1	Disparate effects of antibiotic-induced microbiome change and enhanced fitness
2	in Daphnia magna
3	Asa Motiei ¹ , Björn Brindefalk ² , Martin Ogonowski ^{1, 3} , Rehab El-Shehawy ¹ , Paulina
4	Pastuszek ² , Karin Ek ¹ , Birgitta Liewenborg ¹ , Klas Udekwu ² , Elena Gorokhova ¹
5	¹ Department of Environmental Science & Analytical Chemistry (ACES), Stockholm
6	University, SE-106 91 Stockholm, Sweden
7	² Department of Molecular Biosciences, The Wenner-Gren Institute, Stockholm University,
8	SE-106 91 Stockholm, Sweden
9	³ Aquabiota Water Research AB, SE-115 50 Stockholm, Sweden
10	

12 *Abstract*

It is a common view that an organism's microbiota has a profound influence on host fitness: 13 however, supporting evidence is lacking in many organisms. We manipulated the gut 14 microbiome of Daphnia magna by chronic exposure to different concentrations of the 15 antibiotic Ciprofloxacin $(0.01 - 1 \text{ mg } \text{L}^{-1})$, and evaluated whether this affected the animals' 16 fitness and antioxidant capacity. In line with our expectations, antibiotic exposure altered the 17 microbiome in a concentration-dependent manner. However, contrary to these expectations, 18 the reduced diversity of gut bacteria was not associated with any fitness detriment. Moreover, 19 the growth-related parameters correlated negatively with diversity indices; and, in the 20 21 daphnids exposed to the lowest ciprofloxacin concentrations, the antioxidant capacity, growth, and fecundity were even higher than in control animals. These findings suggest that 22 ciprofloxacin exerts direct stimulatory effects on growth and reproduction in Daphnia, while 23 24 microbiome- mediated effects are of lesser importance. Thus, although microbiome profiling of Daphnia may be a sensitive tool to identify early effects of antibiotic exposure, 25 disentangling direct and microbiome-mediated effects on host fitness is not straightforward. 26 27

29 Introduction

In multicellular organisms, the microbiome contributes to critical aspects of host development
and physiology (1). In ecological, evolutionary and ecotoxicological research, there is
growing recognition that environmental stresses imposed upon the microbiome may drive
physiological responses, life-history penalties and adaptation capacity of their hosts (2), (3) 4)
Consequently, coping with various environmental insults would involve both the host and its
microbiome responses.

36 The gut microbiota participates directly in food digestion and nutrient assimilation, which

affects the host's energy acquisition and growth (5). In addition to this, the host immune

38 system is influenced by the gut microbes via a number of different mechanisms, e.g.,

39 competition with pathogens as well as suppression and modification of virulence factors via

40 metabolite production (6). Symbiotic bacteria are also capable of enhancing the host innate

41 immune system by, for example, up-regulation of mucosal immunity, induction of

42 antimicrobial peptides and antibodies (7, 8). Considering the biological effects triggered by

43 the host-microbiome interactions, a disruption of mutualistic bacterial communities may

44 result in increased susceptibility to pathogens and infections, while simultaneously

45 affecting the growth and development of the host via compromised nutrition. In various

46 gnotobiotic animal models, poor survival, growth and fecundity are commonly observed,

47 reflecting a physiological impairment due to some dysbiotic state of microflora (3, 9).

If growth penalties are to be expected in animals with perturbed microbiota, then it should be possible to manipulate animal fitness by targeting its resident bacteria with antibacterial substances. In line with this, retarded development has been observed in the copepod *Nitocra spinipes* upon antibiotic exposure, and linked to structural changes in its microbiota (10). It was suggested that aberrant digestion was behind these changes as has also been observed in *Daphnia magna* following a short-term antibiotics exposure (9,11). Moreover, an altered

microbiota composition was reported in *Daphnia* following a long-term exposure to the 54 55 antibiotic oxytetracycline, concurrent with reduced host growth (12). While perturbed microbiota can manifest itself directly as decreased nutrient uptake, another outcome can be 56 effects on host antioxidant production, with concomitant effects on immunity and growth 57 (13). However, short antibiotic exposure may not necessarily result in any significant growth 58 penalties in the long run. The outcome of any chronic exposure to antibiotics would largely 59 depend on the resilience of the bacterial communities, and their capacity to recover and re-60 establish any functional interaction(s) relevant to the host (16,17,18,19,20). 61 To study the relationships between microbiome composition and host performance, a 62 common set of model species and methods to manipulate their microbiomes is needed. In 63 ecology, evolution and ecotoxicology, Daphnia species are used routinely as model 64 organisms because of their well-known physiology, rapid reproduction, and sensitivity to 65 environmental factors (19). The microbiome of the laboratory-reared *Daphnia magna* has 66 67 been recently presented in several studies using different approaches, from cloning to shotgun sequencing (22, 23). Regardless of the sequencing platform, origin of specimens, and culture 68 conditions, the core microbiome appears relatively stable, mainly comprised of 69 Betaproteobacteria, Gammaproteobacteria and facultative anaerobic Bacteroidetes species. 70 At the genus level, *Limnohabitans* has been reported as one of the most stable and dominant 71 72 members in *Daphnia* gut, and variations in its abundance have been tied to the animal fecundity (22). Although some studies have addressed the dependence of *Daphnia* on its 73 microbiota (9) and some short-term effects on fitness following exposure to antibiotics have 74 75 been observed in *Daphnia magna* (25, 13), the relationship between microflora perturbation and host fitness is still unclear, as is the involvement and modulating role of antioxidants in 76 these relationships. 77

In this study, the relationship between antibiotic-mediated gut microbiome modulation and 78 79 host fitness were addressed experimentally using a model cladoceran *Daphnia magna*. We monitored changes in the gut microbiome, host longevity, growth, and reproduction, as well 80 as antioxidant levels in the exposed animals following ciprofloxacin exposure. We 81 hypothesized that the diversity and abundance of the gut-associated microflora would 82 decrease with increasing concentration of antibiotics. Furthermore, we expected longer 83 exposure time and higher antibiotic concentrations to have negative effects on somatic 84 growth, reproductive output, and antioxidant capacity. These reductions we expected would 85 be due to reduced bacterial diversity in particular, and to some extent, an altered community 86 87 composition. These hypotheses were tested by combining (1) long-term (21 d) exposure experiments with life-table analysis, (2) microbiome profiling using the next generation 88 sequencing of 16S rRNA gene and taxonomic assignment, and (3) measurements of daphnid 89 total antioxidant capacity, growth, and fecundity. 90

91

92 Material and methods

93 Test species and culture conditions

The cladoceran *Daphnia magna*, originating from a single clone (Environmental pollution test
strain *Clone 5*, Federal Environment Agency, Berlin, Germany), was used in this experiment.
The animals were cultured in groups of 20 individuals in 3-L beakers with M7 medium
(OECD standard 202 and 211), and fed a mixture of the green algae *Pseudokirchneriella subcapitata* and *Scenedesmus subspicatus* three times a week; the algae were grown
axenically.

100

101 Ciprofloxacin stock solutions

Ciprofloxacin hydrochloride (CAS: 86393-32-0; Sigma) the antibiotic utilized in this study 102 and is a broad spectrum fluoroquinolone, active against both Gram-positive, G+, and Gram-103 negative, G-, bacteria. Its mode of action is the inhibition of the gyrase and / or 104 topoisomerase enzyme of microbes which determines the supercoiling state of DNA, and 105 106 critical to bacterial replication, repair, transcription and recombination (24). Selection of this drug was due to its rapid absorption, long half-life in the test system, and the absence of 107 acute toxicity in *D. magna* within the range of the concentrations tested (25). A singular 108 stock solution of ciprofloxacin (1 mg/ml) was prepared in M7 medium and stored at -20°C 109 during the course of the experiment. 110

111

112 Experimental design

We employed three drug concentrations (0.01, 0.1 and 1 mg/L) and a control treatment (M7 113 114 medium). For each treatment, 25 neonates (< 24 h) of *D. magna* were placed individually in 40 mL of M7 medium, with or without ciprofloxacin; the medium was changed every 115 second day. The test design followed a standard procedure for the reproduction test with 116 Daphnia (OECD standard 211). The animals were fed daily with a suspension of green 117 algae Pseudokirchneriella subcapitata (0.2 mg C d⁻¹; axenic culture) and incubated at 22°C 118 with 16^L: 8^D photoperiod. Under these conditions, the animals matured and started to 119 reproduce 8-9 d after the start of the experiment. All jars were inspected daily and mortality 120 recorded. Upon release of neonates, counts were made, offspring discarded, and brood size 121 122 recorded for each female and within each brood. In conjunction with brood release, four randomly selected individuals from each treatment were placed in antibiotic-free medium. In 123 this manner, we collected females after their 1st, 2nd, 3rd, and 4th clutch, with the last 124 individuals sacrificed on day 21, when the experiment was terminated. When sampling, the 125 images of females were acquired by scanning live animals on a glass surface in a drop of 126

127	water (CanoScan 8800F 13.0), and their body length (BL, mm) was measured using ImageJ
128	software (26). For each individual, the gut was dissected using a sterile needle and a pair of
129	forceps, washed with nuclease-free water, transferred individually to Eppendorf tubes and
130	stored at -80°C until DNA extraction. The degutted body was transferred to a fresh
131	Eppendorf tube, stored at -80°C and tested for antioxidant levels based on Oxygen Radical
132	Absorbance Capacity (ORAC) and protein content.
133	
134	DNA Extraction
135	DNA was extracted from the gut samples using 10% Chelex (24) and purified with
136	AMPure ^R , XP beads (Beckman Coulter, Brea, CA, USA) following the manufacturer's
137	instructions. Initial DNA concentrations following purification were evaluated using Quant-
138	iT PicoGreen dsDNA Assay kit (ThermoFisher, USA) following the instructions from
139	L(27)). Absorbance was measured at 530 nm, using a Tecan Ultra 384 SpectroFluorometer

- 140 (PerkinElmer, USA).
- 141

142 16S rRNA gene amplification and sequencing library preparation

143 Bacterial diversity of the samples was analyzed by sequencing of amplicons generated from the V3-V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene using the MiSeq Illumina platform. Two-stage PCR 144 amplification was performed using forward primer 341F: (CCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG) and 145 reverse primer 805R: (GGACTACHVGGGTWTCTAAT). The first PCR was carried out in 146 25-µl PCR reactions and comprised 0.02 U µl⁻¹ Phusion polymerase (ThermoFisher, USA), 147 148 0.2 mM dNTP, 1 mM MgCl₂, 1 × Phusion reaction buffer, 0.5 μ M of each primer as well as 5 ng of DNA template). The amplification protocol consisted of an initial denaturation at 98 °C 149 for 30 seconds followed by 35 cycles of 10 sec at 98 °C, 30 sec at 55 °C and 72 °C, and, a 150

final extension step (72 °C for 10 min). PCR products were purified using Agencourt AMPure 151 152 XP beads (Beckman Coulter, Brea, CA, USA). Following this, amplicon PCR was performed on 5 µl of equimolar amounts of PCR product using Nextera XT primers (Index 1 (N7XX) 153 and Index 2(S5xx)), targeting the same region of the 16S rRNA genes (8 cycles of 30 sec at 154 95 °C, 30 sec at 55 °C and 35 sec at 72 °C). The products were purified with Amplicons 155 AMPure XP Beads (Beckman Coulter) according to the manufacturer's protocol and 156 157 concentrations estimated using Quant-iT PicoGreen dsDNA Assay kit (ThermoFisher, USA). Individually barcoded samples were mixed in equimolar amounts, and DNA sequencing 158 adaptor indexes ligated using the TruSeq DNA PCR-free LT Library Preparation Kit 159 160 (Illumina). Quality control was performed on an Agilent 2100 BioAnalyser using high sensitivity DNA chip. PhiX DNA (10%) was added to the denatured pools, and sequencing 161 was performed on an Illumina MiSeq using the MiSeq V3 reagent kit (600-cycles) on the 162 Illumina MiSeq platform. De-multiplexing and removal of indexes and primers were done 163 with the Illumina software v. 2.6.2.1 on the instrument according to the standard Illumina 164 protocol. 165

166

167 Processing of sequencing data

Following initial upstream de-multiplexing and index removal, sequences were analysed 168 using the DADA2 v. 1.6 module (28) as implemented in the R statistical software v. 3.4.2 169 (29). The pipeline consisted of quality-filtering, trimming of bad quality (< Q30) stretches, 170 error estimation and de-replication of reads, merging of forward and reverse reads and finally, 171 removal of chimeric sequences. All remaining sequences were assigned taxonomy on the 172 genus level using the Silva Ribosomal RNA database version v.128. Subsequent statistical 173 analyses and visualization were done with the Phyloseg R-module v.1.22.3 (30) unless 174 otherwise stated. 175

176

177 Analysis of Oxygen Radical Absorbance Capacity and protein content

As a proxy for antioxidant capacity, we assayed oxygen radical absorbance capacity (ORAC) 178 179 according to (31) with minor modifications and normalized values to protein content. This biomarker represents the water-soluble fraction of antioxidants and has been applied in 180 181 daphnids (32). Samples for ORAC and protein measurements were homogenized in 100 µL of PPB buffer (75 mM, pH 7.4). Fluorescein was applied as a fluorescent probe (106 nM) and 2, 182 2- azobis (2-amidinopropane) dihydrochloride (AAPH) (152.66 mM) as a source of peroxyl 183 184 radicals. Trolox (218 µM, Sigma-Aldrich) was used as the standard. The assay was conducted in 96-well microplates while 20 µL of homogenate sample was added to each well and mixed 185 186 with 30 µL of AAPH and 150 µL of fluorescein. Fluorescence was measured at 485nm/520nm. 187 Protein content of the supernatant was determined by the bicinchoninic acid method using a Pierce BCA Protein Assay kit 23227 (Thermo Scientific) according to the microplate procedure 188 with some modifications. In each well, 25 µl of blank, standard or samples was added to 200 189 190 µl of working solution. Absorbance was measured at 540 nm using a FluoStar Optima plate reader (BMG Lab Technologies, Germany). Antioxidant capacity was expressed as mg trolox 191 192 eq. mg protein⁻¹.

194 Data analysis and statistics

195 *Life- history traits*

196 Survival probability was calculated using Kaplan-Meier analysis, which estimates

the probability of an event (i.e., death) occurring in a given period (33). The logrank test was

used to evaluate differences in the survivorship between the treatments using package *survival*in R (34).

200

201 The empirical von Bertalanffy growth model was applied to determine growth parameters

202 using length-at-age data fitted to the equation:

$$BL = BL_{max} \times (1 - exp^{(-K \times t)})$$

where *BL* is the total length at time *t* (days); BL_{max} is the length reached at an infinite time, defined as the maximum potential length attained under the prevailing conditions; and *K* is the growth rate. Statistical differences in BL_{max} and *K* between each treatment and control were determined by non-overlapping 95% confidence intervals.

To analyze the effects of exposure time and ciprofloxacin concentration on the daphnid fecundity, we used generalized linear models (GLM) with Poisson distribution and identity link function. Residuals were checked visually, and nonsignificant interaction terms were dropped from the analysis. A post hoc Tukey HSD test was used to compare the brood size among the treatments for each clutch.

- 213 The daphnid population growth rate (PGR) was estimated according to Euler-Lotka's
- equation using (R Core Team, 2018) (Appendix S10):

$$\sum_{x=\alpha}^{\beta} l(x) \ m(x)e^{-rx} = 1$$

216	where $l(x)$ is the fraction of individuals surviving to age x and $m(x)$ is the birth rate per capita
217	for the mothers of age x . Bootstrapping (999 permutations) was used to estimate 95%
218	confidence limits of the PGR values in each treatment, and statistical differences in r between
219	each treatment and control were determined by non-overlapping 95% confidence intervals.
220	
221	Analysis of microbiota communities
222	Diversity indices analysis
223	To assess the alpha diversity of the bacterial communities, we calculated commonly used
224	indices of diversity and evenness (ACE, Chao1 and Fisher's alpha). Effects of time and
225	concentration on the diversity indices were tested by GLM with normal error structure and
226	log-link. Quantile plots were used to evaluate the distribution of the residuals and deviance
227	was used to access goodness of the model. Interaction (<i>time</i> \times <i>concentration</i>) was first
228	included in every model but omitted if found not significant. The Principal coordinates
229	analysis (PCoA) with Bray-Curtis dissimilarity index was used to visualize differences in
230	community composition among the treatments (35). Differences in the community structure
231	at the family level were tested by permutational multivariate analysis of variance
232	(Permanova) using variance stabilized Bray-Curtis dissimilarity. Multivariate homogeneity
233	of treatment dispersion was assessed using the beta-disperser in the vegan package (36).
234	

235 <u>Connecting the microbiome to host fitness</u>

The R-package edgeR (37) was used to identify differentially abundant bacterial taxa (false 236 237 discovery rate-corrected *P*-values, $\alpha = 0.05$, FDR=1%) that were associated with high or low growth rate (somatic and reproductive) of the daphnids. As a measure for somatic and 238 reproductive growth, we used BL and fecundity, respectively. For each trait, we created two 239 classes, *high* (above the group mean, coded as 1) and *low* (below the group mean, coded as 0) 240 using zeta scores for individual BL and fecundity measurements. Zeta scores (zero mean, unit 241 variance) were calculated based on clutch-specific mean values (all treatments included) and 242 corresponding standard deviations to account for the changes in BL and fecundity with the 243 daphnid age. 244

245

246 **Results**

247 Survival and individual growth

The survival rate was moderate to high (84% to 92%), not differing significantly among the 248 treatments (log rank test, p > 0.8), although the antibiotic-exposed animals had slightly higher 249 survival compared to the controls (Figure S1). According to the individual growth curve 250 analysis, the animals exposed to the lowest ciprofloxacin concentration (0.01 mgL⁻¹) had a 251 significantly greater maximal body length (BL max) compared to the control animals, whereas 252 the K values were similar across the treatments (Figure 1). 253 Figure 1. This is the Figure 1 title. Individual growth curve analysis 254 255 This is the Figure 1 legend. 256 Estimated BL_{max} and K values and corresponding 95%-confidence limits for Daphnia 257 magna grown in 0.01, 0.1 and 1 mg / L ciprofloxacin and the control. 258

259

260 *Reproduction*

- 261 The average brood size was significantly higher in all ciprofloxacin treatments compared to
- the control (GLM, $t_{263, 267} = 12.97, p < 0.001$; Figure 2), with the increase varying from 36% in
- 263 the 0.01 mg/L treatment ($t_{263, 267} = 4.347$; p < 0.001) to 42% in the 0.1 mg/L treatment ($t_{263, 267}$
- 264 = 4.05; p < 0.001). Also, there was a significant negative effect of time (t_{263, 267} = -2.74; p <
- 0.05), which was mainly related to the low fecundity in the last brood (Tukey HSD, z (4-1):-
- 266 3.084, $p_{(4-1)} < 0.01$; $z_{(4-2)}$: -5.97, $p_{(4-2)} < 0.01$; $z_{(4-3)}$: -3.34, $p_{(4-3)} < 0.005$). The total number of
- offspring produced during the experiment per individual female was 27-36% higher in the
- 268 daphnids exposed to ciprofloxacin compared to controls.

269

Figure 2. This is the Figure 2 title. Reproduction of *Daphnia magna* (brood size and time of
reproduction) during a 21-d exposure to ciprofloxacin (0.01, 0.1, and 1 mg / L) and a control.
This is the Figure 2 legend. Breadth of the box indicates an extended period for clutch
release within a treatment, i.e., non-synchronous reproduction. Note that the last clutch was
estimated from both the number of offspring released and the number of embryos in the brood
chamber at the termination of the experiment.

276

277 *Population growth rate*

The population growth rate (PGR) varied from 0.26 to 0.30 among the treatments and was

higher in the exposed daphnids relative to the control by 17%, 19% and 15% in the animals

exposed to 0.01, 0.1 and 1 mgL⁻¹, respectively. The differences from the control were

significant for all treatments (Table S1).

283 Characterization of the gut microbiota in Daphnia

284	A total of 1314 high-quality sequences were obtained after trimming and assembly. The core
285	gut microbiome of our test animals was dominated by Proteobacteria, which contributed on
286	average 74% (ranging from 25% to 95% in individual specimens). When all treatments were
287	considered, Actinobacteria (15%), Bacteroidetes (7%), Firmicutes (1%) and
288	Verrucomicrobia (1%) were also common. In the non-exposed animals, the contributions
289	were different, with Proteobacteria, Bacteroidetes and Verrucomicrobia being the most
290	common (Figure S2e). Together, these five phyla formed the core microbiome of the gut and
291	comprised on average 99% of the OTUs assigned to phylum level (Table S5a).
292	
293	The major classes of bacteria found in all treatments, in order of prevalence, were
294	Betaproteobacteria (35% of total OTUs), Gammaproteobacteria (29%), Actinobacteria
294 295	Betaproteobacteria (35% of total OTUs), Gammaproteobacteria (29%), Actinobacteria (14%), Alphaproteobacteria (9%), Cytophagia (5%), and Verrucomicrobia (1%). In the non-
294 295 296	Betaproteobacteria (35% of total OTUs), Gammaproteobacteria (29%), Actinobacteria (14%), Alphaproteobacteria (9%), Cytophagia (5%), and Verrucomicrobia (1%). In the non- exposed animals, Cytophagia was the third most abundant group, contributing 8 to 36%
294 295 296 297	Betaproteobacteria (35% of total OTUs), Gammaproteobacteria (29%), Actinobacteria (14%), Alphaproteobacteria (9%), Cytophagia (5%), and Verrucomicrobia (1%). In the non- exposed animals, Cytophagia was the third most abundant group, contributing 8 to 36% throughout the experiment, whereas Actinobacteria contributed less than 2% on average.
294 295 296 297 298	Betaproteobacteria (35% of total OTUs), Gammaproteobacteria (29%), Actinobacteria (14%), Alphaproteobacteria (9%), Cytophagia (5%), and Verrucomicrobia (1%). In the non- exposed animals, Cytophagia was the third most abundant group, contributing 8 to 36% throughout the experiment, whereas Actinobacteria contributed less than 2% on average. Bacilli, Sphingobacteria and Bacteroidia were found together in about 3% of total reads
294 295 296 297 298 299	Betaproteobacteria (35% of total OTUs), Gammaproteobacteria (29%), Actinobacteria (14%), Alphaproteobacteria (9%), Cytophagia (5%), and Verrucomicrobia (1%). In the non- exposed animals, Cytophagia was the third most abundant group, contributing 8 to 36% throughout the experiment, whereas Actinobacteria contributed less than 2% on average. Bacilli, Sphingobacteria and Bacteroidia were found together in about 3% of total reads assigned at class level (Table S5b).

We found members of 62 orders in all treatments (Table S5c). Predominant orders included Burkholderiales (34%), Oceanospirillales (15%), Alteromonadales (10%), Rhizobiales (7%), Micrococcales (5%), and Cytophagales (5%), which was the second most represented order (16%) in the non-exposed animals. The core gut microbiome were formed by these orders along with Propionibacteriales, Corynebacteriales, Pseudomonadales and Methylophilales representing almost 89% of the OTUs assigned at the order level.

307

308	Members of 101 families comprising 252 genera were identified as unique reads and assigned
309	at the family and genus level. Across the treatments, Comamonadaceae (33%),
310	Halomonadaceae (15%), Shewanellaceae (10%), and Cytophagaceae (5%) were the most
311	common (Table S5e). In the non-exposed animals, Comamonadaceae (65%) and
312	Cytophagaceae (17%) were the most common. When all treatments were considered, the most
313	abundant genera were Limnohabitans, Shewanella, Halomonas, Bosea, and Leadbetterella.
314	These genera contributed on average 71% (ranging from 57% to 81%) to the gut microbiota.
315	In the non-exposed animals, however, Bosea was not contributing to the core microbiome
316	(Figure S2a).
317	
318	The effects of ciprofloxacin on the gut microbiota
319	Chao1, ACE and Fisher's alpha indices were negatively co-related to ciprofloxacin
320	concentration (Figure 3a and Table S3 and S4). According to the PCoA, populations
321	exposed to 0.1 and 1 mgL ⁻¹ clustered closely to each other, with higher loadings on the
322	second axis, which separated them from the control (Figure 4). The homogeneous dispersion
323	(Betadisper, $p > 0.05$, Table S3a) met the assumption for further pairwise comparison

between the treatments, and a permutation test detected significant differences between the

325 communities exposed to ciprofloxacin and those in control (Permanova, pairwise

326 comparison p < 0.05, Table S4). Differential abundance analysis showed the most

327 Ciprofloxacin sensitive bacteria to be *Leadbetterella* (Bacteroidetes), and *Hydrogenophaga*

- and *Methylotenera*, both Betaproteobacteria. On the opposite end of the scale (most
- 329 refractory) were Pseudorhodoferax, Shewanella, and Halomonas (Beta- and Gamma-

- 330 Proteobacteria), as their abundance in the exposed animals had increased significantly
- following antibiotic exposure (Figure 5a, Table S6).
- 332
- Figure 3. This is the Figure 3 title. Alpha diversity indices (Chao1, ACE, and Fisher) obtained
 for gut microbiota
- 335 This is the Figure 3 legend. Communities grouped by (a) ciprofloxacin concentration and (b)
- clutch number during the 21-day exposure. Clutch "0" indicates initial diversity of individuals.
- 337 Points indicate specific values for individual daphnids.
- 338
- Figure 4. This is the Figure 4 title. Principal coordinate ordination (PCoA) of the 16S rRNA
 gene libraries based on the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity.
- 341 This is the Figure 4 legend

Colors indicate treatments, i.e., concentration of ciprofloxacin (Control: 0, 0.01, 0.1, and 1 mg /L). The ellipsoids represent a 95% confidence interval of normal distribution surrounding each group. Point labels indicate day of sampling. Plot shows the clear clustering of bacterial communities in the treatments exposed to the two highest concentrations of ciprofloxacin (0.1 and 1 mg / L), as well as between communities in the controls and the lowest exposure concentration (0.01 mg / L).

- Figure 5. This is the Figure 5 title. Differential abundance analysis of gut bacteria
 This is the Figure 5 legend. Bacterial genera significantly associated with (a) exposure to
- ciprofloxacin; (b) high somatic growth and fecundity of the host observed during the

- experiment. The fold change (log2FC) and the associated statistics were derived by the edgeR
- 353 test.)
- 354

356

357 *Changes of the gut microbiota with time*

358 Although diversity (Fisher's alpha) increased with time of exposure, concentration had a more

profound than time on this index (Figure 3b; Table S2). Chronic exposure to ciprofloxacin,

resulted in a significantly lower diversity in the exposed animals (Figure 3a, Table S2). All

361 diversity indices showed a similar trend over time, with a high diversity during the first two

362 weeks (the first clutch), a decrease observed at the time of the second clutch, following by an

increasing trend. However, the time effect was not significant (Table S2).

364

365 *Linkages between the gut microbiome and life-history traits*

366 The diversity indices correlated negatively with fecundity, while only Fisher's alpha had a

367 positive correlation with body size. The differential abundance analysis indicated that genera

368 *Bosea* and *Hydrogenophaga* were more abundant in the daphnids with high and low somatic

369 growth, respectively (Table S7; Figure 5b). Moreover, *Bosea* and *Galbitalea* were

significantly more abundant in the daphnids with higher fecundity, whereas abundances of

371 *Leadbetterella* and *Hydrogenophaga* in these individuals were significantly lower (Table S7,

Figure 5b). Thus, *Bosea* and *Hydrogenophaga* were consistently associated with high and low

373 growth phenotypes, respectively.

374

375 Biomarker ORAC/Protein responses to antibiotic exposure

The total antioxidant capacity (ORAC, g Trolox eq. g protein⁻¹) was significantly higher in the

animals exposed to lower concentrations of ciprofloxacin (0.01 and 0.1 mgL⁻¹) (Figure 6,

Table S8). Moreover, there was a significant positive relationship between the individual

ORAC and body length (GLM; Wald stat. = 5.83, p < 0.02; Table S9, Supporting

Information) across the concentrations tested. The correlations between the ORAC values and
diversity indices were negative and marginally significant (Table S10, Supporting
information).

383

384	Figure 6. This is the Figure 6 title Daphnia magna: response of the total antioxidant
385	capacity (ORAC, g Trolox eq. g protein ⁻¹) to the ciprofloxacin concentration.
386	This is the Figure 6 legend. The individuals sampled after their fourth clutch were excluded,
387	because some of them contained eggs in the brood chamber. The non-matching letters
388	indicate significant differences between the groups (Tukey's multiple comparisons test; p $<$
389	0.05). See Table S9 for details on the statistical comparisons.
390	
391	
392	Discussion
393	The intestinal microbiome plays an essential role in regulating many aspects of host
394	physiology, and its disruption through antibiotic exposure has been implicated in microbiota-
395	mediated consequences on host fitness. We examined effects of chronic antibiotics exposure
396	on Daphnia magna gut microbiota in concert with fitness-related responses of the host. As

397 hypothesized, the exposure to ciprofloxacin resulted in profound changes in the microbiome

and a reduced microbial diversity at all concentrations tested (0.01 to 1 mgL⁻¹). Surprisingly,

399 no negative effects on daphnid antioxidant levels, fitness and mortality were observed.

400 Moreover, the negative changes in the microbiome coincided with increased antioxidant

401 capacity, individual growth and host reproduction and, as a result, significantly higher

402 population growth in the animals exposed to ciprofloxacin. Thus, the hypothesized positive

403 correlation between microbiome diversity and host performance was not observed. Our

findings indicate that reliance on shifts in taxonomic composition of bacterial community 404 405 generates an incomplete picture of the functional effect of antibiotic intervention in a nontarget eukaryote. A full mechanistic understanding will require further study of the specific 406 functional relationships between the host and its core microbiome, and the integration of 407 metabolomic and phenotypic data. Moreover, in case of antibiotic-mediated intervention, we 408 need to disentangle direct effects of the exposure on host physiology. This is already evident 409 410 in human microbiome study where drug effects on mitochondrial activity are known to confound (38,39). 411

412

413 *Core microbiome of* Daphnia magna

Proteobacteria, Actinobacteria and Bacteroidetes comprise a core microbiome of the Daphnia 414 magna intestine. Most taxa (or their close relatives) identified in this study as a part of core 415 416 microbiome have previously been reported in *Daphnia* (21,40,41). The Comamonadaceae family of Burkholderiales have been shown to be the most abundant family in Daphnia gut 417 microbiota (41,42), and were most prevalent in our test animals. Other taxa found in high 418 abundance were the Gammaproteobacteria orders Oceanospirillales and Alteromonadales, and 419 the families Nocardioidaceae, Microbacteriaceae, and Moraxellaceae (21,12). On the genus 420 421 level, more differences between earlier reported daphnid associated taxa and our dataset were evident. In addition to Limnohabitans, other identified microbial taxa were Pseudorhodoferax 422 and *Hydrogenophaga* (Burkholderiales) but not the previously reported *Bordetella*, 423 Cupriavidus (43), Ideonella and Leptothrix spp. (41). Also, Enhvdrobacter was the dominant 424 genus of Moraxellaceae in our study (Table S5e), while Acinetobacter spp. was reported in 425 other studies (12.20). Methylibium was only found in the animals that were exposed to 0.01 426 mg / L of Ciprofloxacin and not in the non-exposed individuals, suggesting that this genus is 427 relatively rare if normally present. Together, our results present a relatively stable bacterial 428

429 composition in the *Daphnia* gut from a higher taxonomic level, suggestive of functional or
430 other redundancy in the preferred association of daphnids with their microbiota components.

431

432 *Effects of Ciprofloxacin on the Daphnia gut microbiome*

433 Drug exposure significantly altered the microbiome, with a decrease or even the disappearance of many taxa by the end of the experiment at lowest exposure concentration 434 and within a first week at higher concentrations (Figure 3b, Table S5). Although diversity 435 436 decreased with both ciprofloxacin concentration and exposure time, only the concentration effect was significant (Table S2, Figure 3). G+ bacteria, mostly Actinobacteria and 437 *Firmicutes*, were better able to withstand ciprofloxacin effects as their relative abundance 438 increased with drug concentration (Figure. S4a), while the G-bacteria had divergent 439 responses (Figure, S4b). For example, Hydrogenophaga and Pseudorhodoferax, both 440 441 belonging to the G- genus Burkholderiales, had clearly opposite responses, decreasing and increasing, respectively, with increasing concentration. This is in line with earlier studies that 442 demonstrated higher susceptibility to Ciprofloxacin among G- bacteria, as compared with co-443 444 occurring G+ species (44). This is evident for the typically low minimum inhibitory concentrations, MICs, estimated for Alphaproteobacteria, such as Escherichia/Shigella, 445 (commonly in the low µM range) as compared with that for many Firmicutes, which are 446 usually in the mM range. 447 At higher concentrations of Ciprofloxacin, several genera representative of the core 448 449 microbiome declined to non-detectable levels; the *Limnohabitans* genus was replaced by Halomonas and Shewanella, whose relative abundances increased with drug concentration 450 (Table S5e). Shewanella is a known acid producer (45) and may alter the pH balance in the 451 gut microenvironment when at higher densities. This would suppress the growth of 452 Limnohabitans who grow preferentially under neutral and alkaline conditions (46). Such 453

454 community-level effects probably play a significant role in the dynamics of specific bacterial455 taxa as a result of the exposure to antibiotics.

456

457 *Effects of Ciprofloxacin on Daphnia life history traits and antioxidant levels*

Previous studies on aposymbiotic daphnids showed that disruption in gut microbiota, either 458 by drugs or diet, had adverse effects on nutrition (40) (11), immunity (8), growth (12), 459 fecundity (22), and longevity (47). The effects that we observed however, were most 460 prominent at low antibiotic concentrations. Despite the ciprofloxacin-induced shifts in the 461 462 microbiome composition, ORAC levels, growth and reproduction in the daphnids were similar or even significantly higher than in controls. The discrepancy between the microbiome 463 and the organism-level responses may result from the variable susceptibility of various 464 465 microbes to the broad-spectrum Ciprofloxacin and additional variability related to induction of the SOS response pathways in different taxa. 466

The mismatch between microbiome change and host response suggests that other drivers, 467 such as a direct effect of Ciprofloxacin on the host, were involved, leading to the observed 468 effects on growth and reproduction. In line with this, a biphasic dose-response to 469 ciprofloxacin observed in human fibroblast cells, manifesting as increased cell proliferation 470 and viability when compared to non-exposed controls (48). In Daphnia magna, the 471 reproduction response to ciprofloxacin was also biphasic, with stimulatory effects at 472 concentrations below 5 mg/L (49). This is in line with the positive response induced by the 473 474 test concentrations utilized in our study (0.01-1 mg/L). In mice, ciprofloxacin has also been shown to improve survival by enhancing immune efficiency via stimulating cytokine 475 production (50). In addition, several in vitro and in vivo studies using animal and tissue 476 models have revealed that fluoroquinolones like ciprofloxacin, induce oxidative stress via 477 reactive oxygen species (ROS) production, in a dose- and time-dependent manner (49,51). 478

Measurable ROS production was observed following an exposure to ciprofloxacin at 479 concentrations as low as 0.025 mM (53), which is within the concentration range used in our 480 study. At low levels of such pro-oxidative exposure, the additional production and/or activity 481 of the endogenous antioxidant enzymes and low-molecular weight antioxidants to remove the 482 continuously generated free radicals would increase (54). In the daphnids exposed to the 483 lowest Ciprofloxacin concentration, a significant increase in ORAC levels (Figure S3) 484 suggests that exposure had direct stimulatory effects on the antioxidant production. 485 Moreover, we observed a positive correlation between the ORAC levels and animal body size 486 across the treatments indicating a possible primary mechanism behind the observed effects 487 488 being a hormetic shifting of redox environment by pro-oxidative ciprofloxacin, antioxidant response and the resulting beneficial effects on growth. Such effects are in agreement with a 489 concept of physiological conditional hormesis (55) and suggest a possible mechanism for the 490 491 direct response of Daphnia magna to Ciprofloxacin exposure at environmentally relevant concentrations. An important caveat is that hormesis, also shown to occur in several 492 microbes' response to quinolones and fluoroquinolones (the so-called paradoxical effect) (56) 493 might be universal and thus ciprofloxacin may be suboptimal for the uncomplicated study on 494 microbiome involvement following dose-response relationships. 495

496

497 Microbiome-fitness relationships

Although elevated growth and reproduction were associated with some bacterial taxa, there
was no clear signal for involvement of the gut microbiome in the high-growth phenotype.
This is suggestive of a form of redundancy in host-microbiome function, i.e., microbes can be
exchanged with little or no penalty. Moreover, as mechanisms governing most observed
associations are not well understood, definitive conclusion of direct effects by specific
microbes is intuitively discouraged. In particular, several taxa (*Bosea* and *Shewanella*)

significantly associated with fitness-related variables have been shown to be highly resistant
to ciprofloxacin (57,58). Thus selection although acting directly on the polymicrobial
community, it does so differentially and although the effect may be due to absolute numbers
of microbes, the cumulative physiological and metabolic state may matter more. In line with
this, the relative abundance of those genera that were associated with higher fecundity and
growth barely comprise 5% of the organism's core microbiome (Table S5), suggesting that
sheer abundance was unlikely to be the primary factor driving host fitness.

An important caveat is that hormesis, also shown to occur in several microbes' response to quinolones and fluoroquinolones (the so-called paradoxical effect) (56) might be universal and thus ciprofloxacin may be suboptimal for the uncomplicated study on microbiome involvement following dose-response relationships.

It is a common view that strains capable of supplying essential elements for reproduction and 515 growth would benefit the host. For example, the key components of *Daphnia* gut microbiota, 516 517 Limnohabitans, Aeromonas and methanotrophic bacteria (47), have been linked to acquisition 518 of essential amino acids (58,38), polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA) and sterols (60) that positively affect *Daphnia* growth and reproduction (9,61). Surprisingly, none of these taxa 519 were associated with elevated growth and fecundity in our study. This also speaks for 520 functional redundancy although additional studies would be required to show this. At the 521 genus level, only Bosea and Galbitalea had significantly positively association with Daphnia 522 523 growth and fecundity, whereas *Leadbetterella* and *Hydrogenophaga* correlated negatively. Leadbetterella and Hydrogenophaga were previously found to be associated to 8 Daphnia 524 genotypes (62). More interestingly however, the Bradyrhizobiaceae (Bosea) and 525 Microbacteriaceae (Galbitalea) are bio-degraders capable of producing hydrolytic enzymes 526 such as chitinase, cellulase, glucanase, protease, etc. (57,63). As these are positively 527 correlated with fecundity and host fitness, it suggests that increased network density and 528

529	num	ber of degradation pathways may contribute by providing essential nutrients from more	
530	available substrates (64). Regardless of the mechanisms underlying their increased		
531	abundance, resistance, or at the very least, refractoriness to Ciprofloxacin cannot be ignored		
532	Such	n effects would be evident in perturbed outcome of inter- and intra-species competition	
533	and	illustrates one of the difficulties facing future studies into host-microbiome interactions.	
534			
535	Ack	nowledgements	
536	The	computations were performed on resources provided by SNIC through Uppsala	
537	Mult	tidisciplinary Center for Advanced Computational Science (UPPMAX) under project	
538	2018	3/8-68. Sequencing and analysis of microbiome results were made possible by grant #	
539	2016	50933 from the Stockholm County Council (SLL) to KU.	
540			
541	Cor	aflict of Interest	
542	The	authors declare no conflict of interest.	
543			
544			
545	Refe	erences	
546	1.	O'Hara AM, Shanahan F. The gut flora as a forgotten organ. EMBO Rep. 2006	
547		Jul;7(7):688–93.	
F 4 0	2	Willing PD, Dussell SI, Finlay DD, Shifting the belance: antibiotic offects on best	
546	۷.	winning BF, Russen SL, Finnay BB. Similing the balance. antibiotic effects on host-	
549		microbiota mutualism. Nat Rev Microbiol. 2011 Apr;9(4):233–43.	
550	3.	Rosenfeld CS. Gut Dysbiosis in Animals Due to Environmental Chemical Exposures.	
551		Front Cell Infect Microbiol [Internet]. 2017 [cited 2017 Sep 11];7. Available from:	
552		http://journal.frontiersin.org/article/10.3389/fcimb.2017.00396/full	

- Lee W-J, Hase K. Gut microbiota-generated metabolites in animal health and disease.
 Nat Chem Biol. 2014 Jun;10(6):416–24.
- 555 5. McFall-Ngai M, Hadfield MG, Bosch TC, Carey HV, Domazet-Lošo T, Douglas AE, et
- al. Animals in a bacterial world, a new imperative for the life sciences. Proc Natl Acad
- 557 Sci. 2013;110(9):3229–3236.
- Kamada N, Chen GY, Inohara N, Núñez G. Control of Pathogens and Pathobionts by the
 Gut Microbiota. Nat Immunol. 2013 Jul;14(7):685–90.
- 560 7. Cherrington CA, Hinton M, Pearson GR, Chopra I. Short-chain organic acids at ph 5.0
- kill Escherichia coli and Salmonella spp. without causing membrane perturbation. J Appl
 Bacteriol. 1991 Feb;70(2):161–5.
- 5638.Shin R, Park JM, An J-M, Paek K-H. Ectopic Expression of Tsi1 in Transgenic Hot
- 564 Pepper Plants Enhances Host Resistance to Viral, Bacterial, and Oomycete Pathogens.
- 565 Mol Plant Microbe Interact. 2002 Oct 1;15(10):983–9.
- 566 9. Sison-Mangus MP, Mushegian AA, Ebert D. Water fleas require microbiota for survival,
 567 growth and reproduction. ISME J. 2015 Jan;9(1):59–67.
- Edlund A, Ek K, Breitholtz M, Gorokhova E. Antibiotic-Induced Change of Bacterial
 Communities Associated with the Copepod Nitocra spinipes. PLoS ONE. 2012 Mar
 12;7(3):e33107.
- 571 11. Gorokhova E, Rivetti C, Furuhagen S, Edlund A, Ek K, Breitholtz M. Bacteria-Mediated
 572 Effects of Antibiotics on Daphnia Nutrition. Environ Sci Technol. 2015 May
 573 5;49(9):5779–87.

574	12.	Callens M, Watanabe H, Kato Y, Miura J, Decaestecker E. Microbiota inoculum
575		composition affects holobiont assembly and host growth in Daphnia. Microbiome. 2018
576		Mar 22;6:56.
577	13.	Gyuraszova M, Kovalcikova A, Gardlik R. Association between oxidative status and the
578		composition of intestinal microbiota along the gastrointestinal tract. Med Hypotheses.
579		2017 Jun;103:81–5.
580	14.	Tanaka Y, Nakanishi J. Chronic effects of p-nonylphenol on survival and reproduction
581		of Daphnia galeata: Multigenerational life table experiment. Environ Toxicol. 2002 Jan
582		1;17(5):487–92.
583	15.	Dietrich S, Ploessl F, Bracher F, Laforsch C. Single and combined toxicity of
584		pharmaceuticals at environmentally relevant concentrations in Daphnia magna – A
585		multigenerational study. Chemosphere. 2010 Mar 1;79(1):60-6.
586	16.	Brennan SJ, Brougham CA, Roche JJ, Fogarty AM. Multi-generational effects of four
587		selected environmental oestrogens on Daphnia magna. Chemosphere. 2006 Jun
588		1;64(1):49–55.
589	17.	Wollenberger L, Halling-Sørensen B, Kusk KO. Acute and chronic toxicity of veterinary
590		antibiotics to Daphnia magna. Chemosphere. 2000 Apr 1;40(7):723–30.
591	18.	De Liguoro M, Fioretto B, Poltronieri C, Gallina G. The toxicity of sulfamethazine to
592		Daphnia magna and its additivity to other veterinary sulfonamides and trimethoprim.
593		Chemosphere. 2009 Jun 1;75(11):1519–24.
594	19.	Flaherty CM, Dodson SI. Effects of pharmaceuticals on Daphnia survival, growth, and
595		reproduction. Chemosphere. 2005 Oct;61(2):200-7.

596	20.	Freese HM, Schink B. Composition and stability of the microbial community inside the
597		digestive tract of the aquatic crustacean Daphnia magna. Microb Ecol. 2011
598		Nov;62(4):882–94.

- 21. Qi W, Nong G, Preston JF, Ben-Ami F, Ebert D. Comparative metagenomics of Daphnia
 symbionts. BMC Genomics. 2009 Apr 21;10:172.
- 601 22. Peerakietkhajorn S, Kato Y, Kasalický V, Matsuura T, Watanabe H. Betaproteobacteria
- 602 Limnohabitans strains increase fecundity in the crustacean Daphnia magna: symbiotic
- relationship between major bacterioplankton and zooplankton in freshwater ecosystem.
- 604 Environ Microbiol. 2016 Sep 1;18(8):2366–74.
- 605 23. Huang D-J, Hou J-H, Kuo T-F, Lai H-T. Toxicity of the veterinary sulfonamide
- antibiotic sulfamonomethoxine to five aquatic organisms. Environ Toxicol Pharmacol.
 2014 Nov 1;38(3):874–80.
- Straughan DJ, Lehman N. Genetic differentiation among Oregon lake populations of the
 Daphnia pulex species complex. J Hered. 2000 Feb;91(1):8–17.
- 610 25. Robinson AA, Belden JB, Lydy MJ. Toxicity of fluoroquinolone antibiotics to aquatic
 611 organisms. Environ Toxicol Chem. 2005 Feb 1;24(2):423–30.
- 612 26. Collins TJ. ImageJ for microscopy. BioTechniques. 2007 Jul 1;43(1S):S25–30.
- 613 27. Logares, R., & Feng X. Quant-iT PicoGreen Assay. Quant-IT PicoGreen Assay. 2010;
- 614 28. Callahan BJ, McMurdie PJ, Rosen MJ, Han AW, Johnson AJA, Holmes SP. DADA2:
- High resolution sample inference from Illumina amplicon data. Nat Methods. 2016
- 616 Jul;13(7):581–3.

617	29.	Team RC. R: A language and environment for statistical computing. Vienna, Austria: R
618		Foundation for Statistical Computing; 2017. ISBN3-900051-07-0 https://www. R-
619		project. org; 2017.
620	30.	McMurdie PJ, Holmes S. phyloseq: An R Package for Reproducible Interactive Analysis
621		and Graphics of Microbiome Census Data. PLOS ONE. 2013 Apr;8(4):e61217.
622	31.	Ou B, Hampsch-Woodill M, Prior RL. Development and Validation of an Improved
623		Oxygen Radical Absorbance Capacity Assay Using Fluorescein as the Fluorescent
624		Probe. J Agric Food Chem. 2001 Oct 1;49(10):4619–26.
625	32.	Furuhagen S, Liewenborg B, Breitholtz M, Gorokhova E. Feeding Activity and
626		Xenobiotics Modulate Oxidative Status in Daphnia magna: Implications for
627		Ecotoxicological Testing. Environ Sci Technol. 2014 Nov 4;48(21):12886–92.
628	33.	Kaplan EL, Meier P. Nonparametric Estimation from Incomplete Observations. In:
629		Breakthroughs in Statistics [Internet]. Springer, New York, NY; 1992 [cited 2018 Aug
630		1]. p. 319–37. (Springer Series in Statistics). Available from:
631		https://link.springer.com/chapter/10.1007/978-1-4612-4380-9_25
632	34.	Borgan Ø. Modeling Survival Data: Extending the Cox Model. Terry M. Therneau and
633		Patricia M. Grambsch, Springer-Verlag, New York, 2000. No. of pages: xiii + 350.
634		Price: \$69.95. ISBN 0-387-98784-3. Stat Med. 2001;20(13):2053-4.
635	35.	Gower JC. Some distance properties of latent root and vector methods used in
636		multivariate analysis. Biometrika. 1966 Dec 1;53(3-4):325-38.

637	36.	Oksanen J, Blanchet FG, Friendly M, Kindt R, Legendre P, McGlinn D, et al. vegan:
638		Community Ecology Package [Internet]. 2018 [cited 2018 Jul 13]. Available from:
639		https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=vegan
640	37.	McCarthy DJ, Chen Y, Smyth GK. Differential expression analysis of multifactor RNA-
641		Seq experiments with respect to biological variation. Nucleic Acids Res. 2012
642		May;40(10):4288–97.
643	38.	Talla V, Veerareddy P. Oxidative Stress Induced by Fluoroquinolones on Treatment for
644		Complicated Urinary Tract Infections in Indian Patients. J Young Pharm JYP.
645		2011;3(4):304–9.
646	39.	VanHook AM. Antibiotics directly affect host cell metabolism. Sci Signal. 2018 Jan
647		9;11(512):eaas9172.
648	40.	Eckert EM, Pernthaler J. Bacterial epibionts of Daphnia: a potential route for the transfer
649		of dissolved organic carbon in freshwater food webs. ISME J. 2014 Sep;8(9):1808–19.
650	41.	Freese HM, Schink B. Composition and Stability of the Microbial Community inside the
651		Digestive Tract of the Aquatic Crustacean Daphnia magna. Microb Ecol. 2011 Jun
652		11;62(4):882.
653	42.	Kasalický V, Jezbera J, Šimek K, Hahn MW. Limnohabitans planktonicus sp. nov., and
654		Limnohabitans parvus sp. nov., two novel planktonic Betaproteobacteria isolated from a
655		freshwater reservoir. Int J Syst Evol Microbiol. 2010 Dec;60(Pt 12):2710-4.
656	43.	Qi W, Nong G, Preston JF, Ben-Ami F, Ebert D. Comparative metagenomics of Daphnia
657		symbionts. BMC Genomics. 2009 Apr 21;10:172.

658	44.	LeBel M. Ciprofloxacin: Chemistry, Mechanism of Action, Resistance, Antimicrobial
659		Spectrum, Pharmacokinetics, Clinical Trials, and Adverse Reactions. Pharmacother J
660		Hum Pharmacol Drug Ther. 1988 Jan 2;8(1):3–30.

- 45. Bowman JP. Shewanella. In: Bergey's Manual of Systematics of Archaea and Bacteria
- [Internet]. American Cancer Society; 2015 [cited 2018 Nov 29]. p. 1–22. Available
- 663 from: https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1002/9781118960608.gbm01100
- 46. Šimek K, Kasalický V, Jezbera J, Jezberová J, Hejzlar J, Hahn MW. Broad Habitat
- Range of the Phylogenetically Narrow R-BT065 Cluster, Representing a Core Group of
- the Betaproteobacterial Genus Limnohabitans. Appl Environ Microbiol. 2010 Jan
- **667 2;76(3):631–9**.
- 47. Peerakietkhajorn S, Tsukada K, Kato Y, Matsuura T, Watanabe H. Symbiotic bacteria
 contribute to increasing the population size of a freshwater crustacean, Daphnia magna.
 Environ Microbiol Rep. 2015 Apr 1;7(2):364–72.
- 48. Hincal F, Gürbay A, Favier A. Biphasic Response of Ciprofloxacin in Human Fibroblast
 672 Cell Cultures. Nonlinearity Biol Toxicol Med. 2003 Oct;1(4):481–92.
- 49. Dalla Bona M, Zounková R, Merlanti R, Blaha L, De Liguoro M. Effects of

enrofloxacin, ciprofloxacin, and trimethoprim on two generations of Daphnia magna.

- 675 Ecotoxicol Environ Saf. 2015 Mar 1;113:152–8.
- 50. Purswani MU, Eckert SJ, Arora HK, Noel GJ. Effect of ciprofloxacin on lethal and
- sublethal challenge with endotoxin and on early cytokine responses in a murine in vivo
- 678 model. J Antimicrob Chemother. 2002 Jul 1;50(1):51–8.

- 679 51. Gürbay A, Hıncal F. Ciprofloxacin-Induced Glutathione Redox Status Alterations in Rat
 680 Tissues. Drug Chem Toxicol. 2004 Jan 1:27(3):233–42.
- 52. Rawi SM, Mourad IM, Arafa NMS, Alazabi NI. Effect of ciprofloxacin and levofloxacin
 on some oxidative stress parameters in brain regions of male albino rats. Afr J Pharm
 Pharmacol. 2011 Oct 29;5(16):1888–97.
- 684 53. Gürbay A, Gonthier B, Daveloose D, Favier A, Hincal F. Microsomal metabolism of
 685 ciprofloxacin generates free radicals. Free Radic Biol Med. 2001 May 15;30(10):1118–
 686 21.
- 687 54. Rahal A, Kumar A, Singh V, Yadav B, Tiwari R, Chakraborty S, et al. Oxidative Stress,
 688 Prooxidants, and Antioxidants: The Interplay [Internet]. BioMed Research International.
- 689 2014 [cited 2018 Nov 28]. Available from:
- 690 https://www.hindawi.com/journals/bmri/2014/761264/
- 691 55. Oliveira MF, Geihs MA, França TFA, Moreira DC, Hermes-Lima M. Is "Preparation for
- 692 Oxidative Stress" a Case of Physiological Conditioning Hormesis? Front Physiol
- [Internet]. 2018 Aug 2 [cited 2018 Nov 28];9. Available from:
- 694 https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC6082956/
- 695 56. Crumplin GC, Smith JT. Nalidixic Acid: an Antibacterial Paradox. Antimicrob Agents
 696 Chemother. 1975 Sep 1;8(3):251–61.
- 697 57. Ouattara AS, Assih EA, Thierry S, Cayol J-L, Labat M, Monroy O, et al. Bosea
- 698 minatitlanensis sp. nov., a strictly aerobic bacterium isolated from an anaerobic digester.
- 699 Int J Syst Evol Microbiol. 2003;53(5):1247–51.

700	58.	Yan L. Liu D.	Wang X-H.	Wang Y	. Zhang B.	Wang M	et al.	Bacterial	plasmid-
			,		,	,	,		

701 mediated quinolone resistance genes in aquatic environments in China. Sci Rep

702 [Internet]. 2017 Jan 17 [cited 2018 Nov 22];7. Available from:

- 703 https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC5240147/
- 59. Fink P, Pflitsch C, Marin K. Dietary Essential Amino Acids Affect the Reproduction of
- the Keystone Herbivore Daphnia pulex. PLOS ONE. 2011 Dec;6(12):e28498.
- Wacker A, Elert E von. Polyunsaturated Fatty Acids: Evidence for Non-Substitutable
 Biochemical Resources in Daphnia Galeata. Ecology. 82(9):2507–20.
- 61. Taipale SJ, Brett MT, Pulkkinen K, Kainz MJ. The influence of bacteria-dominated diets

on Daphnia magna somatic growth, reproduction, and lipid composition. FEMS

710 Microbiol Ecol. 2012 Oct 1;82(1):50–62.

- 62. Sison-Mangus MP, Metzger CMJA, Ebert D. Host genotype-specific microbiota do not
 influence the susceptibility of D. magna to a bacterial pathogen. Sci Rep. 2018 Jun
 20;8(1):9407.
- 63. Shivlata L, Satyanarayana T. Thermophilic and alkaliphilic Actinobacteria: biology and
 potential applications. Front Microbiol [Internet]. 2015 Sep 25 [cited 2018 Sep 20];6.

716 Available from: https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC4585250/

64. Chater KF, Biró S, Lee KJ, Palmer T, Schrempf H. The complex extracellular biology of
Streptomyces. FEMS Microbiol Rev. 2010 Mar;34(2):171–98.

719

720 Supporting information

Figure S1. Survival of *Daphnia magna* exposed to ciprofloxacin (0.01, 0.1 and 1 mg/L) and in

the control (M7 only) during the 21-d exposure.

723

Figure S2. Relative abundance of bacterial taxa in the microbiome of *Daphnia magna* from 724 the non-exposed treatments: (a) genera, (b) families, (c) orders, (d) classes, and (e) phyla. The 725 data are grouped by the exposure week, 1 to 4 (Y-axis). Animals collected at the termination 726 727 of the experiment are included in the week 4. 728 Figure S3. Change in the total antioxidant capacity (ORAC, g Trolox eq. / g protein) in 729 730 individual daphnids during the course of the experiment. The data are shown for each treatment (ciprofloxacin exposure, 0.01, 0.1 and 1 mg / mL) and the control. The regression 731 line and the 95%-confidence interval are shown to indicate the overall direction of change 732 over time; no trends are significant (p > 0.05). 733 734 735 **Table S1**. Population growth rate (r) of *Daphnia magna* in the control and ciprofloxacin exposure (0.01 - 1 mg/L) and the corresponding 95-% confidence interval estimated by 736

bootstrapping. Asterisk indicates significant difference from the control; when the confidence

738 intervals were not overlapping, the difference was considered significant.

739

740 **Table S2**.

741 Diversity indices were calculated using individual data rarefied to equal sequencing depth at
742 treatment level. Effects of concentration and time on the diversity indices (Fisher's alpha,

Chao1 and ACE) were evaluated using GLM. Interactions were included first in each modelbut omitted when found not significant.

745

Table S3. Multivariate homogeneity of groups' dispersions (betadisper) of samples analyzed
according to treatment (Ciprofloxacin concentration).

748

Table S4. PERMANOVA output with Bray-Curtis dissimilarity testing differences between
 treatments at family level.

751

Table S5. Relative contributions of the ten most common bacterial taxa to gut microbiota of *Daphnia magna* exposed to ciprofloxacin (0.01. 0.1. and 1 mg/L) and in control (0 mg/L) as
well as the average relative abundance for all treatments.

755

576 5Table S6. Differential abundance of individual genera estimated by edgeR-function and
757 testing taxa-specific responses to ciprofloxacin exposure. The positive log2FC values indicate
758 increased relative abundance in the exposed daphnids compared to the controls. Significance
759 presented at false discovery rate of 5%. (FDR<0.05). See also Figure 7a.

760

Table S7. Differential abundance analysis of individual genera estimated by the edgeRfunction and testing associations between the microbiome and host fitness. The genera
positively associated with high growth or fecundity of *D. magna* have positive log2FC values.
All values reported are significant at false discovery rate of 1%. (FDR<0.01). See also Error!
Reference source not found.b.

767	Table S8. Effect of ciprofloxacin concentration (mg mL ⁻¹) on antioxidant capacity in					
768	Daphnia magna: (A) ANOVA results testing overall effect, and (B) Pair-wise comparisons					
769	using Tukey's multiple comparisons test; $p < 0.01$: **, $p < 0.05$: *; and $p > 0.05$: ns. The					
770	individuals sampled at the termination of the experiment were excluded, because some					
771	daphnids contained eggs in the brood chamber. As the reference group, we used the daphnids					
772	exposed to the highest concentration. See also Figure S3.					
773						
774	Table S9 . Generalized linear model output linking antioxidant capacity to daphnid body					
775	length across the concentrations tested. Normal error structure and log-link function were					
776	applied. The animals collected at the termination of the experiment were excluded, because					
777	they had eggs in the brood chamber, which may affect the ORAC values.					
778						
779	Table S10. Spearman rank correlation between the ORAC values in the daphnids and					
780	diversity indices of their gut microbiome.					
781						
782	Appendix S11.					
783	R script used to calculate population growth rate of daphnids applying Euler-Lotka equation:					







Figure 3a



Figure 3b





