis, under the assumption that

they predominantly represent microbial sequences. However, given the poly(A) selection strategy, it is

possible that a proportion of these unmapped reads include artifacts from host transcripts or residual

polyadenylated bacterial transcripts.

Although this potential artifact is present, it is expected to be uniformly distributed across all samples

rather than selectively biased toward a specific group (e.g., survived vs. non-survived fish). Therefore,

while this factor must be considered when interpreting metatranscriptomic results, the relative

comparisons between survival groups remain valid, as any systematic bias introduced by poly(A)

selection would be consistent across conditions.

Taxonomic Classification and Analysis

For taxonomic classification, Kraken2 (Wood, Lu and Langmead 2019) (v2.14) and Bracken (v3.0) were

utilized. Kraken2 was executed using a custom-built database (GTDB_plus) (Parks *et al.* 2022). Following

Kraken2 classification, Bracken was used to estimate species taxonomic read count at different

taxonomic levels. Each sample was processed iteratively using paired-end FASTQ files. The GTDB_plus

database was employed for Kraken2 classification. This extensive database integrates GTDB

representative genomes (Release 2.20) and NCBI RefSeq standard libraries, including viral, fungi, plant,

protozoa, and human sequences for contamination screening. The database utilizes a hybrid taxonomy,

with GTDB taxonomy for prokaryotes and NCBI taxonomy for other taxa. Entries with tax_id greater than

4,000,000 originate from GTDB, while lower taxonomic IDs correspond to NCBI classifications. For rRNA-

based microbial community analysis, MATAM (1.6.1) was employed to assemble 16S/23S rRNA reads.

Non-host sequence reads were aligned against the SILVA 138.1 database.

Taxonomic read count Analysis

Bracken output files were processed in R to obtain family-level taxonomic read count data. The data were

merged with sample metadata and cleaned to remove unwanted characters and taxa absent in all

samples. A threshold-based filtering approach was applied to merge low taxonomic read count taxa (<1%

max taxonomic read count) into an "Other" category. Hominidae sequences were excluded. Read counts

were normalized by dividing by the total read count per sample and multiplying by 200,000. This serves

as a scaling method to allow comparability across samples while preserving relative taxonomic read

count within each sample. Alpha diversity indices (Shannon and Simpson) were computed using the

vegan package. Statistical differences in diversity indices were tested using the Kruskal-Wallis test. Beta

diversity was assessed using Bray-Curtis and Jaccard dissimilarity matrices, and statistical significance

was determined using PERMANOVA (Adonis test) (Tang, Chen and Alekseyenko 2016). SIMPER

analysis was conducted to identify taxa contributing to beta diversity differences. Barnard's exact test

was applied to binary presence-absence data to evaluate the association between taxa and fish health

status.

Gene Expression Quantification

Metatranscriptome assembly was performed using MEGAHIT (v1.2.9). For transcript quantification, Salmon (v0.8.1) was used. The analysis was conducted using an index built for the dataset. Paired-end reads were processed with automatic library type detection, validation of mappings. A p-adjusted value < 0.05 was considered statistically significant for the differential expression analysis using DESeq2 (Love, Huber and Anders 2014). Functional annotation was conducted on DRAM (Shaffer *et al.* 2020) on K-base (Arkin *et al.* 2018).

FASTQ Statistics Analysis

Contig lengths were computed using a custom script. The N50 statistic was determined by sorting contig lengths in descending order and identifying the length where the cumulative sum reached half of the total length. Mean and standard error was also calculated.

The scripts used in this study are available at

https://github.com/mariesaitou/paper_2025-/tree/main/metaT.

Results

Assessment of Poly(A) selection bias and validation of taxonomic classification

We obtained an average of 537,995 ± 289,590 unmapped reads from a total of 11,328,436 ± 1,190,386 reads from the 28 samples. The observed distribution of poly(A) and poly(T) tail lengths in unmapped reads indicates a selective retention of polyadenylated sequences (**Figure S1**). Shorter poly(A) tails (e.g., 4–8 nucleotides) were detected at high frequencies, while longer tails (≥12 nucleotides) were less

common but consistently present above theoretical expectations. This suggests that bacterial transcripts

with short poly(A) tails were retained, aligning with the known role of bacterial polyadenylation in mRNA

degradation and turnover rather than transcript stabilization.

To assess the effectiveness of microbial taxonomic assignments in the poly(A)-selected RNA-seq

dataset, we first compared results from Bracken (the top-observed taxa are shown in **Table 2AB**),

We evaluated the effectiveness of microbial taxonomic assignments in the poly(A)-selected RNA-seq

dataset by comparing Bracken, which classifies reads based on total transcript counts , with MATAM,

which reconstructs 16S/23S rRNA reads for taxonomic profiling. MATAM identified 54 genera in total,

while its coverage was limited, suggesting that a small fraction of microbial rRNA transcripts may have

escaped the poly(A) selection process. The detected rRNA sequences were primarily corresponded to

the most transcriptionally dominant bacterial taxa identified by Bracken (**Table 2**). **Figure S2** compares

Bracken and MATAM estimates for genera ranked highest in transcript quantification. The strong

correlation observed (Spearman's ρ ranging from 0.48 to 0.96; *e.g., Brevundimonas*, ρ = 0.94, p = 2.4e-

12; *Sphingomonas,* ρ = 0.96, p = 0) suggests that Bracken provides reliable taxonomic resolution despite

potential biases from poly(A) selection. Given Bracken's broader taxonomic coverage and its ability to

classify both rRNA and mRNA-derived sequences, we opted to use it for downstream analyses. Given

that bacterial transcripts were successfully detected despite poly(A) selection, we proceeded with

taxonomic classification to profile microbial communities and assess their association with fish health.

Overview of Microbial Community Composition and Environmental Influence

Taxonomic classification was performed using Kraken and Bracken. At the species level, taxonomic read

counts were relatively low, leading to unstable classification results. Therefore, initial quantitative

analyses were conducted at the family level, followed by a deeper examination of notable taxa at the

genus level. The composition of metatranscriptomic taxa exhibited individual variation among fish

samples; however, when grouped by conditions, the overall community structure remained relatively

stable (**Figure 2A**).

Across all samples, the top ten most transcriptionally represented families accounted for 79.4% of the

total taxonomically assigned reads (**Table 2A**). Among these, Micrococcaceae was the dominant family,

contributing 20.34% of the total reads, followed by f__UBA9655 (17.18%) and f__UKL13-3 (12.89%).

Other notable families included Vampirovibrionaceae (7.23%) and Burkholderiaceae (6.12%), indicating

their prevalence in the microbial community. Micrococcaceae includes some opportunistic pathogens

that may be involved in fish infections. Their presence in aquaculture environments suggests a possible

role in disease dynamics. Families f__UBA9655 and f__UKL13-3 remain insufficiently characterized, with

unknown physiological functions, but they have been frequently detected in aquaculture environments,

suggesting a potential ecological role. Since they are metagenome-only classifications, their functional

significance might be underestimated. Burkholderiaceae comprises highly adaptable environmental

bacteria with multifunctional roles. Some species exhibit pathogenic traits, while others show

antimicrobial properties (Morya, Salvachúa and Thakur 2020). Their frequent presence in aquatic

environments highlights their potential role in host-pathogen interactions and microbiome stability.

Enterobacteriaceae includes many pathogenic species known to cause infections in humans and

animals, and their presence in fish samples could indicate potential health risks (Janda and Abbott 2021).

Pseudomonadaceae is associated with fish diseases, including Aeromonas infections, and is linked to

water quality degradation and host immune suppression, potentially serving as an indicator of disease

risk. Moraxellaceae, frequently detected in aquatic environments, may serve as an indicator of

environmental pollution and water quality stress factors. These families will be further examined at the

genus level in subsequent analyses.

Alpha diversity was assessed using the Shannon and Simpson indices, and their relationships with sex, tank, and survival status were examined using Kruskal-Wallis tests. The results showed that neither sex nor survival status significantly influenced Shannon diversity ($p = 0.39$ and $p = 0.39$, respectively). However, tank identity exhibited a highly significant effect on Shannon diversity ($p = 0.00049$), suggesting that environmental conditions played a dominant role in shaping microbial diversity. Similar trends were observed for the Simpson index, with tank identity again showing a significant effect ($p = 0.00041$), while sex and survival status had no significant impact ($p = 0.24$ and $p = 0.27$, respectively) (**Figure 2B**). Tank C1 exhibited higher overall diversity and a more balanced community structure compared to C2, where a smaller number of dominant taxa contributed disproportionately to the community composition. This pattern aligns with the observations in **Figure 2A**, further supporting the notion that tank-specific environmental factors shaped microbial diversity.

Despite the observed differences in microbial diversity between tanks, survival analysis suggested that these environmental differences did not directly influence mortality rates. Chi-squared tests using the total fish record (637 fish, recorded in November 2021 with all the information) for survival status across tanks and sex categories yielded non-significant results ($p = 0.51$ for tank, $p = 0.38$ for sex), indicating that while tank identity influenced microbial community composition, it did not translate into a detectable effect on survival outcomes.

To identify taxa contributing to the observed differences in diversity between tanks, SIMPER analysis highlighted a subset of taxa with the lowest adjusted p-values (padj < 0.05). A total of 207 families were identified as contributing to tank-specific microbial differentiation. Notably, 85 of these belonged to functionally uncharacterized metagenomic lineages, including f__UBA2385, f__UBA2392, and f__UBA2428. The prevalence of these uncharacterized taxa suggests that they may play a critical but currently unknown role in shaping microbial community structure and ecological dynamics across tanks.

Beta diversity analysis was conducted using Bray-Curtis and Jaccard distance matrices, followed by PERMANOVA tests to assess the effects of sex, tank, and survival status. The Bray-Curtis-based analysis indicated that sex had no significant effect on microbial composition ($p = 0.49$), while tank identity exerted a strong influence ($p = 0.001$), confirming the results from alpha diversity analysis. Survival status had no significant effect ($p = 0.53$).

The Jaccard distance-based analysis further supported these findings, with tank identity showing no significant impact ($p = 0.59$) and sex remaining non-significant ($p = 0.14$). However, survival status exhibited a marginally significant effect ($p = 0.025$), suggesting that while overall microbial diversity was not strongly linked to survival, specific microbial taxa might still contribute to differences between survivors and non-survivors. However, the effect size was relatively small, as indicated by the low R^2 value (0.059) from the PERMANOVA analysis.

To visualize these patterns, non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) was initially attempted, but even with $k = 10$ dimensions, the stress value remained extremely high (2.3285), suggesting that the underlying data structure was too complex for effective dimensionality reduction. Instead, a principal component analysis (PCA) was performed, which revealed clustering patterns by survival status. The PCA results showed that PC1 accounted for 39.57% of the variance, while PC2 accounted for 8.3%, providing a more informative representation compared to NMDS (MDS1: 18.03%, MDS2: 9.83%) (**Figure 3A**). Nonetheless, PCA did not fully capture the variation in microbial composition, highlighting the complexity of the dataset.

Survival-Associated Taxa Based on Presence-Absence Analysis

Given that the Jaccard-based analysis indicated a significant survival effect, we hypothesized that presence-absence patterns of certain taxa, rather than their relative taxonomic read count, may be key determinants of disease outcomes. To test this, we calculated the proportion of individuals within each survival group that tested positive for each taxon and visualized the differences using histograms (**Figure 3B**). Wilcoxon rank-sum tests were conducted to assess differences in taxon presence between groups. A significant effect was observed for tank identity (p = 4.89e-10), reinforcing its role in shaping microbial community structure. However, sex showed no significant effect (p = 0.077), while survival status exhibited a strong effect (p = 4.53e-05), further supporting the idea that specific taxa are disproportionately associated with mortality.

To quantify the asymmetry in taxon prevalence between groups, we examined the distribution of presence-absence differences. A skewness analysis indicated a strong right-tailed distribution (skew = 11.615, p < 2.2e-16), confirming that taxa more commonly observed in deceased individuals were nearly twice as numerous as those enriched in survivors (698 vs. 360 taxa). This was further supported by a Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (D = 1, p < 2.2e-16), indicating a significant divergence in distribution.

To further investigate taxa associated with survival status, a presence-absence analysis was conducted using Barnard's exact test. However, traditional multiple testing correction methods, such as the Benjamini-Hochberg procedure, were overly stringent (π_0 estimate = 0.90), as the method assumes a high proportion of null hypotheses. This conservative approach led to no significant taxa remaining after adjustment. Specifically, the high π_0 estimate indicated that the majority of tests were expected to reflect true null hypotheses, causing the correction to be excessively stringent and excluding potential true positives. To address this, an Empirical Bayes approach implemented in the ashR package (Stephens 2017) was applied, refining the detection of survival-associated taxa and reducing the number of candidate taxa from 32 to 16 for further, genus-level downstream analysis (**Table 3A**).

Among the taxa with survival associations, several groups emerged, including a substantial proportion of uncharacterized lineages (e.g., f__UBA4486, f__UBA9219). Additionally, some well-characterized taxa were identified, including Aerococcaceae and Sedimentibacteraceae, a potential indicator of water quality

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conditions (Fan *et al.* 2023). Nectriaceae, a fungal family associated with infection risks (Ulaszewski *et al.* 2025), and Peduoviridae, a bacterial viruses family whose genome incorporates into the bacterial genome (Wang, Xie and Huang 2024), potentially influencing microbiome stability (**Figure 4**).

Building on the family-level findings, we next examined microbial composition at the genus level to further characterize taxa with potential functional or ecological relevance. At the genus level, some highly represented taxa were identified. *Arthrobacter_D* (Micrococcaceae) was the dominant genus, accounting for 19.87% of the total reads (**Table 2B**). This was followed by several uncharacterized genera, including *g__UKL13-3, g__UBA9655*, and another unidentified *g__UBA9655*, which remain insufficiently understood but were consistently present at high taxonomic read count. Among the well-characterized genera, some stood out due to their potential roles in fish health and aquaculture environments. *Pseudomonas_E* (Pseudomonadaceae), for instance, is known to be associated with waterborne infections, making it a potential risk factor for fish disease (Rahman *et al.* 2024). *Serratia* (Enterobacteriaceae), an opportunistic pathogen in humans and animals, was also notable due to its presence in the aquatic environment (Mahlen 2011). Similarly, *Escherichia* (Enterobacteriaceae), while often a commensal gut bacterium, includes pathogenic strains such as *E. coli*, which could potentially impact fish health (Mumbo *et al.* 2023).

To further investigate the microbial differences between tanks, Mann-Whitney U tests were performed at the genus level, comparing Tank C1 and C2. Genera that showed significant differences (adjusted $p < 0.05$ using BH correction) included taxa associated with environmental and metabolic functions (**Table 4**). Methylophilaceae (*CABHOJ01*) was one such genus, known for its role in one-carbon metabolism, particularly in methanol or methylated compound cycling (Taubert *et al.* 2019). Ktedonobacteraceae (*JALYTT01)*, generally a soil-associated bacterium (Gschwend *et al.* 2022), was also detected, suggesting a possible role in organic matter degradation within the aquatic environment. Another particularly interesting genus was Burkholderiaceae_A (*Kinetoplastibacterium*), which can be found as an endosymbiont of protozoa (Alves *et al.* 2013). The detection of this genus in fish-associated microbial

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communities raises interesting questions about potential host-protozoan interactions and whether certain

protozoa might be influencing microbial community structures in the tanks. Among the host-associated

taxa, Microbacteriaceae (*Microbacterium*) is able to thrive in both environmental and host-associated

niches, potentially playing a role in organic matter processing or host-microbe interactions (Wippel *et al.*

2021). Acetobacteraceae (*BOG-930*), generally associated with wine and vinegar fermentation, was also

present (Komagata, Iino and Yamada 2014), which might indicate shifts in fermentation-based metabolic

processes or pH fluctuations in the tank environment.

Next, genera associated with survival outcomes were examined. Barnard's exact test was applied, but

due to the stringent nature of multiple testing corrections, no taxa remained statistically significant after

Benjamini-Hochberg adjustment. However, using nominal *p*-values, several genera were observed to

differ between survivors and non-survivors. *Demequina*, which is often identified in aquaculture species

(Pedrosa-Gerasmio *et al.* 2020), was more detected in the non-surviving group, suggesting that its

presence may be linked to disease susceptibility. Similarly, *Fusarium*, a fungal genus that includes

opportunistic pathogens, was more frequently observed in non-surviving fish, indicating its potential

involvement in disease progression or secondary infections. *Sedimentibacter*, an anaerobic bacterium

associated with organic matter degradation, was also enriched in non-surviving fish, which could reflect

differences in microbial community structure that associated with host health deterioration (Huang *et al.*

2016) (**Table 3B, Figure 4**).

Transcriptional Signals Reveal Functional Differences Between Survival Groups

Sequence reads from all samples were merged, and sequences corresponding to vertebrates (Atlantic

salmon and human) were removed before contig assembly. The assembled contigs had the following

characteristics: a total of 16,037 contigs with 7,255,640 bases, an N50 value of 434, and a mean contig

length of 452.43 (SE= 4.34) base pairs.

In line with the earlier taxonomic analysis, standard differential gene expression analysis using DESeq2 did not identify any genes that survived Benjamini-Hochberg (BH) correction for significance between the survived and non-survived groups. This is likely due to the stringent multiple testing threshold for such a dataset. To address this, we reanalyzed the data by converting gene presence/absence into a binary format and applied Barnard's test. This approach identified 31 differentially observed genes with nominal $P < 0.05$, which were functionally annotated using DRAM (especially Pfam returned the best comprehensive annotation to this dataset). To determine which microorganisms were responsible for expressing these genes, we performed a BLAST search, revealing that *Achromobacter, Escherichia coli, Pseudomonas, Stenotrophomonas,* and *Serratia* exhibited highly polarized expression patterns across the survived and non-survived groups, where a transcript was frequently absent in one group while being widely present in the other. As previously observed, these bacterial taxa were commonly observed across all groups (**Table 2B**).

Figure 5 illustrates transcript read counts (TPM) for a subset of differentially observed microbial genes, while the complete list of genes is provided in **Table 5.** In *Achromobacter,* the non-survived group exhibited increased expression of genes related to sugar transporters, aldehyde dehydrogenase, and bacterial extracellular solute-binding proteins, whereas the survived group showed increased expression of genes associated with *TonB-dependent receptors, AcrB/AcrD/AcrF efflux systems*, and proline dehydrogenase, suggesting a shift in metabolic strategies. Similarly, in *Escherichia coli*, the non-survived group showed an upregulation of peroxidase genes, indicative of a potential response to oxidative stress, whereas in the survived group, genes encoding *phage minor tail protein U* were more abundant, implying active bacteriophage interactions. For Pseudomonas, the non-survived group showed increased expression of DNA topoisomerase, a gene involved in DNA replication and repair, while the survived group exhibited higher expression of RadC-like JAB domain, another gene potentially linked to DNA repair, though its precise functional role remains unclear. In *Stenotrophomonas*, the non-survived group expressed genes belonging to the POT family (peptide transporters), while the survived group exhibited

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increased expression of transketolase and pyrimidine binding proteins, suggesting a potential shift in

metabolic preferences (Patil *et al.* 2021). For Serratia, the survived group displayed increased expression

of multiple genes, including *SecY (membrane protein transport), His Kinase A domain (signal*

transduction), Flavodoxin-like proteins (redox reactions), and Holliday junction DNA helicase (DNA repair

and recombination mechanisms), indicating possible functional advantages under the fish-survival-

associated conditions (Iguchi *et al.* 2014).

Notably, *Achromobacter phage* was more frequently observed in the survived group, suggesting a

potential association between phage activity and bacterial dynamics under different host conditions

(Hoyle *et al.* 2018). These findings indicate that bacterial communities exhibit distinct transcriptional

responses depending on host status, with potential implications for disease progression, microbial

adaptation, and host-microbe interactions.

Discussion

Metatranscriptome as a Tool for Microbial Ecology and Disease Risk Assessment in Aquaculture

This study conducted a metatranscriptomic analysis using RNA-seq data collected from Atlantic salmon

gills before a disease outbreak in aquaculture. The goal was to determine whether microbial

transcriptional profiles could provide insights into environmental conditions and potential health risks, as

well as to understand the microbial dynamics before disease emergence. Through this retrospective

metatranscriptomic analysis, we observed microbial changes before disease outbreaks in aquaculture.

By leveraging RNA-seq data collected before clinical disease emergence, microbial shifts associated with

survival outcomes were detected. In particular, presence-absence analysis revealed taxa that were

associated with mortality risk, suggesting that community shifts are not solely driven by statistical

changes in relative taxonomic read count. The strong right-tailed distribution of presence-absence

differences, with taxa more frequently found in non-surviving fish nearly doubling those enriched in

survivors, suggests the potential contribution of specific microbial members to disease susceptibility.

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Furthermore, numerous characterized bacterial taxa (e.g., f__UBA9655, f__UKL13-3) were detected,

emphasizing the need for further biological investigation of these insufficiently understood microbial

lineages(Zamkovaya *et al.* 2021). While tracking individual microbial dynamics remains complex, our

findings suggest that monitoring functionally relevant taxa could provide insights into disease

susceptibility and aquaculture ecosystem(Leray *et al.* 2021). In the following sections, we discuss these

findings, focusing on the relationship between microbial composition and survival outcomes, functional

shifts in microbial transcriptional activity, and the role of environmental factors in shaping microbial

diversity.

Our study demonstrates that publicly available poly(A)-selected RNA-seq datasets, originally generated

for host transcriptomics, can be repurposed for microbial metatranscriptomic analysis. While poly(A)

selection introduces constraints, most notably the exclusion of rRNA-derived taxonomic markers, it also

enables the capture of actively transcribed microbial mRNA, providing functional insights that

complement traditional 16S rRNA-based profiling. The strong correlation observed between Bracken-

based abundance estimates and MATAM-based rRNA profiles suggests that despite the absence of

rRNA, meaningful taxonomic classification can still be achieved when analyzing microbial mRNA.

One important consideration is that poly(A) selection may differentially retain microbial transcripts

depending on the extent of polyadenylation (Hajnsdorf and Kaberdin 2018). While some bacterial

transcripts are naturally polyadenylated as part of RNA degradation pathways, others may be

underrepresented due to the lack of poly(A) tails(Mofayezi *et al.* 2024). This potential bias should be

acknowledged when interpreting taxonomic and functional profiles derived from poly(A)-selected

datasets. However, given that any such bias is likely to be systematic across all samples, comparative

analyses, such as those between surviving and non-surviving fish, remain valid.

One important limitation is the lack of 16S rRNA data, which makes it difficult to directly confirm taxonomic

identities using standard phylogenetic approaches. Although this does not prevent meaningful microbial

profiling, it does require careful attention to the methods used. Future studies aiming to maximize

microbial resolution in aquaculture metatranscriptomics may benefit from hybrid approaches that

integrate poly(A)-selected RNA-seq with targeted rRNA sequencing or metagenomic methods.

Despite these limitations, our findings highlight the potential of repurposing host RNA-seq datasets for

microbial analysis, particularly in retrospective studies where dedicated metatranscriptomic data may not

be available. Given the increasing availability of RNA-seq datasets across diverse aquaculture settings,

further exploration of poly(A)-selected metatranscriptomics could provide valuable insights into microbial

dynamics and their role in water environment and disease susceptibility.

Environmental Influence on Microbial Community Structure

An unexpected key finding of this study was that microbial diversity and community composition varied

between tanks, despite the absence of intentional environmental modifications. This raises a question:

what factors might have contributed to the observed differences? One possibility is that unmonitored

environmental variations played a role in shaping microbial community structure. In closed aquaculture

systems, small-scale differences in water flow, temperature microgradients, microbial seeding effects, or

organic matter accumulation can drive shifts in microbial communities (Testerman *et al.* 2022). Previous

research has shown that biofilm development on tank surfaces and infrastructure can serve as reservoirs

for microbial colonization, influencing the microbial load in the surrounding water and subsequently

affecting the fish microbiome (Dang and Lovell 2016; Dahle *et al.* 2023)(Dahle *et al.* 2020) (Dang and

Lovell 2016; Dahle *et al.* 2023). Differences in microbial succession during early rearing stages, even if

tanks started with the same water source, could have resulted in distinct community structures over time.

While it was impossible to pinpoint specific environmental drivers using current datasets, the observed

tank-dependent microbial differentiation suggests that environmental heterogeneity, even in controlled

aquaculture settings, plays a substantial role in shaping microbial community structure. This highlights

the need for longitudinal environmental monitoring, including water physicochemical properties and

microbial colonization dynamics, to fully understand the mechanisms underlying these patterns. Also,

despite these differences, no direct association between tank identity and fish survival rates was

detected. This suggests that the compositional shifts in microbial communities did not translate into

differential mortality rates in this case or that the key drivers of mortality were independent of the observed

inter-tank variations.

Taxa and Transcripts Associated With Host Disease Outcome

Beyond environmental influences, our results suggest that the presence or absence of specific microbial

taxa was associated with survival outcomes. The enrichment of opportunistic pathogens such as

Pseudomonas and *Aeromonas* in non-survived fish raises concerns about their potential role in disease

progression. These bacteria are known to exploit compromised immune defenses, which may indicate

that their increased prevalence reflects a state of physiological stress or immunosuppression in affected

fish. Fish wounds serve as entry points for such opportunistic pathogens, facilitating their colonization

and potentially exacerbating disease progression (Joseph *et al.* 1979; Hal and El-Barbary 2020; Wang

et al. 2022). Conversely, taxa such as Burkholderiaceae and Achromobacter-associated phages were

more frequently detected in survivors. Burkholderiaceae comprises metabolically versatile bacteria that

have been implicated in both pathogenic and beneficial interactions, raising the possibility that some

members of this family may contribute to microbial stability or even exert protective effects against

pathogens (Carrión *et al.* 2018). The presence of bacteriophages in survivors suggests that phage-

mediated microbial regulation may influence disease resistance by modulating bacterial populations

within the host-associated microbiome(Ranveer *et al.* 2024). While these associations provide intriguing

insights, it remains unclear whether these taxa actively influenced disease outcomes or merely reflected

underlying health conditions. Further experimental infection models and functional assays will be

necessary to better understand the role of specific microbial taxa.

Future Directions and Ecological Implications

While this study provides valuable insights, several methodological challenges must be considered when

applying metatranscriptomics to aquaculture microbiome research. One of the primary limitations is the

reliance on host RNA-seq datasets that have undergone rRNA depletion, which removes 16S rRNA, the

conventional marker for microbial taxonomic classification. Although previous studies have demonstrated

that mRNA-based taxonomic profiling can approximate rRNA-based methods (Stewart, Ottesen and

DeLong 2010; Ranjan *et al.* 2021; Zhang *et al.* 2021), differences in transcript taxonomic read count and

turnover rates may introduce biases in microbial community representation. To solidify this limitation,

future follow-up studies could integrate rRNA-based sequencing with metatranscriptomics to provide a

more   comprehensive   assessment   of   microbial   community   dynamics.

Though these sequences were excluded from downstream microbial analysis, we observed major

histocompatibility complex (MHC) sequences that were absent in the reference genome but reported in

NCBI. Their presence suggests that conventional reference genome-based mapping may fail to detect

certain variants, particularly in the MHC region, due to its extreme diversity. This issue is widely

recognized across vertebrates, including humans and other model organisms, where highly polymorphic

immune-related loci often escape detection in standard genome-wide analyses (Okada *et al.* 2015; He,

Minias and Dunn 2021; Luo *et al.* 2021; Heimeier *et al.* 2024). Parallel selection on MHC regions has

been observed in aquaculture populations of Atlantic salmon, including this Western Norway aquaculture

population (Buso *et al.* 2024), suggesting that such variation may be relevant to disease resistance.

Although investigating host genomic variation is beyond the scope of this study, it is likely that additional

MHC diversity exists within this population. Future studies focusing on host-pathogen interactions may

benefit from targeted sequencing approaches to fully capture non-reference MHC alleles and their

potential role in host immune response.

While we identified microbial signatures associated with survival outcomes, it remains unclear whether

these shifts occurred as a direct cause of disease susceptibility or as a secondary consequence of host

physiology. To address this, future research should prioritize longitudinal studies that track microbial

dynamics over time, from early life stages through disease outbreaks, to identify robust microbial

biomarkers for disease prediction. Experimental validation through controlled infection trials also could

provide mechanistic insights into the role of specific microbial taxa in disease emergence and

transmission.

	Tables and Figures

Table 1. Summary of individual-level metadata used in this study.

This table lists sex, tank identity, survival outcome, and skin lesion status for each fish included in the

analysis. It also includes raw and unmapped RNA-seq read counts used for downstream

metatranscriptomic profiling. The skin condition column indicates whether the fish exhibited visible

wounds at the time of sampling. The Unmapped column represents the number of unmapped RNA-seq

reads, which potentially contain non-host microbial sequences, while the Raw column indicates the total

number of raw sequencing reads per sample. Samples were selected to ensure representation across

key biological variables while maximizing available high-quality metatranscriptome data.

ID	ENA_ID	Sex	Tank	Table1 Sample info Status	Skin	Mapped_Reads	Unmapped_Reads	Ratio
ns_1	Plate22H2	Female	C1	not survived	wounds	21,843,548	92,009	0.00421
ns_10	Plate16F11	Female	C2	not survived	wounds	25,731,837	74,096	0.00288
ns_11	Plate18H4	Male	C2	not survived	wounds	26,733,388	51,610	0.00193
ns_12	Plate20D7	Male	C2	not survived	wounds	20,369,628	254,381	0.01249
ns_13	Plate19H1	Female	C2	not survived	wounds	26,574,632	43,839	0.00165
ns_2	Plate22B6	Female	C1	not survived	wounds	20,556,179	92,061	0.00448
ns_3	Plate24C8	Female	C1	not survived	wounds	25,453,351	805,946	0.03166
ns_4	Plate25A11	Male	C1	not survived	wounds	21,969,245	951,660	0.04332
ns_5	Plate19C6	Female	C2	not survived	wounds	21,485,507	387,453	0.01803
ns_6	Plate20D6	Male	C2	not survived	wounds	31,966,933	43,896	0.00137
ns_7	Plate21C2	Male	C2	not survived	wounds	24,339,317	130,984	0.00538
ns_8	Plate17A12	Male	C2	not survived	wounds	28,818,781	64,005	0.00222
ns_9	Plate17F12	Female	C2	not survived	wounds	30,032,409	97,111	0.00323
s_1	Plate21C10	Female	C1	survived	no-wounds	23,609,879	36,054	0.00153
s_10	Plate20H3	Male	C2	survived	no-wounds	21,128,196	104,443	0.00494
s_11	Plate22D4	Male	C1	survived	no-wounds	25,073,829	144,122	0.00575
s_12	Plate21E10	Male	C1	survived	no-wounds	22,723,648	200,530	0.00882
s_13	Plate16D5	Female	C2	survived	no-wounds	23,069,585	66,850	0.00290
s_14	Plate18E4	Female	C2	survived	no-wounds	22,873,120	46,668	0.00204
s_15	Plate17H5	Male	C2	survived	no-wounds	27,028,680	58,394	0.00216
s_2	Plate21E5	Female	C1	survived	no-wounds	28,229,183	75,661	0.00268
s_3	Plate24G6	Male	C1	survived	no-wounds	25,547,504	242,683	0.00950
s_4	Plate22A10	Male	C1	survived	no-wounds	26,715,029	128,125	0.00480
s_5	Plate18E12	Female	C2	survived	no-wounds	23,150,040	84,397	0.00365
s_6	Plate19E12	Female	C2	survived	no-wounds	26,662,780	115,416	0.00433
s_7	Plate25H1	Female	C1	survived	no-wounds	27,517,530	500,383	0.01818
s_8	Plate19F2	Male	C2	survived	no-wounds	24,271,043	280,739	0.01157
s_9	Plate24C3	Female	C1	survived	no-wounds	25,564,010	106,096	0.00415

Table 2. Top transcriptionally represented microbial taxa in Atlantic salmon gill metatranscriptomes. (A) Top 20 most transcriptionally abundant microbial families across all 28 samples. (B) Top 20 most transcriptionally abundant microbial genera across all 28 samples. Taxonomic abundance was estimated using Bracken based on Kraken2 assignments.

Table 2A			Table 2B		
Family	Read Percentage		Genus	Family	Read Percentage
Micrococcaceae	20.34		Arthrobacter_D	Micrococcaceae	19.9
f__UBA9655	17.18		CAISCU01	f__UKL13-3	13.0
f__UKL13-3	12.89		JACPNY01	f__UBA9655	8.8
Vampirovibrionaceae	7.23		g__UBA9655	f__UBA9655	8.2
Burkholderiaceae	6.12		Vampirovibrio	Vampirovibrionaceae	7.3
Caulobacteraceae	3.87		Brevundimonas	Caulobacteraceae	3.6
Enterobacteriaceae	3.59		Epulopiscium_A	Cellulosilyticaceae	3.4
Cellulosilyticaceae	3.33		Pseudomonas_E	Pseudomonadaceae	2.3
Pseudomonadaceae	2.63		Acinetobacter	Moraxellaceae	2.1
Moraxellaceae	2.23		Serratia	Enterobacteriaceae	2.0
Xanthomonadaceae	1.56		Comamonas	Burkholderiaceae	1.8
Lachnospiraceae	1.49		Achromobacter	Burkholderiaceae	1.7
DSM-18226	1.12		Stenotrophomonas	Xanthomonadaceae	1.4
Sphingomonadaceae	1.05		Escherichia	Enterobacteriaceae	1.2
Xanthobacteraceae	0.87		Neobacillus	DSM-18226	1.1
Rhodocyclaceae	0.70		Wujia	Lachnospiraceae	1.1
Nostocaceae	0.65		Sphingomonas	Sphingomonadaceae	0.8
Rhizobiaceae	0.63		Nostoc_B	Nostocaceae	0.6
Beijerinckiaceae	0.58		Agrobacterium	Rhizobiaceae	0.5
Nitrincolaceae	0.48		Methylobacterium	Beijerinckiaceae	0.5

Table 3. Microbial genera showing differences in relative transcript representation between Tank C1 and Tank C2.

Genus-level comparisons were conducted using Mann–Whitney U tests. P-values were adjusted with the Benjamini-Hochberg method. Only

genera with adjusted p < 0.05 are shown.

		Table 3			
Genus	p_value	p_adjusted	Family	Relative_reads_TankC1	Relative_reads_TankC2
AGPOR5	0.0007304	0.0246	f__WGA-3G	4	0
CABHOJ01	0.00066066	0.0246	Methylophilaceae	6	0
CANMOZ01	0.00051346	0.0246	DSM-6294	11	2
Caedimonas	0.00068318	0.0246	Caedimonadaceae	40	5
JACDDX01	0.00063682	0.0246	GWC2-71-9	53	5
JACPNY01	0.00013181	0.0246	f__UBA9655	74	5
JALYTT01	0.00026971	0.0246	Ktedonobacteraceae	5	0
Kinetoplastibacterium	0.00018121	0.0246	Burkholderiaceae_A	12198	21481
Microbacterium	0.00027474	0.0246	Microbacteriaceae	2	0
Sporocytophaga	0.00050941	0.0246	Cytophagaceae	20	2
UBA1952	0.00038959	0.0246	Chitinophagaceae	1091	143
g__JASGCL01	0.00056538	0.0246	f__JASGCL01	17	3
g__UBA9655	0.00054034	0.0246	f__UBA9655	107	5
g__JAOIVE01	0.0011377	0.0357	f__JAOIVE01	121	14
Bin55	0.00128023	0.0377	Azotimanducaceae	75	6
BOG-930	0.00152158	0.0422	Acetobacteraceae	11292	20107

Table 4. Microbial taxa associated with survival status in Atlantic salmon.

Taxa were identified based on presence-absence analysis using Barnard's exact test. Only taxa with nominal $p < 0.05$ are shown. Includes both characterized and unclassified microbial lineages.

Table 4A

Taxon_name_family		Positive_Not Survived	Positive_Survived	Negative_Not Survived	Negative_Survived	Rate_not_survived	Rate_survived	Difference	Barnard_p	lfdr	svalue	PosteriorMean
Aerococcaceae		8	0	5	15	0.62	0	0.62	0.000	0.023	0.007	0.609
Alcanivoracaceae		6	0	7	15	0.46	0	0.46	0.004	0.037	0.008	0.560
Demequinaceae		1	7	12	8	0.08	0.47	-0.39	0.005	0.038	0.008	0.556
Gorgyraeaceae		9	3	4	12	0.69	0.2	0.49	0.005	0.039	0.008	0.554
Kineococcaceae		8	3	5	12	0.62	0.2	0.42	0.007	0.041	0.009	0.548
Nectriaceae		8	2	5	13	0.62	0.13	0.48	0.007	0.041	0.009	0.548
Peduoviridae		12	7	1	8	0.92	0.47	0.46	0.008	0.043	0.009	0.543
Sedimentibacteraceae		8	15	5	0	0.62	1	-0.38	0.012	0.047	0.010	0.531
f__CAG-698		10	5	3	10	0.77	0.33	0.44	0.013	0.047	0.010	0.529
f__JAAEKA01		6	13	7	2	0.46	0.87	-0.41	0.016	0.049	0.011	0.525
f__JABDET01		7	2	6	13	0.54	0.13	0.41	0.016	0.049	0.011	0.525
f__JAJDZL01		7	2	6	13	0.54	0.13	0.41	0.016	0.049	0.011	0.525
f__JAMCZE01		1	6	12	9	0.08	0.4	-0.32	0.016	0.049	0.012	0.524
f__SZAS-18		4	11	9	4	0.31	0.73	-0.43	0.016	0.049	0.012	0.524
f__UBA4486		9	4	4	11	0.69	0.27	0.43	0.016	0.049	0.013	0.524
f__UBA9219		9	5	4	10	0.69	0.33	0.36	0.016	0.049	0.013	0.524

Table 4B

Taxon_name_family	Taxon_name_genus	Positive_Not Survived	Positive_Survived	Negative_Not Survived	Negative_Survived	Rate_not_survived	Rate_survived	Difference	Barnard_p
Sedimentibacteraceae	Sedimentibacter	6	1	7	14	0.46	0.07	0.39	0.01
Demequinaceae	Demequina	10	5	3	10	0.77	0.33	0.44	0.01
f__JAAEKA01	g__JAAEKA01	0	5	13	10	0.00	0.33	-0.33	0.01
f__JAJDZL01	g__JAJDZL01	7	2	6	13	0.54	0.13	0.41	0.01
Nectriaceae	Fusarium	9	4	4	11	0.69	0.27	0.43	0.02
Peduoviridae	uncharacterized	5	12	8	3	0.38	0.8	-0.42	0.02
Alcanivoracaceae	Isoalcanivorax	1	6	12	9	0.08	0.4	-0.32	0.03
Aerococcaceae	WM01	3	0	10	15	0.23	0	0.23	0.04
f__UBA4486	uncharacterized	8	4	5	11	0.62	0.27	0.35	0.05

593 **Table 5 Differentially observed microbial transcripts between surviving and non-surviving Atlantic salmon.** Transcripts were identified

594 using binary presence-absence calls and Barnard's test, with gene annotations provided by DRAM and Pfam. Taxonomic origin was

595 determined using BLAST alignment. Only transcripts with nominal $p < 0.05$ are included.

Sequence	Not Survived_positive	Not Survived_negative	Survived_positive	Survived_negative	Taxa	pfam_hits_description	pfam_ID
k141_2253_1	5	8	1	14	Achromobacter	Sugar transporter	PF00083.27
k141_633_1	6	7	1	14	Achromobacter	Aldehyde dehydrogenase	PF00171.25
k141_1992_1	6	7	1	14	Achromobacter	Bacterial extracellular solute-binding	PF00496.25
k141_13760_1	0	13	8	7	Achromobacter	TonB-dependent Receptor	PF07715.18
k141_1120_1	0	13	5	10	Achromobacter	AcrB/AcrD/AcrF	PF00873.22
k141_4255_2	0	13	6	9	Achromobacter	Proline dehydrogenase	PF01619.21
k141_2562_1	5	8	1	14	Escherichia coli	Peroxidase	PF00141.26
k141_3771_1	1	12	7	8	Escherichia coli	Phage minor tail protein U	PF06141.14
k141_6116_1	7	6	3	12	Pseudomonas	DNA topoisomerase	PF01131.23
k141_10189_1	0	13	6	9	Pseudomonas	RadC-like JAB domain	PF04002.18
k141_14202_1	5	8	0	15	Stenotrophomonas	POT family	PF00854.24
k141_5394_1	0	13	5	10	Stenotrophomonas	Transketolase, pyrimidine binding	PF02779.27
k141_14429_1	0	13	5	10	Serratia	SecY	PF00344.23
k141_1963_1	0	13	5	10	Serratia	His Kinase A domain	PF00512.28
k141_10334_1	0	13	6	9	Serratia	Flavodoxin like	PF02525.20
k141_129_1	0	13	5	10	Serratia	Holliday junction DNA helicase	PF05496.15
k141_10700_1	1	12	7	8	Achromobacter	CobW/HypB/UreG, nucleotide-binding domain	PF02492.22
k141_12698_1	0	13	5	10	Achromobacter	FecR protein	PF04773.16
k141_15084_1	1	12	6	9	Achromobacter	AcrB/AcrD/AcrF family	PF00873.22
k141_15128_1	1	12	7	8	Achromobacter	Phosphate acetyl/butaryl transferase	PF01515.22
k141_3419_2	4	9	10	5	Achromobacter	Oxidoreductase FAD-binding domain	PF00970.27
k141_362_2	5	8	11	4	Achromobacter	ABC transporter	PF00005.30
k141_10013_29	3	10	9	6	Achromobacter phage	3'-5' exoribonuclease Rv2179c-like domain	PF16473.8
k141_13338_1	0	13	6	9	Escherichia coli	UDP-glucose/GDP-mannose dehydrogenase family, central domain	PF00984.22
k141_13126_1	0	13	5	10	Escherichia coli	Protein of unknown function	PF13116.9
k141_8152_2	4	9	12	3	Escherichia coli	IS1 transposase	PF03400.16
k141_15759_1	1	12	6	9	Pseudomonas	LysR substrate binding domain	PF03466.23
k141_265_1	0	13	5	10	Pseudomonas	Monomeric isocitrate dehydrogenase	PF03971.17
k141_4916_2	5	8	1	14	Pseudomonas	Transmembrane secretion effector	PF05977.16
k141_12843_1	5	8	1	14	Serratia	AAA lid domain	PF17871.4
k141_5692_1	0	13	5	10	Serratia	FCD domain	PF07729.15

599 **Figure 1 Disease representation in Atlantic Salmon** A. A Non-survived fish with a severe ulcerative

600 lesion on the lateral body surface (highlighted in yellow) B. A survived fish with no visible external lesions.

Figure 2: Taxonomic Composition and Alpha Diversity by Tank, Sex, and Survival Status

(A) The relative abundance (taxonomic read count) of microbial families aggregated by tank (C1, C2),

sex (female, male), and survival status (not survived, survived). (B) Alpha Diversity Boxplots: Shannon

(top) and Simpson (bottom) diversity indices comparing microbial diversity across sex, survival status,

and tank conditions.

Figure 3 A Principal Component Analysis (PCA) of Microbial Community Structure

This figure presents a PCA based on Jaccard distance, colored by survival status. PC1 (39.57% variance)

and PC2 (8.3% variance) capture the major differences in microbial composition.

histogram of Presence-Absence Differences Between Surviving and Non-Surviving Groups

This histogram visualizes the distribution of microbial taxa based on their presence or absence in

surviving vs. non-surviving fish. B. A histogram. X-axis: Difference in presence proportion between the

two groups (negative values indicate taxa more common in survivors, positive values indicate taxa more

common in non-survivors). Y-axis: Number of taxa.

Figure 4: Proportion of fish with and without detection of taxa that differed between survivors and non-survivors

This figure displays the relative proportions of microbial genera and family significantly associated with survival outcomes in Atlantic salmon. Each bar represents the presence (blue/red) or absence (black/dark brown) of specific genera in surviving and non-surviving fish.

Figure 5: TPM Distribution of Differentially Expressed Genes by Survival Status

This figure illustrates the TPM distributions of differentially observed genes in microbial taxa between surviving and non-surviving Atlantic salmon.X-axis: Survival status (Not Survived vs. Survived). Y-axis: Read count for each gene. Shapes indicate gene expression levels: Triangles: Genes with elevated expression in non-surviving fish. Circles: Genes with elevated expression in surviving fish. Open circles: Zero read count (not detected).

Author contributions (CRediT)

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Celian Diblasi: Conceptualization, Methodology, Investigation, Writing – Original Draft

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David Hazlerigg: Resources, Funding acquisition

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Lars-Gustav Snipen: Methodology, Supervision

Marie Saitou: Conceptualization, Investigation, Writing – Review & Editing, Supervision

Conflicts of interest

The authors declare no competing interests.

Funding information

This study was supported by the following funding bodies: The Research Council of Norway (project

numbers: 325874). The Norwegian Seafood Research Fund (FHF), through the SynchroSmolt project:

"Smolt production protocols and breeding strategies for synchronized smoltification". The EU Erasmus+

Programme. BIOVIT, Norwegian University of Life Sciences (PhD funding support).

Acknowledgements

668 The authors thank the Galaxy.no and Orion high-performance computing infrastructures for providing

669 computational resources. We are also grateful to Côme Morel (CIRAD-BIOS, UMR ASTRE) for his

670 valuable advice on alpha and beta diversity analyses.

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