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To cite this version:

Nicole J de Voogd, Anne Gauvin-bialecki, Ana R M Polónia, Daniel F R Cleary. Assessing the bacterial communities of sponges inhabiting the remote western Indian Ocean island of Mayotte. Marine Ecology, 2019, pp.1-18. 10.1111/maec.12517 . hal-04454189

HAL Id: hal-04454189 <https://hal.univ-reunion.fr/hal-04454189v1>

Submitted on 13 Feb 2024

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ORIGINAL ARTICLE

WILEY marine ecology

Assessing the bacterial communities of sponges inhabiting the remote western Indian Ocean island of Mayotte

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Funding information

ANR‐Netbiome, Grant/Award Number: ANR-11-EBIM-0006; Foundation for Science and Technology, Grant/Award Number: 115304 and 2009

Abstract

Marine sponges are known to host diverse and abundant communities of microbial symbionts. It has been generally assumed that the bacterial communities of low microbial abundance (LMA) sponges are less diverse than those of high microbial abundance (HMA) sponges. In this study, we used next‐generation sequencing technology to ex‐ plore the bacterial communities of several biotopes including sponges, seawater, and sediment from the remote Western Indian Ocean island of Mayotte. The species in‐ vestigated were the known LMA sponges: *Jaspis splendens*, *Stylissa carteri,* and *Stylissa massa*, and the known HMA sponges: *Hyrtios erectus and Xestospongia testudinaria*. In addition to this, we also investigated the following sponge species: *Ectyoplasia coc‐ cinea, Paratetilla bacca, Liosina paradoxa,* and *Petrosia* aff. *spheroida* of which the exact HMA/LMA status is unknown although we preliminarily classified them as HMA or LMA based on the status of closely related species. Certain HMA sponges shared similar bacterial communities dominated by Actinobacteria and Chloroflexi, whereas an‐ other species (*E. coccinea*) had a bacterial community closer to that of LMA sponges. Most LMA sponges housed a bacteriome dominated by Proteobacteria and Cyanobacteria, but the bacteriome of *P. bacca* also included dominant Chloroflexi and actinobacterial OTUs. Together with *S. carteri*, this sponge housed a more diverse bac‐ terial community at the phylum, class, and order levels than HMA sponges. Although certain LMA sponges housed a bacterial community similar to the surrounding envi‐ ronment (seawater), they also included highly abundant, possibly species or genus specific, OTUs. Based on this study and small set of sponges studied, we conclude that a clear dichotomy between HMA and LMA sponges does not appear to exist.

KEYWORDS

bacterial diversity, coral reef, pyrosequencing, sponges

1 | **INTRODUCTION**

Microbial communities, housed in multicellular hosts, have influ‐ enced the evolution of their hosts and are an integral part of plant and animal life (McFall-Ngai et al., 2013). In the recent past, important advances have been made in our understanding of the impact of symbiotic microbial communities on the health and well‐being of marine host organisms. In corals, algal symbionts, *Symbiodinium*

spp., provide up to 60% of the nutrient requirements of host organ‐ isms; loss of the symbionts due to environmental stress often results in host death (Ainsworth et al., 2011; Brown, 1997; Rosenberg, Koren, Reshef, Efrony, & Zilber‐Rosenberg, 2007). In addition to corals, sponges are abundant and ecologically important compo‐ nents of coral reef ecosystems (Diaz & Rützler, 2001). In general, bacteria are the most abundant component of the prokaryotic community in sponges (Fan et al., 2012; Hardoim & Costa, 2014;

FIGURE 1 (a) Location map with (b) inset showing the island of Mayotte

Lee et al., 2011; Taylor, Radax, Steger, Steger, & Wagner, 2007). In some sponges, nearly 40% of the volume of the organism con‐ sists of microbes, of which some contribute significantly to the host metabolism (Hentschel, Usher, & Taylor, 2006; Taylor et al., 2007). Because of this, sponges have long been referred to as the sponge holobiont, thus including the sponge cells plus communities of persistent symbionts (Hentschel, Piel, Degnan, & Taylor, 2012; Reveillaud et al., 2014). The evolutionary and ecological success of sponges may, in part, be related to their intimate relationship with these microbial communities (Sipkema, Franssen, Osinga, Tramper, & Wijffels, 2005). In the late 1970s, certain sponges were first shown to harbor very high densities of bacteria, although other sponges appeared to be largely devoid of such symbionts (Vacelet & Donadey, 1977). This distinction eventually led to the terms high microbial abundance (HMA) sponges and low microbial abundance (LMA) sponges, whereby these two groups differed in bacterial di‐ versity and abundance, in addition to exhibiting major physiological differences. HMA sponges can contain 10^{10} bacterial cells/g wet weight of sponge, that is, 2-4 orders of magnitude higher than surrounding seawater (Hentschel et al., 2002, 2012, 2006). These types of sponges have been shown to host diverse communities of Proteobacteria, Chloroflexi, Acidobacteria, Actinobacteria, and Poribacteria that provide their hosts with inorganic and organic car‐ bon and play an important role in the nitrogen metabolism (Bayer et al., 2014; Hoffmann et al., 2009; Siegl et al., 2010). Many of these higher taxa are generally rare or absent in LMA sponges, the exception being Proteobacteria (Poppell et al., 2014; Schläppy et al., 2010). HMA sponge species have also been shown to transfer their symbionts horizontally, thus from the surrounding environment, although the latter process has never been demonstrated in situ (Bright & Bulgheresi, 2010; Webster et al., 2010). In general, it is assumed that the microbiota of LMA sponges are horizontally trans‐ mitted, as the bacterial communities are similar to those found in the surrounding seawater (Gloeckner et al., 2014; Moitinho‐Silva et al., 2014; Thacker & Freeman, 2013). Bacterial symbionts are

also transmitted by vertically through sponge reproductive stages (Enticknap, Kelly, Peraud, & Hill, 2006; Maldonado, 2007; Schmitt et al., 2012; Thacker & Freeman, 2013). In comparison to HMA sponges, LMA sponges are in general thought to have higher pump‐ ing rates, more extensive aquiferous channels, and higher choano‐ cyte chamber density thus reflecting a more heterotrophic feeding mode (Poppell et al., 2014; Weisz, Lindquist, & Martens, 2008). It is, however, unknown whether the sponges are preconditioned to host microbes or whether the morphology of the sponge interior is a result of hosting the microbes (Gloeckner et al., 2014). Recent work has shown that the HMA/LMA dichotomy is not as strict as was once presumed; in contrast, some prokaryotes are shared widely among different LMA sponge hosts, whereas others are host specific (Cleary, Voogd, Polonia, Freitas, & Gomes, 2015; de Voogd, Cleary, Polonia, & Gomes, 2015; Moitinho‐Silva et al., 2014, 2017). Moitinho‐Silva et al. (2014) proposed to change the term "sponge specific" to sponge‐enriched, because sponge‐specific prokaryotes appear to occur in low numbers in the surrounding environment. Although we are able to categorize the HMA/LMA dichotomy to a large degree, it is not yet known what causes it, or the reason for its existence. For instance, Gloeckner et al. (2014) investigated 56 sponges belonging to a subset of different orders (some of which are presently disused) and showed that some sponge orders only consist of HMA sponges, for example, the orders Verongida and Agelasida, although others, for example, the Poecilosclerida, only consist of LMA sponges and that most orders contain a mixture of both types.

We do know that HMA/LMA characteristics are often conserved in closely related species across large geographical scales (Gloeckner et al., 2014; Montalvo & Hill, 2011). Bacterial communities have been shown to be important for the functional ecology of sponges (Bell, 2008; Ribes et al., 2012). It is still unclear, however, whether HMA and LMA sponges provide distinct ecological functions and what role they play in key ecological processes such as carbon and nitrogen cycling. An important first step is to assess the large range of HMA and LMA sponges in order to assess to what extent both groups of sponges house compositionally distinct bacterial commu‐ nities and whether there is, indeed, a true dichotomy between both groups or whether, in contrast, there is evidence of a continuum in symbiont composition.

In this study, we assessed bacterial communities using 454‐py‐ rosequencing of several biotopes including seawater, sediment, and a number of relatively abundant sponge species of the remote island of Mayotte located in the Western Indian Ocean. Our main goal was to explore the HMA/LMA dichotomy by sampling repli‐ cates of HMA/LMA species and also some additional species of which the status is still unknown. We assessed whether these spe‐ cies house distinct bacterial communities. Specific goals were to compare OTU composition among sponge species and surrounding biotopes (sediment and seawater) and to assess how dominant (> 500 sequences) bacterial OTUs were distributed among sponge hosts using a set of tools including ordination, heatmap, and net‐ work visualization.

2 | **METHODS**

2.1 | **Sample collection and study area**

Mayotte is part of the overseas department of France and is part of the Comores archipelago (Indian ocean). The Comores are located in the Mozambique channel just northwest of Madagascar. Mayotte has a surface area of 374 km 2 and consists of two main islands of volcanic origin, Grande Terre and Petite Terre, and some smaller is‐ lands around these main islands. The main island is surrounded by an almost continuous barrier reef and the lagoon is 3–15 km wide, with an area of 1,500 km 2 making it one of the world's largest lagoons

(Figure 1). We collected fragments from 27 sponge specimens from nine different sponge species belonging to six different orders (three samples per species) at 12 different sites inside and just outside the lagoon at the western side of Grande Terre (between 12°56.470′S 45°04.305′E and 13°00.375′S 45°08.250′E) using SCUBA diving and snorkeling (depth range: 3–25 m) between May 4 to 11, 2013. The sponges were identified by the first author using classical mor‐ phological characters and voucher specimens have been deposited in the sponge collection of Naturalis Biodiversity Center (RMNH POR.#, see Figure 2, Table 1). The species investigated were the known LMA sponges: *Jaspis splendens* (*Js*) (order Tetractinellida), *Stylissa carteri* (*Sc*)*,* and *Stylissa massa* (*Sm*) (order Scopalinida), and

(a) (b) (c) (d) (e) (f) (g) (h) (i)

FIGURE 2 Underwater images of the target sponge species, (a) *Ectyoplasia coccinea,* (b) *Hyrtios erectus*, (c) *Jaspis splendens*, (d) *Liosina paradoxa*, (e) *Petrosia* aff. *spheroida*, (f) *Paratetilla bacca*, (g) *Stylissa massa*, (h) *Stylissa carteri,* and (i) *Xestospongia testudinaria*

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TABLE 1 Sample list with the sample number, collection voucher number, sponge species, high microbial abundance (HMA) or low microbial abundance (LMA) type, pooled rarefied richness, collection site (location), and GPS coordinates

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TABLE 1 (Continued)

the known HMA sponges: *Hyrtios erectus* (*He*) (family Thorectidae, order Dictyoceratida) and *Xestospongia testudinaria* (*Xt*) (family Petrosiidae, order Haplosclerida). All of these species are wide‐ spread species and have been observed from the Western Indian Ocean to the Pacific Ocean (Cleary et al., 2015; Coelho et al., 2018; Swierts et al., 2017). In addition, four species were investigated of which the HMA/LMA status was unknown: *Ectyoplasia coccinea* (*Ec*) (family Raspailiidae, order Axinellida), *Liosina paradoxa* (*Lp*) (fam‐ ily Dictyonellidae, order Bubarida), *Paratetilla bacca* (*Pb*) (family Tetillidae, order Tetractinellida), and *Petrosia* aff. *spheroida* (*Ps*) (fam‐ ily Petrosiidae order Haplosclerida). For the purposes of this study we preliminarily assigned them HMA or LMA status based on the status of their closest known relative using Gloeckner et al. (2014) and Moitinho-Silva et al. (2017). *Ectyoplasia coccinea* (new combina‐ tion) was described from the Red Sea as *Reniera coccinea* and later transferred to *Dragmacidon* (as *Dragmacidon coccineum* also family Axinellidae). Examination of the type specimen revealed clavulate acanthostyles characteristic for the genus *Ectyoplasia*. The morpho‐ logical identification was later confirmed with molecular techniques by Erpenbeck et al. (2016) as OTU030. This species has been ob‐ served from the Red Sea, Mauritius, and western Thailand by the first author. The sponge species *Petrosia. spheroida* has been observed in the Saudi Arabia's Red Sea, Mayotte, and Madagascar (Vacelet, Vasseur, & Lévi, 1976 and N.J. de Voogd pers. obs.). We conclude that the characters of this species are different from the original de‐ scription by Tanita (1967) from Japan and, therefore, name this species *P.* aff. *spheroida*. The sponge species *P. bacca* and *L. paradoxa* are common and also widespread species in the Indo‐Pacific region. The sponge samples included the surface and interior in order to sample as much of the bacterial community as possible. In addition to this, three sediment samples were taken from three different sites using mini cores; this consisted of sampling the top 5 cm of sediment with a plastic disposable syringe from which the end had been cut to fa‐ cilitate sampling (Capone, Dunham, Horrigan, & Duguay, 1992). Also, three seawater samples were collected by filtering 1 L of seawater through a Millipore® White Isopore membrane filter (GTTP04700, 47 mm diameter, 0.22 µm pore size). All samples were kept in ab‐ solute alcohol and in a cooling box. After landing, tubes containing the samples were stored in a refrigerator at a temperature of about −7ºC. In Portugal, the samples were stored at −80ºC.

2.2 | **Total community DNA extraction and 16S rRNA gene barcoded pyrosequencing**

We isolated PCR-ready total community DNA (TC-DNA) from sediment, seawater, and sponge samples using the FastDNA® SPIN Kit (MP Biomedicals) following the manufacturer's instructions. In brief, we prepared sediment samples by centrifuging each one for 30 min at 4,400 rpm and 4ºC (to remove the absolute alcohol); the membrane filter (seawater sample) and sponge samples were each cut into small pieces. Where difficulties in extraction occurred a lysozyme pretreatment was performed (sediment and sponge sam‐ ples). The whole membrane filter and 500 mg of sediment or sponge were transferred to Lysing Matrix E tubes containing a mixture of ceramic and silica particles. The microbial cell lysis was performed in the FastPrep® Instrument (Q Biogene) for 80 s at the speed of 6.0. Extracted DNA was eluted into DNase/Pyrogen‐Free Water to a final volume of 50 μl and stored at −20°C until use. To gener‐ ate highly replicable results and obtain a higher genetic diversity in pyrosequencing libraries (Berry, Mahfoudh, Wagner, & Loy, 2011; Vissers, Bodelier, Muyzer, & Laanbroek, 2009), a nested approach was used. Prior to pyrosequencing, the amplicons of the bacterial 16S rRNA gene were obtained using bacterial‐specific primers 27F and 1494R (Gomes et al., 2010). Using the amplicons of the bacterial 16S rRNA gene as template, the V3V4 region was amplified, using barcoded fusion primers with the Roche‐454 A Titanium sequenc‐ ing adapters, a six‐base barcode sequence, forward V3 primer 5′‐ ACTCCTACGGGAGGCAG‐3′ (Yu, Lee, Kim, & Hwang, 2005 and V4 reverse degenerate primer 5′‐TACNVRRGTHTCTAATYC‐3′ (Vaz‐ Moreira, Egas, Nunes, & Manaia, 2011).

Following previous studies (Cleary et al., 2015; de Voogd et al., 2015), barcoded pyrosequencing libraries were analyzed using the QIIME (Quantitative Insights Into Microbial Ecology software package (Caporaso et al., 2010; <https://www.qiime.org/>; last checked 2014–01–20). In QIIME, separate fasta and qual files were used as input for the split_libraries.py script. Default arguments were used except for the minimum sequence length, which was set at 218 bps after removal of forward primers and barcodes; backward primers were removed using the "truncate only" argu‐ ment and a sliding window test of quality scores was enabled with a value of 50 as suggested in the QIIME description for the script. **6 of 18 WILEY** marine ecology $\frac{1}{2}$ **DEVOOGD ET AL.**

The minimum average qual score allowed in a read was the de‐ fault value of 25. In addition to user-defined cutoffs, the split_libraries.py script performs several quality filtering steps [\(https://](https://qiime.org/scripts/split_libraries.html) qiime.org/scripts/split_libraries.html). OTUs were selected using UPARSE with usearch7 (Edgar, 2013). The UPARSE sequence analysis tool (Edgar, 2013) provides clustering, chimera check‐ ing, and quality filtering on de-multiplexed sequences. Chimera checking was performed using the UCHIME algorithm (Edgar, Haas, Clemente, Quince, & Knight, 2011). The quality filtering as implemented in usearch7 filters noisy reads, and preliminary results suggest it gives results comparable to other denoisers such as AmpliconNoise but is much less computationally expensive ([https://drive5.com/usearch/features.html;](https://drive5.com/usearch/features.html) last checked 2014– 01-20). First, reads were filtered with the -fastq_filter command and the following arguments ‐fastq_trunclen 250 ‐fastq_maxee 0.5 -fastg truncqual 15. Sequences were then dereplicated and sorted using the -derep_fulllength and -sortbysize commands. This initial quality control produced a file with 241,019 sequences with a mean sequence length of 412.5 ± 35.6 bp and minimum and maximum sequence lengths of 250 and 493 bps, respectively. After quality control, OTU clustering was performed using the ‐ cluster_otus command. Singletons were maintained in the analysis. AWK scripts were then used to convert the OTU files to QIIME format. In QIIME, representative sequences were selected using the pick_rep_set.py script in QIIME using the "most_abundant" method. Taxonomy was assigned to reference sequences of OTUs using default arguments in the assign_taxonomy.py script in QIIME with the rdp method (Wang, Garrity, Tiedje, & Cole, 2007). In the assign_taxonomy.py function, we used a fasta file containing ref‐ erence sequences from the Greengenes 13_8 release and the rdp classifier method. We used a modified version of the taxonomy file supplied with the Greengenes 13_8 release to map sequences to the assigned taxonomy. All OTUs were assigned to the Bacteria do‐ main and only 206 OTUs remained unassigned at the phylum level. Finally, we used the make_otu_table.py script in QIIME to generate a square matrix of OTUs x samples. This was subsequently used as input for further analyses using the R package (R Core Team, 2013).

2.3 | **Higher taxon abundance**

We tested for significant differences in the relative abundance of selected higher taxon groups (the most abundant classes and orders) among biotopes with an analysis of deviance using the generalized linear model glm() function in R. Because the data were proportional, we first applied a glm with the family argument set to binomial. The ratio, however, of residual deviance to residual *df* in the models sub‐ stantially exceeded 1 so we set family to "quasibinomial." In the "qua‐ sibinomial" family, the dispersion parameter is not fixed at one so that it can model over‐dispersion. Using the glm model, we tested for significant variation among biotopes using the ANOVA() function in R (R Core Team, 2013) with the *F* test, which is most appropriate when the dispersion is estimated by moments as is the case with quasibinomial fits.

2.4 | **Statistical analysis**

A square matrix containing the presence and abundance of all OTUs per sample was imported into R using the read.table() function. Sequences classified as chloroplasts or mitochondria were removed prior to all statistical analysis. The OTU abundance matrix was log_e $(x + 1)$ transformed, and a distance matrix constructed using the Bray–Curtis index with the vegdist() function in the vegan package in R (Oksanen et al., 2009). The Bray–Curtis index is one of the most fre‐ quently applied (dis)similarity indices used in ecology (Cleary, 2003). Variation in OTU composition among biotopes (sponge species, sedi‐ ment, and seawater) was assessed with principal coordinates anal‐ ysis (PCO) using the cmdscale() function in R with the Bray–Curtis distance matrix as input. We tested for significant variation in com‐ position among biotopes using the adonis() permutational function in vegan. In the adonis analysis, the Bray–Curtis distance matrix of species composition was the response variable with biotope as independent variable. The number of permutations was set at 999; all other arguments used the default values set in the function. Weighted averages scores were computed for OTUs on the first two PCO axes using the wascores() function in the vegan package. We used a self‐ written function in R (Gomes et al., 2010) to estimate rarefied OTU richness for each biotope (pooling the replicates per biotope).

2.5 | **BLAST and phylogenetic analysis**

We used the NCBI Basic Local Alignment Search Tool (BLAST) com‐ mand line "blastn" tool with the -db argument set to nt to identify the most closely related organisms to numerically dominant OTUs (≥500 sequences) based on sequence similarity scores and bit scores (Zhang, Schwartz, Wagner, & Miller, 2000). See [https://www.ncbi.](https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/BLAST/tutorial/Altschul-1.html#head3) [nlm.nih.gov/BLAST/tutorial/Altschul-1.html#head3](https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/BLAST/tutorial/Altschul-1.html#head3) (last checked 2017 06 24) for detailed descriptions of sequence similarity and bit scores. A maximum‐likelihood phylogenetic tree including all domi‐ nant OTUs (≥500 sequences) and selected cultured organisms was constructed using the Mega5 program ([https://www.megasoft‐](https://www.megasoftware.net/) [ware.net/;](https://www.megasoftware.net/) last checked 02–07–2014; Tamura et al., 2011) with the Nearest‐Neighbor‐Interchange and Generalised Time‐Reversible model (Tavaré, 1986) with Gamma distributed and invariant sites. Prior to this analysis, representative sequences of the dominant OTUs were aligned using the ClustalW algorithm in Mega5 (Higgins et al., 1994). In the results, we present a bootstrap consensus tree based on 100 replicates (Felsenstein, 1985). In addition to the phylo‐ genetic tree, we also used the heatmap.2() function from the "gplots" library in R to create a heatmap of all dominant OTUs and their dis‐ tribution across biotopes (pooling the replicates). Finally, we used the make_otu_network.py script in QIIME to generate network edge and node tables that were subsequently uploaded to Cytoscape version 3.2.1 (Shannon et al., 2003). In Cytoscape, we used the "or‐ ganic layout" under the yfiles section [\(https://www.yworks.com/](https://www.yworks.com/); last checked 11–11–2015). The "Analyze network" function, part of the Network Analyzer plugin, was used to map node size to edge count and edge size to edge weight. The size of the node is, thus,

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proportional to the number of connections. A small OTU node, thus, indicates that the OTU in question is only found in a limited number of hosts. The edge size is proportional to the weight, which is a proxy for the abundance of an OTU. A thick edge connecting a biotope and an OTU indicates that the OTU in question was relatively abundant in that particular biotope. Network analysis can help to visualize re‐ lationships that may not be apparent using other techniques such as ordination and provide an efficient means of presenting complex information.

3 | **RESULTS**

In this study, sequencing yielded 216,364 sequences, assigned to 4,001 OTUs after quality control, OTU picking, and re‐ moval of chloroplasts and mitochondria. Most sequences be‐ longed to OTUs assigned to Proteobacteria (123,983) followed by Cyanobacteria (39,490), Chloroflexi (21,722), Actinobacteria (15,031), Acidobacteria (3,395), and Gemmatimonadetes (2,846; Figure 3). There was a large degree of variation in the percentage

FIGURE 3 Mean relative abundance of the most abundant bacterial classes (a-h), orders (i-s) and the relative abundance of the most abundant OTU (t) from *Ectyoplasia coccinea* (Ec), *H. erectus* (He), *Petrosia* aff. *spheroida* (Ps)*, Xestospongia testudinaria* (Xt)*,Jaspis splendens* (Js), *Liosina paradoxa* (Lp), *Paratetilla bacca* (Pb), *Stylissa carteri* (Sc), *Stylissa massa* (Sm), sediment (Sd), and seawater (Wt). Error bars represent a single standard deviation. The dominant OTU represents the mean abundance for the single most abundant OTU in each sample, thus not

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of sequences assigned to various phyla among biotopes. The per‐ centage of Proteobacteria, for example, varied from $32.6\% \pm 1.5\%$ in *Petrosia* aff. *spheroida* (Ps) to 80.3% ± 14.0% in *S. massa* (Sm). The percentage of Chloroflexi, in turn, varied from 0.1% ± 0.0% in *J. splendens* (Js) to 36.5% ± 2.9% in *P. bacca* (Pb). The total number of phyla recorded per biotope also varied considerably from 14 in *L. paradoxa* (Lp) to 33 in sediment. The number of classes varied from 23 in *H. erectus* to 82 in sediment and the number of orders varied from 29 in *H. erectus* (He) to 99 in sediment. At all three levels of taxonomic resolution, at least some LMA sponges housed more phyla (HMA: *H. erectus*: 17, *P.* aff. *spheroida*: 17, *X. testudi‐ naria*: 18; LMA: Pb: 20, *S. carteri*:29), classes (HMA: *H. erectus*: 23, *P.* aff. *spheroida*: 25, *X. testudinaria*: 29; LMA: *P. bacca*: 38, *S. car‐ teri*: 65) and orders (HMA: He: 29, Ps: 33, Xt: 40; LMA: Pb: 59, Sc:85) than HMA sponges. In all instances, sediment was the most diverse biotope with water housing more diverse bacterial com‐ munities (phyla: 16, classes: 32, orders: 50) than HMA sponges, but less diverse than several LMA sponges. The relative abun‐ dance of all higher taxa differed significantly among biotopes with the exception of the class Gammaproteobacteria and subclass Synechococcophycideae. For example, OTUs assigned to Entotheonellales were most abundant in *J. splendens* (Figure 3j), whereas OTUs assigned to the Chromatiales (Figure 3i) were most abundant in both *Stylissa* species. Certain taxa, notably Gemm−2, Thiotrichales, HTCC2188 (Figure 3h,m,q), were most abundant in HMA sponges and sediment and largely absent from LMA sponges and seawater. OTUs assigned to the Chloroflexi class SAR202 (Figure 3d) were absent in the LMA sponges *J. splendens*, *L. para‐ doxa*, both *Stylissa* species, sediment and seawater, but relatively abundant in all HMA sponges and the LMA sponge *P. bacca*. OTUs assigned to the Chloroflexi class Anaerolineae (Figure 3g) were largely restricted to the sponges *H. erectus*, *P.* aff. *spheroida,* and *X. testudinaria* and formed a small component of *E. coccinea*, *P. bacca,* and sediment. The relative abundance of the most abun‐ dant OTU (Figure 3t) in each sample was higher in LMA sponges

Rarefied richness \bullet $F₀$ \blacksquare He \bullet Ps Δ Xt ć Js. 500 500 1,000 1,500 \blacksquare Lp \bullet Ph \triangle Sc ∇ Sm \blacksquare Sd Number of OTUs Number of OTUs \bullet **W₁** 1,000 500 \circ 0 10,000 20,000 30,000 40,000 Number of sequences

FIGURE 4 Rarefaction plot of OTU diversity for each biotope*. Ectyoplasia coccinea* (Ec)*, Hyrtios erectus* (He)*, Petrosia* aff. *spheroida* (Ps)*, Xestospongia testudinaria* (Xt)*, Jaspis splendens* (Js)*, Liosina paradoxa* (Lp)*, Paratetilla bacca* (Pb)*, Stylissa carteri* (Sc)*, Stylissa massa* (Sm)*, sediment* (Sd)*, and seawater* (Wt)

(*J. splendens*: 41.6% ± 15.0%, *S. carteri*: 43.5% ± 3.1%), with the exception of *L. paradoxa* (15.6% ± 3.7%), than HMA sponges (*H. erectus*: 18.8% ± 7.2%, *X. testudinaria*: 14.6% ± 6.8%), with the exception of *E. coccinea* (38.1% ± 30.3%).

OTU richness followed this general pattern with some exceptions (Figure 4). Most biotopes, with the exception of sediment, seawater, *S. carteri*, and *L. paradoxa,* appeared to be approaching a richness asymptote. LMA sponges contained the least rich (*J. splendens* and *P. bacca*) and richest sponge bacterial communities (*S. carteri*). *Liosina paradoxa* (Lp) was interesting in having the richest bacterial commu‐ nity in terms of OTU richness but the poorest in terms of phylum

FIGURE 5 Ordination showing the first two axes of the PCO analysis. (a) Symbols represent samples from *Ectyoplasia coccinea* (Ec), *Hyrtios erectus* (He), *Petrosia* aff. *spheroida* (Ps)*, Xestospongia testudinaria* (Xt)*, Jaspis splendens* (Js), *paradoxa paradoxa* (Lp), *Paratetilla bacca* (Pb), *Stylissa carteri* (Sc), *Stylissa massa* (Sm), sediment (Sd), and seawater (Wt). Very small light gray circles represent OTUs < 100 sequence reads; large light gray circles represents OTUs with ≥ 500 sequence reads; (b) numbers represent abundant (≥100 sequence reads) OTUs referred to in Table 2

richness. There was pronounced variation in the composition among individuals of certain biotopes. This was particularly evident in *E. coccinea* and *J. splendens* where the percentage of Cyanobacteria among individuals varied from 2.6% to 76.8% in *E. coccinea* and from 1.5% to 73.5% in *J. splendens*. In contrast, individuals of *P. bacca* har‐ bored Proteobacteria, Chloroflexi, and Actinobacteria in similar rela‐ tive abundances (Supporting Information Figure S1).

There was a highly significant difference in composition among biotopes (adonis: $F_{10.22} = 11.05$, $p < 0.001$, $R^2 = 0.834$). Variation among biotopes thus explained >83% of the variation in composition. The first PCO axis separated the *H. erectus*, *X. testudinaria,* and *P.* aff. *spheroida* from all other samples, and the second axis separated sediment and *L. paradoxa* samples from remaining samples (Figure 5). A number of abundant OTUs were found predominantly or exclusively in *H. erectus*, *P.* aff. *spheroida,* and *X. testudinaria* (Figure 6). These in‐ cluded OTUs 12, 15, and 1772 assigned to the Actinobacteria, OTU‐33 assigned to the Acidobacteria, OTUs 35, 40, 60, 66, and 664 assigned to the Chloroflexi, OTUs 76 and 289 assigned to the Proteobacteria, OTU‐39 assigned to SBR1093 and OTU‐41 that was unclassified at the phylum level. All of these OTUs were closely related (sequence similarity >98%) to organisms previously found in other sponges in‐ cluding *X. testudinaria* from Indonesia (Table 2). Actinobacterial OTUs in HMA sponges and *P. bacca* also formed a well‐supported cluster distinct from the only abundant actinobacterial OTU (OTU‐45) in the other LMA sponges. The Actinobacteria in HMA sponges and *P. bacca* clustered together with two cultured organisms, *Ferrimicrobium acidiphilum* and *Acidimicrobium ferrooxidans*. OTUs associated with sediment and *L. paradoxa* samples included OTUs 21, 84, and 656 assigned to the Alphaproteobacteria, OTU-132 assigned to the gammaproteobacterial order Thiotrichales and OTU‐31 assigned to the genus *Synechococcus*. OTUs 21 and 656 were both assigned to the family Phyllobacteriaceae and were closely related (sequence similar‐ ity >98%) to organisms found in the sponges *Corticium candelabrum* and *Haliclona* (*Gellius*) sp. OTU‐21 was also strongly enriched in *L. par‐ adoxa* compared to sediment (1,403 sequences in *L. paradoxa* vs. five sequences in sediment).

The third PCO axis separated samples of *P. bacca* from all other samples and the fourth PCO axis separated *J. splendens* and *S. massa* from the remaining samples (Supporting Information Figure S2). *Paratetilla bacca* housed a number of abundant OTUs that were predominantly or exclusively found there. The fifth PCO axis separated samples of *S. massa* from samples of *J. splendens* (Supporting

FIGURE 6 Phylogenetic tree of the bacterial 16S rRNA gene sequences recovered from sponges, *(Ectyoplasia coccinea, Hyrtios erectus, Petrosia aff. spheroida, Xestospongia testudinaria, Jaspis splendens, Liosina paradoxa, Paratetilla bacca, Stylissa carteri, Stylissa massa)* seawater (Wt), and sediment (Sd); bootstrap values lower than 50% were omitted. The number of each OTU is indicated as are GenBank GenInfo sequence identifiers of cultured bacterial sequences. Phyla and orders of Bacteria are indicated. OTUs are assigned to the following clusters HMA (Ps), (Xt), (Ec) and (He), LMA (Pb), (Js), (Lp), (Sc) and (Sm), Seawater (Wt), and Sediment (Sd)

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TABLE 2 List of most abundant OTUs (≥500 sequences) including OTU number (OTU), total sequences (Sum), biotope or biotopes where OTU was (mainly) found (Group), taxonomic affiliation of OTU, GenBank Geninfo sequence identifiers (GI) of closely related organisms identified using BLAST, sequence identity (Seq) of those organisms with our representative OTU sequences, isolation source of closely related organisms identified using BLAST. In the 'Group' category, OTUs restricted to a given biotope or biotopes are indicated by an asterisk (*). Ectyoplasia coccinea (Ec), H. erectus (He), Petrosia aff. spheroida (Ps), Xestospongia testudinaria (Xt), Jaspis splendens (Js), paradoxa paradoxa (Lp), Paratetilla bacca (Pb), Stylissa carteri (Sc), Stylissa massa (Sm), , sediment (Sd), and seawater (Wt), high microbial abundance sponges (HMA), low microbial abundance sponges (LMA)

 14,810 Js* Proteobacteria Gammaproteobacteria Unclassified Unclassified Unclassified 1 295,639,186 95.97 Sponge: *Aplysina fulva* Bahamas: Sweetings Cay, 11,617 Pb Chloroflexi SAR202 Unclassified Unclassified Unclassified 2 400,269,182 99.05 Sponge: *Cinachyra* sp. 19,296 LMA Cyanobacteria Synechococcophycideae Synechococcales Synechococcaceae Synechococcus 3 786,319,984 99.76 Sea water from G−9 19,031 ScSm Proteobacteria Gammaproteobacteria Chromatiales Unclassified Unclassified 4 407,913,000 100 Sponge: *Stylissa carteri* Unclassified 5 334,303,082 95.08 Medea hypersaline basin, 4,274 Pb Proteobacteria Alphaproteobacteria Unclassified Unclassified Unclassified 8 400,269,153 98.82 Sponge: *Cinachyra* sp. 5,266 Js* Proteobacteria Gammaproteobacteria Chromatiales Unclassified Unclassified 9 400,269,037 95.02 Sponge: *Cymbastella* 6,718 LMA Cyanobacteria Synechococcophycideae Synechococcales Synechococcaceae Prochlorococcus 10 672,374,773 99.76 Seawater West Pacific 2,855 Pb Proteobacteria Unclassified Unclassified Unclassified Unclassified 11 441,084,656 90.87 Sponge: *Dysidea avara* Mediterranean Sea: Medas Islands 2,852 HMA Actinobacteria Acidimicrobiia Acidimicrobiales TK06 Unclassified 12 768,028,613 100 Coral: *Porites lutea* 2,223 Sm* Proteobacteria Gammaproteobacteria Chromatiales Unclassified Unclassified 13 597,437,727 99.78 Sponge: *Axinella* sp. 1667 Pb* Proteobacteria Alphaproteobacteria Rhodobacterales Rhodobacteraceae Unclassified 14 400,269,113 94.77 Sponge: *Coelocarteria* 2,338 HMA Actinobacteria Acidimicrobiia Acidimicrobiales wb1_P06 Unclassified 15 768,028,476 99.76 Coral: *Porites lutea* 1899 ScSm* Proteobacteria Deltaproteobacteria NB1‐j NB1‐i Unclassified 16 407,912,992 100 Sponge: *Stylissa carteri* 2,364 Pb Proteobacteria Gammaproteobacteria Unclassified Unclassified Unclassified 17 400,269,041 95.3 Sponge: *Cymbastella* 1790 PsXt Cyanobacteria Synechococcophycideae Synechococcales Synechococcaceae Synechococcus 18 308,217,458 99.76 Sponge: *Xestospongia muta* 2,894 Ec Proteobacteria Gammaproteobacteria Chromatiales Ectothiorhodospiraceae Unclassified 19 678,605,864 98.43 Sponge: *Astrosclera* 2067 Pb Actinobacteria Acidimicrobiia Acidimicrobiales Unclassified Unclassified 20 384,161,909 99.53 Sponge: *Cinachyra* sp. 1,410 Lp Proteobacteria Alphaproteobacteria Rhizobiales Phyllobacteriaceae Unclassified 21 82,470,213 98.58 Sponge: *Corticium* 1,378 Ec Proteobacteria Gammaproteobacteria HTCC2188 HTCC2089 Unclassified 22 110,265,023 98.66 Sponge: larva marine 1,408 Pb Proteobacteria Gammaproteobacteria Chromatiales Ectothiorhodospiraceae Unclassified 23 745,791,420 96.66 Sponge: Plakortis 1814 Pb Proteobacteria Gammaproteobacteria Unclassified Unclassified Unclassified 24 295,639,186 95.02 Sponge: Aplysina fulva 3,252 ScSm Proteobacteria Gammaproteobacteria Thiohalorhabdales Unclassified Unclassified 27 407,912,993 98.34 Sponge: *Stylissa carteri* 1,275 Js* Proteobacteria Deltaproteobacteria Bdellovibrionales Bdellovibrionaceae Bdellovibrio 28 350,627,483 96.71 Sponge: *Xestospongia muta* 1,322 HMA* Chloroflexi Anaerolineae Caldilineales Caldilineaceae Unclassified 29 526,299,835 98.82 Sponge: taxon: 166,587 806 HMA + Ec Chloroflexi SAR202 Unclassified Unclassified Unclassified 30 295,639,177 98.82 Sponge: *Aplysina fulva* 1,038 Lp Cyanobacteria Synechococcophycideae Synechococcales Synechococcaceae Synechococcus 31 82,470,805 99.29 ? ? 745 Pb Proteobacteria Alphaproteobacteria Rhodospirillales Rhodospirillaceae Unclassified 32 195,945,265 97.16 Sponge: *Aplysina fulva* 939 HMA* Acidobacteria Acidobacteria−6 BPC015 Unclassified Unclassified 33 400,269,348 100 Sponge: *Xestospongia testudinaria* 661 Xt* Proteobacteria Gammaproteobacteria Alteromonadales Unclassified Unclassified 34 283,831,330 98.21 Sponge 770 HMA Chloroflexi Anaerolineae Caldilineales Caldilineaceae Unclassified 35 350,627,534 100 Sponge: *Xestospongia*

testudinaria

TABLE 2 (Continued)

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Information Figure S3). This was primarily related to the presence of OTUs only found in those hosts, and thus possibly species spe‐ cific (*S. massa*: OTU‐13; *J. splendens*: OTUs 1, 5, 9, 28). The four OTUs restricted to *J. splendens* also only had sequence similarities varying from 95.02 to 96.71 (Table 2) and thus may represent novel taxa. In addition to the above, there were a number of other abun‐ dant OTUs restricted to certain species or genera. These included OTUs 16, 786, and 1,515 restricted to both *Stylissa* species; OTUs 34, 51, and 477 restricted to *X. testudinaria* and OTU‐44 restricted to *E. coccinea* (Figure 6). OTUs 16, 786, and 1,515 were assigned to the Chromatiales and NB1‐j orders and were similar (sequences similarity >99%) to organisms obtained from the sponges *S. carteri* in the Red Sea and *Axinella* spp. from the Caribbean and China. The second most abundant OTU overall, OTU‐4, was largely restricted to both *Stylissa* species (19,028 sequences in both *Stylissa* spe‐ cies vs. three sequences in *J. splendens*) and assigned to the order Chromatiales. It is closely related (sequence similarity = 100%) to an organism found in *S. carteri* from the Red Sea (Table 2). LMA

and HMA sponges housed a phylogenetically diverse community of Chromatiales including a well‐supported cluster of three OTUs found in *J. splendens* and *P. bacca* (OTUs 1, 9, and 24), and a cluster of two OTUs of which OTU‐19 was found mainly in *E. coccinea* and OTU‐289 mainly in the three HMA sponges (Figure 7).

A network showing relationships between OTUs and biotopes is presented in Figure 8 whereby the size of the biotope or OTU symbol indicates the number of connections between biotopes and OTUs. OTUs with larger symbols were thus found in more biotopes. The thickness of the lines connecting biotopes and OTUs, in turn, is a function of the number of sequences for a particular OTU in a particular biotope. OTUs in the center of the network were thus found in a large number of biotopes. This includes the most abun‐ dant OTU overall, OTU‐3 assigned to the genus *Synechococcus* and most abundant in *E. coccinea* (6,579 sequences)*, J. splendens* (5,155 sequences*), S. carteri* (4,485 sequences), *S. massa (*2,307 sequences), and seawater (538 sequences). Most of the OTUs present in numer‐ ous biotopes were assigned to Cyanobacteria and Proteobacteria.

FIGURE 7 Heatmap of the most abundant (≥500 sequences) OTUs (rows) in each biotope (column). The number of sequences of a given OTU in each biotope is indicated by a color key using a logarithmic scale. The OTU number and assigned phylum and orders are given. Biotopes were clustered based on OTU similarity using the Bray–Curtis distance. Xestospongia testudinaria (Xt), H. erectus (He), Petrosia aff. spheroida (Ps), sediment (Sd), Liosina paradoxa (Lp), Paratetilla bacca (Pb), Ectyoplasia coccinea (Ec), seawater (Wt), Jaspis splendens (Js), Stylissa massa (Sm), Stylissa carteri (Sc)

The cyanobacterial OTUs, assigned to the genera *Synechococcus* and *Prochlorococcus*, were found predominantly in LMA sponges and sea‐ water. Interestingly, the main cyanobacterial symbiont in *X. testudi‐ naria* and *P.* aff. *spheroida* (OTU‐18) formed a well‐supported cluster with *Synechococcus spongiarum*. The network reflects the ordination results with the three HMA species sharing a large number of OTUs. Likewise, the LMA sponges shared a large number of OTUs with one another and with seawater. In the ordination, *E. coccinea*, although presumably a HMA species, clustered with the LMA sponges. In the network, it is apparent that *E. coccinea* houses a more distinct bacterial community sharing a subset of OTUs with HMA species. These included OTUs 19, 43, and 68 assigned to the Gamma‐ and Deltaproteobacteria, OTUs 30 and 35 assigned to SAR202 and Anaerolineae, and OTU‐36 assigned to the Spirochaetes. All of these OTUs were closely related (sequence similarity >98%) to organisms previously found in sponges, including the species *Astrosclera wil‐ leyana*, *Geodia barrretti,* and *Ectyoplasia ferox*, with the exception of OTU‐43.

4 | **DISCUSSION**

With the emergence of deep sequencing, it has become possible to obtain a more comprehensive picture of the microbial diversity asso‐ ciated with sponges. Here, we used 454‐pyrosequencing to explore the bacterial communities of several biotopes including sponges,

seawater, and sediment, in a coral reef system located in the un‐ derstudied Western Indian Ocean. Proteobacteria were, by far, the most abundant taxa in terms of both sequences and OTUs, although some samples were dominated by Cyanobacteria, Chloroflexi, or Actinobacteria. A number of potentially novel taxa were identified with relatively low sequence similarity to organisms in GenBank. It is generally assumed that LMA sponges are characterized by a low phy‐ lum‐level diversity with dominant phyla belonging to Proteobacteria and Cyanobacteria (Giles et al., 2013; Hentschel et al., 2006; Moitinho‐Silva et al., 2014; Poppell et al., 2014). However, in the pre‐ sent study, this was complemented by Chloroflexi and Actinobacteria in *P. bacca*. Moreover, this sponge together with *S. carteri* housed a higher bacterial diversity at the phylum, class, and order level than the sponges *H. erectus, P.* aff. *spheroida,* and *X. testudinaria.* The Chloroflexi clade SAR202 (mainly OTU‐2) was particularly abundant in *P. bacca* with 11,617 sequences, and OTU‐2 had a sequence simi‐ larity of 99.05% to an organism previously found in *Cinachyra* from Australia. These sponges, together with *Cinachyrella,* are all closely related. Sponges belonging to these genera are difficult to identify in the field, because a lack of diagnostic features hampers identifica‐ tion using traditional morphological characters (Chambers, Padovan, Alvarez, & Gibb, 2013; Cuvelier et al., 2014). In the recent past, it was shown that these sponges could be identified based on their distinct bacterial community even over a wide geographic range (Chambers et al., 2013). In our study, we were able to assign our samples to a sin‐ gle morphospecies; interestingly, the different individuals of *P. bacca*

FIGURE 8 Network of biotopes (letters) and OTUs (numbers) constructed using cytoscape based on an OTU table of the most abundant (≥500 sequences) OTUs. The size of the biotope symbol indicates the total number of sequences; the size of the OTU symbol indicates the number of connections to separate biotopes. The thickness of the line connecting a biotope and OTU indicates the number of sequences of a give OTU in a given biotope. Finally, the color of the lines indicates the biotope to which a given OTU is connected. Just three sponge species (Xt, Sc, and Ps) harbored more than 84% of all dominant OTUs

harbored Proteobacteria, Chloroflexi, and Actinobacteria in almost identical relative abundances, suggesting that the bacterial commu‐ nity is well conserved in this species and comparison with samples of this species from a wider geographic range would be interesting to check whether the species indeed has a specific microbial signature. The HMA sponges *X. testudinaria*, *H. erectus,* and presumed HMA sponge *P.* aff. *spheroida* were dominated by OTUs assigned to the phyla Actinobacteria and Chloroflexi, Acidobacteria, Proteobacteria, and the candidate phylum SBR1093, as found previously in other studies (Kamke, Taylor, & Schmitt, 2010; Schmitt et al., 2012).

Sponge morphology has been proposed to be an important de‐ terminant of the HMA/LMA dichotomy. HMA sponges are large, massive, and have a firm touch and fleshy consistency, whereas LMA sponges are generally smaller and feel fragile, soft and brittle (U. Hentschel pers. obs in Gloeckner et al., 2014). Indeed, both *X. te‐ studinaria* and *P.* aff. *spheroida* have very similar morphologies; both are large and massive. *Hyrtios erectus*, another HMA sponge, how‐ ever, forms small firm digits and is embedded in the sediment. The sponge *J. splendens* and *E. coccinea* are very similar in morphology

forming irregular lumpy encrustations with elevated oscules and are very soft and brittle. *Jaspis splendens* forms a clear cluster with sea‐ water, *S. massa* and *S. carteri*. However, *E. coccinea* is clearly differ‐ ent, sharing a bacterial community with HMA sponges, but also with LMA sponges. In addition to this, it has two abundant OTUs confined to this species, namely OTU‐44 and 73. OTU‐44 belongs to the class Gemm‐2, and a related OTU was previously isolated from the Caribbean *Ectyoplasia ferox* (Schmitt, Angermeier, Schiller, Lindquist, & Schmitt, 2008). Although *Ectyoplasia* is considered to be a HMA sponge by Gloeckner et al. (2014) and Schmitt et al. (2008), it clearly falls outside the HMA cluster. In the recent past, Easson and Thacker (2014) also showed that the Caribbean sponge species *Ecyoplasia ferox* contains a unique and diverse microbial community with sev‐ eral dominant Proteobacteria OTUs. The LMA sponges *S. massa*, *P. bacca,* and *J. splendens* housed abundant, possibly species‐specific taxa. Both *Stylissa* spp., although soft, are not fragile, brittle, or small in appearance and are in our opinion true LMA sponges.

Ambient seawater is often assessed for microbial communities in order to detect seed banks for the colonization and acquisition of **16 of 18 INTEY** marine ecology **ACCOUNTAGE CONSUMING THE VEHICLE AL.**

symbionts specifically for LMA sponges; however, the benthic substrate is often overlooked. In the present study, most sponge spe‐ cies sampled were embedded in the reef substrate, and we therefore also sampled the reef sediment to assess its bacterial community. Although the sediment bacterial community was characterized by a higher phylum diversity, its community structure was highly similar to that of the sponge *L. paradoxa.* This species had a low phylum‐level richness, but a very high OTU richness and cannot be categorized as either a LMA or HMA sponge. This sponge species forms clusters of large tubes with a very peculiar sandy–muddy surface and incor‐ porates extraneous material in its skeleton. OTU‐21 and OTU‐656 were observed in both sediment and *L. paradoxa* and are assigned to the order Rhizobiales (family Phyllobacteriaceae). OTU‐21 is closely related to the novel taxon *Oricola cellulosilytica*, which was very recently described from surface seashore seawater in Taiwan (Hameed et al., 2015). However, the ecological relevance of many Phyllobacteriaceae representatives remains largely unknown. It is also unclear whether these OTUs are transversal or whether they actually are part of the sponge bacteriome. Interestingly, the skel‐ eton of *H. erectus* is, like *L. paradoxa*, composed of a crust of exog‐ enous material and consists of sponge fibers filled with extraneous detritus, sediment grains, and foreign spicules. However, although *H. erectus* is embedded in the reef sediment, its bacterial community is highly distinct from the sediment bacterial community.

Based on the present study, we conclude that a clear dichotomy between HMA and LMA sponges does not appear to exist. However, certain HMA sponges (*X. testudinaria*, *P.* aff. *spheroida,* and *H. erec‐ tus*) are clearly distinguished by sharing very similar bacterial com‐ munities dominated by OTUs assigned to the Actinobacteria and Chloroflexi among others. Certain LMA sponges housed a bacterial community that was similar to the surrounding environment (seawa‐ ter) but also included highly abundant OTUs that may be species or genus‐specific. These OTUs mostly belonged to the Proteobacteria and Cyanobacteria, and relative abundance varied considerably among individuals.

Many microbial taxa found in sponges also occur at very low abundances in seawater, which might serve as a seed bank for sponges (Taylor et al., 2013). Microbes might also be leached into the sea by physical damage or by the expulsion of the reproduc‐ tive material during spawning (Gloeckner, Lindquist, Schmitt, & Hentschel, 2013). In conclusion, the marine bacterial community seems to consist of a complex network of bacterial taxa with the host (e.g., sponge species) and non-host (e.g., sediment and seawater) biotopes harboring partially overlapping bacterial members.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This study was financed through the ANR‐Netbiome under grant No ANR‐11‐EBIM‐0006 and by European Funds through COMPETE (FCOMP-01-0124-FEDER-008657) and by National Funds through the Portuguese Science Foundation (FCT) within the LESS CORAL project [PTDC/AAC-AMB/115304/2009]. Thanks are due for the financial support to CESAM (UID/AMB/50017

- POCI-01-0145-FEDER-007638), to FCT/MCTES through na‐ tional funds (PIDDAC), and the co-funding by the FEDER, within the PT2020 Partnership Agreement and Compete 2020. Ana R.M. Polónia was supported by a postdoctoral scholarship (SFRH/ BPD/117563/2016) funded by FCT, Portugal within the Human Capital Operational Programme (HCOP), subsidized by the European Social Fund (ESF) and National funds MCTES. Research permits were issued via Terres Australes en Antartiques françaises (TAAF). We thank Cécile Debitus, Bruno Fichou, Stephan Aubert, Philippe Prost, and Jean‐Pierre Bellanger for their support.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

AUTHORS CONTRIBUTION

N.J.d.V. and D.F.R.C. designed the study; N.J.d.V. and A.G.B. col‐ lected the samples; A.R.M.P. performed the laboratory work; D.F.R.C. and A.R.M.P. performed the data analysis; N.J.d.V, A.G.B., A.R.M.P., and D.F.R.C. wrote the manuscript.

DATA ACCESSIBILITY

The DNA sequences generated in this study can be downloaded from the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) Sequence Read Archive (SRA): Accession no. SRP071901.

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SUPPORTING INFORMATION

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How to cite this article: de Voogd NJ, Gauvin‐Bialecki A, Polónia ARM, Cleary DFR. Assessing the bacterial communities of sponges inhabiting the remote western Indian Ocean island of Mayotte. *Mar Ecol*. 2018;39:e12517. [https://doi.](https://doi.org/10.1111/maec.12517)

[org/10.1111/maec.12517](https://doi.org/10.1111/maec.12517)