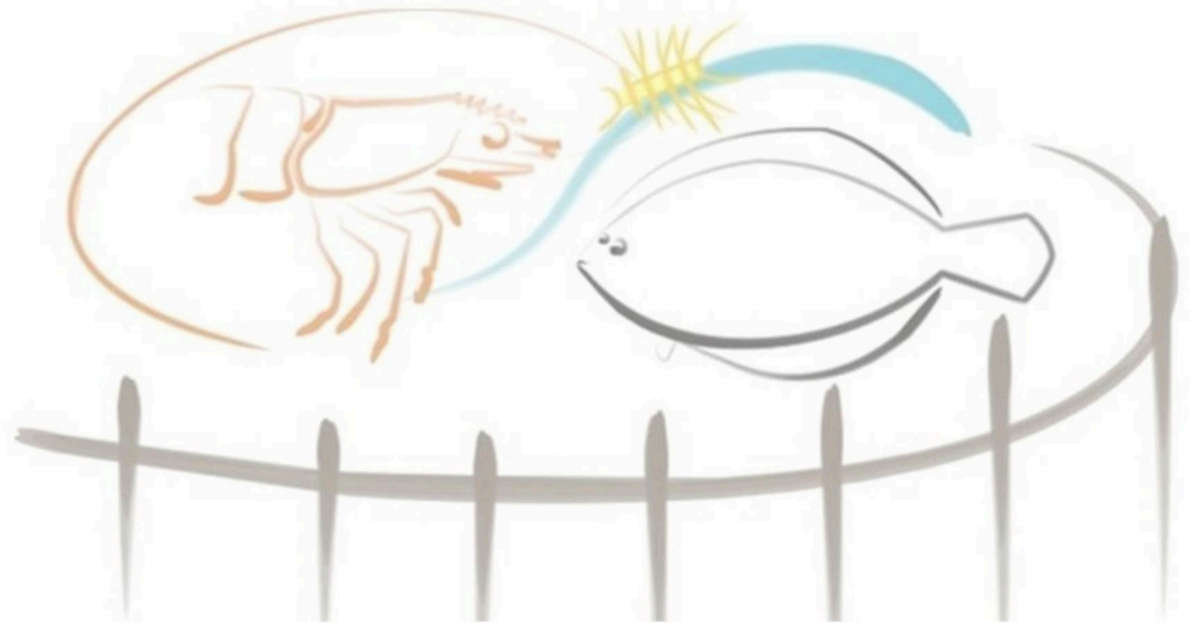


Universidade Federal do Rio grande - FURG
Instituto de Oceanografia
Programa de Pós-Graduação em Aquicultura



**Probióticos convencionais e não convencionais no cultivo experimental do
camarão branco *Litopenaeus vannamei***

Luiza Morais de Medeiros

Rio Grande - RS
Fevereiro de 2022

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Orientador: Luis Fernando Marins

Coorientador: Wilson Wasielesky Jr.

Tese apresentada como parte dos requisitos para obtenção do grau de Doutora em Aquicultura pelo Programa de Pós-Graduação em Aquicultura da Universidade Federal do Rio Grande-FURG.

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*Conte-me e eu esqueço.
Mostre-me e eu apenas me lembro.
Envolve-me e eu compreendo.*

Confúcio

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No dia vinte e dois de fevereiro de dois mil e vinte e dois, às oito horas e trinta minutos, reuniu-se a Banca Examinadora de Tese de Doutorado em Aquicultura, da **LUIZA MORAIS DE MEDEIROS**, orientada pelo Prof. Dr. Luis Fernando Marins, composta pelos seguintes membros: Prof. Dr. Luis Fernando Marins (Orientador - IO/FURG), Prof. Dr. Wilson Wasielesky Junior (Co orientador - IO/FURG), Prof. Dr. Dariano Krummenauer (IO/FURG), Prof.ª. D.ª. Virgínia Fonseca Pedrosa (IO/FURG), Prof.ª. D.ª. Lucielen Oliveira dos Santos (EQA/FURG) e o Prof. Dr. Rodrigo Maggioni (UFC). Título da Tese: "**Probióticos convencionais e não convencionais no cultivo experimental do camarão branco *Litopenaeus vannamei***". Dando início à defesa, o Coordenador do PPGAq, Prof. Dr. Dariano Krummenauer passou a presidência da sessão ao Prof. Dr. Luis Fernando Marins, que na qualidade de orientador, passou a palavra para a candidata apresentar a Tese. Após ampla discussão entre os membros da Banca e a candidata, a Banca se reuniu sob a presidência do Coordenador. Durante esse encontro ficou estabelecido que as sugestões dos membros da Banca Examinadora devem ser incorporadas na versão final, ficando a cargo do Orientador o cumprimento desta decisão. A candidata **LUIZA MORAIS DE MEDEIROS** foi considerada **APROVADA**, devendo a versão definitiva de a Tese ser entregue na Secretaria do PPGAq, no prazo estabelecido nas Normas Complementares do Programa. Nada mais havendo a tratar, foi lavrada a presente ata, que após lida e aprovada, será assinada pela Banca Examinadora, pela candidata e pelo Coordenador do PPGAq.

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RESUMO

Probióticos exercem inúmeros efeitos benéficos na aquicultura, especialmente no que se refere ao desempenho zootécnico, conversão alimentar e resposta imune. Diversos microrganismos podem ser caracterizados como probióticos e o desenvolvimento da biotecnologia tem permitido que estes microrganismos possam ser utilizados como plataformas de expressão de proteínas heterólogas, as quais que podem potencializar os efeitos benéficos já reconhecidos dos probióticos convencionais. Na presente Tese foram realizados três experimentos de 45 dias, cada um testando um probiótico diferente como aditivo na ração do camarão *Litopenaeus vannamei*. No capítulo I, testou-se o potencial probiótico de uma cepa de *Bacillus subtilis* (cepa E) previamente isolada do trato gastrointestinal dos camarões. Neste estudo foram avaliados parâmetros como desempenho zootécnico, composição centesimal do tecido muscular, número de vacúolos lipídicos no hepatopâncreas e a expressão de genes relacionados à digestão, ao metabolismo de aminoácidos e às defesas antioxidantes. Os resultados mostraram que a suplementação da ração com a cepa E não afetou o desempenho zootécnico dos camarões, mas aumentou a concentração de lipídios no músculo e no hepatopâncreas. Além disso, genes relacionados aos processos digestivos e ao metabolismo de aminoácidos foram fortemente reduzidos, indicando que a suplementação alimentar com a cepa E de *B. subtilis* pode melhorar a absorção de nutrientes da ração e minimizar os efeitos tóxicos dos compostos nitrogenados presentes na água de cultivo. No capítulo II, o objetivo foi avaliar o efeito de uma cepa de *B. subtilis* KM0 geneticamente modificada que expressa e secreta uma fitase fúngica, a qual pode melhorar aspectos nutricionais relacionados com o metabolismo do fósforo de camarões. Quando foi adicionado à ração comercial de *L. vannamei*, esse *B. subtilis* geneticamente modificado não alterou de forma significativa parâmetros de crescimento. No entanto, houve uma diminuição na expressão de genes relacionados com a digestão e um aumento de 39% no teor de fósforo no tecido muscular e, também, um aumento na contagem de vacúolos lipídicos no hepatopâncreas do camarão. No capítulo III, o objetivo foi suplementar a ração comercial com uma cepa geneticamente modificada da cianobactéria *Synechococcus elongatus* expressando uma β -glicosidase heteróloga, a qual pode impactar o metabolismo de carboidratos do camarão. Os resultados demonstraram que a suplementação da ração comercial com as cianobactérias (selvagem ou transgênica) não afetou de forma negativa os índices de crescimento, peso final e taxa de conversão alimentar dos camarões em

comparação com os controles. Entretanto, as cianobactérias alteraram a expressão de genes relacionados à digestão (*amy*, *gdh* e *cathB*) e ao sistema imune (*tgase*), enquanto a cianobactéria transgênica, isoladamente, aumentou significativamente o conteúdo de fósforo e lipídio no músculo dos camarões. Em conclusão, a presente tese demonstrou que o uso tanto de probióticos isolados do trato intestinal do camarão *L. vannamei* assim como probióticos geneticamente modificados podem trazer diversos benefícios aos camarões, o que é interessante do ponto de vista ambiental e econômico, contribuindo para a sustentabilidade da carcinocultura.

Palavras-chave: Probióticos, *Bacillus subtilis*, *Synechococcus elongatus*, fitase, β -glicosidase, carcinocultura.

ABSTRACT

Probiotics exert numerous beneficial effects in aquaculture, especially regarding zootechnical performance, feed conversion and immune response. Several microorganisms can be characterized as probiotics and the development of biotechnology has allowed these microorganisms to be used as platforms for the expression of heterologous proteins, which can enhance the already recognized beneficial effects of conventional probiotics. In the present Thesis, three 45-day experiments were carried out, each one testing a different probiotic as an additive in the diet of *Litopenaeus vannamei* shrimp. In chapter I, the probiotic potential of a strain of *Bacillus subtilis* (strain E) previously isolated from the gastrointestinal tract of shrimp was tested. In this study, parameters such as zootechnical performance, proximate composition of muscle tissue and the expression of genes related to digestion, the immune system and antioxidant defenses were evaluated. The results showed that the supplementation of the diet with strain E did not affect the zootechnical performance of the shrimp but increased the concentration of lipids in the muscle and hepatopancreas. In addition, genes related to digestive processes and amino acid metabolism were strongly reduced, indicating that feed supplementation with the E strain of *B. subtilis* can improve the absorption of nutrients from the feed and minimize the toxic effects of the nitrogen compounds present in the water of animals creation. In chapter II, the objective was to evaluate the effect of a genetically modified strain of *B. subtilis* KM0 that expresses and secretes a fungal phytase, which can improve nutritional aspects related to the phosphorus metabolism of shrimp. When added to commercial feed of *L. vannamei*, this genetically modified *B. subtilis* did not significantly alter growth parameters. However, there was a decrease in the expression of genes related to digestion and an increase of 39% in phosphorus content in muscle and an increase in lipid vacuole count in shrimp hepatopancreas. In chapter III, the objective was to supplement the commercial feed with a genetically modified strain of the cyanobacterium *Synechococcus elongatus* expressing a heterologous β -glucosidase, which can impact the carbohydrate metabolism of shrimp. The results showed that the supplementation of commercial feed with cyanobacteria (wild or transgenic) did not negatively affect the growth rates, final weight and feed conversion rate of shrimp compared to the controls. However, cyanobacteria altered the expression of genes related to digestion (*amy*, *gdh* and *cathB*) and to the immune system (*tgase*), while the transgenic cyanobacterium, alone, significantly increased the phosphorus and lipid content in shrimp

muscle. In conclusion, the present Thesis showed that the use of both probiotics isolated from the intestinal tract of *L. vannamei* as well as genetically modified probiotics can bring several benefits to shrimp, which is interesting from an environmental and economic point of view, contributing to the sustainability of the shrimp farming.

Keywords: Probiotics, *Bacillus subtilis*, *Synechococcus elongatus*, phytase, β -glucosidase, shrimp farming.

1 **INTRODUÇÃO GERAL**

3 **Aquicultura**

4 De acordo com as últimas estatísticas mundiais sobre aquicultura compilado pela
5 FAO, a produção atingiu outro recorde histórico de 114,5 milhões de toneladas em peso vivo
6 em 2018. Nesse mesmo ano, os crustáceos corresponderam a 9,4 milhões de toneladas. A
7 aquicultura tem sido o setor de produção de alimentos que se expandiu mais rapidamente em
8 todo o mundo, sendo que a produção aquícola mundial cresceu em média 5,3 % ao ano no
9 período de 2001-2018 (FAO, 2020). A produção da aquicultura também atingiu outro recorde
10 histórico: estima-se que gerou 82 milhões de toneladas, movimentando um valor total de US\$
11 250 bilhões. Dessa forma, a aquicultura é responsável por 46 % da produção total e 52 % de
12 peixes para consumo humano. Camarões marinhos dominam a produção na aquicultura e são
13 uma importante fonte de ganhos para uma série de países em desenvolvimento na Ásia e na
14 América Latina. O setor de criação de camarões, que agora fornece a maior parte do volume
15 para o mercado global, também sofreu o impacto de surtos de doenças e variações de preços
16 associadas aos ciclos de alta e baixa. Os altos volumes de produção aquícola em 2018 e 2019
17 empurraram os preços de mercado para níveis baixos, levando a um planejamento
18 conservador por parte dos produtores. Além disso, espera-se que as espécies que requerem
19 maiores proporções de farinha e óleo de peixe em suas dietas tenham um crescimento na
20 produção mais lento devido aos preços mais altos e à disponibilidade reduzida de farinha de
21 peixe. O Brasil ocupa a 10^a posição na produção de aquicultura marinha e costeira de
22 crustáceos. No entanto, desde 2014 não há estatística pesqueira oficial e os dados são obtidos
23 por levantamentos realizados pela FAO e seus parceiros (FAO, 2020).

25 **Alimentação na aquicultura**

26 A farinha e o óleo de peixe são produtos de uso quase exclusivo para fabricação de
27 ração para organismos aquáticos. A farinha de peixe é rica em macro e oligoelementos,
28 contém nutrientes essenciais, bem como muitos compostos que são biologicamente ativos
29 (Hardy, 2010). Quando há um desequilíbrio no nível de aminoácidos, há também uma
30 alteração no metabolismo das proteínas, logo é importante que na alimentação de camarões
31 exista uma fonte de proteína que tenha um equilíbrio adequado dos aminoácidos para
32 promover um desempenho de crescimento satisfatório (Jin et al., 2019). Além da importância

1 da proteína na ração, outro fator importante é o óleo de peixe, que é considerado a principal
2 fonte de lipídios para aquicultura devido às suas altas proporções de ácidos graxos altamente
3 insaturados de cadeia longa e seus benefícios nutricionais (Zhou et al., 2014).

4 Um dos desafios da aquicultura é o fornecimento de nutrientes ao sistema,
5 principalmente na forma de rações compostas produzidas industrialmente. À medida que esta
6 indústria continua a se expandir, também aumenta a demanda por ingredientes-chave para
7 rações (Gia Vo et al., 2020). A produção de farinha e óleo de peixe flutua de acordo com as
8 mudanças nas capturas das espécies, o que afeta a abundância dos estoques pesqueiros. A
9 redução progressiva na oferta ocorre ao mesmo tempo em que há demanda crescente
10 impulsionada por uma indústria de aquicultura de rápido crescimento, o que aumentou os
11 preços da farinha e do óleo de peixe. Como consequência, a incorporação de farinha e óleo de
12 peixe nas dietas está diminuindo (FAO, 2020; Zhu et al., 2021). Em virtude disso, a indústria
13 da aquicultura investiga ativamente fontes alternativas de proteína para substituir os
14 subprodutos da pesca na alimentação de animais aquáticos (To e Liou, 2021). Além disso, a
15 otimização da digestão de proteínas é um objetivo fundamental para o alcance do alto
16 desempenho zootécnico na aquicultura (Dai et al., 2018).

17 O aumento da concorrência global e as mudanças na demanda, os avanços
18 tecnológicos e as novas descobertas por meio de pesquisas estão fazendo com que a indústria
19 de manufatura de ingredientes adote novas tecnologias de processamento e novos
20 ingredientes. Paralelamente, ocorre o crescimento acelerado da produção de rações para a
21 aquicultura, o que resulta em várias fontes alternativas de proteína vegetal testadas e que estão
22 disponíveis no mercado (Galkanda-Arachchige et al., 2021). No entanto, embora as fontes de
23 proteína vegetal terrestre se mostrem promissoras na pesquisa por proteína alimentar
24 alternativa, as proteínas vegetais apresentam conhecidas limitações nutricionais. Um dos
25 principais fatores que contribuem para um menor valor nutricional é a presença de fatores
26 antinutricionais (ANFs) de ocorrência natural, por exemplo, fitato, taninos, inibidores de
27 enzimas e saponinas, entre outros, que diminuem indiretamente a biodisponibilidade dos
28 minerais (Nikmaram et al., 2017). Além disso, a substituição completa da farinha de peixe em
29 rações para espécies marinhas é mais difícil e exigirá mais esforços de pesquisa (Hardy,
30 2010).

31

1 **Ácido fítico e fitases**

2 O ácido fítico possui seis grupos fosfato em uma única molécula de seis carbonos, e é
3 a principal forma de armazenamento de fosfato em muitos tecidos vegetais (Hussain et al.,
4 2021). É um composto onipresente (variando de 0,4% a 6,4% em peso), naturalmente
5 presente em cereais, grãos, sementes oleaginosas e nozes (Nikmaram et al., 2017). O fitato
6 diminui a digestibilidade de proteínas e aminoácidos e a eficiência de absorção em peixes e
7 outros animais por ser uma molécula polianiónica que se quela em nutrientes carregados
8 positivamente (íons metálicos como Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} , Zn^{2+} e Fe^{2+}). Essa molécula atua como um
9 fator antinutricional, formando complexos com proteínas, afetando a digestão e inibindo as
10 enzimas digestivas, como α -amilase, tripsina, fosfatase ácida e tirosinase (Hussain et al.,
11 2021). Assim, a presença do fitato na matéria vegetal é uma das principais restrições que
12 limitam o uso de proteínas vegetais na alimentação animal (Kumar et al., 2012).

13 Sabe-se que o fósforo é um elemento essencial para plantas e animais, pois é
14 componente dos ácidos nucleicos e desempenha um papel no metabolismo de lipídios,
15 sacarídeos e proteínas (Truong et al., 2020). Além disso, o fósforo não digerido e excretado
16 na água contribui para o processo de eutrofização (Kumar et al., 2012). Visto que o fitato
17 indisponibiliza o fósforo, a redução enzimática do teor de ácido fítico em alimentos e rações é
18 desejável, pois melhora a qualidade nutricional dos alimentos (Singh e Satyanarayana, 2015).
19 A fitase, quimicamente conhecida como mio inositol (1,2,3,4,5,6) - hexafosfato
20 fosfohidrolase, catalisa a hidrólise do fitato, o que produz uma molécula de inositol e seis
21 moléculas de fosfato inorgânico, tornando o fósforo disponível para absorção. Logo, esta
22 enzima pode reduzir o efeito antinutricional do fitato e melhorar a digestibilidade do fósforo,
23 cálcio, aminoácidos e energia, além de reduzir o impacto negativo da excreção de fósforo
24 inorgânico no meio ambiente (Dersjant-Li et al., 2015).

25 As fitases de ocorrência natural são abundantes e podem ser obtidas de plantas,
26 animais e microorganismos (bactérias, fungos e leveduras) (Hussain et al., 2021). As fitases
27 produzidas por microorganismos são comumente utilizadas como aditivo comercial para
28 rações. Em 1999, a primeira geração da fitase fúngica obtida a partir de *A. niger* foi
29 disponibilizada comercialmente (Jatuwong et al., 2020). As fitases fúngicas são histidina
30 fosfatases ácidas e são amplamente utilizadas para a produção de fitases em escala comercial.
31 O papel da fitase no desempenho do crescimento dos peixes está bem documentado (Afzal et
32 al., 2019; Li et al., 2019; Shahzad et al., 2018). As fitases fúngicas melhoram o valor
33 nutricional de alimentos e rações, pois aumenta a utilização proteínas, vitaminas e

1 aminoácidos ao degradar os complexos fitina-proteína, melhorando uso e a biodisponibilidade
2 de diferentes nutrientes, além de melhorar a digestibilidade de minerais (Hussain et al., 2021).
3 Por outro lado, as fitases também mitigam os impactos causados pela descarga excessiva de
4 fósforo em ambientes aquáticos (Singh e Satyanarayana, 2015).

5

6 **Saponinas e β -glicosidases**

7 As saponinas são fitoquímicos de ocorrência natural, estrutural e funcionalmente
8 diversos, amplamente distribuídos nas plantas. São um grupo complexo e quimicamente
9 variado de compostos que consistem em triterpenóides ou agliconas esteroidais ligadas a
10 porções de oligossacarídeo. A combinação de uma estrutura de aglicona hidrofóbica e
11 moléculas de açúcar hidrofílicas torna as saponinas altamente anfipáticas e confere
12 propriedades de formação de espuma e emulsificação (Moses et al., 2014). Além disso, as
13 saponinas são consideradas um dos fatores antinutricionais (ANFs) presentes em proteínas
14 vegetais que são alternativas na substituição da farinha de peixe. Quando há uma redução da
15 saponina na dieta, há também um melhor desempenho de crescimento (Fadel et al., 2021).
16 Foi reportado que as saponinas da soja agravaram a inflamação intestinal de forma dose
17 dependente concomitante com a expressão regulada positivamente de citocinas inflamatórias,
18 destruíram a estrutura das junções intracelulares, diminuíram as atividades de parâmetros
19 antioxidantes selecionados e aumentaram a apoptose das células epiteliais intestinais em
20 peixes (Gu et al., 2018). Também, foi demonstrado que a saponina de soja na dieta de
21 *Monopterus albus* diminuiu o crescimento, danificou a estrutura intestinal e a barreira
22 intestinal, induzindo inflamação intestinal nos animais (Hu et al., 2021). Em termos gerais, as
23 saponinas podem afetar a utilização de proteínas, minerais e vitaminas (Zhou et al., 2018). A
24 hidrólise enzimática de ANFs, como as saponinas, tem o potencial de aumentar a
25 biodisponibilização de nutrientes (Zhou et al., 2018). O uso de farelo de soja processado
26 tratado com enzimas mostrou melhor desempenho de crescimento e eficiência alimentar do
27 que farelo de soja convencional em dietas de trutas arco-íris, o que demonstra que o
28 bioprocessamento enzimático pode reduzir os ANFs e aumentar o conteúdo de proteína no
29 farelo de soja processado convencional sem comprometer o valor nutricional (Kumar et al.,
30 2020).

31 As β -glicosidases podem hidrolisar a ligação glicosídica β -1,4 de dissacarídeos,
32 oligossacarídeos e moléculas substituídas por glicose e, também, catalisar as reações
33 sintéticas por meio de reação hidrolítica reversa ou transglicosilação. Por ser um grupo

1 diversificado de enzimas com ampla distribuição em bactérias, fungos, plantas e animais, tem
2 potencial para ser utilizado em vários processos biotecnológicos, como produção de
3 biocombustíveis, hidrólise de isoflavonas, realce de sabor, síntese de oligossacarídeos e a
4 produção combustível como o etanol a partir de resíduos agrícolas (Ahmed et al., 2017;
5 Singhanian et al., 2013). Além da hidrólise da celulose, já está bem documentado que β -
6 glicosidases também podem hidrolisar saponinas (Renchinkhand et al., 2015; Yan et al.,
7 2018).

8

9 **Probióticos na Aquicultura**

10 Em uma das primeiras revisões que discutiram o que seriam probióticos Ringø e
11 Gatesoupe (1998) mostraram que esses microrganismos são capazes de colonizar o intestino e
12 atuar de forma antagônica contra patógenos gram-negativos. Além disso, são capazes de
13 produzir bacteriocinas inofensivas e podem reduzir a necessidade de uso de antibióticos na
14 aquicultura. Hill et al. (2014) sugeriram como definição que probióticos são “microrganismos
15 vivos que, quando administrados em quantidades adequadas, conferem um benefício à saúde
16 do hospedeiro”. Para serem usados como probióticos, é essencial que os microrganismos
17 sejam considerados como GRAS (geralmente reconhecidos como seguros); que é um status
18 usado para resolver o problema da colonização de patógenos em diferentes ecossistemas,
19 afirmados pela FDA Estado-Unidense (*US Food and Drug Administration*) ou determinados
20 independentemente por especialistas qualificados (Bouchard et al. 2013).

21 Os probióticos surgiram como uma alternativa ao uso de agentes antimicrobianos, com
22 o objetivo de melhorar a saúde dos peixes (Martínez Cruz et al., 2012). Alguns estudos
23 apontam que a primeira aplicação de probióticos na aquicultura foi realizada em 1986
24 (Gatesoupe, 1999; Ringø et al., 2020). Na década de 1990, Munro et al. (1995) relacionaram
25 bactérias que são benéficas (probióticas) com a estimulação do crescimento de algas
26 unicelulares. Rapidamente, o interesse por tais microrganismos aumentou e um número
27 crescente de trabalhos científicos tem tratado explicitamente de probióticos desde então (por
28 exemplo, Ruiz et al., 1996; Gildberg et al., 1997; Ringø e Gatesoupe, 1998; Hu et al., 2022;
29 Ma et al., 2022; Kolanchinathan et al., 2022).

30 A introdução dos probióticos na aquicultura substituiu significativamente o uso de
31 antibióticos sintéticos comerciais. Dessa forma, os probióticos têm sido aplicados junto com
32 as rações comerciais para controlar ou prevenir infecções bacterianas ou fúngicas (Ock Kim et
33 al., 2020), ou adicionados aos sistemas de cultivo para melhorar a qualidade da água.

1 Evidências crescentes sugerem que os antibióticos podem alterar a microbiota intestinal, o
2 que potencialmente afeta a saúde do hospedeiro. Em *Litopenaeus vannamei*, o uso de
3 antibióticos pode alterar a diversidade, composição e função microbiana intestinal (Zeng et
4 al., 2019), enquanto microrganismos probióticos têm a capacidade de melhorar o
5 desenvolvimento e a microflora intestinal, além de produzirem várias substâncias
6 antibacterianas naturais (Aarti et al., 2017; Amoah et al., 2019). Hostins et al. (2017; 2019)
7 observaram que os probióticos podem ser usados para complementar o efeito protetor dos
8 bioflocos, de forma que o manejo da comunidade microbiana pode ser uma ferramenta para
9 reduzir o risco de doenças, estabelecer sistemas altamente biosseguros, além de controlar
10 infecções patogênicas no intestino do hospedeiro quando aplicado de forma racional.

11 As bactérias mais utilizadas como probióticos na aquicultura são bactérias ácido
12 lácticas e *Bacillus*. Entretanto, também são utilizados vários outros gêneros como *Aeromonas*,
13 *Alteromonas*, *Arthrobacter*, *Bifidobacterium*, *Clostridium*, *Paenibacillus*, *Phaeobacter*,
14 *Pseudoalteromonas*, *Pseudomonas*, *Rhodospiridium*, *Roseobacter*, *Streptomyces* e, até
15 mesmo, *Vibrio*. Microalgas (*Tetraselmis*) e leveduras (*Debaryomyces*, *Phaffia* e
16 *Saccharomyces*) também podem ser consideradas como probióticos (Ringø et al, 2020). No
17 entanto, existem alguns microrganismos que são mais comumente utilizados na aquicultura e
18 incluem bactérias antagônicas (*Bacillus*, *Pseudomonas*, *Alteromonas* e *Flavobacterium*
19 *odoratum*), os quais são microrganismos funcionais que melhoram a absorção de nutrientes e
20 a atividade digestiva do hospedeiro (bactérias ácido-láticas e leveduras) e microrganismos que
21 melhoram a qualidade da água (denitrificantes e bactérias nitrificantes) (Qi et al, 2009). Além
22 disso, cepas endêmicas, autóctones ou derivadas do hospedeiro também podem ser usadas
23 como probióticos e conferem benefícios à saúde (Luis-Villaseñor et al., 2011; Pham et al.,
24 2014).

25 Esses microrganismos comumente utilizados podem ser ditos “probióticos
26 convencionais”. No entanto, existem outros que não são tão comuns que podem ser
27 caracterizados como “não convencionais”. Dentre esses, estão as bactérias gram-negativas e
28 gram-positivas, leveduras, bacteriófagos, algas unicelulares e actinobactérias (Butt et al.,
29 2021; Das et al., 2008), além de probióticos geneticamente modificados. Dentro desse
30 cenário, algumas cianobactérias também podem ser consideradas como probióticos não
31 convencionais, pois apresentam potencial probiótico através de sua atividade
32 imunomoduladora (Riccio and Lauritano, 2020) e, também, são capazes de produzir
33 compostos bioativos com diversas aplicações, como a inibição de patógenos (Santhakumari et

1 al., 2017). Um estudo recente relatou que cianobactérias podem ter um impacto de longo
2 alcance no microbioma intestinal levando ao aumento da riqueza bacteriana, podendo
3 desempenhar um papel importante no desenvolvimento e na saúde de peixes (Rosenau et al.,
4 2021).

5 Para que um microrganismo seja considerado com potencial probiótico algumas
6 características devem ser atendidas, como a promoção do crescimento, inibição de patógenos,
7 melhoria na digestão de nutrientes, da qualidade da água, aumento da tolerância ao estresse e
8 efeitos na reprodução, aumento na assimilação de macronutrientes e melhora no estado de
9 saúde dos animais através da ativação do sistema imunológico (Olmos et al., 2020; Pham et
10 al., 2014). Essas características se expressam devido à capacidade que os probióticos têm de
11 produzir moléculas que possuem atividade bactericida sobre as bactérias patogênicas
12 intestinais do hospedeiro, proporcionando uma barreira contra a proliferação de patógenos
13 oportunistas (Martínez Cruz et al. 2012).

14 A administração de probióticos também pode resultar no aumento do consumo e a
15 absorção de nutrientes da ração devido à sua capacidade de liberar uma ampla gama de
16 enzimas digestivas e, também, de nutrientes que podem participar do processo de digestão e
17 utilização da ração, juntamente com a absorção de componentes da dieta, levando a uma
18 melhora no bem-estar e na saúde do hospedeiro. Além disso, os probióticos contribuem para a
19 maturação intestinal, prevenção de distúrbios intestinais, pré-digestão de fatores
20 antinutricionais encontrados nos ingredientes da ração, microbiota intestinal e metabolismo
21 (Olmos et al., 2020; Ringø et al., 2020).

22

23 **Engenharia genética em probióticos na aquicultura**

24 Microrganismos podem ser reprogramados para produzir moléculas de interesse,
25 através da manipulação do metabolismo, adicionando e excluindo seletivamente genes
26 relacionados a determinadas vias metabólicas (Choudhary e Mahadevan, 2020). As espécies
27 de *Bacillus* são consideradas cepas promissoras com inúmeras vantagens, incluindo: não
28 toxicidade, facilidade para manipulação genética, alto rendimentos de proteínas heterólogas,
29 taxa de crescimento rápida e baixa necessidade de nutrientes (van Dijn e Hecker, 2013). Entre
30 as espécies de *Bacillus*, *B. subtilis* tem sido amplamente utilizada como uma biofábrica para a
31 produção de proteínas recombinantes devido à sua natureza geralmente considerada segura
32 (GRAS), além de um sistema secretor naturalmente eficiente. Além disso, existe um amplo

1 conhecimento sobre sua genética, fisiologia e processos de fermentação em larga escala
2 (Schallmeyer et al., 2004, James et al., 2021).

3 Outros microrganismos com potencial em aplicações biotecnológicas são as
4 microalgas e cianobactérias. A exploração dessa diversidade genética permite o uso eficiente
5 de microrganismos fotossintéticos como biofábricas de enzimas recombinantes que serão
6 úteis e podem ser utilizadas em diferentes indústrias como na produção de alimento para
7 consumo humano, ração animal, aquicultura, cosméticos e biocombustíveis. Além disso, por
8 serem fotoautótrofos, com requisitos nutricionais mínimos, as microalgas apresentam
9 vantagens em comparação com outras células microbianas (Brasil et al., 2017).

10 A expressão recombinante é um método importante para facilitar a produção de
11 proteínas alvo. Com o desenvolvimento da biotecnologia, novos sistemas de expressão e
12 novas técnicas para a exibição de proteínas heterólogas em células probióticas têm sido
13 desenvolvidos (Yao et al., 2020). A engenharia genética em probióticos tem sido utilizada
14 com diversos objetivos, como aplicações em alimentos, biomédicas (Zuo et al., 2020),
15 produção de biocombustíveis (Hlavova et al., 2015), dentre outros. Whelan et al. (2014)
16 modificaram geneticamente uma bactéria probiótica para secretar imunomodulador de
17 parasitas para tratamento direcionado no local da inflamação intestinal em camundongos e
18 porcos, demonstrando que a eficiência anti-inflamatória de um probiótico pode ser melhorada
19 por um transgene imunorregulador e que esse tratamento pode ter um potencial como opção
20 terapêutica para a doença inflamatória intestinal. Amiri-Jami et al. (2015) também
21 modificaram uma bactéria probiótica para a produção recombinante de ácidos graxos ômega-
22 3, mostrando que probiótico transgênico produtor de EPA/DHA pode ser utilizado como fonte
23 segura, alternativa e econômica para a produção industrial e farmacêutica desses ácidos
24 graxos poli-insaturados de alto valor comercial. Tang et al. (2016) demonstraram que a
25 administração oral de esporos de *B. subtilis* recombinantes em camundongos pode fornecer
26 proteção efetiva contra *Clonorchis sinensis*, uma zoonose de origem alimentar que pode ser
27 ocasionada pela ingestão de peixe cru contaminado por esse trematódeo.

28 Na aquicultura, alguns estudos recentes já mostram a aplicação da engenharia genética
29 em probióticos. Santos et al. (2020) desenvolveram uma cepa de *B. subtilis* com o objetivo de
30 melhorar a digestibilidade de rações que apresentam altos níveis de proteína vegetal, que foi
31 projetado para produzir e secretar uma fitase fúngica. Riet et al. (2021) desenvolveram uma
32 cepa geneticamente modificada de *B. subtilis* para a produção de dsRNAs antivirais contra a
33 proteína viral 28 (VP28) do vírus da mancha branca (WSSV), que minimiza a replicação viral

1 e pode se tornar uma importante ferramenta terapêutica para as espécies da aquicultura. Nesse
2 mesmo sentido, Zhuang et al. (2021) construíram uma *Synechococcus elongatus* PCC 7942
3 que expressa VP28 para proteção de camarões contra o WSSV. Levando em consideração que
4 os probióticos têm um papel na regulação imunológica, o portador de uma vacina oral seria
5 mais propício para interagir com o hospedeiro e poderia estimular uma resposta imunológica
6 eficaz na mucosa intestinal e até mesmo sistêmica (Yao et al., 2020).

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HIPÓTESES

Hipótese geral

A administração dietética de probióticos convencionais ou não convencionais é capaz de alterar dois níveis de organização biológica do camarão *Litopenaeus vannamei*: genético-molecular e composição tecidual.

Hipótese específica 1

A administração dietética de uma cepa de *Bacillus subtilis* isolada do intestino do camarão *L. vannamei* é capaz de melhorar o desempenho zootécnico e alterar a composição do tecido muscular e o perfil de expressão gênica relacionado às defesas antioxidantes, digestão e metabolismo de aminoácidos do camarão cultivado experimentalmente.

Hipótese específica 2

A administração dietética de uma cepa de *Bacillus subtilis* geneticamente modificada para expressar uma fitase heteróloga é capaz de melhorar o desempenho zootécnico e alterar a composição do tecido muscular e o perfil de expressão gênica relacionado às defesas antioxidantes, digestão e metabolismo de aminoácidos do camarão cultivado experimentalmente.

Hipótese específica 3

A administração dietética da cianobactéria *Synechococcus elongatus* geneticamente modificada para expressar uma β -glicosidase heteróloga é capaz de melhorar o desempenho zootécnico e alterar a composição do tecido muscular e o perfil de expressão gênica relacionado à resposta imune, defesas antioxidantes, digestão e metabolismo de aminoácidos do camarão cultivado experimentalmente.

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OBJETIVOS

Objetivo Geral

Introduzir diferentes probióticos (convencionais e não convencionais) como aditivos dietéticos no cultivo experimental do camarão branco *Litopenaeus vannamei*, avaliando seus efeitos em dois níveis de organização biológica: genético-molecular e composição tecidual.

Objetivos específicos

➤ Testar os efeitos de uma cepa de *Bacillus subtilis* isolada do intestino do camarão *L. vannamei* como aditivo dietético, avaliando o desempenho zootécnico, composição do tecido muscular, número de vacúolos lipídicos no hepatopâncreas e o perfil de expressão gênica relacionado às defesas antioxidantes, digestão e metabolismo de aminoácidos de *L. vannamei* cultivado experimentalmente;

➤ Testar os efeitos de uma cepa de *Bacillus subtilis* geneticamente modificada para expressar uma fitase heteróloga como aditivo dietético, avaliando o desempenho zootécnico, composição do tecido muscular, número de vacúolos lipídicos no hepatopâncreas e o perfil de expressão gênica relacionado às defesas antioxidantes, digestão e metabolismo de aminoácidos de *L. vannamei* cultivado experimentalmente;

➤ Testar os efeitos de uma cianobactéria *Synechococcus elongatus* geneticamente modificada para expressar uma β -glicosidase heteróloga como aditivo dietético, avaliando o desempenho zootécnico, composição do tecido muscular e o perfil de expressão gênica relacionado à resposta imune, defesas antioxidantes, digestão e metabolismo de aminoácidos de *L. vannamei* cultivado experimentalmente.

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CAPÍTULO I

A native strain of *Bacillus subtilis* increases lipid accumulation and modulates expression of genes related to digestion and amino acid metabolism in Pacific white shrimp *Litopenaeus vannamei*

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A native strain of *Bacillus subtilis* increases lipid accumulation and modulates expression of genes related to digestion and amino acid metabolism in Pacific white shrimp *Litopenaeus vannamei*

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Abstract

The use of probiotics has been an interesting alternative for shrimp farming, as the benefits provided by these bacteria are already recognized. In the present study, a strain of *Bacillus subtilis* (strain E) was isolated from the gastrointestinal tract of the shrimp *Litopenaeus vannamei* and molecularly identified. The probiotic potential of strain E was characterized, and it was used as a food additive in an experiment with *Litopenaeus vannamei* for 45 days. The zootechnical performance, proximate composition of muscle tissue, lipid concentration in hepatopancreas and expression of genes related to digestion, amino acid metabolism and antioxidant defenses in different tissues of shrimp were evaluated. The results showed that the supplementation of the feed with strain E did not affect the zootechnical performance of the shrimp, but it increased the lipid concentration in the muscle and hepatopancreas. Furthermore, genes related to digestion and amino acid metabolism were strongly reduced, indicating that feed supplementation with the strain E of *B. subtilis* may improve the absorption of nutrients from the feed and minimize the toxic effects of the nitrogen compounds present in the rearing water.

Keywords: Probiotic bacteria, shrimp farming, digestion, immune system, antioxidant defenses.

1

2 1. INTRODUCTION

3 Shrimp farming is one of the sectors with the highest economic value within
4 aquaculture activities, with the Pacific white shrimp (*Litopenaeus vannamei*) being the most
5 commercially produced crustacean (FAO, 2020). This shrimp has been widely farmed due to
6 its ability to tolerate different environmental conditions. It also has a good growth rate and
7 can easily adapt to commercial feeds. However, the search for increased productivity has led
8 to inadequate management practices, especially about the high densities of shrimp that can be
9 difficult to support if the system is not adequate. Thus, diseases caused by viruses and
10 bacteria on shrimp farms have become increasingly prominent (Shen et al., 2010). Viral
11 diseases such as White Spot Syndrome (WSS) can cause catastrophic losses on farms in a few
12 days (Wen et al., 2014), as well as bacterial diseases caused by *Vibrio* species can cause
13 equally harmful impacts on shrimp production by causing high mortality rates (Zokaeifar et
14 al., 2012a). Additionally, nutrition is also a factor that needs to be considered, since feed has
15 been reported as the most important component of the production cost of shrimp farms in
16 several countries (Karim et al., 2014; Nisar et al., 2021; Penda et al., 2013; Shang et al.,
17 1998). Fishmeal, the main source of protein in commercial feed, has become a scarce and
18 expensive ingredient. Alternative protein sources such as plant matter have showed negative
19 effects on fish nutrition due to the presence of anti-nutritional compounds (Azeredo et al.,
20 2017; Estruch et al., 2018). One of the possibilities to increase the efficiency in the
21 digestibility of commercial feed is to use probiotic bacteria that can produce and secrete
22 digestive enzymes.

23 There are numerous bacterial species that can be considered as probiotics. Among
24 these, some *Bacillus* species have gained special attention due to their high antagonistic
25 activity to pathogens, production and availability of extracellular enzymes such as amylases,
26 cellulases, lipases and proteases, and ability to withstand high temperatures (Yu et al., 2009;
27 Banerjee and Ray, 2017). *Bacillus subtilis* is a Gram-positive, non-pathogenic, spore-forming
28 bacterium widely used for oral bacterial therapy, prophylaxis of gastrointestinal disorders, and
29 for its capacity to improved water quality and increased animal survival in aquaculture (Shen
30 et al., 2010; Lee et al., 2017). Although *B. subtilis* is a probiotic widely recognized for its
31 presence in the gastrointestinal tract of animals, this bacterium can be found in the most
32 diverse environments (terrestrial or aquatic) due to the presence of strain-specific genes that
33 enhance its adaptability (Earl et al., 2008). Thus, the objective of the present work was to

1 isolate *B. subtilis* strains adapted to the gastrointestinal tract of *L. vannamei*, carry out the
2 probiotic characterization of the isolated strains and evaluate their effects when added to the
3 feed regarding zootechnical performance, the proximate composition of muscle, lipid
4 accumulation in hepatopancreas, and expression of genes related to digestion, amino acid
5 metabolism and antioxidant defenses of Pacific white shrimp.

6 7 **2. MATERIAL AND METHODS**

8 9 2.1. Isolation of bacteria from the gastrointestinal tract of shrimp

10 Shrimps of approximately 7 g (n = 30) were kept in 150 L tanks at an average
11 temperature of 29 °C, salinity of 30 g.L⁻¹, alkalinity of 150 mg.L⁻¹ of CaCO₃ and total
12 suspended solids of an average of 500 mg.L⁻¹. Before removing the intestines, the shrimp
13 were fasted for two days to clean the gastrointestinal tract. To remove the intestines, the
14 shrimps were finished by hypothermia, sterilized in formaldehyde (50 mg.L⁻¹) for five
15 minutes to remove external bacteria and washed with sterile water for one minute to remove
16 the disinfectant (Boonthai et al., 2011). Intestines from four shrimp were pooled to form a
17 sample. In total, four samples were obtained, which were macerated in 0.9 % NaCl.
18 Afterwards, the samples were diluted (1:10; v/v) in 0.9 % NaCl for plating (in duplicate) on
19 LB solid medium (Luria-Bertani). After incubation for 16 h at 35 °C, bacterial colonies were
20 characterized by morphology, and the most frequent morphotypes were isolated for further
21 identification by molecular taxonomy and probiotic characterization.

22 23 2.2. Molecular identification

24 For molecular identification of bacterial colonies isolated from the gastrointestinal
25 tract of shrimp, the gene encoding ribonuclease III (*rnc*) was used, which is considered an
26 essential gene for *B. subtilis* (Herskowitz and Bechhofer, 2000). Although *rnc* is not a gene
27 conventionally used in molecular taxonomy, Condon and Putzer (2002) performed a
28 phylogenetic analysis of several bacterial ribonucleases and concluded that *rnc* is among the
29 most conserved genes in the Eubacteria Kingdom. A previous analysis using the BLAST tool
30 from GenBank (<https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi>) showed that, although conserved, this
31 gene has variable regions that even allow the taxonomic differentiation of *Bacillus* species
32 (data not shown).

1 DNA from strains of different morphotypes was extracted by heating, in which
 2 bacterial cells were collected from each colony, diluted in 10 μ L of ultrapure water and
 3 incubated for five minutes at 95 °C. After a brief centrifugation, 1 μ L of the supernatant was
 4 directly used in a polymerase chain reaction (PCR) to amplify the *rnc* gene, using degenerate
 5 primers designed for *Bacillus* species (Table 1). For all PCR reactions, Platinum Taq DNA
 6 Polymerase (Invitrogen, Brazil) was used, according to the manufacturer's instructions. The
 7 thermocycler was programmed for an initial denaturation at 94 °C for 2 min, followed by 35
 8 cycles of 94 °C for 30 s (denaturation), 60 °C for 30 s (annealing) and 72 °C for 60 s
 9 (extension), with a final extension at 72 °C for 5 min. All PCR products were analyzed in 1 %
 10 agarose gel electrophoresis. The amplified fragments were purified using the Quick PCR
 11 Purification Kit (Invitrogen, Brazil) and sequenced. The sequences obtained were submitted
 12 to GenBank's BLAST tool to obtain the gene identity indexes.

13

14 **Table 1.** Degenerate primers used in PCR reactions to amplify the *rnc* gene from *Bacillus*
 15 species.

Primer	Sequences (5'-3')	Amplicon (nt) ⁶	
RNC3-F1	tgwwtcaagcatttacrcattcack	573	17
RNC3-R	attcwcgrttgtgvgcwggkcct		18
			19
RNC3-F2	tcacktatgtgaatgagcatcgraa	548	20
RNC3-R	attcwcgrttgtgvgcwggkcct		21
			22
RNC3-F3	yccgrewatgagygaaggagakt	414	23
RNC3-R	attcwcgrttgtgvgcwggkcct		24

25

26 2.3. Phenotypic characterization of isolated strains

27 To analyze the phenotypic characteristics, the strains were first cultivated in Tryptone
 28 Soy Broth (TSB) for 16 h at 35 °C. Then, the Gram stain technique was used for
 29 morphological and structural characterization of the bacterial cell wall, classifying bacteria as
 30 Gram-positive or Gram-negative, based on their response to dyes (Tortora et al., 2012).

31 For analysis of exopolysaccharide (EPS) production, the congo red test was used. For
 32 this, the strains were cultivated in solid medium containing 0.8 g of congo red dye for 1 L of
 33 Agar Brain Heart Infusion (BHI), with the addition of 36 g of sucrose. The plate was

1 incubated for a period of 24 h at a temperature of 35 °C and for 48 h at room temperature,
2 following the methodology adapted from Freeman et al. (1989). EPS production is observed
3 when the inoculum turns black on the Congo Red Agar plate.

4 To test the ability to adhere, the strain was inoculated in TSB medium and kept at a
5 temperature of 35 °C for two days. After the first incubation period, 200 µL of the culture was
6 applied in triplicate in sterile polystyrene microplates containing 96 wells in a “u” shape and
7 incubated again at 35 °C for two days, without shaking. The inocula were then removed and
8 the wells washed with sterile distilled water three times and kept in an oven at 60 °C for one
9 hour. After drying, 200 µL of 1 % crystal violet solution was aliquoted into each well and
10 incubated for one minute, followed by three more washes with distilled water and drying at
11 room temperature, according to the methodology adapted from Christensen et al. (1985).
12 Positive adhesion on polystyrene microplates is observed by the formation of aggregates and
13 purple coloration in the wells after drying.

14 The bacterial isolate was submitted for screening for extracellular enzymes with
15 potential relevance in digestive processes or virulence factors. Tests were carried out in
16 accordance with established procedures in the literature and inoculated in specific media:
17 caseinase (milk Agar), gelatinase (Tryptone Soy Agar -TSA medium, supplemented with 0.5
18 % gelatin) and amylase (Nutrient Agar supplemented with 0.1 % soluble starch) (Rodrigues et
19 al., 1993); cellulase (Carboxymethylcellulose Agar-CMC) (Teather and Wood, 1982).

20 To test the hemolytic activity, the isolated strains were inoculated into a Shrimp
21 Hemolymph Agar medium, composed of 1 mL of *L. vannamei* shrimp hemolymph containing
22 200 ppm of Rose Bengal, following the methodology proposed by Chang et al. (2000). The
23 hemolytic zone can be seen by the formation of a halo around the inoculum. As a positive
24 control for hemolytic activity, the pathogen *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* IOC 18950 was used.

25 To assess the response to different antibiotics, the bacterial strain was grown in TSA
26 medium, incubated at 35 °C for 24 h and adjusted to 0.5 McFarland scale in 1 % saline
27 solution using a spectrophotometer, with wavelength reading of 625 nm. One unit on this
28 scale corresponds approximately to a homogeneous suspension of *E. coli* of 1.5×10^8 cells per
29 mL. Afterwards, the strain was plated on Muller Hinton Agar (MH) using a sterile swab and
30 commercial discs containing the antibiotics nalidixic acid (30 µg), chloramphenicol (30 µg),
31 florfenicol (30 µg) and oxytetracycline (30 µg) were placed on top of the inoculum. The plate
32 was incubated for 24 h at 35 °C and the diameter of the inhibition halo around the discs was
33 measured with a digital caliper. The results were analyzed according to resistance, moderate

1 susceptibility or strain susceptibility to antibiotics, according to the methodology proposed by
2 Charteris et al. (1998).

3 The selected strains were also tested for tolerance to variations in temperature, pH and
4 salinity. As for temperature, the isolated strains were cultivated in LB medium and incubated
5 at 4 °C or 40 °C for a period of up to two days. Tolerance to different temperatures was
6 observed by the capacity of bacterial strains to grow, demonstrated by the turbidity of the
7 medium, according to the protocol adapted from Cai et al. (1999). As for pH, the strains were
8 grown in LB medium adjusted to different pHs (5.0 and 9.0) and incubated for up to two days
9 at 35 °C. Tolerance to different pH ranges was observed by bacterial growth, evidenced by
10 the turbidity of the medium (Cai et al., 1999). For the salinity test, the strains were grown in
11 LB medium adjusted for different salinities (0, 30 and 80 g.L⁻¹), and incubated at 35 °C for up
12 to two days. The growth in face of different salinity rates was observed by the turbidity of the
13 culture medium.

14 The antagonism test against the pathogens *Vibrio harveyi* ATCC 14126 and *V.*
15 *parahaemolyticus* IOC 18950 was performed using the crossed streak methodology, adapted
16 from Williston et al. (1947). *Vibrio* strains are inoculated in the central streak, while the
17 bacterial strain tested is plated perpendicular to the central streak, with a one-centimeter
18 distance. After incubation for 24 hours at 35 °C, it is evaluated whether there is a positive
19 antagonism (with inhibition of the growth of the central streak) or negative antagonism (with
20 the meeting of the perpendicular streak with the central).

21

22 2.4. Feed supplementation with the strain of *B. subtilis* isolated from the gastrointestinal tract
23 of *L. vannamei*

24 For the supplementation of *L. vannamei* feed, the strain of *B. subtilis* with the best
25 probiotic potential isolated from the gastrointestinal tract of shrimp was chosen. As a control
26 strain, *B. subtilis* KM0 (Altenbuchner, 2016) was used. This strain is derived from the *B.*
27 *subtilis* 168 strain, widely recognized for its probiotic potential. To prepare the diet containing
28 the probiotics, cultures (3 mL) of the probiotic strains were added to erlenmeyers (125 mL)
29 containing 50 mL of minimal salts medium (Anagnostopoulos and Spizizen, 1960) used in the
30 protocols for the transformation of *B. subtilis*, with addition of glucose and casein hydrolyzate
31 as suggested by Riet et al. (2021). Probiotics were grown overnight at 35 °C with orbital
32 shaking at 250 rpm. After cultivation, the strains were standardized to an optical density
33 (OD₆₀₀) of 1.6. Then, the cultures were centrifuged at 5,000 × g for 10 min at 4 °C. After

1 centrifugation, the supernatant was discarded and 2 mL of saline solution (NaCl 0.9 %) was
2 added to wash the pellet, repeating this process twice (adapted from Zokaiefar et al., 2012b).
3 Then, the pellets were diluted in saline solution so that each gram of feed received 10^{10}
4 colony forming units (CFU) of probiotics.

6 2.5. Experiment with *L. vannamei*

7 Shrimp juveniles were obtained from Aquatec (Rio Grande do Norte, Brazil) and the
8 experiment performed in the Marine Station of Aquaculture from the Federal University of
9 Rio Grande (FURG, Brazil). Shrimps with an average weight of 0.63 ± 0.09 g were stored in
10 tanks with a useful volume of 150 L at a stocking density of 266 shrimps/m³. The entire
11 experiment was carried out in clear water where the animals were acclimated before starting
12 the experiment, without any addition of commercial probiotics. The physical and chemical
13 parameters of the water were evaluated daily. The temperature was maintained at 26 °C
14 throughout the experimental period. Salinity and dissolved oxygen were maintained at 30 g.L⁻¹
15 and 6 ± 0.5 mg.L⁻¹, respectively. Aeration was constantly supplied to each tank through a
16 porous stone using an air blower. In addition, a daily water change (35 %) was performed in
17 order to keep the levels of nitrogen compounds below the minimum levels of tolerance of
18 shrimp.

19 The experimental design consisted of three treatments (carried out in quadruplicate).
20 The experimental groups were divided into control, which received only commercial feed
21 moistened with a 0.9 % NaCl solution (Feed), treatment with the *B. subtilis* KM0 strain
22 (Feed+KM0) and the group with the isolated shrimp strain (hereinafter referred to as strain E)
23 (Feed+E). Shrimps were fed twice a day with a commercial 38 % crude protein diet (Guabi,
24 Brazil) for 45 days at a rate of 10 % of the estimated biomass at the beginning and reduced to
25 5 % at the end of the experiment.

26 The following formulas were used to calculate the zootechnical performance of the
27 shrimp:

28 - Weight gain (g) = Pf – Pi, where Pf = final weight and Pi = initial weight;

29 - Biomass gain = (Average Pf x number of individuals at the end) - (Average Pi x initial
30 number of individuals);

31 - Feed conversion ratio = feed intake/biomass gain;

32 - Survival (%) = (final shrimp population × 100)/initial population.

33

1 2.6. Tissue collection

2 At the end of the 45-day period, five shrimp were randomly removed from each tank,
3 euthanized and stored at -20 °C to analyze the proximate composition from muscle tissue. In
4 addition, shrimp from each treatment were separated for tissue collection for gene expression
5 analysis. The hepatopancreas and muscle of four shrimps per replica (sixteen per treatment)
6 were dissected and placed individually in 500 µL of Trizol Reagent (Invitrogen, Brazil),
7 according to the manufacturer's protocol. Whole shrimps were also separated for histological
8 analysis.

9

10 2.7. Proximate composition analysis

11 Muscle from five shrimps from each treatment was used for proximate composition
12 analysis. The analysis of the moisture content was made by drying the samples in an oven at
13 100 °C until constant weight. Protein content was determined by the Kjeldahl method and the
14 total ether extract according to the Soxhlet method (AOAC, 2000). Ashes were obtained by
15 incineration in a muffle for 6 h at 600 °C. Phosphorus analyzes were performed according to
16 Silva and Queiroz (2002).

17

18 2.8. Gene expression analysis

19 RNA extraction was performed with Trizol Reagent (Invitrogen, Brazil) in the
20 proportion of 100 mg of tissue for each 1 mL of reagent. The extracted RNA was treated with
21 DNase I (Invitrogen, Brazil) and the concentration was determined spectrophotometrically
22 and the quality was determined by 1 % agarose gel electrophoresis. For cDNA synthesis, the
23 High Capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription kit (Applied Biosystems, Brazil) was used. Gene
24 expression levels were determined by quantitative PCR (qPCR), according to Livak and
25 Schmittgen (2001), with n = 8. Seven genes were analyzed in the hepatopancreas, of which
26 five are related to digestion (amylase, *amy*; lipase, *lip*; trypsin, *tryp*; cathepsin B, *cathB*;
27 chymotrypsin, *chymo*) (Duan et al., 2018; Flores-Miranda et al., 2015), and two related to
28 amino acid metabolism (glutamine synthetase, *gs*; glutamate dehydrogenase, *gdh*) (Lage et
29 al., 2018). In muscle, two genes related to the antioxidant defense system were analyzed
30 (glutathione peroxidase, *gpx*; superoxide dismutase, *sod*) (Sharawy et al., 2020). All primers
31 used in qPCRs are described in Table 2. Prior to gene expression analysis, the efficiency of
32 the primers in serial dilutions was performed. The chosen cDNA dilution was 1:10 and the
33 efficiency and expression reactions were performed with the PowerUP SYBR Green Master

1 Mix kit (Applied Biosystems, Brazil), following the programming of 50 °C for 2 min, 95 °C
 2 for 2 min, followed by 40 cycles of 95 °C for 15 s and 60 °C for 15 min. The *40S-s24*, *ef1a*
 3 and *60S-121* reference genes were used for the normalization of gene expression data. To
 4 determine the stability of the reference genes, the software geNorm VBA applet for Microsoft
 5 Excel (Vandesompele et al., 2002) was used. All reactions were performed in QuantStudio 3
 6 Real-Time PCR (Applied Biosystems, Brazil).

7

8 **Table 2.** Analyzed genes and primers used in qPCR reactions.

Gene	Sense (5'-3')	Antisense (5'-3')	Amplicon (nt)	GenBank
<i>amy</i>	ctctgtagtgctgttgct	tgtcttactgtggactggaag	116	AJ133526
<i>lip</i>	actgtctcctctgctctc	atggtttctggaataggtgttt	131	XM027365317
<i>tryp</i>	cggagagctgcctaccag	tgggggttctcatgtcctc	141	X86369
<i>chymo</i>	ggctctctcatcgacg	cgtgagtgaagaagtcgg	182	XM037943862
<i>cathB</i>	ggatgtaacggaggcttc	ctgtatgctttgcctcca	248	XM027359505
<i>gdh</i>	aggttgaggaggaccagttg	ccgtggatcatctcgtaggt	166	EU496492
<i>gs</i>	ttccgtctcctgaaataccg	aggagccttgggaatgaagt	193	JN620540
<i>gpx</i>	agggactccaccagatg	caacaactccccttcggtg	117	AY973252
<i>sod</i>	tggagtgaaaggctctggct	acggaggttctgtactgaaggt	175	DQ005531
<i>40S-s24</i>	caggccgatcaactgtcc	caatgagagcttgctttcc	204	XM027373709
<i>60S-121</i>	gttgacttgaagggaatg	cttcttgcttgcattctg	246	XM027359925
<i>ef1a</i>	ccaccctggccagattca	gcgaactgcaggcaatg	75	DQ858921

9

10 2.9. Histological analysis

11 Whole shrimps were injected with Davidson's solution (11.5 % acetic acid, 22 %
 12 formalin, 33 % ethanol) and kept in this condition for 48 hours. After this period,
 13 hepatopancreas were dissected and transferred to a container containing 70% ethanol. After
 14 successive dehydrations in increasing concentrations of ethanol, hepatopancreas were
 15 clarified in xylene and embedded in Paraplast at 60 °C. The embedded hepatopancreas were
 16 sectioned into 3 µm thick slices. Histological sections were stained with Hematoxylin and
 17 Eosin (Bell and Lightner, 1988) to count lipid storage cells. Lipid vacuoles were observed and
 18 counted using a compound microscope at 40× magnification.

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2.10. Statistical analysis

To test for possible differences between treatments, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used. Normality and heterogeneity were assessed using the Shapiro-Wilk and Levene tests, respectively. For each case, when significance was detected among treatments, a later comparison of means was performed using Tukey's test. All numerical data were expressed as mean \pm standard error. Differences were considered statistically significant when $p < 0.05$.

3. RESULTS

3.1. Isolation and identification of bacterial strains from the gastrointestinal tract of *L. vannamei*

Four strains characterized as Gram-positive were isolated from the gastrointestinal tract of shrimp. The PCR products for the *rnc* gene of these four strains were sequenced and the amplicon obtained from strain E showed 100 % identity with the *B. subtilis rnc* gene sequence available in GenBank (data not shown). Strain E was chosen for the other experiments because it belongs to a species recognized by the GRAS (Generally Recognized as Safe) list of the North American FDA (US Food & Drug Administration; <https://www.fda.gov/food/food-ingredients-packaging/generally-recognized-safe-gras>).

3.2. Phenotypic characterization of the strain E of *B. subtilis*

Strain E showed positive adherence to the polystyrene microplate but was not able to produce exopolysaccharides (EPS). As for the enzymatic activity, strain E was not able to produce gelatinase and cellulase, but activity was detected for caseinase and amylase. Also, strain E did not show β -hemolysis activity. Stress resistance tests showed that strain E can grow at 40 °C, but not at 4 °C. As for pH, strain E grows at pH 9, but does not grow at pH 5. Regarding salinity, strain E was able to grow in all tested salinities (0, 30 and 80 g.L⁻¹). The antibiogram showed that strain E is sensitive to the antibiotics tested (nalidixic acid, chloramphenicol, florfenicol and oxytetracycline). The pathogen antagonism test showed that strain E presents positive antagonism to both *V. harveyi* and *V. parahaemolyticus* (Figure 1).

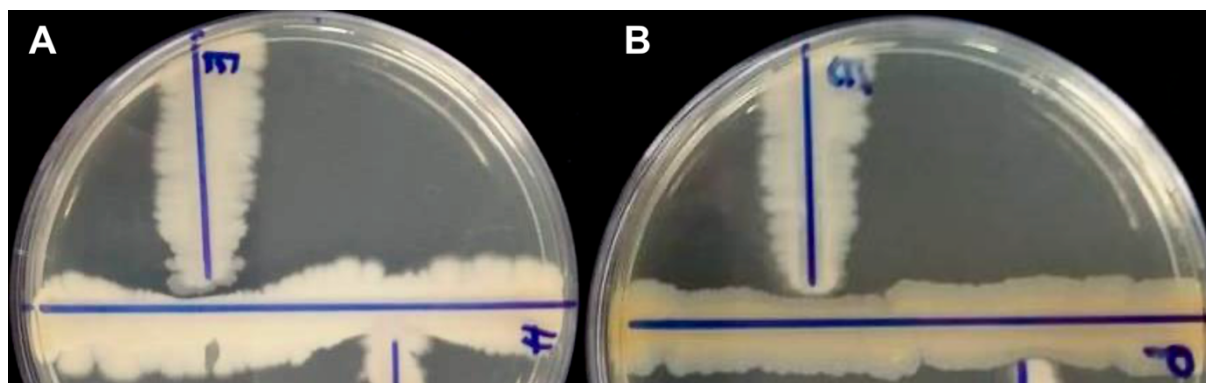


Figure 1. Antagonism test of *Bacillus subtilis* strain E (vertical streak) to *Vibrio harveyi* (horizontal streak in A) and *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* (horizontal streak in B).

3.3. Zootechnical performance and proximate composition of muscle tissue

The results of the zootechnical performance are shown in Table 3. There were no significant differences among the experimental groups for all analyzed variables ($p > 0.05$).

Table 3. Zootechnical performance of *Litopenaeus vannamei* fed with commercial feed or commercial feed supplemented with different *Bacillus subtilis* strains.

	Feed	Feed+KM0	Feed+E
Initial weight (g)	0.61 ± 0.06	0.62 ± 0.05	0.66 ± 0.14
Final weight (g)	5.44 ± 0.49	5.09 ± 0.45	4.90 ± 0.53
Weight gain (g)	4.84 ± 0.49	4.47 ± 0.42	4.27 ± 0.66
Feed conversion ratio	1.39 ± 0.13	1.50 ± 0.15	1.60 ± 0.24
Survival	100 %	100 %	100 %

As shown in Table 4, no significant differences were detected among the experimental groups regarding body moisture, crude protein, ash and phosphorus ($p > 0.05$). However, shrimp fed the diet supplemented with E strain had significantly higher lipid content compared to shrimp fed the diet supplemented with the KM0 strain ($p < 0.05$).

Table 4. Proximate composition of *Litopenaeus vannamei* muscle fed with commercial feed or commercial feed supplemented with different *Bacillus subtilis* strains.

	Feed	Feed+KM0	Feed+E
Moisture	74.56 ± 0.63	73.97 ± 0.22	74.77 ± 0.82
Ash	1.63 ± 0.27	1.53 ± 0.23	1.54 ± 0.39
Protein	18.97 ± 1.74	19.26 ± 0.44	18.86 ± 0.87
Lipid	0.75 ± 0.65 ^{ab}	0.47 ± 0.43 ^b	1.22 ± 1.56 ^a
Phosphorus	79.24 ± 9.03	98 ± 1.41	102.86 ± 5.79

Different letters represent statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$).

3.4. Relative expression of genes related to digestion

The relative expression of *cathB*, *chymo*, *tryp*, *lip* and *amy* genes is shown in Figure 2. Only *amy* was not altered with the addition of *B. subtilis* strains to the diet. The *chymo*, *tryp* and *lip* genes had their expression significantly reduced ($p < 0.05$) in both Feed+KM0 and Feed+E treatments. The *cathB* gene had its expression reduced only in the Feed+E treatment ($p < 0.05$) in comparison with Feed+KM0 treatment.

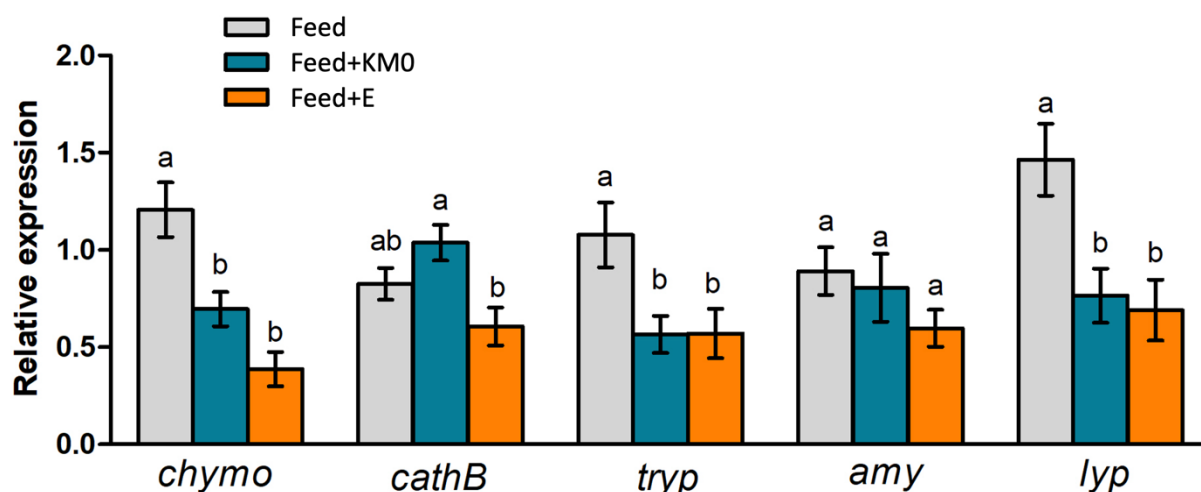
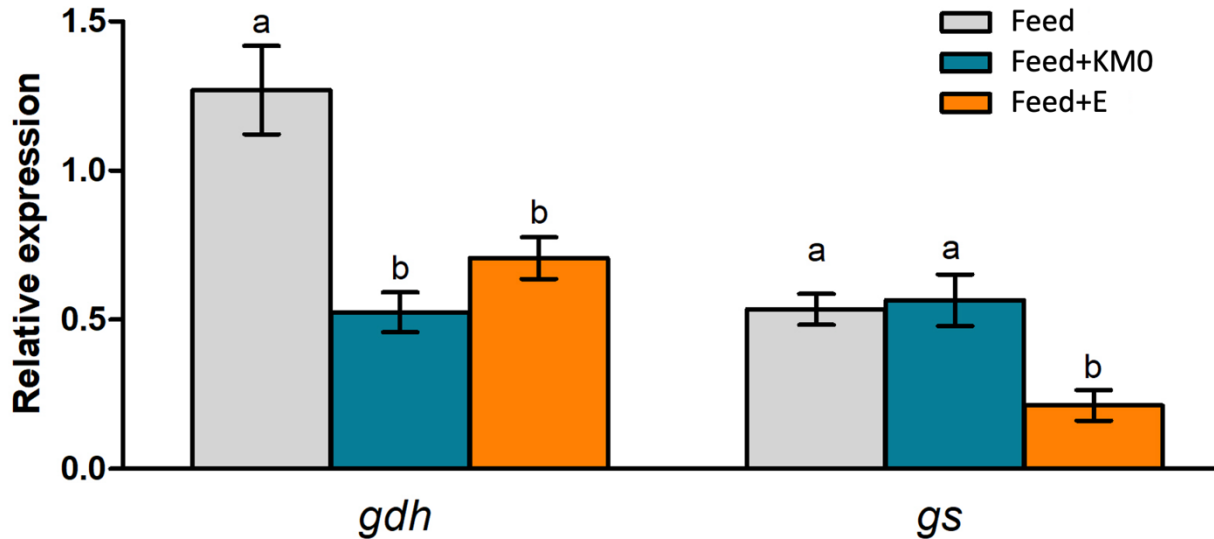


Figure 2. Relative expression of genes related to digestion in *Litopenaeus vannamei* hepatopancreas fed diets supplemented with different strains of *Bacillus subtilis*. Feed: shrimp fed only commercial feed; Feed+KM0: shrimp fed commercial feed with *B. subtilis* KM0; Feed+E: shrimp fed commercial feed with *B. subtilis* strain E. One-way ANOVA was used for each gene separately. Different letters represent statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$).

3.5. Relative expression of genes related to amino acid metabolism

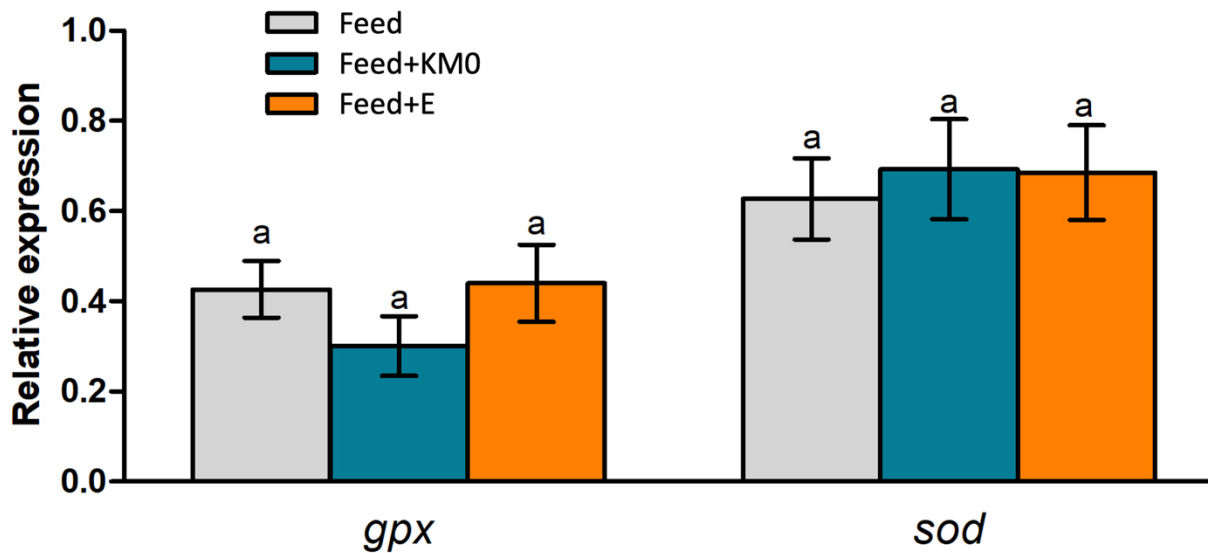
1 The expression of *gs* and *gdh* are shown in Figure 3. The *gdh* gene had its expression
 2 reduced in both treatments with *B. subtilis* strains ($p < 0.05$), while *gs* was reduced only in the
 3 Feed+E treatment ($p < 0.05$).



5
 6 **Figure 3.** Relative expression of genes related to amino acid metabolism in *Litopenaeus*
 7 *vannamei* hepatopancreas fed diets supplemented with different strains of *Bacillus subtilis*.
 8 Feed: shrimp fed only commercial feed; Feed+KM0: shrimp fed commercial feed with *B.*
 9 *subtilis* KM0; Feed+E: shrimp fed commercial feed with *B. subtilis* strain E. One-way
 10 ANOVA was used for each gene separately. Different letters represent statistically significant
 11 differences ($p < 0.05$).

12 3.6. Relative expression of genes related to antioxidant defenses

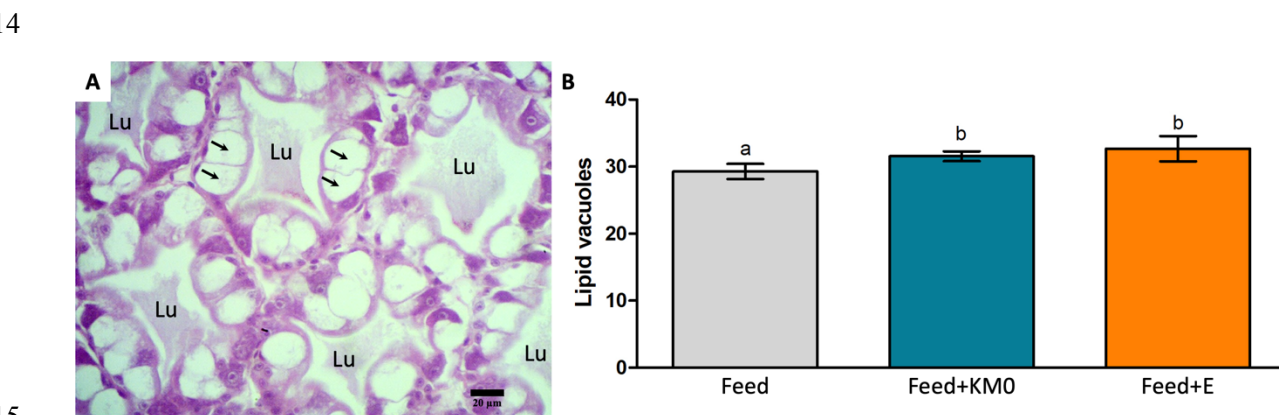
13 The expression of *gpx* and *sod* are shown in Figure 4. The treatments with the strains
 14 of *B. subtilis* did not produce alterations in the two analyzed genes ($p > 0.05$).



1
 2 **Figure 4.** Relative expression of genes related to antioxidant defenses in *Litopenaeus*
 3 *vannamei* muscle fed diets supplemented with different strains of *Bacillus subtilis*. Feed:
 4 shrimp fed only commercial feed; Feed+KM0: shrimp fed commercial feed with *B. subtilis*
 5 KM0; Feed+E: shrimp fed commercial feed with *B. subtilis* strain E. One-way ANOVA was
 6 used for each gene separately. Equal letters represent the absence of statistical differences (p
 7 > 0.05).

8
 9 3.7. Histology of the hepatopancreas

10 The result of lipid vacuole counts in shrimp hepatopancreas is shown in Figure 5.
 11 Shrimp fed with diet supplemented with both *B. subtilis* KM0 and *B. subtilis* strain E had a
 12 higher number of lipid vacuoles (31.55 ± 0.74 and 32.68 ± 1.89 , respectively) compared to the
 13 control treatment (Feed; 29.28 ± 1.13).



15
 16 **Figure 5.** Histological analysis of *Litopenaeus vannamei* hepatopancreas. A) Illustrative
 17 photo of the histological sections of shrimp hepatopancreas (40 \times magnification). Lu: lumen of
 18 the hepatopancreatic tubules; arrows indicate some examples of lipid vacuoles; B) Graphic

1 representation of lipid vacuole counts. Feed: shrimp fed only commercial feed; Feed+KM0:
2 shrimp fed commercial feed with *Bacillus subtilis* KM0; Feed+E: shrimp fed commercial feed
3 with *B. subtilis* strain E. Data are expressed as mean \pm standard error from four independent
4 replicates. Different letters represent statistically significant differences (One way ANOVA; p
5 < 0.05).

6

7 **4. DISCUSSION**

8 In the first stage of this study, a bacterial strain with probiotic potential was isolated
9 from the gastrointestinal tract of shrimp *L. vannamei*. This strain, called strain E, was
10 molecularly identified as a strain of *B. subtilis*, a species recognized as GRAS by the US
11 FDA. Considering that probiotic bacteria tend to adapt to specific environments due to the
12 presence of genes related to adaptability, it can be concluded that probiotics applied in shrimp
13 farming isolated from shrimp itself can have a greater impact on the benefits already known
14 to be produced by such bacteria. In fact, the isolation of probiotics from shrimp has been
15 shown to be a valid practice for shrimp farming, enhancing the control or inhibition of
16 pathogenic bacteria, zootechnical performance, digestive enzyme activity and host immune
17 responses against pathogens or physical stress (Li et al., 2021; Kim et al., 2020; Wang et al.,
18 2020; Zuo et al., 2019).

19 Strain E was phenotypically characterized in terms of its probiotic potential. First, it is
20 necessary to assess the presence of certain virulence factors in candidate probiotic strains.
21 One of these is gelatinase activity. This enzyme is an extracellular endopeptidase that
22 promotes the hydrolysis of bioactive compounds such as gelatin, collagen and hemoglobin,
23 being considered a harmful enzymatic activity in strains intended for use in aquaculture
24 (Muñoz-Atienza et al. 2013). Strain E did not show gelatinase activity, which is a positive
25 characteristic of this strain. Another important virulence factor is the β -hemolysis activity,
26 which makes iron available to the microorganism and can cause anemia and edema in the case
27 of a vertebrate host (Vesterlund et al., 2007). Strain E also did not show β -hemolysis activity,
28 which is another positive factor to be considered. In addition to the virulence factors that need
29 to be absent, the probiotic strain must also have additional characteristics, such as the
30 expression of extracellular enzymes and adhesion to surfaces. The presence of enzymes such
31 as caseinase and amylase, for example, is a positive factor for probiotic candidates, as it
32 makes nutrients bioavailable, aiding in the digestive processes of the hosts (Banerjee and Ray,

1 2017). Strain E showed both caseinase and amylase activity, making it a candidate for a
2 probiotic that can help in the digestive processes of shrimp.

3 Although strain E does not produce exopolysaccharides (EPS), it was able to adhere to
4 the polystyrene plate. Adhesiveness is an important feature in probiotic candidates, as it is
5 well established that bacteria capable of colonizing the surface of the intestinal mucosa are
6 more crucial in maintaining nutrition, physiology and animal immunity than are free-living
7 bacteria (Banerjee and Ray, 2017). Bacterial adhesion can occur non-specifically, when based
8 on physicochemical factors, or specifically, involving adhesin molecules on the surface of
9 adherent bacteria and receptor molecules on epithelial cells (Salminen et al., 1996).
10 Furthermore, the adherence to the intestinal tract of hosts by probiotic bacteria creates a
11 competitive exclusion, preventing the establishment of pathogenic bacteria and reducing their
12 harmful effects (Vieira and Pereira, 2016).

13 The stability of bacterial strains is an important factor for survival in a culture
14 environment and for colonizing the host's gastrointestinal tract. *Bacillus* species are known to
15 withstand high temperatures and drying processes, which makes them widely used as
16 probiotics in shrimp feed (Yu et al., 2009). Stress tolerance tests showed that strain E can
17 grow at high temperature (40 °C), as well as at basic pH and in a wide range of salinity (from
18 0 to 80 g.L⁻¹). Additionally, this strain was sensitive to different antibiotics, which
19 demonstrates the absence of resistance genes. This feature is important because it reduces the
20 possibility of the occurrence of horizontal transfer of genes related to antimicrobial resistance
21 to other microorganisms present in the environment. Also, strain E showed positive
22 antagonism against *V. harveyi* and *V. parahaemolyticus*. *Vibrio* species are widely distributed
23 in marine and estuarine environments and can act as agents of food-borne diseases, impacting
24 public health (Silveira et al., 2016). In aquaculture, *V. harveyi* and *V. parahaemolyticus* have
25 been considered as opportunistic pathogens, which can affect a range of marine species,
26 causing high mortality in crops and may even affect the health of consumers (Cheng et al.,
27 2010; Zokaeifar et al., 2012a; Silveira et al., 2016). Hostins et al. (2017) showed that the
28 addition to water of a mixture of commercial probiotics containing *Bacillus* species decreased
29 the abundance of *Vibrio* sp. in the gastrointestinal tract of *L. vannamei* raised in biofloc (BFT)
30 or clear water. Thus, strain E can be considered an alternative tool for combating and
31 preventing vibriosis that commonly affect shrimp farms.

32 In the second stage of this study, an experiment was carried out with *L. vannamei*,
33 where parameters such as proximate composition of muscle tissue, zootechnical performance,

1 lipid accumulation in hepatopancreas and expression of genes related to digestion and
2 antioxidant defenses were evaluated. The experiment evaluated three experimental groups for
3 45 days. The first group of shrimps was fed only commercial feed. The second group was fed
4 a commercial feed supplemented with the KM0 strain, originated from *B. subtilis* 168 and
5 considered as a positive control. The third group was fed with feed supplemented with strain
6 E. After 45 days, no difference was observed between the experimental groups in terms of
7 zootechnical performance. Thus, it can be inferred that strain E does not affect shrimp growth
8 as strain KM0, already recognized for its probiotic potential.

9 The analysis of the proximate composition of the muscular tissue of the shrimps in
10 group E showed a significant increase of 2.6 times in the amount of lipids, when compared to
11 the KM0 group. Likewise, the count of lipid vacuoles in the hepatopancreas showed that both
12 strains of *B. subtilis* used in the present study increased the concentration of lipids in that
13 tissue. Although, in the present study, a test of lipolytic activity of strain E was not performed,
14 it is known that *B. subtilis* secretes two types of lipases (*lipA* and *lipB*), whose genes are
15 differentially expressed depending on the growth conditions (Eggert et al., 2003). The
16 observation that shrimp fed the diet supplemented with E strain is favoring the concentration
17 of lipids in both muscle and hepatopancreas may be an interesting feature from a commercial
18 point of view, since shrimps have been considered an important source of functional lipids,
19 especially phospholipids (Sun et al., 2020). Interestingly, Tsai et al. (2019) reported that
20 *Bacillus subtilis* E20 increased apparent digestibility coefficients of *L. vannamei*, showing
21 that supplementation with the probiotic enhanced the absorption of nutrients with consequent
22 increase in growth performance. However, the authors did not observe an increase in the
23 concentration of lipids in the shrimp tissues. This observation shows that each probiotic strain
24 can generate specific effects on its hosts.

25 To evaluate the response of the shrimp to the addition of *B. subtilis* strains in the diet,
26 the expression of genes related to digestion, amino acid metabolism, and antioxidant defenses
27 were quantified. Relative expression of genes related to antioxidant defenses (*gpx* and *sod*)
28 were not altered by treatments with probiotics. However, the digestion-related genes showed
29 an almost homogeneous expression pattern of decreased transcriptional activity. Except for
30 *amy*, which was not altered by the treatments, all the others had their expression reduced with
31 the addition of probiotics in the shrimp diet. The *chymo*, *tryp* and *lip* genes were significantly
32 downregulated in both probiotic treatments. As previously mentioned, *Bacillus* species are
33 capable of producing and secreting lipases. Likewise, these bacteria can also secrete high

1 amounts of proteolytic enzymes. According to Contesini et al. (2018), bacteria of the genus
2 *Bacillus* are among those that most produce and secrete proteases with outstanding properties
3 such as high stability in adverse environmental conditions such as extremes of temperature
4 and pH, being resistant to the presence of organic solvents, detergents, and oxidizing agents.
5 In a scenario where probiotic bacteria produce and secrete significant amounts of proteases
6 and lipases, it is expected that the host intestine will decrease the production and secretion of
7 such enzymes, starting with a decrease in the transcription rate of endogenous related genes.
8 An interesting difference between the strain KM0 and the strain E was observed in the
9 expression of the *cathB* gene, which encodes Cathepsin B. This cysteine protease was first
10 identified in *L. vannamei* by Stephens et al. (2012). It is an enzyme that participates not only
11 in the intracellular hydrolysis of proteins, but also in the extracellular hydrolysis of proteins
12 soon after food ingestion, increasing the capacity of amino acid absorption by the intestine.
13 The fact that the *cathB* gene was significantly reduced in shrimp treated with strain E in
14 relation to strain KM0 indicates an interesting difference between the two probiotic strains.
15 Although there is a lot of information about the production of proteases in *Bacillus* species,
16 the opposite occurs when it comes to a more specific group such as cysteine proteases.
17 Recently, Yamazawa et al. (2022) identified the *yabG* gene product of *B. subtilis* as a cysteine
18 peptidase, which is related to spore formation. Thus, *B. subtilis* is also capable of producing
19 and secreting cysteine proteases, and strain E seems to differ from strain KM0 in this specific
20 characteristic.

21 Regarding genes related to amino acid metabolism, the *gdh* gene had its transcription
22 rate downregulated in shrimp hepatopancreas in both treatments with probiotics. The enzyme
23 glutamate dehydrogenase is present in the mitochondrial matrix of eukaryotic cells and
24 catalyzes the oxidative deamination of glutamate to form α -ketoglutarate which can be used
25 as fuel for the Krebs cycle to drive the electron transport chain and production of ATP by
26 oxidative phosphorylation (Dawson and Storey, 2012). Furthermore, this enzyme is linked to
27 several cellular processes, including ammonia metabolism, acid-base balance, redox
28 homeostasis, lactate production, and lipid biosynthesis via oxidative generation of citrate
29 (Plaitakis et al., 2017). Considering that glutamate dehydrogenase induces the production of
30 Krebs cycle intermediates, and that one of these intermediates (citrate) is used for the
31 synthesis of lipids, it is reasonable to hypothesize that the decrease in the transcription of the
32 *gdh* gene is a response to an already high concentration of lipids in the hepatopancreas of
33 shrimp that were treated with the probiotic strains. Another gene related to amino acid

1 metabolism analyzed in the present study was *gs*. This gene encodes the enzyme glutamine
2 synthetase, which catalyzes the formation of glutamine from glutamate and NH_4^+ . Qiu et al.
3 (2018) considered this enzyme as an important marker of ammonia stress in *L. vannamei*.
4 These authors demonstrated that expression of *gs* is increased in shrimp exposed to high
5 concentrations of ammonium and that hepatopancreas plays a key role in the response to
6 stress caused by excess nitrogen. In the present study a significant decrease in *gs* expression
7 was observed only in the hepatopancreas of shrimp treated with strain E, and this is another
8 interesting difference between the two probiotic strains studied here. It is possible that the
9 strain E has a greater capacity than strain KM0 to reduce the nitrogen compounds present in
10 the rearing water and, thus, reduce the stress in shrimp. In fact, it is well established that the
11 administration of *B. subtilis* strains confers benefits in maintaining the quality of rearing water
12 in aquaculture (for review see Hlordzi et al., 2020).

13 In conclusion, in the present study, a strain of *B. subtilis* (strain E) was isolated from
14 the gastrointestinal tract of *L. vannamei*, which has several phenotypic characteristics that
15 characterize it as a potential probiotic. In the functional experiment with shrimp, the
16 supplementation of the feed with strain E did not change the zootechnical performance of the
17 shrimp but increased the lipid concentration in muscle and hepatopancreas. Additionally,
18 exposure to the strain E strongly decreased the expression of genes related to digestion and
19 amino acid metabolism, suggesting that this potential probiotic can facilitate digestive
20 processes and nutrient absorption as well as minimize the toxic effects caused by nitrogenous
21 compounds present in rearing water. Thus, strain E can be considered an interesting tool in
22 shrimp farming in terms of better use of nutrients present in the feed, as well as in the
23 maintenance of water quality that can negatively impact shrimp farming.

24

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4 **CONFLICT OF INTEREST**

5 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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CAPÍTULO II

Recombinant *Bacillus subtilis* expressing a fungal phytase as a probiotic additive in the diet of Pacific white shrimp *Litopenaeus vannamei*

Manuscrito submetido ao periódico Aquaculture (FI = 5,135)

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Recombinant *Bacillus subtilis* expressing a fungal phytase as a probiotic additive in the diet of Pacific white shrimp *Litopenaeus vannamei*

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Abstract

Phosphorus is an essential mineral for all living beings and one of the most expensive additives in the formulation of feed for aquaculture. This mineral is present in the vegetable matter in the form of phytic acid (phytate), which is considered an antinutritional factor. Phytate can form complexes with proteins, lipids and minerals, decreasing the digestibility of these biomolecules. This compound can be degraded by phytases, which have been used in commercial feeds to mitigate the negative effects of phytate. However, these enzymes undergo costly isolation and purification processes. In the present study, a genetically modified *Bacillus subtilis* strain that expresses a fungal phytase was used as a feed additive. The probiotic was added to the commercial feed of shrimp *Litopenaeus vannamei* and its effects on zootechnical performance, proximate composition of muscle, lipid concentration in hepatopancreas and expression of genes related to digestion, amino acid metabolism and antioxidant defenses were analyzed. Although the genetically modified probiotic had no impact on growth parameters, there was a 39% increase in phosphorus content in muscle. In addition, genes related to digestion were downregulated in shrimp hepatopancreas, as well as an increase in lipids in this tissue. These results demonstrates that the genetically modified probiotic increased the efficiency of the use of plant-derived phosphorus, which may imply a decrease in the addition of this element in the diets, as well as minimizing the impact of shrimp farms on the eutrophication of adjacent ecosystems.

Keywords: Phosphorous, genetically modified probiotic, feed additive, shrimp farming.

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Introduction

The growth of the aquaculture industry has generated a significant increase in the demand for fish meal and oil, essential components in the production of animal feed. In 2018, around 12% of world fish production was used to produce these inputs and this growing demand has generated price increases and greater pressure on fish stocks (FAO 2020). In a scenario where extractive fishing is experiencing stagnant growth, alternative sources of protein need to be established to sustain the demand arising from the growth of aquaculture, whether of animal or vegetable origin. In the case of vegetable proteins, there is an additional challenge due to the presence of anti-nutritional compounds that prevent their use at higher concentrations (Hardy 2010; Montoya-Camacho et al. 2019). Even so, vegetables such as rapeseed, lupine and even fermented cotton have been used to replace fish meal in fish and shrimp diets (Kaiser et al. 2021; Sun et al. 2016; Weiss et al. 2020).

Among the antinutritional compounds present in plant matter, phytic acid (or phytate) is one of the most limiting and represents the largest form of phosphorus storage in plants (Dersjant-Li et al. 2015). Its antinutritional characteristic comes from the electronegativity of phosphorus, which allows it to chelate and decrease the availability of minerals such as calcium, magnesium, zinc, manganese, iron and copper (Hardy 2010; Bharadwaj et al. 2014; Humer and Zebeli 2015). Phytate can also interact with proteins, carbohydrates and lipids, forming complexes that reduce the digestibility of these biomolecules with a consequent decrease in nutrient absorption by the gastrointestinal tract (Kumar et al. 2012; Dersjant-Li et al. 2015). The formation of these complexes also makes the phosphorus present in plant matter unavailable to most monogastric animals, since these animals do not produce or produce few enzymes capable of hydrolyzing phytate during the digestive process (Kumar et al. 2012; Dersjant-Li et al. al. 2015). Thus, most of the plant phosphorus is excreted and ends up eutrophivating the environment which, in the case of the aquatic environment, causes the proliferation of microalgae with damaging effects to adjacent ecosystems (Kumar et al. 2012; Hung et al. 2015).

Phytate removal or degradation increases the bioavailability of many cations, and consequently, improve the nutritional value of the feed. Phytase is a phytate-specific phosphatase that catalyzes the hydrolysis of phytic acid generating inositol and phosphates (Bhavsar and Khire 2014; Lemos and Tacon 2017). The objective of phytase supplementation in diets is to hydrolyze dietary phytate into absorbable phosphorus forms. This information

1 has been well documented in several studies with fish and shrimp, showing that the use of
2 phytase in the diet improves growth, efficiency in absorption of nitrogen and phosphorus,
3 macronutrient digestibility, and amino acid bioavailability (Biswas et al. 2007; Green et al.
4 2021; Maas et al. 2021; Qiu and Davis 2017; Rachmawati and Samidjan 2016; Shahzad et al.
5 2021).

6 Among the commercially available phytases, those belonging to the class of histidine
7 acid phosphatases and produced by the filamentous fungus *Aspergillus fumigatus* are
8 characterized for their high thermostability and activity over a wide pH range (Singh and
9 Satyanarayana 2015; Rebello et al. 2017). Additionally, bacterial phytases produced by
10 *Bacillus* species can be considered interesting alternatives to fungal phytases not only for their
11 thermostability, but also for their resistance to protease action and greater phytate specificity
12 (Kim et al. 1998; Oh et al. 2004). Cheng et al. (2012) expressed *B. subtilis* phytase C in
13 *Escherichia coli* and used the purified recombinant enzyme as an additive in *L. vannamei*
14 feed. The addition of the recombinant enzyme to a diet high in soybean meal (40%) for
15 shrimp increased growth and feed efficiency. However, feed additives with commercial
16 phytases have their cost significantly increased, as these enzymes need to go through costly
17 isolation and purification processes (Dudley et al. 2014).

18 An interesting alternative to reduce the cost of phytase additives in commercial feeds
19 is to use genetic engineering techniques to transform a probiotic bacterium into a biofactory
20 of heterologous enzymes. In this scenario, the genetically modified probiotic can be added to
21 the feed, and the secreted heterologous phytase can degrade the phytate present in plant
22 matter, increasing the digestibility of the feed. Recently, Santos et al. (2020) evaluated the
23 effect of adding a genetically modified strain of *B. subtilis* capable of secreting a fungal
24 phytase in zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) feed. The authors used a feed rich in soybean meal and
25 observed that the addition of the genetically modified probiotic improved the fish condition
26 factor, as well as stimulating the immune system, decreasing inflammatory responses and
27 oxidative stress in gastrointestinal tract. In the present study, the genetically modified strain of
28 *B. subtilis* developed by Santos et al. (2020) was used as an additive in the feed of shrimp *L.*
29 *vannamei*, evaluating the zootechnical performance, proximate composition of muscle, lipid
30 vacuoles counting in hepatopancreas, and expression of genes related to digestion, amino acid
31 metabolism and antioxidant defenses.

32 33 **Material and methods**

1

2 *Preparation of feed supplemented with probiotic bacteria*

3 The strains of *B. subtilis* used in this study are the same ones used by Santos et al.
4 (2020). The KM0 strain of *B. subtilis* was used as a control, which is derived from the *B.*
5 *subtilis* 168 strain and had its genome modified to generate a super-competent strain for
6 genetic manipulation (Rahmer et al. 2015). The KM0-Phy strain was manipulated by Santos
7 et al. (2020) to express and secrete *A. fumigatus* phytase. Inoculums of the probiotic strains
8 were first cultivated for 16 h at 37 °C in volumes of 3 mL in minimal salts medium
9 (Anagnostopoulos and Spizizen 1960), in a shaker incubator at 250 rpm. The next day, the
10 cultures were added to erlenmeyers (125 ml) containing 50 ml of the culture medium
11 suggested by Riet et al. (2021), which consists of a minimal salts medium with glucose and
12 casein hydrolyzate. The cultures followed the same protocol used for culture of inocula, but
13 the concentration of bacteria was monitored in a spectrophotometer until reaching the
14 stationary phase ($OD_{600} = 1.6$). According to Santos et al. (2020), the genetic construct used
15 to express fungal phytase has maximum yield in the stationary phase of bacterial growth.
16 Then, cultures were centrifuged at $5,000 \times g$ for 10 min at 4 °C. After centrifugation, the
17 supernatant was discarded and 2 mL of saline solution (0.9%) NaCl was added to wash the
18 pellet, and this process was repeated twice (adapted from Zokaeifar et al. 2012). Then, the
19 pellet was diluted in saline solution so that each gram of feed received 10^{10} colony-forming
20 units (CFU) of the probiotic strains (Riet et al. 2021). The commercial feed used (Guabi,
21 Brazil) is free of probiotics and contains 35 % crude protein, 9 % lipids, 15 % ash and 1.5 %
22 total phosphorous.

23

24 *Experimental design*

25 Juveniles of *L. vannamei* with an average weight of 0.6 ± 0.1 g were purchased from
26 Aquatec (Rio Grande do Norte, Brazil) and the experiment was carried out at the Marine
27 Aquaculture Station of the Federal University of Rio Grande (FURG, Brazil). Shrimps were
28 acclimated for a week in 150 L tanks with clear water. Throughout the experiment, salinity
29 was maintained at 30 g/L, temperature at 29 °C, and oxygenation close to saturation (6 ± 0.5
30 mg/L). Every day, 30% of the water was changed in order to keep ammonia, nitrites and
31 nitrates within tolerance levels for the species. Three treatments, with four replications each,
32 were used, in a total of 12 tanks. Each tank received 40 shrimps, totaling 480 individuals
33 (density of 266 shrimp/m³). In the control treatment (CON), the shrimps received only

1 commercial feed moistened with saline solution (NaCl 0.9%). In the second treatment (KM0),
2 the shrimps received commercial feed added with *B. subtilis* KM0. In the third treatment
3 (KM0-Phy), the shrimps received commercial feed supplemented with genetically modified
4 *B. subtilis* expressing fungal phytase. The diets were administered twice a day (early in the
5 morning and early in the afternoon) for 45 days, at a rate of 10% of estimated biomass at the
6 beginning and reduced to 5% at the end of the experiment.

7

8 *Tissue collection*

9 The experimental period lasted 45 days. At the end of this period, shrimps from each
10 treatment were randomly separated for analysis of proximate composition of muscle tissue
11 (five individuals per treatment, immediately frozen at -20 °C) and gene expression (seven
12 individuals per treatment). For gene expression analysis, hepatopancreas and muscle tissue
13 were individually dissected and placed in 500 µL of Trizol Reagent (Invitrogen, Brazil),
14 according to the manufacturer's protocol. Whole shrimps were also separated for histological
15 analysis.

16

17 *Zootechnical performance*

18 To calculate weight gain, biomass gain, feed conversion ratio and survival, the
19 following formulas were used:

20 - Weight gain (g) = Pf - Pi, where Pf = final weight and Pi = initial weight;

21 - Biomass gain = (Average Pf x number of individuals at the end) - (Average Pi x initial
22 number of individuals);

23 - Feed conversion rate = feed consumption / biomass gain;

24 - Survival (%) = (final shrimp population × 100) / initial population.

25

26 *Proximate composition*

27 Proximate composition analysis was performed from shrimp muscle (n = 5). To assess
28 tissue moisture, the samples were dried in an oven at 100 °C until constant weight. Protein
29 levels were obtained using the Kjeldahl method and the total ether extract using the Soxhlet
30 method, following the instructions of AOAC (2000). Ashes were quantified by muffle
31 incineration for 6 h at 600 °C. To determine the phosphorus content, the method proposed by
32 Silva and Queiroz (2002) was used, expressed in mg/100 g of fresh sample.

33

1 *Gene expression analyses*

2 Gene expression analyses were performed using quantitative PCR (qPCR), according
 3 to Livak and Schmittgen (2001). First, total RNA was extracted from tissues using Trizol
 4 reagent (Invitrogen, Brazil), as per manufacturer's instructions. The RNA obtained was treated
 5 with DNase I, quantified spectrophotometrically, and the RNA quality was verified in 1%
 6 agarose gel electrophoresis. RNA was reverse transcribed into complementary DNA (cDNA)
 7 using the High Capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription kit (Applied Biosystems, Brazil), as per
 8 the manufacturer's instructions. For each tissue a different set of genes was analyzed. In the
 9 hepatopancreas, genes related to digestion (amylase, *amy*; lipase, *lip*; trypsin, *tryp*; cathepsin
 10 B, *cathB*; chymotrypsin, *chymo*) and amino acid metabolism (glutamine synthetase, *gs*;
 11 glutamate dehydrogenase, *gdh*) were analyzed. In muscle, two genes related to the antioxidant
 12 defense system (glutathione peroxidase, *gpx*; superoxide dismutase, *sod*) were analyzed. The
 13 primers used in the qPCR reactions are shown in Table 1. Previously, all primers had their
 14 efficiencies calculated from serial dilutions. For all analyses, a 1:10 cDNA dilution was used.
 15 All reactions were performed on the 7300 Real-time PCR System platform (Applied
 16 Biosystems, Brazil), with the PowerUP SYBR Green Master Mix kit (Applied Biosystems,
 17 Brazil). Reactions were performed with the following schedule: 50 °C for 2 min, 95 °C for 2
 18 min, followed by 40 cycles of 95 °C for 15 s and 60 °C for 15 s. The reference gene *efla* was
 19 used to normalize results of gene expression data in all tissues analyzed. In addition, *60S-121*
 20 and *rps3A* genes were used to normalize expression data in hepatopancreas and muscle,
 21 respectively. To determine the stability of the reference genes, the geNorm VBA applet
 22 software for Microsoft Excel (Vandesompele et al. 2002) was used.

23

24 **Table 1.** Genes and primer sequences used in qPCR reactions.

Gene	Sense (5'-3')	Antisense (5'-3')	Amplicon (nt)	GenBank
<i>amy</i>	ctctgtagtgctgtggct	tgtcttacgtgggactggaag	116	AJ133526
<i>lip</i>	actgtctcctgctcgtc	atggtttctggaataggtgtt	131	XM027365317
<i>tryp</i>	cggagagctgccttaccag	tcggggttgcctatgctc	141	X86369
<i>chymo</i>	ggctctctcatcgacg	cgtgagtgaagaagtcgg	182	XM037943862
<i>cathB</i>	ggatgtaacggaggcttc	ctgtatgctttgctcca	248	XM027359505
<i>gdh</i>	aggttggtggaggaccagttg	ccgtggatcatctcgtaggt	166	EU496492
<i>gs</i>	ttccgtctctgaataaccg	aggagccttgggaatgaagt	193	JN620540
<i>gpx</i>	agggactccaccagatg	caacaactccccttcggtta	117	AY973252

<i>sod</i>	tgagtgaaaggctctggct	acggaggttcttgactgaaggt	175	DQ005531
<i>rps3A</i>	ggcttgctatggtgtgctcc	tcatgctcttgctcgctg	101	XM027376915
<i>60S-121</i>	gttgacttgaagggaatg	cttcttgcttcgattctg	246	XM027359925
<i>efla</i>	ccaccctggccagattca	gcgaacttcaggcaatg	75	DQ858921

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Histological analysis

Whole shrimps were prepared for histological analysis by injection into tissues and complete submersion in Davidson's solution (11.5% acetic acid, 22% formalin, 33% ethanol) for 48 hours. Afterwards, the shrimp were removed from the fixative solution and had the hepatopancreas dissected. The tissue obtained was first placed in 70% ethanol and subjected to successive dehydration in increasing concentrations of ethanol. After this process, the hepatopancreas was clarified in xylene, embedded in Paraplast at 60 °C and sectioned into 3 µm thick slices. After staining with Hematoxylin and Eosin (Bell and Lightner, 1988), lipid storage cells were counted under a compound microscope at 40x magnification. Lipid vacuoles were counted from 10 random visual fields from each hepatopancreas sample. Samples from four individuals from each treatment were analyzed.

Statistical analysis

To test for possible differences among treatments, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used. Normality and heterogeneity were assessed using the Shapiro-Wilk and Levene tests, respectively. For each case, when significance was detected among treatments, a subsequent comparison of means was performed using the Tukey test. All numerical data from gene expression were expressed as mean ± standard error. The other data were expressed as mean ± standard deviation. Differences were considered statistically significant when p < 0.05.

Results

Zootechnical performance

No significant differences were observed between treatments for any of the analyzed parameters. The results are shown in Table 2.

1 **Table 2.** Zootechnical performance of *L. vannamei* fed on commercial feed (CON),
 2 commercial feed supplemented with KM0 or KM0-Phy strains of *B. subtilis*.

	Treatments		
	CON	KM0	KM0-Phy
Initial weight (g)	0.61± 0.06	0.62 ± 0.05	0.66 ± 0.06
Final weight (g)	5.44 ± 0.49	5.09 ± 0.45	5.63 ± 0.43
Weight gain (g)	4.84 ± 0.49	4.47 ± 0.42	4.98 ± 0.43
Feed conversion ratio	1.36 ± 0.13	1.46 ± 0.15	1.31 ± 0.11
Survival (%)	100	100	100

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4

5 *Proximate composition of muscle tissue*

6 Among the parameters analyzed for proximate composition of *L. vannamei* muscle,
 7 there was a significant decrease in the percentage of ash of shrimp that received commercial
 8 feed supplemented with probiotic strains (KM0 or KM0-Phy). Also, the phosphorus retention
 9 in shrimp muscle was higher in KM0-Phy than the control treatment (CON). No changes were
 10 detected in the other analyzed parameters. The results are shown in Table 3.

11

12 **Table 3.** Proximate composition (%) of *L. vannamei* muscle fed commercial feed (CON),
 13 commercial feed supplemented with KM0 or KM0-Phy strains of *B. subtilis*.

	Treatments		
	CON	KM0	KM0-Phy
Moisture (%)	74.56 ± 0.63	73.97 ± 0.22	73.91 ± 0.81
Ash (%)	1.63 ± 0.27 ^a	1.53 ± 0.23 ^b	1.45 ± 0.27 ^b

Protein (%)	18.97 ± 1.74	19.26 ± 0.44	19.28 ± 0.08
Lipid (%)	0.75 ± 0.65	0.47 ± 0.43	0.68 ± 0.55
Phosphorus (mg/100 mg)	79.24 ± 9.03 ^a	98.92 ± 1.41 ^{a,b}	110.02 ± 14.13 ^b

Different letters represent statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$).

Expression of genes related to digestion

Of five genes analyzed related to digestion (Figure 1), only *cathB* and *amy* were not significantly altered in shrimp fed with feed supplemented with both KM0 and KM0-Phy strains. The other genes (*chymo*, *tryp* and *lyp*) were significantly downregulated by both probiotic treatments, when compared to control group.

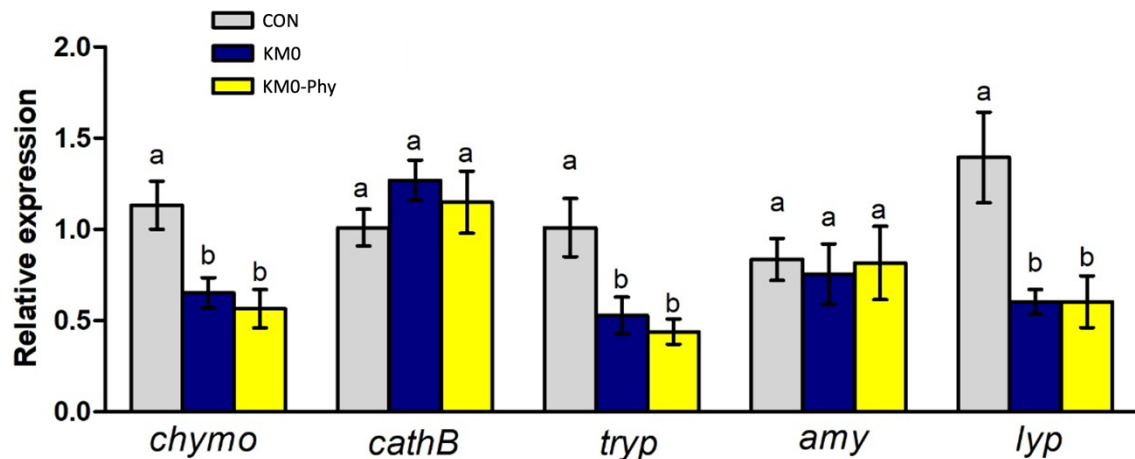
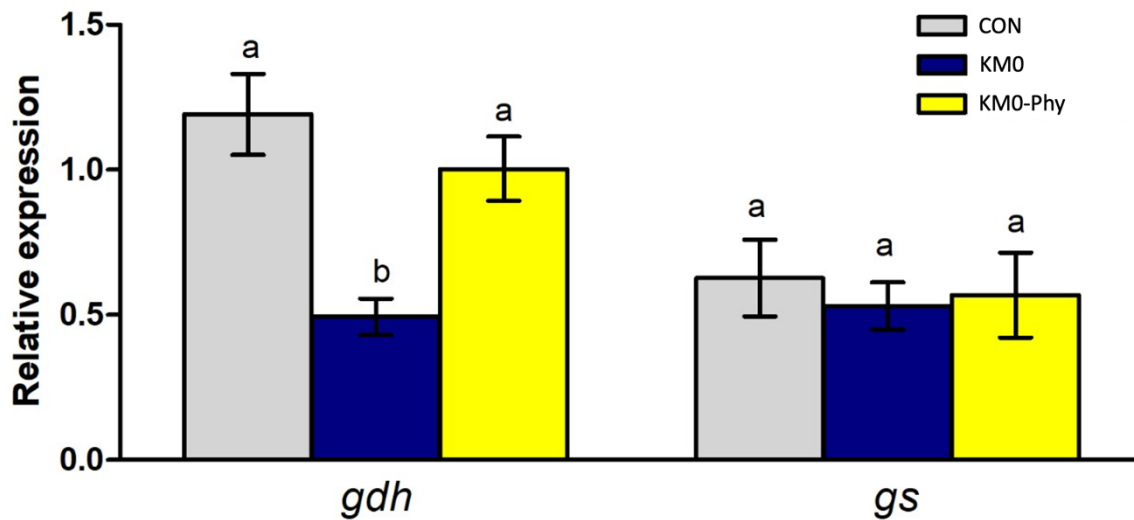


Figure 1. Expression of genes related to digestion in *L. vannamei* hepatopancreas fed with feed supplemented with different strains of *B. subtilis*. CON: shrimp fed only commercial feed; KM0: shrimp fed commercial feed with *B. subtilis* KM0; KM0-Phy: shrimp fed commercial feed with *B. subtilis* KM0-Phy. Different letters represent statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$).

Expression of genes related to amino acid metabolism

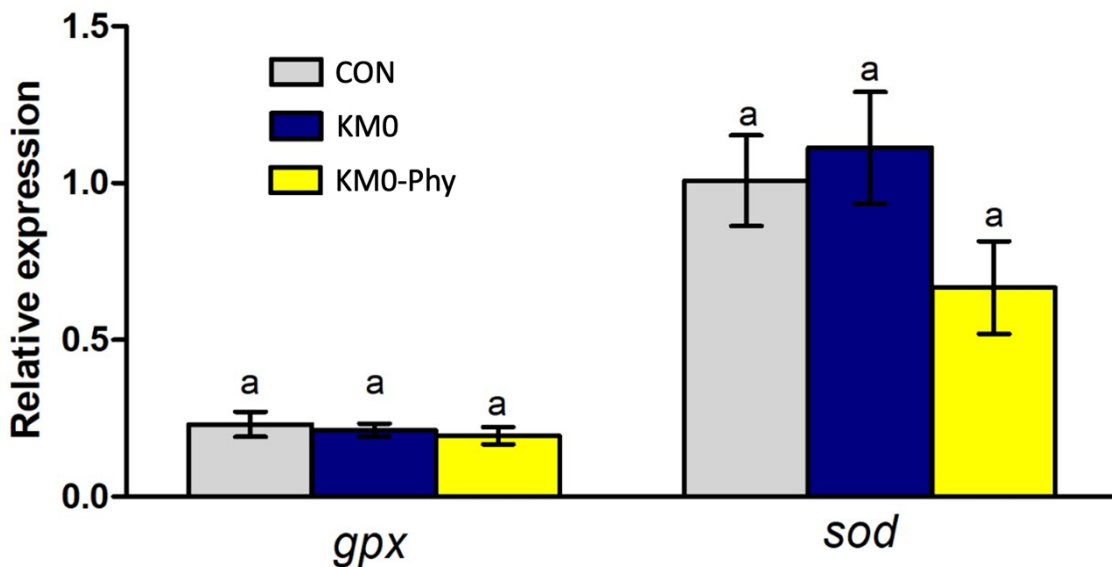
Regarding genes related to amino acid metabolism (*gdh* and *gs*); Figure 2, only *gdh* was downregulated in shrimp fed with feed supplemented with KM0 strain. The *gs* gene was not altered in any treatment.



1
 2 **Figure 2.** Expression of genes related to amino acid metabolism in *L. vannamei*
 3 hepatopancreas fed with feed supplemented with different strains of *B. subtilis*. CON: shrimp
 4 fed only commercial feed; KM0: shrimp fed commercial feed with *B. subtilis* KM0; KM0-
 5 Phy: shrimp fed commercial feed with *B. subtilis* KM0-Phy. Different letters represent
 6 statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$).

7
 8 *Expression of genes related to antioxidant defense system*

9 Genes related to antioxidant defense system (*gpx* and *sod*; Figure 3) were not altered
 10 in any treatment.

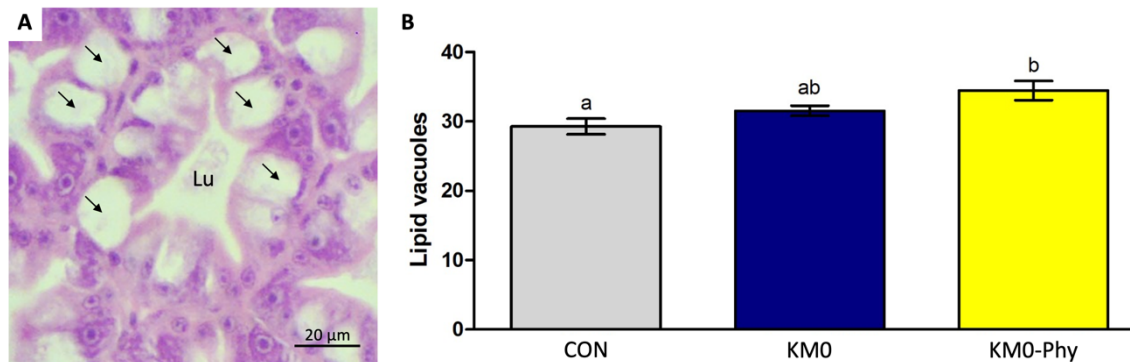


12
 13 **Figure 3.** Expression of genes related to the antioxidant defense system in *L. vannamei*
 14 muscle fed with feed supplemented with different strains of *B. subtilis*. CON: shrimp fed only

1 commercial feed; KM0: shrimp fed commercial feed with *B. subtilis* KM0; KM0-Phy: shrimp
2 fed commercial feed with *B. subtilis* KM0-Phy. Different letters represent statistically
3 significant differences ($p < 0.05$).

5 *Histological analysis*

6 Figure 4 shows the result of lipid vacuoles counts in shrimp hepatopancreas. Shrimp
7 fed with diet supplemented with *B. subtilis* KM0-Phy had a higher number of lipid vacuoles
8 (34.47 ± 1.39) compared to the control treatment (29.28 ± 1.13). The counting of lipid
9 vacuoles from shrimp fed with diet supplemented with *B. subtilis* KM0 (31.55 ± 0.74) was
10 not statistically different from the other two treatments.



13 **Figure 4.** Count of lipid vacuoles in the hepatopancreas of *Litopenaeus vannamei* from
14 histological analysis. A) Histological section showing the structures observed in shrimp
15 hepatopancreas (40x magnification). Lu: lumen of the hepatopancreatic tubules; arrows
16 indicate some examples of lipid vacuoles; B) Graph showing the result of the lipid vacuoles
17 count. CON: shrimp fed only commercial feed; KM0: shrimp fed commercial feed with *B.*
18 *subtilis* KM0; KM0-Phy: shrimp fed commercial feed with *B. subtilis* KM0-Phy. Different
19 letters represent statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$).

21 **Discussion**

22 Phosphorus is a key element in the constitution of fundamental molecules for living
23 beings, such as nucleic acids and phospholipids in cell membranes. Furthermore, it is
24 involved in production of energy molecules such as adenosine triphosphate (ATP), which are
25 essential for the entire cell metabolism. Taking these characteristics into account, phosphorus
26 is a limiting mineral for the growth of all living beings. However, each organism has specific
27 requirements regarding phosphorus levels. While phosphorus deficiency can cause serious

1 metabolic problems related to growth, its excess can be excreted and eutrophicate the adjacent
2 water bodies with negative consequences from an environmental point of view. It is known
3 that only approximately 40 % of the phosphorus available in feed is absorbed by farmed
4 aquatic organisms, while the surplus is secreted and released into the water (Sugiura 2018).
5 Thus, the rational use of phosphorus is a balance point between animal production and
6 environmental protection.

7 Due to the low concentration of phosphorus in natural waters, aquatic organisms need
8 to obtain this essential element from food (Coloso et al. 2001). In the case of cultivated
9 aquatic organisms, phosphorus must be present in the feed in its bioavailable form. However,
10 this mineral is among the most expensive feed supplements used in aquaculture (Fox et al.
11 2006), and the phosphorus present in plant matter is not bioavailable to monogastric animals
12 because it is in the form of phytate, which is considered an antinutritional factor. The addition
13 of phytases can alleviate the problem, as these enzymes degrade phytate and release inorganic
14 phosphorus for assimilation by the body. However, the addition of phytase to the feed
15 represents a significant addition to its final cost. In the present study, the hypothesis that the
16 addition of a probiotic strain of *B. subtilis* capable of secreting a fungal phytase (KM0-Phy) in
17 *L. vannamei* feed could degrade the phytate present in plant matter and increase the
18 bioavailability of phosphorus for the shrimp. Additionally, the impact of KM0-Phy strain on
19 growth, survival, proximate muscle composition, lipid vacuoles in hepatopancreas and
20 expression of genes related to digestion, amino acid metabolism and antioxidant defenses
21 were evaluated.

22 After 45 days of experimentation, it was observed that the addition of the strain KM0-
23 Phy to the shrimp diet did not change any parameters of growth or survival. The lack of
24 growth induction observed here can be explained by the fact that probiotics may have a
25 greater impact on the early stages of shrimp development, as suggested by Toledo et al.
26 (2019). On the other hand, chemical composition analysis showed a significant increase of
27 39% in phosphorus content of muscle tissue of shrimp that had the probiotic KM0-Phy added
28 to the feed, even if the feed used is already supplemented with 1.5% phosphorus.
29 Interestingly, shrimp fed diet with KM0 strain also had an increase in muscle phosphorus at
30 an intermediate level between CON and KM0-Phy groups. It is known that *Bacillus* species
31 can produce Ca²⁺-dependent beta-propeller type phytases, which have high thermal stability,
32 optimal catalytic activity at neutral pH and high specificity for the calcium-phytate complex
33 (Fu et al. 2008). Thus, it would be expected that the presence of *B. subtilis* in the feed could

1 have some effect on the bioavailability of phosphorus for shrimp. However, genetic
2 manipulation for expression and secretion of a fungal phytase performed in KM0-Phy strain
3 significantly enhanced this characteristic.

4 The increase observed in the phosphorus concentration in muscle tissue of shrimp fed
5 diet with *B. subtilis* KM0-Phy additive suggests that the phytate was degraded by fungal
6 phytase secreted by the genetically modified probiotic. Thus, it is reasonable to expect that the
7 decrease in phytate could make more nutrients available and modulate expression of genes
8 related to digestion in shrimp hepatopancreas. Quantification of digestion-related gene
9 expression demonstrated a significant downregulation of proteases (*chymo* and *tryp*) and
10 lipase (*lip*) transcription in both KM0 and KM0-Phy treatments. It is known that *Bacillus*
11 species are capable of producing and secreting proteases and lipases. Priest (1977) already
12 described numerous digestive exoenzymes produced by *Bacillus* species, especially
13 carbohydrates, proteases and lipases. Some *Bacillus* proteases stand out for their high stability
14 under adverse environmental conditions such as temperature and pH extremes, presence of
15 organic solvents, detergents, and oxidizing agents (Contesini et al. 2018). Also, according to
16 Eggert et al. (2003), *B. subtilis* can produce and secrete two types of lipases (lipA and lipB)
17 from genes that are differentially expressed according to growth conditions. In addition, the
18 counting of lipid vacuoles in the hepatopancreas showed that *B. subtilis* KM0-Phy used in the
19 present study increased the concentration of lipids in that tissue in comparison to control
20 group. The addition of phytases to the fish diet has been linked to an increase in lipids in the
21 body (reviewed by Zheng et al. 2020). However, this relationship has not, to our knowledge,
22 been established in crustaceans. Thus, the presence of a probiotic bacterium in the intestine
23 capable of producing and secreting digestive enzymes decreases the need for the host to
24 produce and secrete its own enzymes. This directly reflects on the regulation of genes as a
25 way of saving the energy that is invested in the processes of absorption of nutrients from
26 food. In fact, it has often been reported that dietary probiotic supplementation increases the
27 activity of digestive enzymes in shrimp intestine. Recently, Wang et al. (2020) showed that
28 probiotics such as *B. subtilis* and *B. licheniformis* can induce the activity of digestive enzymes
29 in the gastrointestinal tract of tiger shrimp *Penaeus monodon*. Also, Zokaeifar et al. (2012)
30 showed that the addition of *B. subtilis* strains to *L. vannamei* feed significantly increased
31 digestive enzyme activity in shrimp. These studies, which only analyze the activity of
32 digestive enzymes in the gastrointestinal tract, cannot differentiate between the action of
33 shrimp enzymes and those secreted by probiotics.

1 In the present study, genes related to amino acid metabolism (*gdh* and *gs*) were also
2 analyzed. The only difference observed was a downregulation of *gdh* in the group of shrimps
3 treated with the KM0 strain. Apparently, genetic manipulation in the KM0 strain to express a
4 fungal phytase increased the transcription of *gdh* to the same levels observed for the control
5 group. The *gdh* gene encodes the enzyme glutamate dehydrogenase, which catalyzes the
6 oxidative deamination of glutamate to form α -ketoglutarate in the mitochondrial matrix. This
7 chemical reaction results in the production of a Krebs cycle intermediary and can accelerate
8 ATP production by oxidative phosphorylation in the electron transport chain (Dawson and
9 Storey, 2012). It is possible that the greater availability of phosphorus in the shrimp treated
10 with the KM0-Phy strain is favoring a higher glutamate dehydrogenase expression compared
11 to the shrimp treated with the KM0 strain. In the case of genes related to oxidative stress (*gpx*
12 and *sod*) analyzed in muscle tissue, no difference was observed among treatments. This result
13 shows that the increase in phosphorus availability did not imply a change in the shrimp
14 muscle's oxidative status.

15 In conclusion, the use of a genetically modified strain of *B. subtilis* expressing a fungal
16 phytase was able to increase the availability of phosphorus for shrimp. Although the increased
17 availability of this mineral was not reflected in growth, it was possible to observe a
18 downregulation in expression of genes related to digestion. Also, it is possible that the action
19 of the phytase produced by the probiotic enables a decrease in phosphorus additives in the
20 feed, with an impact on its cost. In addition, the greater efficiency in the use of phosphorus
21 present in the feed will certainly imply a decrease in the excretion of this element by shrimp,
22 with a consequent reduction in the impact of shrimp farms on adjacent ecosystems.

23

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Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interests.

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2 **CAPÍTULO III**
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5 **Dietary supplementation of *Synechococcus elongatus* PCC 7942 expressing a**
6 **heterologous β -glucosidase on the expression of genes related to digestion,**
7 **immune system, and antioxidant defenses of the shrimp *Litopenaeus vannamei***
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Effect of supplementation of *Synechococcus elongatus* PCC 7942 expressing a heterologous β -glucosidase in the diet of white shrimp *Litopenaeus vannamei*

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Abstract

Cyanobacteria, in general, are a rich source of nutrients in addition to producing bioactive compounds capable of stimulating the immune system of hosts. Also, they can be manipulated with relative ease to produce heterologous proteins. In the present study, a strain of *Synechococcus elongatus* (PCC7942) was manipulated to produce a prokaryotic β -glucosidase. This strain was added to the diet of *Litopenaeus vannamei* shrimp and parameters such as zootechnical performance, proximate composition of muscle tissue and expression of genes related to digestion, amino acid metabolism, immune system and antioxidant defenses were evaluated. Histology of shrimp hepatopancreas was also performed. The results showed that transgenic cyanobacteria did not produce negative effects on shrimp zootechnical performance. However, an increase in lipid and phosphorus deposition was observed in the muscle tissue of shrimp, as well as lipid in hepatopancreas. Also, an increase in a gene related to the immune system (*tgase*) and another related to both carbohydrate metabolism and amino acid metabolism (*gdh*) was observed. Furthermore, it was observed that both strains of cyanobacteria (wild and transgenic) produced effects on carbohydrate metabolism (increased *amy* expression) and digestive system (decreased *cathB* expression). It is possible that cyanobacteria in the diet may be serving as a source of carbohydrates, reducing the use of proteins as a source of energy. It can be concluded that transgenic cyanobacteria had a beneficial effect on shrimp by increasing lipid deposition in muscle and hepatopancreas as well as phosphorus absorption from feed, which can minimize the environmental impact of shrimp farms.

Keywords: cyanobacteria, probiotic, β -glucosidase, digestion, lipid deposition, phosphorous absorption

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Introduction

Probiotics have played an important role in the expansion of aquaculture worldwide, as the use of these microorganisms in farming systems has brought benefits not only to the environment, but also to the health of farmed animals, especially in stimulating the immune system, growth, and feed efficiency (Hai, 2015; Yao et al., 2020). According to Ringø (2020), shrimp farming has benefited, since the 1990s, from species of bacteria from almost twenty genera, with *Lactobacillus* and *Bacillus* being the most represented. However, there are a variety of unconventional microorganisms that have so far been used as probiotics, which include gram-negative and gram-positive bacteria, yeasts, bacteriophages, actinobacteria, and unicellular algae (Das et al., 2008; Akhter et al., 2015). Among these microorganisms are cyanobacteria, a group of gram-negative photoautotrophic prokaryotes that have been suggested as probiotics for shrimp post-larvae (Preetha et al., 2007), in addition to being available as supplements to provide a high-protein diet in aquaculture (Singh et al., 2007).

Cyanobacteria are rich sources of vitamins, essential amino acids, minerals (González-Davis et al., 2012), fatty acids (Maltsev and Maltseva, 2021a), and have immunomodulatory activity (Ricchio and Lauritano, 2020). Furthermore, they can produce bioactive compounds with different applications, such as the inhibition of pathogens (Santhakumari et al., 2017). According to González-Davis et al. (2012), microalgae and cyanobacteria showed promising antibacterial activity and can be used as a biological control in cultures of *Artemia salina*, in addition to supplying a large part of the energy needs of the shrimp *Litopenaeus vannamei*. Furthermore, when incorporated into the diet, they can improve parameters related to growth in shrimp (Sivakumar et al., 2011a). A recent study reported that cyanobacteria may have an impact on the gut microbiome, leading to increased bacterial richness and playing an important role in fish development and health (Rosenau et al., 2021).

Cyanobacteria can also be genetically manipulated with relative ease and can be considered an interesting platform to produce heterologous proteins due to their photosynthetic efficiency (Dismukes et al., 2008). Recently, Azevedo et al. (2019) manipulated the cyanobacterium *Synechococcus elongatus* for the expression of a β -glucosidase of the GH3 family (AmBGL17). AmBGL17 was isolated from an Amazonian soil microorganism and biochemically characterized by Bergman et al. (2014). β -glucosidases catalyze the hydrolysis of β -glycosidic bonds, being key enzymes for carbohydrate metabolism in many organisms (Chang et al., 2011). In agriculture, these enzymes are

1 indicators of soil quality, as their catalytic action results in the availability of glucose as a
2 carbon source for the growth and activity of beneficial microorganisms (Merino et al., 2016).
3 However, the application of β -glucosidases in aquaculture has not been evaluated. In this
4 context, the aim of this study was to supplement a commercial feed with a genetically
5 modified strain of *S. elongatus* expressing a heterologous β -glucosidase and to evaluate its
6 effects on the expression of genes related to digestion, immune system, and antioxidant
7 defenses of *L. vannamei* shrimp.

9 **Material and methods**

11 **Experimental design**

12 Larvae of *L. vannamei* were purchased from Aquatec (Rio Grande do Norte, Brazil).
13 Juveniles with an average weight of 2.6 ± 1.9 g were produced at the Marine Aquaculture
14 Station from the Federal University of Rio Grande (FURG, Brazil). Shrimps were stored in
15 tanks with a useful volume of 150 liters with clear water. The animals were acclimated for
16 one week. The experiment was carried out in clear water and the physical and chemical
17 parameters of the water were evaluated daily. Temperature, salinity and dissolved oxygen in
18 all tanks were maintained in the range of 26.42 ± 2 °C, 32.2 ± 1 g.L⁻¹ and 6.24 ± 0.6 mg.L⁻¹
19 during the experimental period. Aeration was constantly supplied to each tank with air stone
20 using an air blower. Every day, 30% of the water was changed in order to keep the levels of
21 nitrogen compounds within tolerance levels for the species. Three treatments, with four
22 replications each, were used, in a total of 12 tanks. The experimental groups were divided
23 into: (i) control treatment (CON), the shrimps received only commercial feed moistened with
24 saline solution (NaCl 0.9%), (ii) PCC 7942, shrimps received commercial feed added with *S.*
25 *elongatus* PCC 7942 strain and (iii) AMBGL17, shrimps received commercial feed
26 supplemented with genetically modified *S. elongatus* PCC 7942 (PT7AMBGL17) expressing
27 prokaryotic β -glucosidase. The diets were administered twice a day for 45 days, at a rate of
28 10% of estimated biomass at the beginning and reduced gradually to 5% at the end of the
29 experiment. The commercial feed used contains 38% crude protein (Guabi, Brazil) and is free
30 of probiotics. Each tank received 40 shrimps, resulting in a culture density of 266 shrimp.m⁻³
31 in each experimental unit.

33 **Preparation of feed supplemented with strains of *S. elongatus***

1 Two strains of *S. elongatus* used in this work belong to the Molecular Biology
2 Laboratory of Federal University of Rio Grande (FURG, Brazil) and are the same ones used
3 by Azevedo et al. (2019). As a control strain, *S. elongatus* PCC 7942 (Invitrogen) strain was
4 used. The PT7AMBGL17 strain was manipulated by Azevedo et al. (2019) to express a
5 prokaryotic β -glucosidase. Cultures (50 mL) of *S. elongatus* PCC 7942 and *S. elongatus*
6 PT7AMBGL17 were added to erlenmeyers (2 L) containing 1 L of BG-11 medium (Rippka et
7 al., 1979), and were maintained at 34 °C, with constant lighting of 8,000 lux. *S. elongatus*
8 PT7AMBGL17 cultures were supplemented with spectinomycin ($10 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$), a selection
9 agent for genetic manipulation. Expression of the gene of interest was induced by adding 5
10 μM NiSO_4 to the cultures and incubating for 24 h when the absorbance (750 nm) of the
11 cultures reached the value of 1 (Blasi et al., 2012). Optical density (OD) was monitored in a
12 spectrophotometer (Femto, 600s). After induction, cultures were centrifuged at $1,500 \times g$ at 4
13 °C for 20 min to collect cyanobacteria cells, and the supernatant was discarded (Kiataramgul
14 et al., 2020). For preparation, feed was ground into fine particles and 10% unflavored
15 powdered gelatin, previously dissolved in distilled water at 60 °C was added, homogenized,
16 and added cyanobacteria pellet dissolved in distilled water at 40 °C, containing approximately
17 10^8 cells/100 g of feed. The control diet was prepared in the same way, but without adding
18 any cyanobacterial strain. The mixtures were repelletized and dried in an oven at 45 °C
19 overnight. After this period, the feeds were cooled slowly and stored in a clean glass bottle at
20 4 °C until used. This process was carried out weekly.

21

22 **Tissue collection**

23 At the end of the 45-day period, shrimps from each treatment were randomly removed
24 and euthanized for analysis of proximate composition of muscle tissue (five individuals per
25 treatment, immediately frozen at -20 °C) and gene expression (seven individuals per
26 treatment). For gene expression analysis, hemolymph (300 μL) of each shrimp was removed
27 from the base of the pleopod of the first abdominal segment with 1 mL sterile syringes
28 containing 300 μL of a pre-cooled (4 °C) solution (450 mM NaCl, 10 mM KCl, HEPES 10
29 mM, 10 mM EDTA, pH 7.2) used as an anticoagulant. Hepatopancreas and muscle tissue
30 were individually dissected and placed in 500 μL of Trizol Reagent (Invitrogen, Brazil),
31 according to the manufacturer's protocol.

32

33 **Zootechnical performance**

1 To calculate weight gain, biomass gain, feed conversion ratio and survival, the
2 following formulas were used:

3 - Weight gain (g) = Pf - Pi, where Pf = final weight and Pi = initial weight;

4 - Biomass gain = (Average Pf x number of individuals at the end) - (Average Pi x initial
5 number of individuals);

6 - Feed conversion rate = feed consumption / biomass gain;

7 - Survival (%) = (final shrimp population × 100) / initial population.
8

9 **Proximate composition of muscle tissue**

10 The analysis of the moisture content was done by drying the samples in an oven at 100
11 °C until constant weight. Protein content was determined by the Kjeldahl method and total
12 ether extract by the Soxhlet method (AOAC, 2000). Ashes were obtained by incineration in a
13 muffle for 6 h at 600 °C. Phosphorus analyzes were performed according to Silva and Queiroz
14 (2002), being expressed in mg/100 g of fresh sample.
15

16 **Gene expression analyses**

17 Total RNA extraction was performed with Trizol reagent (Invitrogen, Brazil).
18 Extracted RNA was treated with DNase I (Invitrogen, Brazil) and the concentration was
19 determined using a Biodrop spectrophotometer (Isogen Life Science). The quality was
20 determined by 1% agarose gel electrophoresis. cDNA was synthesized using HighCapacity
21 cDNA Reverse Transcription kit (Applied Biosystems). All procedures were performed
22 following the manufacturer's protocol. Gene expression analyses were performed using
23 quantitative PCR (qPCR), according to Livak and Schmittgen (2001). For each tissue a
24 different set of genes was analyzed: (i) Hepatopancreas, five genes related to digestion
25 (amylase, *amy*; lipase, *lip*; trypsin, *tryp*; cathepsin B, *cathB*; chymotrypsin, *chymo*) and two
26 genes of amino acid metabolism (glutamine synthetase, *gs*; glutamate dehydrogenase, *gdh*);
27 (ii) muscle, two genes related to the antioxidant defense system (glutathione peroxidase, *gpx*;
28 superoxide dismutase, *sod*) and (iii) hemocytes, four genes related to immune system
29 (penaeidin, *pen*; peroxynectin, *px*; prophenoloxidase, *propo*; transglutaminase, *tgase*). All
30 primers are described in Table 1. Efficiency of all primers was performed in serial dilutions
31 and 1:10 cDNA dilution of cDNA was used. Reactions were performed on the 7300 Real-time
32 PCR System platform (Applied Biosystems, Brazil), with the PowerUP SYBR Green Master
33 Mix kit (Applied Biosystems, Brazil), following the schedule: 50 °C for 2 min, 95 °C for 2

1 min, followed by 40 cycles of 95 °C for 15 s and 60 °C for 15 s. The reference genes *efla*,
 2 *60S-121* and *rps3A* were used to normalize the gene expression data. To determine the
 3 stability of each reference gene in the different tissues analyzed the geNorm VBA applet
 4 software for Microsoft Excel (Vandesompele et al., 2002) was used. Gene expression in
 5 hemocytes and muscle was normalized using *efla* and *rps3A*. For hepatopancreas, *efla* and
 6 *60S-121* were used.

7

8 **Table 1.** Analyzed genes and sequence of primers used in qPCR reactions.

Gene	Sense (5'-3')	Antisense (5'-3')	Amplicon (nt)	GenBank
<i>amy</i>	ctctgtagtgctgttgct	tgtcttacgtgggactggaag	116	AJ133526
<i>lip</i>	actgtctcctctgctcgtc	atggttctggaatagggttt	131	XM027365317
<i>tryp</i>	cggagagctgccttaccag	tcgggggtgttcattgcctc	141	X86369
<i>chymo</i>	ggctctcttcacgacg	cgtgagtgaagaagtcgg	182	XM037943862
<i>cathB</i>	ggatgtaacggaggcttc	ctgtatgctttgcctcca	248	XM027359505
<i>gdh</i>	aggttgaggaggaccagtgtg	ccgtggatcatctcgtaggt	166	EU496492
<i>gs</i>	ttccgtctcctgaaataccg	aggagccttgggaatgaagt	193	JN620540
<i>gpx</i>	agggactccaccagatg	caacaactccccttcggta	117	AY973252
<i>sod</i>	tggagtgaaggctctggct	acggagggttctgtactgaaggt	175	DQ005531
<i>efla</i>	ccaccctggccagattca	gcgaacttgaggcaatg	75	DQ858921
<i>rps3A</i>	ggcttgctatggtgtgctcc	tcattgctcttgctcgtc	101	XM027376915
<i>60S-121</i>	ggtgactgaagggaatg	cttcttgcttcgattctg	246	XM027359925

9

10 **Hepatopancreatic histology**

11 For histology of the hepatopancreas, shrimp were injected with Davidson's solution
 12 (11.5% acetic acid, 22% formalin, 33% ethanol and distilled water) for 48 hours, then
 13 transferred to 70% alcohol until processing. Tissues were dehydrated through successive
 14 immersions in ethanol of increasing concentrations, clarified in xylol and embedded in
 15 Paraplast at 60 °C. Regions of the hepatopancreas were selected and sectioned at 3 µm.
 16 Histological sections were stained with Hematoxylin and Eosin (Bell and Lightner, 1988) for
 17 lipid storage cell count. Histological sections were observed using a compound microscope at
 18 40 × magnification.

19

1 **Statistical analysis**

2 One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to assess whether there were
3 statistical differences between treatments. Normality and heterogeneity were assessed using
4 the Shapiro-Wilk and Levene tests, respectively. For each case, when significance was
5 detected among treatments, a subsequent comparison of means was performed using the
6 Tukey test. All numerical data from gene expression were expressed as mean \pm standard error.
7 The other data were expressed as mean \pm standard deviation. Differences were considered
8 statistically significant when $p < 0.05$.

9

10 **Results**

11

12 **Zootechnical performance and proximate composition of muscle tissue**

13 Results of zootechnical performance are described in Table 2. No significant
14 differences were observed in weight gain, feed conversion and survival between treatments.

15

16 **Table 2.** Zootechnical performance of *L. vannamei* fed on commercial feed (CON) or
17 commercial feed supplemented with *S. elongatus* PCC 7942 (PCC7942) and *S. elongatus*
18 PT7AMBGL17 (AMBGL17) strains for 45 days.

19

	Treatments		
	CON	PCC7942	AMBGL17
Initial weight (g)	2.98 \pm 0.56	2.48 \pm 0.19	2.54 \pm 0.29
Final weight (g)	7.48 \pm 0.17	7.73 \pm 0.53	7.80 \pm 0.27
Weight gain (g)	4.49 \pm 0.71	5.24 \pm 0.55	5.27 \pm 0.36
Feed conversion ratio	1.65 \pm 0.28	1.39 \pm 0.15	1.37 \pm 0.09
Survival (%)	98.9 \pm 0.57	98.9 \pm 0.57	99.3 \pm 0.5

20

1 As shown in Table 3, shrimps in the treatment supplemented with *S. elongatus*
 2 PT7AMBGL17 strain had significantly higher body moisture, lipids and phosphorus values
 3 compared to the other groups ($p < 0.05$). There were no significant differences in the amount
 4 of ash and crude protein between groups.

5

6 **Table 3** - Proximate composition (%) of the muscle tissue of *L. vannamei* fed commercial
 7 feed (CON) or commercial feed supplemented with *S. elongatus* PCC 7942 (PCC7942) and *S.*
 8 *elongatus* PT7AMBGL17 (AMBGL17) strains for 45 days.

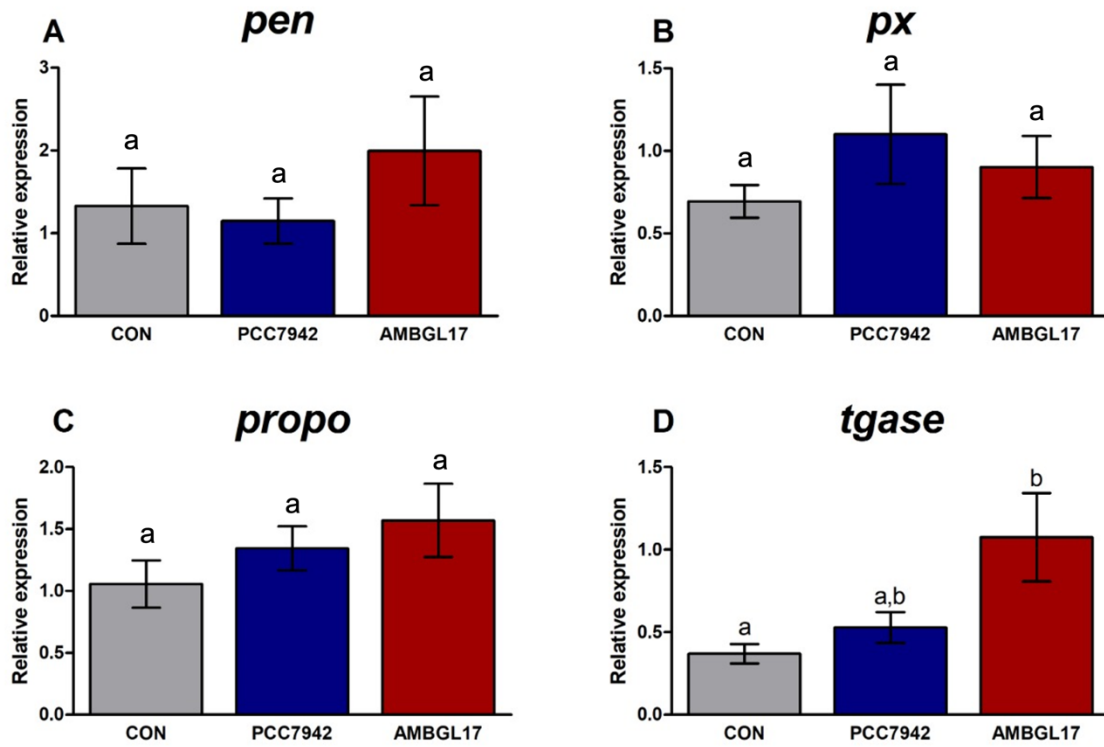
	Treatments		
	CON	PCC7942	AMBGL17
Moisture (%)	76.18 ± 0.87 ^a	77.31 ± 0.64 ^a	74.61 ± 0.63 ^b
Ash (%)	1.26 ± 0.32	1.28 ± 0.28	1.25 ± 0.28
Protein (%)	18.62 ± 2.39	18.06 ± 1.0	19.56 ± 1.26
Lipid (%)	0.82 ± 0.37 ^{ab}	0.55 ± 0.18 ^a	1.02 ± 0.52 ^b
Phosphorus (mg/100 mg)	65.73 ± 1.95 ^a	65.52 ± 1.0 ^a	73.02 ± 1.86 ^b

9 Different letters represent statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$).

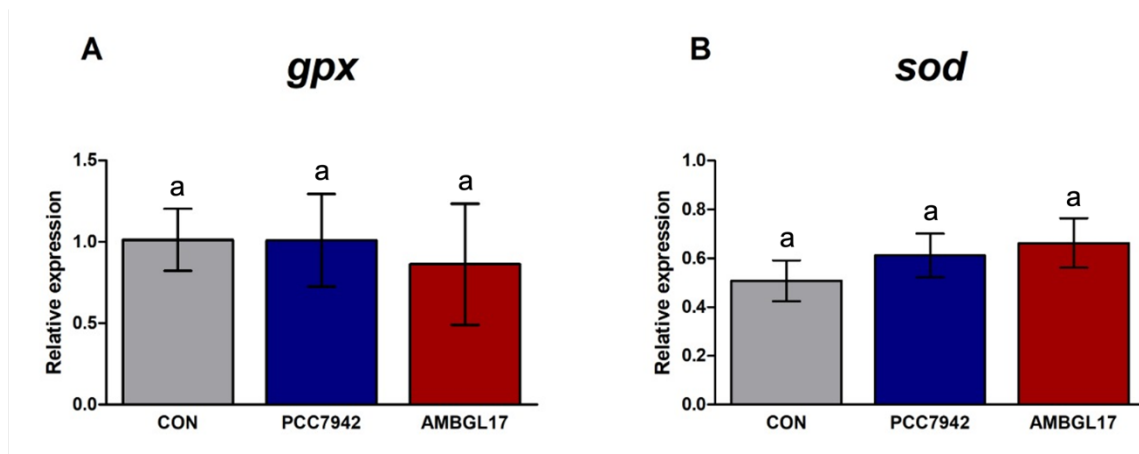
10

11 **Expression of genes related to immune system and antioxidant defense**

12 The expression levels of *pen* (penaeidin), *px* (peroxynectin), *propo* (prophenoloxidase)
 13 and *tgase* (transglutaminase) genes are shown in Fig. 1. Analyzing the results of genes related
 14 to the immune system, no significant differences ($p > 0.05$) were found between treatments,
 15 except for *tgase* gene. The expression of *tgase* was significantly higher in shrimps from
 16 AMBGL17 treatment (1.076 ± 0.120) compared to control (0.369 ± 0.033) PCC7942 ($0.528 \pm$
 17 0.042) treatment ($p < 0.05$). Analyzing the expression data of *gpx* (glutathione peroxidase)
 18 and *sod* (superoxide dismutase) genes, related to antioxidant defense (Figure 2), no significant
 19 differences ($p > 0.05$) were observed among treatments.



1
 2 **Figure 1.** Relative expression of genes related to the immune system (*pen*, *px*, *propo*, *tgase*)
 3 in *L. vannamei* hemocytes fed with feed supplemented with different strains of *S. elongatus*
 4 PCC 7942. CON: shrimp fed only commercial feed; PCC7942: shrimp fed commercial feed
 5 with *S. elongatus* PCC 7942; AMBGL17: shrimp fed commercial feed with *S. elongatus*
 6 PT7AMBGL17. Different letters represent statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$).
 7



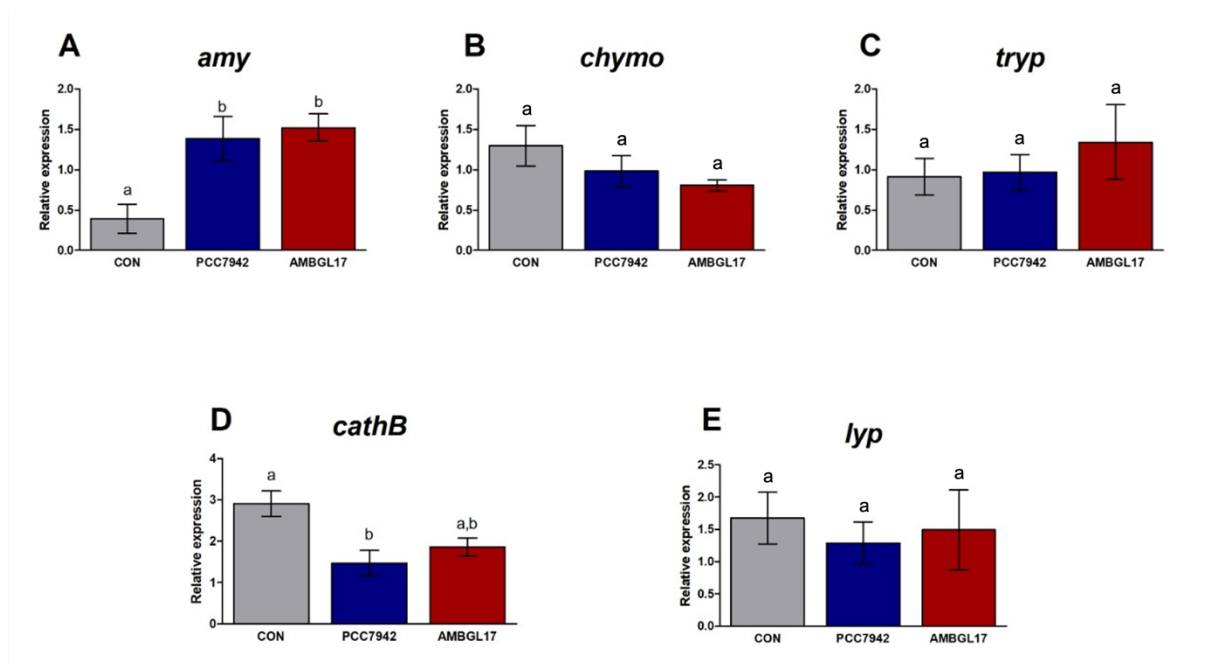
8
 9 **Figure 2.** Relative expression of genes related to antioxidant defense system (*gpx* and *sod*) in
 10 *L. vannamei* muscle fed with feed supplemented with different strains of *S. elongatus* PCC
 11 7942. CON: shrimp fed only commercial feed; PCC7942: shrimp fed commercial feed with *S.*

1 *elongatus* PCC 7942; AMBGL17: shrimp fed commercial feed with *S. elongatus*
2 PT7AMBGL17. Different letters represent statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$).
3

4 **Expression of genes related to digestion and amino acid metabolism**

5 The expression levels of digestion-related genes are shown in Fig. 3. The expression
6 of *amy* (amylase) gene was significantly higher in shrimp from PCC 7942 (1.384 ± 0.159) and
7 AMBGL17 (1.521 ± 0.085) treatments compared to control (0.391 ± 0.090) ($p < 0.05$). The
8 opposite was observed for expression of *cathB* gene (cathepsin B) which was significantly
9 lower in shrimp from PCC7942 (1.468 ± 0.137) and AMBGL17 (1.861 ± 0.098) treatments
10 compared to the control group (2.906 ± 0.137). No significant differences ($p > 0.05$) were
11 found between treatments for *chymo* (chymotrypsin), *tryp* (trypsin) and *lip* (lipase) genes.

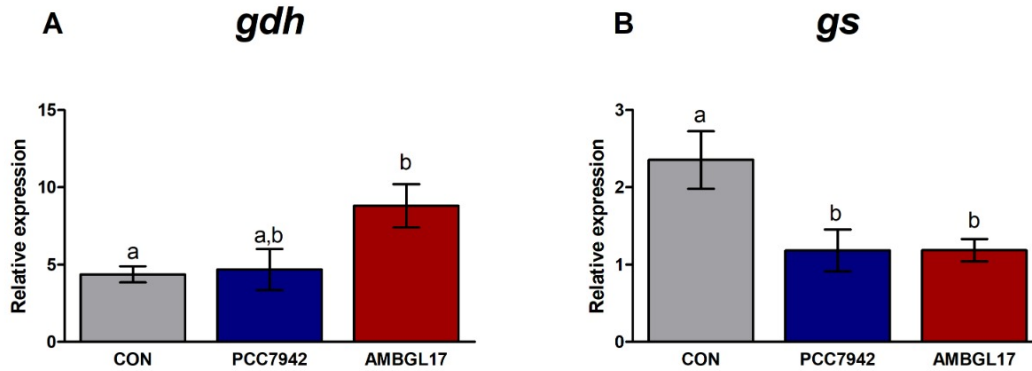
12 The results of expression of genes involved in amino acid metabolism are shown in
13 Figure 4. Expression of *gs* (glutamine synthetase) and *gdh* (glutamate dehydrogenase) genes
14 were affected in different ways. While *gs* showed a significantly lower expression in
15 PCC7942 (1.182 ± 0.121) and AMBGL17 (1.185 ± 0.073) treatments compared to the control
16 group (2.353 ± 0.167), *gdh* gene presented a significantly higher expression in shrimp from
17 the AMBGL17 (8.800 ± 0.630) treatment compared to the control (4.360 ± 0.231) and
18 PCC7942 (4.678 ± 0.592) groups ($p < 0.05$).
19



20
21 **Figure 3.** Relative expression of genes related to digestion (*amy*, *chymo*, *tryp*, *cathB* and *lip*)
22 in *L. vannamei* hepatopancreas fed with feed supplemented with different strains of *S.*

1 *elongatus* PCC 7942. CON: shrimp fed only commercial feed; PCC7942: shrimp fed
2 commercial feed with *S. elongatus* PCC 7942; AMBGL17: shrimp fed commercial feed with
3 *S. elongatus* PT7AMBGL17. Different letters represent statistically significant differences (p
4 < 0.05).

5



6

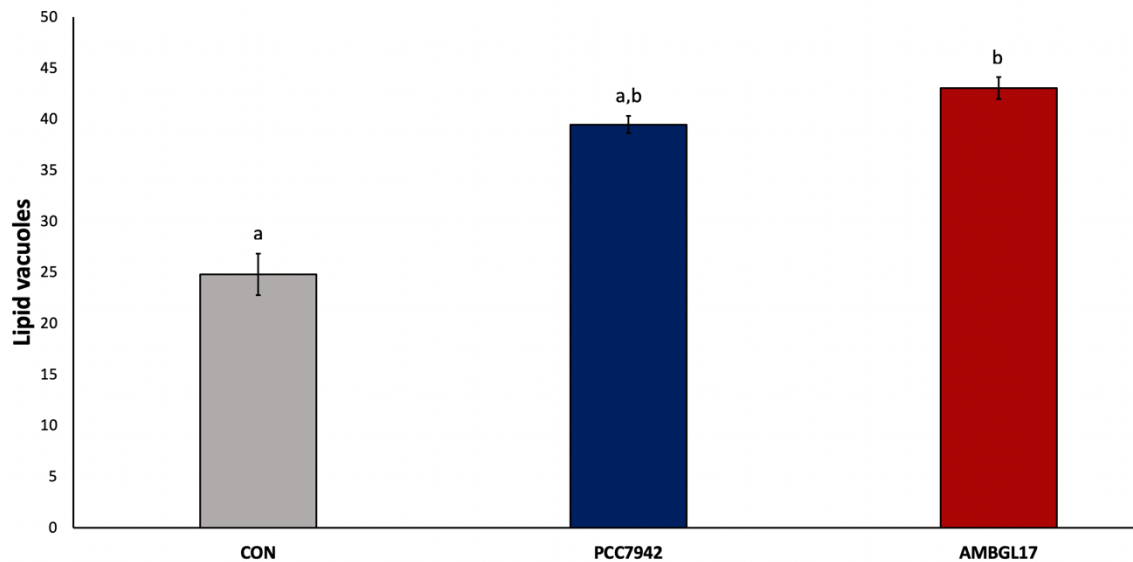
7 **Figure 4.** Relative expression of genes related to amino acid metabolism (*gdh* and *gs*) in *L.*
8 *vannamei* hepatopancreas fed with feed supplemented with different strains of *S. elongatus*
9 PCC7942. CON: shrimp fed only commercial feed; PCC7942: shrimp fed commercial feed
10 with *S. elongatus* PCC7942; AMBGL17: shrimp fed commercial feed with *S. elongatus*
11 PT7AMBGL17. Different letters represent statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$).

12

13 **Hepatopancreatic histology**

14 Shrimp hepatopancreas fed with diet *S. elongatus* PT7AMBGL17 had a higher number
15 of lipid vacuoles (43.06 ± 1.08) compared to the control (24.81 ± 2.02) and to the treatment
16 with the *S. elongatus* strain PCC7942 (39.48 ± 0.83) (Fig. 5).

17



1 **Figure 5.** Lipid vacuoles count in *L. vannamei* hepatopancreas. CON: shrimp fed only
 2 commercial feed; PCC7942: shrimp fed commercial feed with *S. elongatus* PCC7942;
 3 AMBGL17: shrimp fed commercial feed with *S. elongatus* PT7AMBGL17. Different letters
 4 represent statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$).
 5

6 **Discussion**

7 This is the first investigation that evaluated the influence of supplementation of *L.*
 8 *vannamei* shrimp feed with a transgenic *S. elongatus* cyanobacterium expressing a
 9 heterologous β -glucosidase. According to the results, the diets supplemented with
 10 cyanobacteria did not change the growth, final weight, feed conversion ratio and survival of
 11 shrimp compared to the control treatment. The results indicate the zootechnical performance
 12 of shrimp was not affected by the ingestion of cyanobacteria (transgenic or wild). Zhuang et
 13 al. (2021) also engineered *S. elongatus* PCC 7942 to express the Vp28 protein, which is a
 14 structural protein of the White Spot Syndrome virus (WSSV) and plays an important role in
 15 the response of *L. vannamei* in the early stages of infection. These authors reported a decrease
 16 in the growth of shrimp fed with cyanobacteria compared to shrimp fed with commercial
 17 feed. However, it is noteworthy that the cyanobacteria expressing Vp28 was administered as a
 18 dry powder, which may have reduced its nutritional value. As in the present study, Sivakumar
 19 et al. (2011) administered *Synechococcus* sp. as live food for juveniles of *Penaeus monodon*
 20 shrimp and observed that, although the length was not affected at the end of the experimental
 21 period, the weight of shrimp fed with *Synechococcus* sp. was lower than the treatments with
 22 *Chlorella* sp. and *Phormidium* sp. However, these authors used algal biomass as the only food
 23 source for shrimp, and not as a supplement to commercial feed. In contrast, the
 24

1 cyanobacterium *Arthrospira platensis* replaced up to 75% of the fishmeal in the diet without
2 any reduction in *L. vannamei* survival or growth (Macias-Sancho et al., 2014).

3 The results of the present study showed that the administration of *S. elongatus*
4 PT7AMBGL17 expressing β -glucosidase significantly affected the body composition of *L.*
5 *vannamei*. The results revealed that shrimp fed diet supplemented with transgenic *S.*
6 *elongatus* had higher lipid and phosphorus content in muscle and lower moisture content.
7 Regarding the lipid content, it is known that cyanobacteria, including *S. elongatus* PCC 7942,
8 can synthesize short carbon chain fatty acids (SCFAs) (Gong and Miao, 2019), which have
9 the potential to improve the growth performance in *L. vannamei* (Chen et al., 2020).
10 However, we did not observe differences in the amount of lipids between the PCC7942 group
11 and the control group. This observation suggests that SCFAs eventually produced by
12 cyanobacteria are not impacting the amount of lipids in muscle tissue. However, an increase
13 in lipids was observed in shrimp from the group fed with cyanobacteria expressing β -
14 glucosidase (AMBGL17). Recently, Huang et al. (2020b) demonstrated that β -glucosidase
15 overexpression facilitates glucose release in transgenic tobacco. Thus, it is possible that the β -
16 glucosidase activity produced by transgenic cyanobacteria is making more sugars available to
17 shrimp. This hypothesis can be supported by the increased expression of the gene that codes
18 for amylase (*amy*) in the hepatopancreas of shrimp that had their feed supplemented with
19 transgenic cyanobacteria. It is known that the increase in sugars in the circulatory system can
20 affect the body's homeostasis. Thus, it is possible that these sugars may be being converted to
21 lipids and stored in muscle tissue or other tissues such as the hepatopancreas. In fact, the
22 histological analysis showed a significant increase in lipid vacuoles in the hepatopancreas of
23 shrimp fed with the feed supplemented with transgenic cyanobacteria. Although it is already
24 known that *de novo* lipogenesis can be induced by excess carbohydrates in the diet of humans
25 (Hellerstein, 1999; Kersten, 2001) and fish (Bou et al., 2016; Li et al., 2019; Taj et al., 2020),
26 this direct relationship remains to be proven in crustaceans.

27 Another observation of the results of the proximate composition is the increase of
28 approximately 11% of phosphorus in the muscle tissue of shrimp fed with feed supplemented
29 with transgenic cyanobacteria. This result indicates that the presence of β -glucosidase
30 increased the phosphorus bioavailability for shrimp. However, this relationship is probably
31 not straightforward, as there is no evidence that this enzyme may be involved in the
32 phosphorus cycle. However, it is certain that β -glucosidase increases the availability of
33 glucose to other microorganisms, which can be the source of enzymes such as phosphatases

1 and phytases that act in the conversion of organic to inorganic phosphorus, which can be
2 absorbed by shrimp and other organisms. The greater absorption of phosphorus by organisms
3 also has environmental implications, as it reduces the contribution to adjacent ecosystems and
4 its consequent eutrophication.

5 Romano et al. (2015) reported that the addition of a mixture of organic acids can
6 increase the bioavailability of phosphorus in *L. vannamei*, with a consequent increase in the
7 immune response and resistance to pathogenic bacteria. To assess whether the increase in
8 phosphorus absorption observed in the present study had effects on the immune system of the
9 shrimp, the expression of the genes *pen*, *px*, *propo* and *tgase* was evaluated. Of the genes
10 related to the immune system analyzed, only *tgase* was significantly induced in shrimp fed on
11 the feed supplemented with the transgenic cyanobacteria. Transglutaminase (TGase) is part of
12 the coagulation system of *L. vannamei* and plays an important role in inhibiting the entry of
13 pathogens into the body, which is why it is considered an important immunological factor in
14 shrimp (Zheng et al., 2018b). Furthermore, TGase has been shown to be involved in the
15 regulation of certain genes related to the immune system, particularly antimicrobial peptides
16 (AMPs), suggesting that the release of these may depend on the activation of the coagulation
17 system (Zhu et al., 2016). Therefore, the increase in *tgase* expression observed in this study
18 suggests an increase in the immune responsiveness of *L. vannamei*. Other genes analyzed
19 related to the immune system of shrimp such as *sod* and *gpx* (Pilotto et al., 2019; Zheng et al.,
20 2018), which play a role in the antioxidant defense system, were not altered by treatments
21 with cyanobacteria.

22 Regarding digestion, the treatments tested in this study showed two different types of
23 impacts on gene expression. The first is related to the presence of cyanobacteria (regardless of
24 whether it is transgenic or wild), whose effect can be observed in the increased expression of
25 the *amy* gene in treatments PCC7942 and AMBGL17, or in the decreased expression of *cathB*
26 and *gs* in these same treatments. In the case of amylase, it can be suggested that the
27 cyanobacteria itself is making more sugars available to the shrimp since these microorganisms
28 are able to produce and store glycogen from the fixed CO₂ through photosynthesis. For
29 example, *Synechococcus* sp. PCC 7002, an euryhaline species, has high glycogen production
30 and is considered a promising source of carbohydrates to produce biofuels (Aikawa et al.,
31 2014). Furthermore, functional genes related to sucrose synthesis have been identified in *S.*
32 *elongatus* PCC 7942 (Martínez-Noël et al., 2013). Thus, the presence of sugars produced by
33 cyanobacteria would be inducing the expression of shrimp amylase.

1 For *cathB* and *gs* the effect was the opposite. The presence of cyanobacteria decreased
2 the expression of those genes. Cathepsin B is a cysteine proteinase whose gene was first
3 identified in *L. vannamei* by Stephens et al. (2012). These authors reported the expression of
4 *cathB* in most shrimp tissues, except for pleopods and ocular peduncle. Furthermore, they
5 observed that this enzyme participates not only in the hydrolysis of intracellular proteins
6 during fasting, but also in the hydrolysis of extracellular proteins after food ingestion. Thus,
7 this enzyme plays an important role in the digestive processes that involve the provision of
8 amino acids for the body. The fact that the presence of the cyanobacteria used in the present
9 study decreased the expression of *cathB* in the shrimp hepatopancreas suggests that the
10 shrimp metabolism is using more sugars than proteins as an energy source. If this is the case,
11 the lower use of protein as an energy source implies a lower impact on the shrimp's ammonia
12 metabolism. In fact, the *gs* gene that codes for glutamine synthetase is considered an
13 important marker of ammonia-induced stress, and its decrease observed in groups of shrimps
14 treated with cyanobacteria may be related to the greater use of sugars in relation to protein
15 catabolism. Qiu et al. (2018) demonstrated that the expression of *gs* is increased in *L.*
16 *vannamei* exposed to higher concentrations of ammonia, concluding that shrimp accelerate
17 the production of glutamine from glutamate and NH_4^+ to reduce the stress caused by excess
18 nitrogen in the body. Finally, an increase in *gdh* was observed in the group of shrimps treated
19 with transgenic cyanobacteria (AMBGL17), when compared to the control group. Glutamate
20 dehydrogenase is a crucial enzyme that links amino acid metabolism to carbohydrate
21 metabolism. This enzyme is present in the mitochondrial matrix of eukaryotic cells and
22 catalyzes the reversible reaction of glutamate to α -ketoglutarate + NH_4^+ . Thus, this enzyme
23 works as a modulator in the synthesis of amino acids from carbohydrates, or in the oxidative
24 deamination of glutamate to form α -ketoglutarate which can be used as fuel for the Krebs
25 cycle to drive the electron transport chain and production of ATP by oxidative
26 phosphorylation (Dawson and Storey, 2012). In the scenario where the group of shrimps
27 treated with cyanobacteria expressing a β -glucosidase had greater availability of
28 carbohydrates, it is feasible to assume that *gdh* is acting to form amino acids from
29 carbohydrate derivatives.

30 In summary, the present study reports the use of cyanobacterial strains (wild or
31 manipulated to express a prokaryotic β -glucosidase) as an additive in *L. vannamei* shrimp
32 feed. The results showed that both cyanobacteria did not produce negative effects on the
33 zootechnical performance of the shrimp. However, an increase in the deposition of lipids and

1 phosphorus in the muscle tissue of shrimp treated with transgenic cyanobacteria was
2 observed. In this group, an increase in a gene related to the immune system (*tgase*) and
3 another one related to both carbohydrate metabolism and amino acid metabolism (*gdh*) was
4 also observed. In addition, it was observed that both strains of cyanobacteria produced effects
5 on carbohydrate metabolism (increased expression of *amy*) and on the digestive system
6 (decreased expression of *cathB*). Apparently, cyanobacteria in the feed may be serving as a
7 source of carbohydrates, reducing the use of proteins as an energy source. It can be concluded
8 that cyanobacteria (wild or transgenic) had a beneficial effect on shrimp not only by
9 increasing the expression of genes related to the immune system and digestion, but also by the
10 greater absorption of phosphorus from the feed, which can minimize environmental impact of
11 shrimp farms.

12

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17 Grande (FURG, Brazil).

18

19 **Author contribution**

20 All authors contributed to the conception and design of the study. All authors
21 contributed to the visualization of data, drafting of the article, and revising it. All authors
22 approved the final version to be submitted.

23

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30

31 **Competing interests**

32 The authors declare no competing interests

33

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2 **DISCUSSÃO GERAL**

3 Probióticos são amplamente utilizados na aquicultura e têm proporcionado benefícios
4 à saúde dos animais aquáticos (Yao et al., 2020). Os efeitos benéficos da administração de
5 probióticos foram reportados como fontes de melhora na resposta imunológica e no sistema
6 digestivo, através do estímulo da produção de enzimas endógenas que contribui com a
7 melhora das atividades enzimáticas no intestino (Butt et al., 2021; Ringø et al., 2020).

8 Dentre as opções de obtenção de probióticos para a carcinocultura, o isolamento de
9 microrganismos a partir do intestino do camarão é uma alternativa interessante com grande
10 potencial de aplicação na aquicultura comercial (Li et al., 2021; Ock Kim et al., 2020; Wang
11 et al., 2020; Zuo et al., 2019). Além disso, uma outra opção é o desenvolvimento e o uso de
12 microrganismos geneticamente modificados que podem ser utilizados como suplemento
13 alimentar com o objetivo de melhorar o fator de condição dos animais, estimulando o sistema
14 imunológico, reduzindo a resposta inflamatória e o estresse oxidativo (Erpel et al., 2016;
15 Santos et al., 2020), como biorreatores para a produção de moléculas capazes de interferir nos
16 sistemas fisiológicos de peixes (Santos et al., 2020), ou como sistema de expressão heteróloga
17 para a produção de vacinas orais para *L. vannamei* (Zhu et al., 2020).

18 Na presente Tese observou-se que o uso de diferentes cepas (convencionais ou não
19 convencionais) como aditivos dietéticos afetou de forma distinta a composição corporal dos
20 camarões. No entanto, quanto ao ganho de peso e na taxa de conversão alimentar, não houve
21 diferenças significativas nos três experimentos realizados. No capítulo I, a suplementação da
22 dieta com a cepa E de *B. subtilis* promoveu significativo aumento na composição de lipídeos
23 no músculo e na contagem de vacúolos lipídicos nos hepatopâncreas de *L. vannamei*. Outro
24 estudo também relatou que a administração de probióticos aumenta o conteúdo de lipídios no
25 músculo (Sadat Hoseini Madani et al., 2018). Na suplementação da dieta com a cepa
26 transgênica de *B. subtilis* expressando a fitase (capítulo II), observou-se um aumento na
27 concentração de fósforo no tecido muscular dos camarões, sugerindo que o fitato presente na
28 matéria vegetal da ração foi degradado pela fitase fúngica secretada pelo probiótico
29 geneticamente modificado. Camarões alimentados com *S. elongatus* transgênicas
30 suplementada na dieta (capítulo III) apresentaram maior teor de lipídeo e fósforo no músculo
31 e menor teor de umidade. Um estudo recente demonstrou que a superexpressão de um gene
32 multifuncional β -glicosidase facilita a liberação de glicose em tabaco transgênico (Huang et
33 al., 2020). Assim, é possível que a atividade da β -glicosidase produzida por cianobactérias

1 transgênicas esteja disponibilizando mais açúcares para os camarões. Essa hipótese pode ser
2 corroborada pelo aumento da expressão do gene que codifica a amilase (*amy*) no
3 hepatopâncreas de camarões que tiveram sua alimentação suplementada com cianobactérias
4 transgênicas. Sabe-se que o carboidrato absorvido que é utilizado para fornecer energia pode
5 contribuir para deposição de lipídios e glicogênio após a conversão bioquímica e que a
6 composição lipídica do corpo dos peixes foi influenciada pelos níveis de carboidratos e
7 lipídios da dieta (Gümüş e İviz, 2009). Além disso, o aumento significativo de fósforo no
8 músculo de animais que tiveram a ração suplementada *S. elongatus* P_{T7}AMBGL17
9 expressando β-glicosidase pode ser devido ao papel indireto que a β-glucosidase desempenha
10 na aquisição de P (Zacher et al., 2021). Sabe-se que o suplemento de fósforo pode contribuir
11 para maior deposição de zinco (Niu et al., 2008), o que pode promover a melhora na
12 imunidade do *L. vannamei* (Shi et al., 2021). De fato, quando analisados os genes
13 relacionados ao sistema imunológico, a *tgase* foi induzida significativamente em camarões
14 alimentados com a ração suplementada com a cianobactéria transgênica. Sabe-se que a TGase
15 demonstrou estar envolvida na regulação de certos genes relacionados ao sistema
16 imunológico, particularmente peptídeos antimicrobianos (AMPs), sugerindo que a liberação
17 destes pode depender, dentre outros fatores, da ativação do sistema de coagulação (Zhu et al.,
18 2016).

19 Com relação à expressão de genes, o uso da cepa E de *B. subtilis* isolada do intestino
20 do camarão (capítulo I) e da cepa KM0 gerou diferenças significativas na expressão dos genes
21 que codificam para enzimas relacionadas à digestão (*chymo*, *tryp* e *lip*), que tiveram uma
22 expressão mais baixa comparada ao controle. Além disso, observou-se que a expressão do
23 gene *cathB* foi significativamente reduzida em camarões tratados com a cepa E em relação à
24 cepa KM0, o que pode demonstrar que a cepa E é capaz de produzir e secretar mais cisteína-
25 proteases do que a cepa KM0. Gao et al. (2019) demonstram que enzimas extracelulares da
26 microbiota intestinal também estão envolvidas no metabolismo de substâncias
27 macromoleculares, como aminoácidos e carboidratos, logo sugere-se que intestino hospedeiro
28 pode diminuir a produção e secreção de tais enzimas, começando com uma diminuição na
29 taxa de transcrição desses genes. Sobre o metabolismo de aminoácidos, o gene *gdh* teve uma
30 taxa de transcrição menor em hepatopâncreas de camarão nos tratamentos com probióticos,
31 enquanto o gene *gs* também teve uma menor taxa de transcrição, porém, apenas para os
32 animais alimentados com a cepa E. Possivelmente a menor expressão de *gdh* pode ser uma
33 resposta a uma alta concentração de lipídios no hepatopâncreas dos camarões que foram

1 tratados com as cepas probióticas, pois a glutamato desidrogenase induz a produção de
2 intermediários do ciclo de Krebs, e um dos intermediários (citrato) é usado para a síntese de
3 lipídios (Dawson e Storey, 2012). Além disso, a menor taxa de transcrição de *gs* pode indicar
4 que a cepa E tem capacidade para reduzir os compostos nitrogenados presentes na água de
5 criação e, assim, reduzir o estresse no camarão.

6 Com relação ao capítulo II, a quantificação da expressão de genes relacionados à
7 digestão demonstrou uma regulação negativa significativa da transcrição de proteases (*chymo*
8 e *tryp*) e lipase (*lip*), em ambos os tratamentos KM0 e KM0-Phy. Sabe-se que as espécies de
9 *Bacillus* são capazes de produzir e secretar proteases e lipases. Priest (1977) já descreveu
10 inúmeras exoenzimas digestivas produzidas por espécies de *Bacillus*, especialmente
11 carboidratases, proteases e lipases. Algumas proteases de *Bacillus* se destacam por sua alta
12 estabilidade em condições ambientais adversas, como temperaturas e pH extremos, presença
13 de solventes orgânicos, detergentes e agentes oxidantes (Contesini et al., 2018). Além disso,
14 de acordo com Eggert et al. (2003), *B. subtilis* pode produzir e secretar dois tipos de lipases
15 (*lipA* e *lipB*) a partir de genes que são diferencialmente expressos de acordo com as
16 condições de crescimento.

17 A respeito dos genes analisados no capítulo III, o uso de cianobactérias (transgênicas
18 ou selvagens) na dieta apresentou um aumento da expressão de *amy* e diminuição da
19 expressão de *cathB* e *gs*. Esses resultados sugerem que o metabolismo do camarão está
20 utilizando mais açúcares do que proteínas como fonte de energia, o que pode implicar no
21 menor uso de proteína como fonte de energia, com conseqüente impacto no metabolismo de
22 amônia de camarões. Além disso, o uso de cianobactérias transgênicas apresentou maiores
23 níveis transcricionais do gene *gdh* quando comparado ao grupo controle. No cenário em que o
24 grupo de camarões tratados com cianobactérias expressando uma β -glicosidase apresentou
25 maior disponibilidade de carboidratos, é possível supor que *gdh* esteja atuando na formação
26 de aminoácidos a partir de derivados de carboidratos.

27 Finalmente, sugere-se que o uso de diferentes probióticos (convencionais ou não
28 convencionais) impactou de forma significativa o sistema imune e os processos digestivos do
29 camarão. O uso de um probiótico endógeno resultou em um aumento da concentração de
30 lipídios no músculo e no hepatopâncreas dos animais. Pôde-se observar, também, os
31 benefícios dos probióticos transgênicos, como o *B. subtilis* KM0-Phy expressando uma fitase
32 e de *S. elongatus* P_{T7}AMBGL17 expressando uma β -glicosidase na dieta de *L. vannamei*.
33 Além disso, o uso dos probióticos transgênicos aumentou a deposição de fósforo no músculo

1 de *L. vannamei*, o que pode contribuir para um ganho econômico e ambiental para a
2 carcinocultura, visto que a adição desse mineral impacta no custo da ração e sua excreção é o
3 principal fator que contribui para a eutrofização dos ambientes aquáticos.

4 5 **CONSIDERAÇÕES FINAIS**

6 ✓ Constatamos que a cepa endógena do *L. vannamei* (cepa E) foi capaz de
7 aumentar significativamente a deposição de lipídios no músculo e no hepatopâncreas do
8 camarão, além de diminuir a expressão de genes relacionados à digestão e ao metabolismo de
9 aminoácidos. Devido aos seus efeitos benéficos para o camarão, este probiótico pode ser uma
10 alternativa para a carcinocultura.

11 ✓ Constatamos que a fitase de *Aspergillus fumigatus* expressa pela cepa KM0-
12 Phy foi capaz de aumentar a deposição de fósforo no músculo de *L. vannamei* alimentados
13 com uma dieta comercial.

14 ✓ Ao nosso conhecimento, o capítulo II representa o primeiro estudo em *L.*
15 *vannamei* que utiliza uma linhagem bacteriana transgênica do gênero *Bacillus* capaz de
16 excretar uma fitase recombinante que foi suplementado à uma ração comercial. Os resultados
17 demonstraram que a fitase heteróloga é capaz de disponibilizar mais fósforo da ração,
18 podendo diminuir os custos relacionados à incorporação deste elemento nas rações
19 comerciais.

20 ✓ Ao nosso conhecimento, o capítulo III representa o primeiro estudo em que
21 uma cianobactéria (*S. elongatus*) geneticamente programada para expressar uma β -glicosidase
22 heteróloga foi utilizada como suplemento na ração de *L. vannamei*. Esta cianobactéria
23 disponibilizou mais carboidratos para o camarão, resultando numa maior deposição de
24 lipídios no músculo e no hepatopâncreas do camarão, além de melhorar a biodisponibilidade
25 de fósforo para o hospedeiro o que, além de alterar o metabolismo, também pode minizar os
26 impactos ambientais da carcinocultura.

27 28 **PERSPECTIVAS**

29 ✓ Sugere-se que a cepa E de *B. subtilis*, isolada do trato intestinal de *L.*
30 *vannamei*, tenha seu genoma completamente sequenciado para que se transforme numa
31 plataforma exclusiva para a produção de moléculas de interesse para a carcinocultura.

32 ✓ Levando em consideração que a cepa geneticamente modificada de *B. subtilis*
33 que expressa uma fitase heteróloga induziu a um aumento de 39 % no conteúdo de fósforo no

1 músculo do camarão, sugere-se o desenvolvimento de experimentos com quantidades
2 decrescentes de fósforo na ração para avaliar o quanto esse probiótico poderia economizar
3 deste elemento na alimentação de camarões.

4 ✓ Uma vez que a cepa de *S. elongatus* expressando uma β -glicosidase parece
5 estar disponibilizando mais carboidratos para camarões, sugere-se que sejam realizados
6 experimentos com quantidades decrescentes destes elementos na dieta para avaliar o quanto
7 este probiótico não convencional estaria compensando o metabolismo de açúcares do
8 hospedeiro.

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