

Circadian dynamics of the teleost skin immune-microbiome interface

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Abstract

Circadian rhythms of host immune activity and their microbiomes are likely pivotal to health and disease resistance. The integration of chronotherapeutic approaches to disease mitigation in managed animals, however, is yet to be realised. In aquaculture, light manipulation is commonly used to enhance growth and control reproduction but may have unknown negative consequences for animal health. Infectious diseases are a major barrier to sustainable aquaculture and understanding the circadian dynamics of fish immunity and crosstalk with the microbiome is urgently needed. We demonstrate daily rhythms in fish skin immune expression and microbiomes, that are modulated by photoperiod and parasitic infection. We identify putative associations of host clock and immune gene profiles with microbial composition. Our results suggest circadian perturbation that shifts the magnitude and timing of immune and microbiota activity, is detrimental to fish health. This study represents a valuable foundation for investigating the utility of chronotherapies in aquaculture, and more broadly contributes to our understanding of circadian health in vertebrates.

28 **Introduction**

29 Circadian rhythms – endogenous daily cycles in physiological and behavioural processes – are a
 30 ubiquitous phenomenon to life. Living organisms are adapted to anticipate the daily variations in
 31 light, temperature, or food availability driven by the relentless 24 h rotation of Earth. Circadian
 32 rhythms are orchestrated by so-called “clock genes” driving transcriptional-translational
 33 autoregulatory feedback loops¹, which are transduced to temporally coordinate biological activities.
 34 Immune functions are energetically costly² and often highly rhythmic, enabling organisms to mount
 35 their most efficient response at times when risk of infection or injury are highest^{3–5}. Conversely,
 36 immune factors and infections can affect expression of molecular clocks^{6–8} and subsequent rhythmic
 37 phenotypes^{9,10}. Disruption of normal circadian cycles can impact immune functioning^{11,12} and may
 38 increase disease risks¹³.

39 A primary function of immune systems is to protect the host from invading pathogenic
 40 microbes. However, animals are invariably colonized by a suite of microorganisms – their
 41 “microbiome” - which span the spectrum of symbiosis from mutualists to opportunistic pathogens.
 42 In vertebrates, it is increasingly apparent that immune systems and microbiomes are intricately linked,
 43 together mediating homeostasis and influencing disease outcomes^{14,15}. Intriguingly, microbiomes
 44 may also be rhythmic, exhibiting diurnal fluctuations in community composition and activity¹⁶. In
 45 studies of the mammalian gut, it has been demonstrated that not only does expression of host clock
 46 genes shape microbiome rhythms¹⁷, but disruption of microbial rhythms in turn impacts host circadian
 47 functioning¹⁸.

48 Aquaculture is the world’s fastest growing food sector, but infectious disease is the principle
 49 barrier to sustainability¹⁹ and a multi-billion-dollar problem for the global industry²⁰. Whilst
 50 understanding of fish microbiomes is still in its infancy compared to mammalian systems, there is
 51 rapidly growing interest in their role for fish nutrition, health and disease resistance^{21–23}. Photoperiod
 52 manipulation is commonly used in fish farms, with extended day lengths and, in the extreme, constant
 53 light, to promote increased growth rates, or control maturation and reproduction^{24–26}. Fish are thought

to have a decentralised clock, with cells from multiple tissues expressing circadian genes^{27,28}, self-sustained rhythmicity and light responsiveness (see ²⁹ for review). In common with higher vertebrates, fish appear to exhibit circadian rhythmicity in certain immune factors^{27,28,30–33}. Therefore, extreme lighting regimes may have profound implications for fish health and response to infection. Moreover, there are indications that infection and/or stress may impact expression of fish circadian clocks^{34,35}. Currently, the extent to which light manipulation practices contribute to disease in aquaculture is unknown. More fundamentally, the daily dynamics of the fish immune-microbiome interface is yet to be explored. Uncovering the effects of infection and photoperiod on fish immune and microbiome rhythms will be pivotal for both aquaculture disease mitigation strategies, and a broader understanding of the role of holobiont chronobiological interactions for animal health.

Here, using rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) as a model, we combine 16S rRNA metabarcoding and direct mRNA quantification methods to simultaneously characterise the circadian dynamics of skin clock and immune gene expression, and daily changes of skin microbiota. We compare circadian rhythms of host clock and immune gene expression and microbial community composition in healthy fish under regular light-dark cycles (12:12 LD) with those in fish experimentally infected with the ectoparasite crustacean *Argulus foliaceus* and/or raised under constant light (24:0 LD, hereafter LL). In addition, we assess rhythmicity in the functional potential of trout skin microbiomes and establish host expression-microbiome association networks.

Results

Photoperiod impacts host responses to infection

Photoperiod (12:12 LD vs LL) had no significant impact on growth of juvenile rainbow trout over the 16-week trial period (weight: $t_{956} = 0.073$, $P = 0.942$, length: $t_{956} = 0.222$, $P = 0.825$, Supplementary Figure 1a & 1b). However, a significantly higher number of *Argulus* lice survived 7 days post-inoculation on fish maintained in constant light conditions ($t_{115} = -8.418$, $P = 1.23 \times 10^{-23}$, Supplementary Figure 1c). To examine overall immune responses to *Argulus* infection, we grouped fish from all timepoints, and contrasted expression of 27 genes from innate and adaptive immune

pathways between treatment groups (12:12 LD control, 12:12 LD infected, LL control, LL infected). Infected trout had significantly higher expression of 24 immune genes (89%) under 12:12 LD, whereas only 14 (52%) were significantly higher in infected fish compared to healthy controls under constant light (Figure 1). Two genes (*c3* and *tgfb*) were significantly reduced by infection in both light conditions (Figure 1). Expression levels were broadly similar among infected groups, although upregulation of the pro-inflammatory interleukins *il4* and *il6* was lower under constant light (Figure 1). Conversely, comparisons of healthy (unchallenged) fish under LD and LL revealed a substantial difference in immune expression profiles, with unchallenged fish under constant light exhibiting elevated expression levels in 21 genes (78%), more similar to both infected groups in most immune genes (Figure 1).

Circadian rhythmicity of host expression is altered by infection and photoperiod

Under 12:12 LD, core and accessory vertebrate clock genes exhibited significant circadian rhythmicity in healthy trout skin (Figure 2, Table 1, Supplementary Figure 2). Many of these genes are also found to be expressed rhythmically in fish raised in constant light (Figure 2, Table 1, Supplementary Figure 2) and when fish are placed into “free-running” (DD) conditions (Supplementary Figure 3, Table 1). However, overall expression levels of clock genes are elevated in the absence of light cues (Figure 2, Supplementary Figure 2), except for *timeless* (suppressed expression in LL). In addition, *bmal2*, *clock1b*, *per1*, and *rora* exhibited a significantly different phase of expression in constant light (Table 1, Figure 2, Supplementary Figure 2).

Argulus lice infections had variable impacts on the expression levels and rhythmicity of the clock genes. When contrasted with healthy control groups, some gene rhythms were dampened in infected fish (i.e. significantly reduced amplitude; 12:12 LD *clock3*, LL *per1*), rendered arrhythmic (*cry2* in LL), and/or phase-shifted (*bmal1* in both light treatments, *cry1* and *per1* in 12:12 LD, *clock3* in LL). Rhythms of clock gene expression in infected fish under the two photoperiod treatments did not differ in amplitude. But, *bmal1*, *clock1b*, *clock3*, *cry1*, *per1*, *per2*, *rory* and *timeless* had significantly different phases of expression between infected fish under 12:12 LD and those raised in

constant light. In addition, *bmal2*, *clock3*, *csnk1d*, *per2*, *reverbb* had increased rhythm mesors in LL, whilst *timeless* was suppressed (Table 1, Figure 2, Supplementary Figure 2).

Significant rhythmicity in expression was found in both innate and adaptive immune markers (Table 1, Supplementary Figures 4 & 5), with a substantial proportion remaining rhythmic under free-running (DD) conditions (Supplementary Figure 6). The cathelicidins (*cath1*, *cath2*), *igd*, *il17a*, and *tbx21*, while rhythmic in healthy fish under 12:12 LD, were arrhythmic in fish maintained in constant light (Table 1, Supplementary Figures 4 & 5). Of the immune genes rhythmic in healthy fish under both light conditions, the innate markers *chi*, *hamp* and *nos2*, and the adaptive markers *cd4*, *cd8a*, *foxp3b*, *igm*, *igt*, *tcrb* and *tgfb* had significantly different mesors; with the exception of *nos2*, all were more highly expressed in LL. However, some of these more highly expressed genes (*cd4*, *foxp3b*, *hamp*, *igt*, *tgfb*) and others with similar expression levels between photoperiods (*il4*, *tlr9*), were phase-shifted in constant light (Table 1, Supplementary Figures 4 & 5).

Fewer immune genes were rhythmically expressed in infected fish: 76% and 67% of rhythmic genes found in healthy fish were also rhythmic in the 12:12 LD and LL infected groups respectively. Under 12:12 LD, the vast majority (94%) of the immune genes assayed with rhythmicity in both healthy and infected fish exhibited higher mesors in the infected group. In contrast, only 57% of immune genes with rhythms in healthy and infected fish in LL had different expression levels (Table 1). Only *tbx21* had a significantly altered amplitude in rhythm; with a higher amplitude in infected fish at 12:12 LD compared to both healthy 12:12 LD fish and infected fish in constant light. *Argulus* infection also shifted the phase of expression of *mhcii* under 12:12 LD and *c3*, *nos2* and *igt* in LL (Table 1).

***Argulus* infection impacts skin mucus microbiome communities**

After read pre-processing, error correction, chimera removal, and filtering, a total of 1,037 amplified sequence variants (ASVs) were found across all samples. Rarefaction curves confirmed a minimum read depth of 2,000 was sufficient to reach saturation of diversity in trout skin (Supplementary Figure 7a). Background water samples were distinct from fish groups (Supplementary Figure 7b) and had a

significantly higher alpha diversity (Supplementary Figure 7c). Contrasts of alpha diversity among fish samples revealed that the microbiomes of healthy fish under constant light were significantly less diverse than all other groups (Faith's PD, all pairwise Kruskal-Wallis tests $P < 0.001$, Supplementary Table 2). Multivariate permutational analysis of beta diversity indicated significant compositional differences among all groups (Supplementary Figure 7b, Supplementary Table 3).

The skin microbiome communities in all groups were dominated by *Proteobacteria*, with *Pseudomonadaceae* and *Burkholderiaceae* accounting for over 50% of the communities in all groups and timepoints (Figure 3). Wilcoxon rank-sum testing and DESeq2 both revealed substantial differences in the relative abundances of microbial taxa between healthy and lice-infected fish (Figure 4). At the higher taxonomic levels, healthy fish under both light treatments had a greater proportion of *Actinobacteria* and *Firmicutes* lineages, whilst both infected fish groups had increased *Bacteroidia* lineages (Figure 4a). At the genus level, many *Gammaproteobacteria* were more abundant in both infected groups (e.g. *Aeromonas*, *Perluclidibaca*, *Undibacterium*, Figure 4b). *Bacteroidia* genera, including several *Chryseobacterium*, *Flectobacillus* and *Flavobacterium* ASVs were also increased in infected fish, with *Flavobacterium* accounting for some of the highest fold-changes in abundance (Figure 4b). Full lists of differentially abundant taxa are provided in Supplementary Table 4.

Functional prediction of microbiomes revealed putative differences in the activity of microbial communities among healthy and infected fish. LefSe analyses indicated pathways enriched in healthy fish groups were predominantly degradative classes including amino acid, aromatic compound, and carbohydrate degradation (Table 2). In contrast, functional enrichment of lice-infected fish microbiomes was dominated by biosynthetic pathways in both light conditions, particularly those involved in cofactor, carrier and vitamin biosynthesis (Table 2). Overall, a greater number of pathways were identified as differentially abundant between healthy and infected fish in LL, suggestive of a greater disruption in microbiota functional potential due to parasitic infection in fish maintained under constant light.

Circadian rhythmicity of skin microbiota and association with host gene expression

159 Circadian rhythmicity in relative abundance was apparent in 49 skin bacteria genera in one or more
 160 of the treatment groups (Table 3, Figure 5). Of the 41 genera rhythmic in both healthy and infected
 161 fish at 12:12 LD, 17 (41.5%) had significantly different mesors. In contrast, 60.5% (23/38) had
 162 significantly different mesors when comparing healthy and infected fish under constant light.
 163 *Perlucidibaca*, *Undibacterium*, and *Rhodoferrax* had significantly greater rhythm amplitudes in
 164 infected fish under both light treatments. In addition, *Flectobacillus*, *Alkanibacter* and an unassigned
 165 *Burkholderiaceae* genus had higher rhythm amplitudes in infected 12:12 LD fish, whilst *Duganella*
 166 had higher amplitude in LL infected fish only. Under 12:12 LD, lice infection significantly altered
 167 rhythm phases of seven bacteria genera (Unknown *Rhizobiaceae*, Unknown *Rickettsiales*, *Deefgea*,
 168 *Massilia*, Unknown *Neisseriaceae*, Unknown *Chitinophagales* and *Legionella*). *Pseudoclavibacter*
 169 was the only genus found to have altered rhythm phase in LL healthy vs infected comparisons.

170 Visualisation of the timings of peak abundances of rhythmic taxa indicated no clear
 171 phylogenetic patterns (e.g. rhythmic *Proteobacteria* genera peak abundances were spread across the
 172 circadian cycle, Figure 5a). However, when considering the rhythms of the functional potential of the
 173 microbiome communities, we found evidence of temporal patterns (Figure 6). In healthy fish under
 174 12:12 LD, the majority of rhythmic biosynthetic (e.g. heme b, L-lysine and isoprene biosynthesis)
 175 and energy generation (e.g. glycolysis, TCA cycle) functions peaked in the first hours of light (ZT0-
 176 3), whilst degradation function peaks were found primarily in dark hours (ZT12-21). In contrast, in
 177 infected fish under 12:12 LD, rhythmic biosynthetic and energy generation functions predominantly
 178 peak in abundance towards the end of the dark period (ZT19-23), whilst degradation pathways peaked
 179 just before dark (ZT10-12). Constant light conditions also appeared to shift the broad temporal
 180 patterns of function abundances. In healthy fish under LL, many biosynthetic pathways (e.g. L-valine,
 181 heme b and enterobactin biosynthesis) peaked at ZT0-3, similar to the 12:12 LD group. However, we
 182 also found a large cluster of biosynthetic pathways peaking at ZT14-15 (e.g. fatty acid biosynthesis)
 183 and at ZT20-23 (spirilloxanthin and coenzyme M biosynthesis). In infected fish under LL,
 184 biosynthetic pathway rhythms were more dispersed, with peaks spread around the majority of the 24

h cycle. For degradation and generation of energy pathways in both healthy and infected fish under LL, we found multiple clusters of peak abundances around the 24 h cycle, rather than a single predominant cluster as in 12:12 LD conditions (Figure 6).

We used co-occurrence network analyses to assess associations of host gene expression and their microbiomes, using betweenness centrality scores and number of connections (degrees) to identify influential genes and bacteria genera^{36,37}. In healthy 12:12 LD fish, there was a high level of connectivity within host immune and clock genes, and within microbial taxa (Figure 7). Links across the gene expression and bacteria subnetworks were primarily via the rhythmically expressed clock genes *clock1b*, *clock3*, *bmal1*, *rora*, and *csnk1d*. However, expression of the toll-like receptors *tlr2* and *tlr9* were significantly associated with abundance of *Bacillus* and *Enhydrobacter* respectively. In contrast, networks of infected fish under 12:12 LD revealed a higher level of connectivity between host expression and bacteria (Figure 7). The immune markers *cd4* and *tcrb*, and the clock gene *reverb* were found to be most influential in terms of their betweenness centrality scores and number of significantly associated microbial taxa (Figure 7).

In contrast to 12:12 LD, clock genes were less influential (in terms of centrality) in gene-microbe networks for uninfected fish under constant light (Supplementary Figure 8). However, several immune genes (*igd*, *ifng*, *nos2*, *hamp*, *tcrb*, *foxp3b*) were significantly associated with one or more bacteria genera. *Tcrb* was most influential by betweenness centrality (expression positively correlated with *Janthinobacterium* and negatively with *Flavobacterium*), whilst *ifng* was linked to the highest number of taxa (*Escherichia-Shigella*, *Pseudomonas*, *Varioivorax*, *Stenotrophomonas* and *Pseudoclavibacter*). Similar to 12:12 LD contrasts, the network of infected fish under LL showed a higher level of connectivity between host gene expression and microbiota compared to the healthy network (Supplementary Figure 8), with the immune markers *cd8a* and *tcrb* found to be the most influential genes (in terms of number of associations with taxa and centrality score).

Discussion

211 We demonstrate the daily dynamics of immune expression and microbiome composition in fish skin
 212 and show ectoparasite infection and constant light – a commonly used environmental condition in
 213 aquaculture – can significantly alter circadian rhythms of immunity and microbiota, which may be
 214 detrimental for host disease resistance. In addition, we present association networks of host gene
 215 expression and their microbiomes, revealing clock expression and T cell populations are likely key
 216 in shaping the skin host-microbiome interface of teleosts. Our examination of the skin circadian
 217 immune response to infection under extreme photic regimes are directly relevant to fish culture
 218 practices; fish peripheral tissues are thought to have entrainable, light-responsive clocks²⁹, which may
 219 make them particularly susceptible to negative health consequences from constant lighting as used in
 220 aquaculture.

221 Over our trial period, we found no significant difference in the growth of trout fry maintained
 222 under 12:12 LD and constant light (LL) when fish were provided equivalent food rations. However,
 223 when challenged with *Argulus* lice, their ability to clear infection was significantly altered by
 224 photoperiod. Under constant light, trout had a significantly higher lice burden 1 week after
 225 inoculation, indicating a reduced ability to mount an effective immune response. These findings are
 226 consistent with previous studies showing extended day length increases ectoparasite susceptibility
 227 and altered expression in specific immune genes in sticklebacks³⁸. Immune profiles in uninfected fish
 228 showed elevated levels of expression in both innate and adaptive pathways under constant light. When
 229 infected with lice, trout under both photoperiods showed similar patterns of immune gene responses,
 230 except for the interleukins *il4* (mediator of Th2 differentiation) and *il6* (key to initiate inflammation)
 231 which were expressed at lower levels in constant light. Early inflammatory responses and subsequent
 232 initiation of Th2 processes are thought to be critical to resistance of crustacean ectoparasites in
 233 salmonids³⁹. Taken together, chronic elevation of the immune gene expression – which may result in
 234 immune exhaustion⁴⁰ or other immunopathologies⁴¹ – and reduced ability to mount effective
 235 responses key to lice resistance suggest rearing of fish in the absence of light cues are likely to be
 236 detrimental for health.

237 The impact of photoperiod on overall magnitude of immune gene activation is not be the only
 238 factor important to parasite resistance; the rhythmicity and the appropriate timing of immune activity
 239 (i.e. when fish are maximally vulnerable to pathogen attack) may also be key to pathogen defences.
 240 Under regular light-dark cycles, we show trout skin is highly rhythmic in expression of the core
 241 vertebrate clock genes and many immune genes in both innate and adaptive pathways. In essence, we
 242 find the highest expression of pro-inflammatory markers (e.g. *il6*, *il17a*) at the onset of the light period
 243 and peaks in anti-microbial peptide genes (e.g. cathelicidins) mid-light phase, whilst immunoglobulin
 244 and T cell markers were highest during dark hours. The timing of different facets of immune systems,
 245 typically peaks of inflammatory mechanisms during active phases and pathways of repair and
 246 infection resolution during resting phases, are considered to have evolved to offer hosts greatest
 247 protection from invading pathogens when most likely to encounter them, whilst avoiding
 248 energetically inefficient and potentially immunopathological risk of continual immune activation⁴².
 249 We found that constant light resulted in arrhythmic expression of genes involved in mucosa anti-
 250 microbial (e.g. cathelicidins, *igd*, *il17a*) and Th1 (*tbx21*) responses. Furthermore, genes with phase-
 251 shifted expression rhythms in constant light were dominated by those involved in T cell differentiation
 252 and regulation (e.g. *cd4*, *foxp3b*, *il4*, *tgfb*). Loss of synchrony between host immunity and parasite
 253 activity and/or immune evasion rhythms are very likely to be detrimental for host fitness and
 254 survival⁴³. Our results indicate that this is a factor in the reduced clearance of lice in fish reared in
 255 constant light. Clearly, the impacts of light cycle perturbation, be it intentional such as in aquaculture
 256 or unintentionally due to light pollution⁴⁴, must be more carefully considered for animal health.

257 The primary function of fish skin mucus is as a protective barrier and hosts diverse
 258 communities of microbes⁴⁵ which are thought to contribute to protection from microbial pathogens
 259 via competitive and/or antagonistic activities^{46,47}. While pathogenic taxa occur mostly at low levels
 260 in healthy teleost microbiomes, their proliferation is a common signal of microbiome perturbation
 261 and dysbiosis⁴⁸. *Argulus* lice infestations are commonly observed alongside bacterial, fungal or viral
 262 infections⁴⁹. Here, we demonstrate significant reorganisation of bacterial communities and their

potential functional activities in trout skin when infected with *A. foliaceus*, including notable increases in abundance of genera associated with infectious disease^{50,51}. Fish lice may elicit host immune profiles and/or destabilize skin microbiota communities resulting in reduced “colonization resistance”⁴⁸, or be direct vectors^{52,53}. Further research into the microbiota of *Argulus* and other fish ectoparasites, and their pathogen vectoring capabilities, will be valuable for understanding their role in coinfection dynamics. Intriguingly, trout raised in constant light had a significantly lower microbiome diversity and, when challenged with *Argulus*, exhibited greater shifts in both taxonomic composition and functional potential compared to fish under regular light-dark regimes. Given the growing body of evidence for the importance of “healthy” microbial communities⁵⁴ for effective host homeostasis and disease resistance^{55,56}, characterising circadian disruption to microbiomes is important for understanding animal disease risks.

We demonstrate significant daily dynamicity in the skin microbiome of trout; a substantial proportion of bacteria genera exhibit rhythmic changes in relative abundance, suggesting a temporal structure to microbiome functional activity. Parasitic infection appears to perturb microbiome composition, and shift the timings of peak biosynthetic, degradative and energy generation pathway activity in the microbial community. Understanding of the functional importance to the host of commensal microbiota in teleost skin is still in its infancy⁴⁸, and predictive metagenomic analyses are only indicative of actual microbial activity⁵⁷. Temporal metatranscriptomic profiling will be an important means to build upon our results to decipher the functional significance of teleost mucosal microbiota and their daily coordination of activity. Nevertheless, as interest builds towards the utility of microbiome engineering strategies to promote health and productivity in aquaculture^{23,48,58}, we propose that a chronobiological understanding of fish microbiomes may be crucial for their effectiveness. The daily rhythms of both fish host immunity and their microbiome communities, for example, could be critical to uptake and establishment of probiotics treatments. Chronotherapeutics – the timed application of treatments and vaccines⁵⁹ – in human medicine holds great promise for improving efficacies but is yet to be given full consideration for managed animal health.

289 In the mammalian gut – by far the most studied host-microbiome interface – there is a complex
 290 interplay between immune factors that shape microbial communities and, conversely, microbiota
 291 profoundly affecting immune system development and maintenance^{14,15}. Mammal gut microbiome
 292 daily rhythms may themselves play a role in host circadian health^{60,61}. However, in other tissues, and
 293 particularly for non-mammalian vertebrates, host immune-microbiome connectivity and circadian
 294 dynamics remains poorly understood. For teleosts, there is evidence that macrophages⁶² and adaptive
 295 immune components (e.g. T cells⁶³ and immunoglobulins⁶⁴) may be key to mucosal microbiome
 296 composition. Our study is the first to present an integrated analysis of skin microbiomes with a broad
 297 set of immune and circadian clock gene expression profiles in fish. We found genes of the core
 298 secondary feedback loops (e.g. *bmal*, *clock*, *rora*, *csnk1d*) that define the vertebrate molecular clock
 299 to be strongly associated with microbial taxa relative abundances in uninfected trout under 12:12 LD,
 300 yet these direct clock-microbe associations were largely absent in constant light. Similarly, mice
 301 faecal microbiota composition appears closely linked to *bmal1*, with knock-outs resulting in
 302 arrhythmicity and altered abundance of microbial taxa¹⁷. Our results suggest this arm of the biological
 303 clock may be pivotal to orchestrating changes in mucosal microbiomes across vertebrates. However,
 304 we also find perturbation of microbial communities via ectoparasite infection reconfigures the
 305 connectivity of host expression and microbiota. In LL and LD conditions, lice infected fish immune-
 306 microbe networks show a greater level of connectivity between host immune gene expression and
 307 microbial taxa compared to uninfected individuals. In particular, our results indicate T cell markers
 308 to be central to this host-microbiome interface during ectoparasite infection. Under 12:12 LD, we
 309 find the T helper cell gene *cd4* to be strongly linked to microbiome composition, whilst in constant
 310 light the cytotoxic T cell marker *cd8a* appears to be more influential to microbiome-immune
 311 associations. For teleost fish, the ratios and distributions of T cell populations are not well defined^{65,66},
 312 although CD4+ and CD8+ subsets appear to have different roles in pathogen defence⁶⁷. Our results
 313 suggest their relative importance to shaping fish mucosal microbiomes, or vice versa, warrant further
 314 investigation. Disentangling the directionality of the associations we find via controlled

manipulations of host immune cell populations, clock gene expression, and microbiota will undoubtedly be key to advancing the concept of circadian holobiont health.

Our study demonstrates the complex daily interaction of fish immune expression and microbiomes, which are impacted by photoperiod and infection status. There is rapidly growing recognition for the detrimental impacts of circadian rhythm perturbation in human medicine¹³, though little attention has been paid to the implications for animal health. In an industry that heavily utilises light manipulation, contemporary aquaculture practices may be significantly exacerbating current disease issues. We provide here an important resource for furthering efforts to integrate chronobiology into animal disease mitigation strategies. In addition, as artificial light at night (i.e. light pollution) encroaches on ever greater proportions of the world's ecosystems⁶⁸, it is vital studies such as ours are considered for the implications on health and disease dynamics in wild populations.

Methods

Experimental design and sample collection

Juvenile female triploid rainbow trout fry (*O. mykiss*, 10 days post-yolk sac absorption, n = 500) were obtained from a commercial hatchery (Bibury Trout Farm, UK). Fry were visually and microscopically determined free of parasitic infections upon arrival and maintained in a re-circulating aquaculture system (RAS) in Cardiff University (water temperature 12 ± 0.5 °C, pH 7.5 ± 0.2). The trout were randomly assigned to duplicate tanks (45 x 60 x 60 cm, 150 L) under one of two photoperiod conditions; 12:12 LD (lights on at zeitgeber time 0; ZT0, off at ZT12) or 24:0 LD (constant light, LL). Each tank was individually illuminated with a full-spectrum white LED bar (80 lux at surface) and surrounded with blackout material to ensure no disturbance from ambient light. Fish were fed with a commercial trout feed (Nutraparr, Skretting, UK) *ad libitum* at ZT2-3 and ZT9-10 daily. Water oxygen saturation (>90%), ammonia (<0.02 mg/L), nitrite (<0.01 mg L⁻¹) and nitrate (<15 mg L⁻¹) were maintained within an appropriate range.

340 After one month acclimation to light conditions, 130 fish from each light treatment were
 341 individually isolated in 1 L plastic containers. Half of the fish from each light treatment (n = 65 per
 342 treatment) were individually inoculated with ten *Argulus foliaceus* metanauplii (24 hrs post-hatching).
 343 *Argulus* metanauplii were obtained from eggs of wild-caught adult pairs (sourced from Risca Canal,
 344 Newport), maintained at Cardiff University. Egg strings were collected and hatched under laboratory
 345 conditions according to Stewart et al. (2018). Inoculations were performed at ZT4-5. Fish were
 346 individually held in a glass container with 50 ml of tank water and 10 metanauplii added. Fish were
 347 observed until all lice had attached (within 2 minutes) and then returned to their 1 L container. Control
 348 fish (those not inoculated with *Argulus* lice) were also held for 2 min in 50 ml of water to control for
 349 handling stress. Water in all individual containers were changed daily, feeding continued on schedule
 350 outlined above, and light conditions maintained at same intensity, spectrum and duration as during
 351 acclimation period. The remaining fish were maintained in the RAS system. Once a week, 30 random
 352 fish per light treatment were weighed (g) and measured (standard length, SL in cm) for 16 weeks to
 353 monitor growth rates. General linear models of standard length and weight, including photoperiod
 354 and sampling day, were used to assess differences in growth between light treatments. All procedures
 355 were performed under Home Office project license PPL 303424 with full approval of Cardiff
 356 University Animal Ethics committee.

357 One week after inoculation, sampling of fish was performed over a 48 h period to encompass
 358 two full circadian cycles. Starting at ZT0 (lights on in 12:12 LD treatment), every 4 h, five fish from
 359 each condition (12:12 LD control, 12:12 LD *Argulus*-infected, LL control, LL *Argulus*-infected) were
 360 euthanised using an overdose of tricaine methanesulfonate (MS222, 500 mg L⁻¹) according to Home
 361 Office Schedule 1. At timepoints during dark periods in 12:12 LD treatment, fish were handled and
 362 euthanised in dim red light. Immediately after euthanasia, infected fish were visually inspected to
 363 quantify number of lice surviving and the lice removed to ensure they were not included in tissue
 364 samples. Welch's two sample T test was used to determine difference in infection load (number of
 365 *Argulus*) between light treatments. All sampled fish were weighed (g) and measured (standard length,

366 SL in cm). Skin swabs (MWE MW-100) were rubbed along the entire lateral body surface five times
 367 each side and immediately frozen at -80 C to preserve skin mucus microbiota for DNA extraction.
 368 All skin from immediately posterior to opercula to the caudal peduncle was dissected using sterile
 369 forceps, preserved in RNAlater (Invitrogen), and stored at -80 C until RNA extraction. All dissections
 370 for each timepoint were performed within an 1 hour window. At each timepoint-treatment
 371 combination, 10 ml of water from all containers was pooled and frozen at -80°C to provide
 372 background controls for skin microbiome analyses. To test for endogenous expression rhythms, an
 373 additional 65 uninfected fish maintained at 12:12 LD were individually isolated and held in constant
 374 darkness (DD). After 24 h, starting at ZT0, five fish every 4 h were sampled as above.

375 ***RNA extraction, gene expression quantification and analyses***

376 Total RNA was individually extracted from each skin sample using RNeasy Mini kits (Qiagen). RNA
 377 was quantified using Qubit Broad Range RNA assays (ThermoFisher Scientific). mRNA expression
 378 patterns in the skin were measured by Nanostring analysis, following manufacturer's guidelines, at
 379 Liverpool Centre for Genomic Research. The nCounter PlexSet oligonucleotide and probe design was
 380 performed at NanoString Technologies (NanoString Technologies) for 48 genes, including four
 381 housekeeping genes (Supplementary Table S1). The oligonucleotide probes were synthesized at
 382 Integrated DNA Technologies. Titration reactions were performed according to supplier's instructions
 383 with RNA inputs between 250 ng and 700 ng to determine the required RNA amount for hybridization
 384 reaction. 600 ng total RNA per sample was used for PlexSet hybridization reaction for 20 h according
 385 to manufacturer's instructions.

386 Samples were processed on a nCounter MAX prep station (NanoString Technologies) and
 387 cartridges were scanned in a generation II nCounter Digital Analyzer (NanoString Technologies).
 388 RCC files (nCounter data files) were used for data analysis. RCC files were imported into the
 389 NanoString nSolver 4.0 analysis software and raw data pre-processing and normalization was
 390 performed according to manufacturer's instructions for standard procedures (positive normalization
 391 to geomean of top 3 positive controls, codeset content normalization using housekeeping genes *hprt1*,

polr1b, *polr2i* and codeset calibration with the reference sample). The housekeeping gene *rplp0* and *aanat2* expression were not detected and excluded from analyses.

To assess overall differences in immune responses to infection under the different light treatments, pairwise t-tests comparing normalised expression of immune genes were performed in R (version 4.0.3). To detect rhythmicity in expression of clock and immune genes, empirical JTK Cycle (eJTK_cycle⁶⁹) analyses were applied with a set period of 24 h, a phase search every 4 h from ZT0 to ZT20, and an asymmetry search every 4 h from ZT4 to ZT20. FDR-corrected empirical p-values less than 0.1 were considered moderately rhythmic^{70–72}, and less than 0.05 strongly rhythmic. CircaCompare³¹ was used to estimate rhythmic genes' peak expression time, mesor and amplitude, and to statistically contrast rhythms.

DNA extraction, 16S rRNA gene amplification, Illumina sequencing and analyses

DNA was extracted from skin swabs using Qiagen DNeasy Blood and Tissue kits according to ⁷³ to maximise lysis of microbiome community and DNA recovery. PCR amplification of the 16S rRNA V4 region, using 515F and 806R primers, was performed in triplicate for each DNA extract, pooled and prepared for Illumina MiSeq sequencing according to ⁷⁴. Gel electrophoresis was used to estimate concentrations for pooling individual amplicon libraries. Negative controls for extractions and PCR, and mock community positive controls were included for sequencing. Libraries were sequenced using a 2 x 250 bp Illumina MiSeq run at the Cardiff Biosciences Genomics Hub.

Paired-end demultiplexed Illumina sequencing reads were imported into the Quantitative Insights Into Microbial Ecology 2 (QIIME2⁷⁵). Sequences were then quality filtered, dereplicated, chimeras identified and paired-end reads merged in QIIME2 using DADA2 with default settings. Classification of Amplicon Sequence Variants (ASVs) was performed using a Naïve Bayes algorithm trained using sequences representing the bacterial V4 rRNA region available from the SILVA database (<https://www.arb-silva.de/download/archive/qiime>; Silva_132), and the corresponding taxonomic classifications were obtained using the q2-feature-classifier plugin in QIIME2. The classifier was then used to assign taxonomic information to representative sequences of each ASV. Following

rarefaction analysis, samples with less than 2000 sequences were excluded from further analyses. QIIME2 was used to analyse alpha (Kruskal-Wallis pairwise tests of Faith's phylogenetic distance) and beta (pairwise PERMANOVA) diversity measures. ASVs were filtered to exclude those assigned to eukaryotes or eukaryotic organelles and include ones with at least 100 copies in at least two samples. The QIIME2 output data were imported in RStudio (Version 1.3.959) with the Bioconductor package phyloseq⁷⁶, for subsetting, normalizing, and plotting of the data.

Differential abundance of ASVs between healthy and infected fish in both light treatments were determined using DESeq2⁷⁷, with FDR-corrected p-values less than 0.05 considered significant. Differential abundances of all taxonomic levels were also determined and visualised using MicrobiomeAnalyst⁷⁸ heat trees using default settings. We inferred the microbial gene content from the taxa abundance using PICRUST2⁷⁹. We used LefSe analyses to identify group differences in the inferred gene abundance of MetaCyc pathways, using the online galaxy server (<https://huttenhower.sph.harvard.edu/galaxy/>). LDA scores >2.0 were considered significant. Rhythmicity of microbial genera and MetaCyc pathway abundances were determined following the same methods as gene expression (see above). To determine potential associations of host gene expression and the microbiome, Spearman correlation tests were performed including only genera found in at least 50% of samples in each treatment group. Corrected p-values (using qvalue R package) of less than 0.05 were considered significantly correlated. Correlation networks were visualised using gephi⁸⁰ and influential nodes determined using degree centrality scores and number of connections (degrees).

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629 Table & Figures

630 **Table 1:** Summary of gene expression rhythmic analyses. Rhythm significance determined via eJTK_cycle. Rhythm parameters (mesor, amplitude,
631 phase) estimated and contrasted in CircaCompare.
632

Gene	Rhythm (FDR P value*)					Mesor								Amplitude								Phase (Peak hour)								
	C12	C12-DD	I12	C24	I24	C12	I12	C24	I24	C12 v I12	C24 v I 24	C12 v C24	I12 v I24	C12	I12	C24	I24	C12 v I12	C24 v I 24	C12 v C24	I12 v I24	C12	I12	C24	I24	C12 v I12	C24 v I 24	C12 v C24	I12 v I24	
Clock																														
bmal1	0.012	0.015	0.009	0.016	0.030	188.37	176.98	252.54	185.05	0.107	<0.001	<0.001	0.270	23.89	23.51	17.12	15.13	0.969	0.856	0.529	0.397	9.63	14.10	7.45	23.06	0.008	0.002	0.277	<0.001	
bmal2	<0.001	0.135	0.012	0.020	0.100	112.67	261.45	353.89	379.53	<0.001	0.363	<0.001	<0.001	28.89	58.10	39.90	29.89	0.206	0.795	0.659	0.463	12.14	16.33	22.50	21.62	0.102	0.849	0.002	0.174	
clock1a	0.076	0.008	0.058	0.037	0.006	109.05	130.43	187.28	133.62	0.003	<0.001	<0.001	0.678	6.89	13.15	12.63	22.39	0.540	0.357	0.560	0.403	15.23	16.71	21.64	0.23	0.734	0.363	0.052	0.051	
clock1b	0.035	0.009	0.055	0.016	0.024	176.18	179.46	212.20	176.35	0.643	<0.001	<0.001	0.644	10.68	13.32	12.32	15.78	0.790	0.695	0.857	0.798	13.07	16.44	22.86	22.13	0.310	0.783	0.005	0.025	
clock3	<0.001	0.001	0.012	0.015	0.076	141.98	139.27	192.20	155.96	0.639	<0.001	<0.001	0.020	38.67	17.63	21.81	12.32	0.008	0.415	0.086	0.591	12.78	14.09	14.41	20.68	0.364	0.034	0.276	0.015	
cry1	0.035	0.125	0.050	<0.001	0.030	351.20	649.08	548.33	622.73	<0.001	0.042	<0.001	0.525	34.84	86.56	134.31	93.29	0.280	0.440	0.012	0.910	4.92	14.48	3.26	5.27	0.012	0.249	0.565	<0.001	
cry2	0.035	0.193	0.055	0.027	0.101	46.44	53.29	78.34	-	0.014	-	<0.001	-	5.98	3.70	6.02	-	0.582	-	0.993	-	16.82	17.71	21.17	-	0.776	-	0.185	-	
csnk1d	0.047	0.088	0.069	0.015	0.076	125.93	257.31	321.91	321.50	<0.001	0.985	<0.001	0.006	12.39	20.79	52.09	14.20	0.709	0.237	0.054	0.846	2.30	16.93	3.34	3.71	0.101	0.951	0.827	0.140	
per1	0.015	0.001	0.009	<0.001	0.006	255.26	419.30	497.18	400.09	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	0.409	84.44	84.02	154.24	64.68	0.989	0.006	0.020	0.559	21.28	17.97	23.61	0.48	0.011	0.593	0.043	<0.001	
per2	0.018	0.018	0.075	0.022	0.090	40.63	30.98	44.74	38.03	0.020	0.166	0.436	0.046	4.01	3.63	7.76	5.74	0.948	0.768	0.601	0.683	14.42	7.90	12.78	18.47	0.259	0.150	0.780	0.012	
reverb	0.015	0.107	0.055	0.031	0.043	591.99	1309.62	1397.28	1667.56	<0.001	0.028	<0.001	0.002	70.18	101.28	207.18	185.67	0.774	0.899	0.276	0.597	21.48	20.13	3.36	1.15	0.787	0.521	0.257	0.296	
rora	0.044	0.062	0.069	0.076	0.035	160.40	137.71	215.10	137.01	0.020	<0.001	<0.001	0.937	18.08	13.29	12.56	12.06	0.719	0.973	0.722	0.921	14.12	14.43	1.45	21.89	0.930	0.469	0.011	0.059	
rory	0.053	0.003	0.017	0.015	0.012	545.90	620.29	825.97	611.39	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	0.698	24.58	60.31	54.52	46.74	0.222	0.809	0.316	0.670	2.56	15.35	1.20	22.85	0.002	0.386	0.722	0.002	
timeless	0.044	0.125	0.083	0.027	0.081	277.64	191.90	137.75	150.02	<0.001	0.102	<0.001	<0.001	19.58	11.11	9.89	13.51	0.527	0.737	0.378	0.858	21.79	3.65	21.23	18.84	0.116	0.498	0.870	0.026	
Corticotropin																														
crf	0.066	0.062	0.075	0.119	0.081	23.23	26.45	-	28.29	0.091	-	-	0.413	2.63	1.31	-	2.49	0.625	-	-	0.706	8.10	9.99	-	3.08	0.764	-	-	0.360	
pomc	0.044	0.136	0.068	0.132	0.090	24.66	42.12	-	44.16	0.010	-	-	0.818	2.55	8.48	-	18.92	0.552	-	-	0.433	7.65	18.55	-	18.66	0.274	-	-	0.979	
Immune																														
c3	0.063	0.022	0.310	0.020	0.012	51.51	-	55.58	42.17	-	<0.001	0.236	-	2.27	-	7.00	7.73	-	0.862	0.297	-	11.82	-	0.61	19.23	-	0.017	0.085	-	-
catd1	0.094	0.042	0.016	0.112	0.138	22.74	6202.32	-	-	<0.001	-	-	-	0.29	1969.96	-	-	0.055	-	-	-	6.34	5.60	-	-	1.000	-	-	-	-
catd2	0.025	0.026	0.075	0.350	0.020	1005.24	20437.15	-	18370.97	<0.001	-	-	0.534	659.33	3308.81	-	9005.99	0.449	-	-	0.240	7.75	4.48	-	8.53	0.807	-	-	-	0.303
cd4	0.027	0.193	0.115	0.015	0.108	363.76	-	479.53	-	-	-	<0.001	-	31.45	-	39.87	-	-	-	0.724	-	17.95	-	1.68	-	-	-	0.002	-	-
cd8a	0.005	0.022	0.333	0.096	0.021	16.63	-	24.25	19.16	-	0.022	0.002	-	7.78	-	3.52	5.00	-	0.223	0.652	-	20.11	-	19.08	18.28	-	0.699	0.772	-	-
chi	0.035	0.206	0.099	0.031	0.067	85.57	172.28	169.12	178.34	<0.001	0.223	<0.001	0.453	3.70	5.26	17.33	9.32	0.866	0.466	0.104	0.730	21.00	16.16	3.99	3.89	0.546	0.975	0.253	0.074	
foxp3b	0.025	0.051	0.083	0.020	0.043	78.62	106.40	90.40	108.79	<0.001	0.001	0.015	0.735	10.61	3.55	10.43	4.76	0.460	0.480	0.979	0.908	19.30	4.69	2.25	4.85	0.176	0.587	0.005	0.986	
gata3	0.147	NA	0.029	0.020	0.076	-	2037.01	1673.07	1908.26	-	<0.001	-	0.055	-	162.16	121.59	80.54	-	0.620	-	0.367	-	14.18	1.37	23.00	-	0.519	-	0.018	-
hamp	0.076	0.136	0.055	0.031	0.028	13.91	273.37	20.83	314.73	<0.001	<0.001	0.018	0.513	7.87	76.40	4.49	59.35	0.197	0.429	0.408	0.846	7.77	2.57	23.12	9.64	0.763	0.818	0.004	0.179	
ilfng	0.177	NA	0.058	0.055	0.108	-	125.85	24.30	-	-	-	-	-	-	10.37	5.50	-	-	-	-	-	-	7.24	20.52	-	-	-	-	-	-
igd	0.016	0.009	0.055	0.960	0.081	22.55	40.36	-	125.00	<0.001	-	-	0.950	5.75	7.56	-	15.13	0.759	-	-	0.813	19.08	18.06	-	5.06	0.740	-	-	0.701	
igm	0.025	0.125	0.128	0.015	0.084	100.13	-	191.23	194.09	-	0.938	-	0.011	16.50	-	108.22	23.39	-	0.118	0.083	-	17.92	-	4.26	18.64	-	0.098	0.182	-	-
igt	0.015	0.002	0.050	0.016	0.007	12.02	24.64	17.18	20.25	<0.001	0.169	0.001	0.100	3.27	3.20	4.53	9.07	0.980	0.152	0.553	0.120	18.68	13.65	1.78	16.77	0.143	<0.001	0.001	0.373	
il10	0.023	0.193	0.083	0.051	0.203	7.61	38.12	5.97	-	<0.001	-	0.197	-	0.65	4.87	1.61	-	0.462	-	0.575	-	11.70	2.43	9.56	-	0.731	-	0.803	-	-
il17a	0.025	0.141	0.016	0.318	0.076	4.42	12.08	-	8.14	0.072	-	-	0.359	1.15	5.47	-	1.13	0.478	-	-	0.483	2.66	4.71	-	2.53	0.889	-	-	0.884	
il1b	0.100	NA	0.050	0.122	0.089	-	108.88	-	110.62	-	-	-	0.934	-	46.42	-	23.41	-	-	-	0.451	-	5.74	-	2.71	-	-	-	0.425	
il4	0.066	0.009	0.075	0.016	0.101	91.96	1076.54	106.95	-	<0.001	-	0.080	-	14.18	106.00	23.84	-	0.364	-	0.417	-	15.12	4.53	21.94	-	0.577	-	0.012	-	-
il6	0.090	0.024	0.055	0.016	0.200	7.69	34.76	7.98	-	<0.001	-	0.737	-	0.88	10.18	1.41	-	0.116	-	0.661	-	0.22	6.57	9.16	-	0.742	-	0.059	-	-
mhcii	<0.001	0.022	0.088	0.020	0.028	6552.56	10506.33	8135.80	9637.06	0.001	0.221	0.102	0.525	1244.77	1201.20	1188.78	2670.95	0.977	0.385	0.967	0.418	1.04	12.77	20.12	24.00	0.029	0.362	0.260	0.028	-
nos2	0.019	0.024	0.075	0.015	0.082	1500.52	2491.69	721.60	2581.50	0.003	<0.001	<0.001	0.822	236.01	648.11	260.25	498.37	0.354	0.563	0.931	0.783	23.78	21.87	23.46	10.94	0.750	0.034	0.948	0.007	-
tbx21	0.026	0.105	0.009	0.155	0.081	60.53	95.66	-	88.82	<0.001	-	-	0.403	2.51	30.66	-	2.97</													

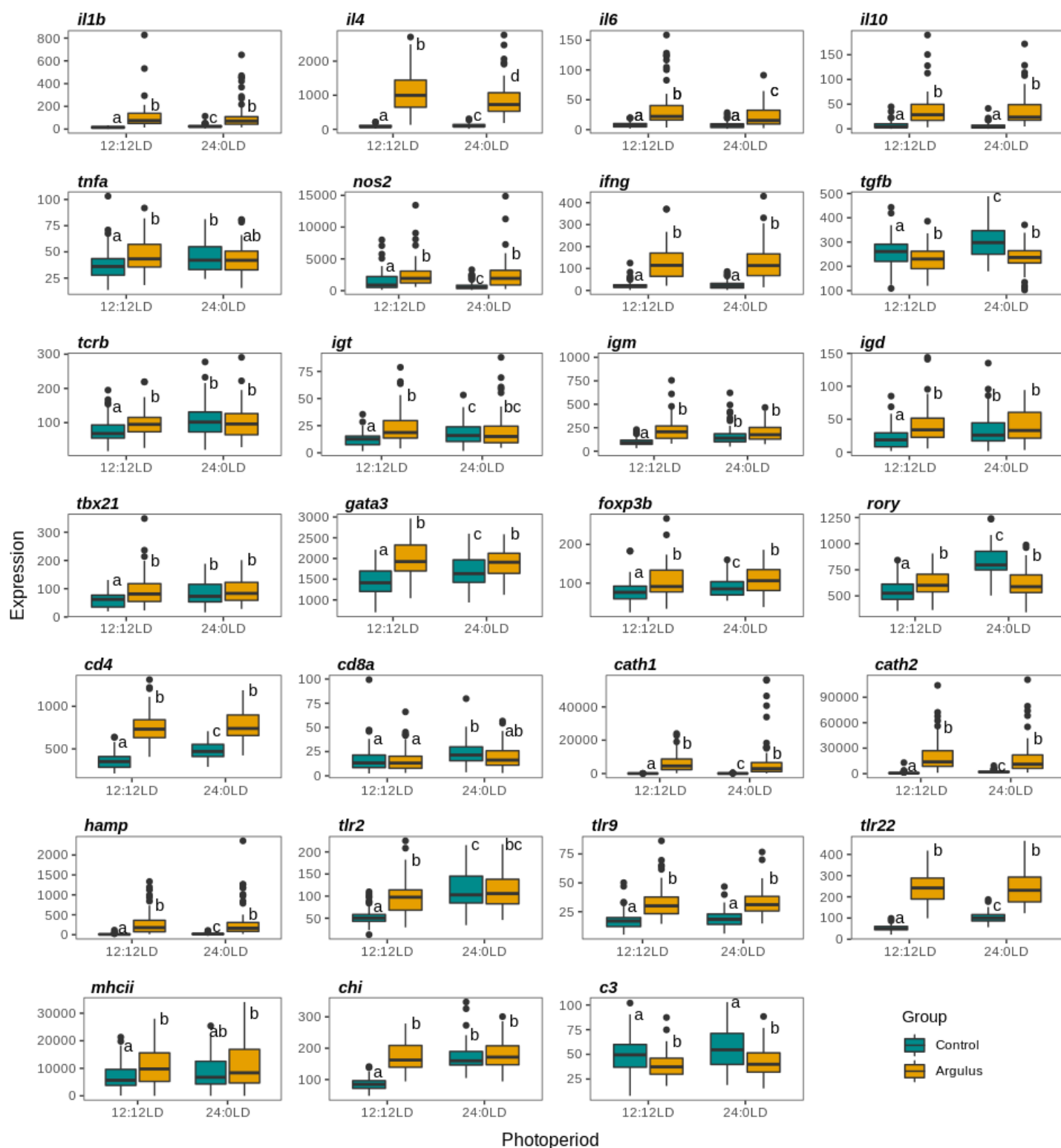
Table 2: Results of LefSe analyses to identify group differences in the inferred gene abundance of MetaCyc pathways.

Superclass	Class	Pathway	Group	Log10 LDA Score	Corrected P-value
Control vs Argulus 12:12 LD					
Biosynthesis	Carbohydrate Biosynthesis	dTDP-L-rhamnose biosynthesis	Argulus	2.03	1.07E-04
Biosynthesis	Carbohydrate Biosynthesis	CMP-3-deoxy-D-manno-oculosonate biosynthesis	Argulus	2.11	1.34E-07
Biosynthesis	Cell Structure Biosynthesis	Lipid IVA biosynthesis	Argulus	2.09	1.55E-08
Biosynthesis	Cell Structure Biosynthesis	Kdo transfer to lipid IVA III	Argulus	2.13	6.53E-08
Biosynthesis	Cofactor, Carrier, and Vitamin Biosynthesis	Pyridoxal 5-phosphate biosynthesis I	Argulus	2.05	1.71E-04
Biosynthesis	Cofactor, Carrier, and Vitamin Biosynthesis	Thiamine salvage II	Argulus	2.07	1.51E-08
Biosynthesis	Cofactor, Carrier, and Vitamin Biosynthesis	Thiazole biosynthesis I	Argulus	2.08	4.66E-02
Biosynthesis	Cofactor, Carrier, and Vitamin Biosynthesis	Biotin biosynthesis I	Argulus	2.17	5.96E-05
Biosynthesis	Cofactor, Carrier, and Vitamin Biosynthesis	NAD salvage pathway III	Argulus	2.25	6.41E-04
Biosynthesis	Cofactor, Carrier, and Vitamin Biosynthesis	Thiamine diphosphate biosynthesis I	Argulus	2.31	3.08E-02
Biosynthesis	Nucleoside and Nucleotide Biosynthesis	Pyrimidine ribonucleotides de novo biosynthesis	Argulus	2.00	2.44E-08
Biosynthesis	Nucleoside and Nucleotide Biosynthesis	Pyrimidine nucleosides salvage	Argulus	2.01	9.04E-07
Biosynthesis	Nucleoside and Nucleotide Biosynthesis	UMP biosynthesis I	Argulus	2.01	1.85E-08
Biosynthesis	Other Biosynthesis	8-amino-7-oxononanoate biosynthesis I	Argulus	2.08	3.68E-04
Biosynthesis	Polyphenyl Biosynthesis	Geranylgerynyl diphosphate biosynthesis II	Argulus	2.08	5.82E-04
Biosynthesis	Secondary Metabolite Biosynthesis	PreQ0 biosynthesis	Argulus	2.00	1.64E-03
Degradation/Utilization/Assimilation	Amino Acid Degradation	L-leucine degradation I	Argulus	2.06	1.34E-04
Degradation/Utilization/Assimilation	Other Degradation/Utilization/Assimilation	Octane oxidation	Argulus	2.38	5.11E-03
Macromolecule Modification	Nucleic Acid Processing	Queuosine biosynthesis I	Argulus	2.01	1.17E-08
Biosynthesis	Cofactor, Carrier, and Vitamin Biosynthesis	Heme b biosynthesis from glycine	Control	2.13	1.50E-03
Biosynthesis	Fatty Acid and Lipid Biosynthesis	Palmitate biosynthesis II	Control	2.48	3.96E-02
Biosynthesis	Secondary Metabolite Biosynthesis	Enterobactin biosynthesis	Control	2.00	1.91E-03
Degradation/Utilization/Assimilation	Amino Acid Degradation	L-histidine degradation I	Control	2.18	3.78E-02
Degradation/Utilization/Assimilation	Aromatic Compound Degradation	Phenylacetate degradation I (aerobic)	Control	2.02	3.48E-03
Degradation/Utilization/Assimilation	Aromatic Compound Degradation	4-methylcatechol degradation	Control	2.21	2.17E-03
Degradation/Utilization/Assimilation	Aromatic Compound Degradation	Salicylate degradation	Control	2.22	8.00E-04
Degradation/Utilization/Assimilation	Aromatic Compound Degradation	Toluene degradation III (aerobic)	Control	2.27	4.87E-04
Degradation/Utilization/Assimilation	Aromatic Compound Degradation	Protocatechuate degradation II	Control	2.49	2.64E-02
Degradation/Utilization/Assimilation	Carbohydrate Degradation	Sucrose degradation III (sucrose invertase)	Control	2.14	2.13E-02
Degradation/Utilization/Assimilation	Carbohydrate Degradation	Glycogen degradation I	Control	2.15	1.18E-02
Degradation/Utilization/Assimilation	Carbohydrate Degradation	Starch degradation V	Control	2.17	1.78E-02
Degradation/Utilization/Assimilation	Carbohydrate Degradation	Ketoglucuronate metabolism	Control	2.13	8.87E-03
Degradation/Utilization/Assimilation	Inorganic Nutrient Metabolism	Urea cycle	Control	2.16	8.99E-03
Degradation/Utilization/Assimilation	Secondary Metabolite Biosynthesis	4-deoxy-L-threo-hex-4-epoxyranuronate degradation	Control	2.08	2.62E-03
Degradation/Utilization/Assimilation	Secondary Metabolite Degradation	Anhydromuropeptides recycling I	Control	2.15	6.25E-03
Generation of Precursor Metabolites and Energy	Fermentation	Mixed acid fermentation	Control	2.20	8.65E-03
Generation of Precursor Metabolites and Energy	Pentose Phosphate Pathways	Pentose phosphate pathway	Control	2.14	1.83E-02
Control vs Argulus 24:0 LD					
Biosynthesis	Amine and Polyamine Biosynthesis	Arginine and polyamine biosynthesis	Argulus	2.16	7.89E-03
Biosynthesis	Amine and Polyamine Biosynthesis	Polyamine biosynthesis I	Argulus	2.15	3.37E-03
Biosynthesis	Amino Acid Biosynthesis	L-alanine biosynthesis	Argulus	2.12	1.44E-06
Biosynthesis	Amino Acid Biosynthesis	L-glutamate and L-glutamine biosynthesis	Argulus	2.12	3.64E-02
Biosynthesis	Amino Acid Biosynthesis	L-threonine biosynthesis	Argulus	2.16	4.80E-11
Biosynthesis	Amino Acid Biosynthesis	S-adenosyl-L-methionine cycle I	Argulus	2.15	3.24E-02
Biosynthesis	Aromatic Compound Biosynthesis	Chorismate metabolism	Argulus	2.11	1.20E-03
Biosynthesis	Carbohydrate Biosynthesis	CMP-3-deoxy-D-manno-oculosonate biosynthesis	Argulus	2.15	1.92E-07
Biosynthesis	Cell Structure Biosynthesis	UDP-glucose-derived O-antigen building blocks biosynthesis	Argulus	2.23	5.05E-02
Biosynthesis	Cell Structure Biosynthesis	Kdo transfer to lipid IVA III	Argulus	2.19	3.50E-08
Biosynthesis	Lipid IVA Biosynthesis	Lipid IVA biosynthesis	Argulus	2.13	1.93E-09
Biosynthesis	Cofactor, Carrier, and Vitamin Biosynthesis	2-carboxy-1,4-naphthoquinol biosynthesis	Argulus	2.02	5.79E-03
Biosynthesis	Cofactor, Carrier, and Vitamin Biosynthesis	Biotin biosynthesis I	Argulus	2.36	1.69E-06
Biosynthesis	Cofactor, Carrier, and Vitamin Biosynthesis	Demethylmenaquinol-8 biosynthesis I	Argulus	2.16	4.56E-04
Biosynthesis	Cofactor, Carrier, and Vitamin Biosynthesis	Demethylmenaquinol-8 biosynthesis II	Argulus	2.16	1.22E-03
Biosynthesis	Cofactor, Carrier, and Vitamin Biosynthesis	Demethylmenaquinol-9 biosynthesis	Argulus	2.18	4.72E-04
Biosynthesis	Cofactor, Carrier, and Vitamin Biosynthesis	Heme b biosynthesis I (aerobic)	Argulus	2.03	8.90E-06
Biosynthesis	Cofactor, Carrier, and Vitamin Biosynthesis	Heme b biosynthesis II (oxygen-independent)	Argulus	2.07	2.04E-06
Biosynthesis	Cofactor, Carrier, and Vitamin Biosynthesis	Menaquinol-10 biosynthesis	Argulus	2.26	4.56E-04
Biosynthesis	Cofactor, Carrier, and Vitamin Biosynthesis	Menaquinol-11 biosynthesis	Argulus	2.23	4.18E-04
Biosynthesis	Cofactor, Carrier, and Vitamin Biosynthesis	Menaquinol-12 biosynthesis	Argulus	2.23	1.39E-03
Biosynthesis	Cofactor, Carrier, and Vitamin Biosynthesis	Menaquinol-13 biosynthesis	Argulus	2.23	1.39E-03
Biosynthesis	Cofactor, Carrier, and Vitamin Biosynthesis	Menaquinol-6 biosynthesis I	Argulus	2.26	4.56E-04
Biosynthesis	Cofactor, Carrier, and Vitamin Biosynthesis	Menaquinol-7 biosynthesis	Argulus	2.23	9.35E-04
Biosynthesis	Cofactor, Carrier, and Vitamin Biosynthesis	Menaquinol-8 biosynthesis I	Argulus	2.26	1.18E-03
Biosynthesis	Cofactor, Carrier, and Vitamin Biosynthesis	Menaquinol-9 biosynthesis	Argulus	2.26	1.72E-03
Biosynthesis	Cofactor, Carrier, and Vitamin Biosynthesis	NAD de novo biosynthesis I (from aspartate)	Argulus	2.04	1.46E-02
Biosynthesis	Cofactor, Carrier, and Vitamin Biosynthesis	Phylloquinol biosynthesis	Argulus	2.02	6.58E-03
Biosynthesis	Cofactor, Carrier, and Vitamin Biosynthesis	Thiamine diphosphate biosynthesis I	Argulus	2.68	7.99E-06
Biosynthesis	Cofactor, Carrier, and Vitamin Biosynthesis	Thiamine diphosphate biosynthesis II	Argulus	2.32	2.13E-02
Biosynthesis	Cofactor, Carrier, and Vitamin Biosynthesis	Thiamine salvage II	Argulus	2.09	1.55E-08
Biosynthesis	Cofactor, Carrier, and Vitamin Biosynthesis	Thiazole biosynthesis I	Argulus	2.53	1.20E-05
Biosynthesis	Cofactor, Carrier, and Vitamin Biosynthesis	Thiazole biosynthesis II (aerobic bacteria)	Argulus	2.10	2.81E-02
Biosynthesis	Fatty Acid and Lipid Biosynthesis	(5Z)-dodecenoate biosynthesis I	Argulus	2.08	1.43E-04
Biosynthesis	Fatty Acid and Lipid Biosynthesis	(Kdo)2-lipid A biosynthesis	Argulus	2.55	5.92E-04
Biosynthesis	Fatty Acid and Lipid Biosynthesis	cis-vaccenate biosynthesis	Argulus	2.31	4.92E-07
Biosynthesis	Fatty Acid and Lipid Biosynthesis	Fatty acid elongation (saturated)	Argulus	2.23	6.79E-04
Biosynthesis	Fatty Acid and Lipid Biosynthesis	Oleate biosynthesis IV (anaerobic)	Argulus	2.08	1.41E-03
Biosynthesis	Fatty Acid and Lipid Biosynthesis	Palmitoleate biosynthesis I	Argulus	2.10	6.79E-04
Biosynthesis	Nucleoside and Nucleotide Biosynthesis	Purine nucleotides de novo biosynthesis II	Argulus	2.39	7.67E-03
Biosynthesis	Nucleoside and Nucleotide Biosynthesis	Pyrimidine deoxyribonucleotides de novo biosynthesis II	Argulus	2.31	1.15E-02
Biosynthesis	Nucleoside and Nucleotide Biosynthesis	Pyrimidine ribonucleosides salvage	Argulus	2.29	4.18E-04
Biosynthesis	Other Biosynthesis	8-amino-7-oxononanoate biosynthesis I	Argulus	2.22	7.58E-05
Degradation/Utilization/Assimilation	Amino Acid Degradation	Histidine, purine & pyrimidine biosynthesis	Argulus	2.12	2.13E-02
Degradation/Utilization/Assimilation	Aromatic Compound Degradation	Protocatechuate degradation I (meta-cleavage pathway)	Argulus	2.09	3.41E-07
Degradation/Utilization/Assimilation	Carbohydrate Degradation	D-galactose degradation I (Leloir pathway)	Argulus	2.16	5.47E-03
Degradation/Utilization/Assimilation	Nucleoside and Nucleotide Degradation	Pyrimidine deoxyribonucleosides degradation	Argulus	2.18	1.55E-03
Generation of Precursor Metabolites and Energy	Fermentation	Acetylene degradation (anaerobic)	Argulus	2.43	6.12E-04
Generation of Precursor Metabolites and Energy	Fermentation	Pyruvate fermentation to acetate and lactate II	Argulus	2.18	6.96E-03
Generation of Precursor Metabolites and Energy	TCA cycle	TCA cycle IV	Argulus	2.18	6.86E-03
Generation of Precursor Metabolites and Energy	TCA cycle	TCA cycle V	Argulus	2.21	6.04E-03
Macromolecule Modification	Nucleic Acid Processing	tRNA processing	Argulus	2.08	1.60E-03
Biosynthesis	Amine and Polyamine Biosynthesis	Cosine biosynthesis	Control	2.04	1.76E-05
Biosynthesis	Amine and Polyamine Biosynthesis	Polyamine biosynthesis II	Control	2.14	1.15E-02
Biosynthesis	Amino Acid Biosynthesis	L-arginine biosynthesis III (via N-acetyl-L-citrulline)	Control	2.06	1.74E-02
Biosynthesis	Amino Acid Biosynthesis	L-serine and glycine biosynthesis I	Control	2.14	1.41E-03
Biosynthesis	Carbohydrate Biosynthesis	Coaric acid building blocks biosynthesis	Control	2.42	1.58E-03
Biosynthesis	Carbohydrate Biosynthesis	GDP-mannose biosynthesis	Control	2.18	2.62E-03
Biosynthesis	Carbohydrate Biosynthesis	GDP-mannose-derived O-antigen building blocks biosynthesis	Control	2.46	2.06E-03
Biosynthesis	Cell Structure Biosynthesis	UDP-N-acetylglucosamine-derived O-antigen building blocks biosynthesis	Control	2.21	1.61E-02
Biosynthesis	Cell Structure Biosynthesis	Peptidoglycan biosynthesis IV	Control	2.21	3.47E-04
Biosynthesis	Cofactor, Carrier, and Vitamin Biosynthesis	Cob(II)yrinate a,c-diamide biosynthesis II	Control	2.33	2.30E-03
Biosynthesis	Cofactor, Carrier, and Vitamin Biosynthesis	Heme b biosynthesis from glycine	Control	2.33	2.78E-05
Biosynthesis	Cofactor, Carrier, and Vitamin Biosynthesis	NAD de novo biosynthesis II (from tryptophan)	Control	2.11	1.44E-02
Biosynthesis	Fatty Acid and Lipid Biosynthesis	Fatty acid biosynthesis initiation	Control	2.11	1.15E-02
Degradation/Utilization/Assimilation	Amino Acid Degradation	L-histidine degradation I	Control	2.35	1.10E-03
Degradation/Utilization/Assimilation	Amino Acid Degradation	L-histidine degradation II	Control	2.42	2.26E-03
Degradation/Utilization/Assimilation	Amino Acid Degradation	L-tryptophan degradation	Control	2.00	1.44E-02
Degradation/Utilization/Assimilation	Aromatic Compound Degradation	3-phenylpropanoate degradation	Control	2.08	1.93E-02
Degradation/Utilization/Assimilation	Aromatic Compound Degradation	4-hydroxyphenylacetate degradation	Control	2.07	3.22E-03
Degradation/Utilization/Assimilation	Aromatic Compound Degradation	4-methylcatechol degradation (ortho cleavage)	Control	2.45	1.34E-05
Degradation/Utilization/Assimilation	Aromatic Compound Degradation	Aromatic compounds degradation via β -ketoadipate	Control	2.40	6.23E-04
Degradation/Utilization/Assimilation	Aromatic Compound Degradation	Catechol degradation III (ortho-cleavage pathway)	Control	2.40	6.23E-04
Degradation/Utilization/Assimilation	Aromatic Compound Degradation	Catechol degradation to β -ketoadipate	Control	2.17	8.36E-03
Degradation/Utilization/Assimilation	Aromatic Compound Degradation	Catechol degradation to β -ketoadipate	Control	2.39	1.08E-03
Degradation/Utilization/Assimilation	Aromatic Compound Degradation	Phenylacetate degradation I (aerobic)	Control	2.14	4.60E-03
Degradation/Utilization/Assimilation	Aromatic Compound Degradation	Protocatechuate degradation II	Control	2.80	3.20E-04
Degradation/Utilization/Assimilation	Aromatic Compound Degradation	Salicylate degradation	Control	2.48	7.96E-07
Degradation/Utilization/Assimilation	Aromatic Compound Degradation	Toluene degradation III (aerobic)	Control	2.64	2.07E-07
Degradation/Utilization/Assimilation	Carbohydrate Degradation	Glucose and glucose-1-phosphate degradation	Control	2.16	3.16E-02
Degradation/Utilization/Assimilation	Carbohydrate Degradation	Glucose and xylitol degradation	Control	2.18	4.07E-02
Degradation/Utilization/Assimilation	Carbohydrate Degradation	Glycogen degradation I	Control	2.19	2.98E-04
Degradation/Utilization/Assimilation	Carbohydrate Degradation	Starch degradation V	Control	2.22	9.04E-04
Degradation/Utilization/Assimilation	Carbohydrate Degradation	Sucrose degradation III (sucrose invertase)	Control	2.15	5.16E-03
Degradation/Utilization/Assimilation	Carbohydrate Degradation	Ketoglucuronate metabolism	Control	2.45	3.08E-05
Degradation/Utilization/Assimilation	Inorganic Nutrient Metabolism	Methylphosphonate degradation I	Control	2.36	2.56E-03
Degradation/Utilization/Assimilation	Inorganic Nutrient Metabolism	Urea cycle	Control	2.42	1.35E-04
Degradation/Utilization/Assimilation	Nucleoside and Nucleotide Degradation	Adenosine nucleotides degradation II	Control	2.39	3.89E-02
Degradation/Utilization/Assimilation	Nucleoside and Nucleotide Degradation	Guanosine nucleotides degradation III	Control	2.32	2.59E-02
Degradation/Utilization/Assimilation	Secondary Metabolite Biosynthesis	myo-, d-threo- & scyllo-inositol degradation	Control	2.66	1.76E-05
Degradation/Utilization/Assimilation	Secondary Metabolite Degradation	myo-inositol degradation I	Control	2.48	9.04E-04
Degradation/Utilization/Assimilation	Secondary Metabolite Degradation	Anhydromuropeptides recycling I	Control	2.27	3.51E-02
Detoxification	Antibiotic Resistance	Polymyxin resistance	Control	2.18	9.17E-03
Generation of Precursor Metabolites and Energy	Fermentation	Pyruvate fermentation to isobutanol	Control	2.33	4.18E-05
Generation of Precursor Metabolites and Energy	Pentose Phosphate Pathways	Pentose phosphate pathway	Control	2.43	1.23E-04
Generation of Precursor Metabolites and Energy	Photosynthesis	Photosynthesis	Control	2.16	1.74E-02
Generation of Precursor Metabolites and Energy	TCA cycle	TCA cycle VI	Control	2.60	9.82E-04
Generation of Precursor Metabolites and Energy	TCA cycle	TCA cycle VII	Control	2.57	9.99E-04

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Table 3: Summary of microbiome rhythmic analyses. Rhythm significance determined via eJTK_cycle. Rhythm parameters (mesor, amplitude, phase of genus relative abundance) estimated and contrasted in CircaCompare.

Genus	Rhythm (FDR P value*)				Mesor								Amplitude				Phase (Peak hour)												
	C12	I12	C24	I24	C12	I12	C24	I24	C12 v I12	C24 v I24	I12 v I24	C12	I12	C24	I24	C12 v I12	C24 v I24	I12 v I24	C12	I12	C24	I24	C12 v I12	C24 v I24	I12 v I24				
<i>Pseudomonas</i>	0.007	0.001	0.004	0.019	0.396	0.40128	0.38042	0.3328	0.879	0.222	0.659	0.088	0.04704599	0.08846	0.09834	0.09307	0.410	0.925	0.301	0.934	15.47	12.11	14.68	15.77	0.324	0.613	0.795	0.135	
<i>Unknown.Burkholderiaceae</i>	0.041	<0.001	0.035	0.008	0.138	0.13101	0.16488	0.14695	0.445	0.169	0.027	0.141	0.01011096	0.03853	0.02491	0.03326	0.033	0.655	0.365	0.737	22.64	2.80	1.71	6.11	0.288	0.079	0.534	0.038	
<i>Stenotrophomonas</i>	0.151	0.095	0.050	0.008	0.128	0.0876	0.12634	0.07453	<0.001	<0.001	0.902	0.184	0.00806555	0.01736	0.01445	0.00922	0.567	0.763	0.742	0.566	7.71	9.09	3.46	4.54	0.810	0.845	0.533	0.309	
<i>Janthinobacterium</i>	0.055	0.008	0.262	0.009	0.071	0.0588	-	0.06202	0.058	-	-	0.634	0.01363253	0.00304	-	0.01279	0.281	-	0.305	17.89	7.64	-	12.76	0.207	-	-	0.541		
<i>Escherichia-Shigella</i>	0.079	0.013	0.035	0.064	0.05	0.04232	0.04988	0.04055	0.307	0.206	0.958	0.798	0.01514479	0.01889	0.01444	0.00582	0.746	0.427	0.954	0.203	4.44	6.86	6.96	7.77	0.322	0.868	0.391	0.841	
<i>Devosia</i>	0.006	0.126	0.015	0.090	0.033	-	0.03572	0.02233	-	<0.001	0.380	-	0.00626518	-	0.0093	0.00157	-	0.128	0.538	-	22.69	-	1.50	16.75	-	0.284	0.303	-	
<i>Flavobacterium</i>	0.054	0.008	0.168	0.005	0.009	0.02139	-	0.02789	0.020	-	-	0.357	0.00273151	0.01481	-	0.01798	0.115	-	0.749	5.48	23.49	-	4.83	0.420	-	-	0.026		
<i>Pseudochrobactrum</i>	0.044	0.142	0.030	0.114	0.009	-	0.01262	-	-	-	0.015	-	0.0014053	-	0.00297	-	-	-	0.456	-	0.42	-	19.59	-	-	-	0.294	-	
<i>Acinetobacter</i>	0.025	0.073	0.182	0.096	0.007	0.00734	-	0.01038	0.811	-	-	0.152	0.00305016	0.0029	-	0.00081	0.950	-	0.484	2.58	23.83	-	5.13	0.401	-	-	0.594	-	
<i>Unknown.Rhizobiaceae</i>	0.022	0.095	0.049	0.047	0.013	0.00907	0.01352	0.00865	0.035	0.019	0.548	0.832	0.00430972	0.00105	0.00235	0.00091	0.173	0.597	0.405	0.961	19.06	7.61	22.18	11.94	0.048	0.284	0.339	0.695	
<i>Herbaspirillum</i>	0.168	0.114	0.005	0.017	-	-	0.00476	0.00339	-	0.008	-	-	-	-	0.00142	0.00093	-	0.481	-	-	-	-	-	13.27	11.42	-	0.473	-	-
<i>Perlucidibaca</i>	0.041	0.004	0.002	0.002	0.005	0.06036	0.00092	0.01997	<0.001	<0.001	0.005	<0.001	0.00481308	0.03439	0.00109	0.01678	0.024	0.011	0.078	0.218	22.93	20.10	23.16	21.00	0.716	0.900	0.970	0.719	
<i>Bosea</i>	0.168	0.194	0.020	0.009	-	-	0.00255	0.00146	-	0.056	-	-	-	-	0.00149	0.00015	-	0.085	-	-	-	-	1.81	23.88	-	-	0.897	-	-
<i>Rheinheimera</i>	0.060	0.016	0.044	0.060	0.002	0.01475	0.00077	0.02099	<0.001	<0.001	0.016	0.259	0.0004805	0.00612	0.00014	0.01187	0.185	0.086	0.594	0.459	23.56	19.01	1.92	0.25	0.857	0.990	0.861	0.164	
<i>Unknown.Enterobacteriaceae</i>	0.064	0.069	0.041	0.033	0.015	0.00864	0.01114	0.01044	0.012	0.746	0.172	0.373	0.00466666	0.00219	0.00108	0.00349	0.472	0.458	0.337	0.001	8.17	5.25	4.65	7.23	0.493	0.738	0.688	0.613	
<i>Sanguibacter</i>	0.060	0.029	0.032	0.015	0.006	0.00399	0.00875	0.0043	0.221	0.037	0.388	0.826	0.00400537	0.00111	0.00156	0.00092	0.330	0.827	0.512	0.925	20.35	16.90	20.77	15.11	0.612	0.575	0.953	0.811	
<i>Roseomonas</i>	0.049	0.118	0.136	0.009	0.003	-	0.00204	-	-	-	-	-	0.0004114	-	-	0.00092	-	-	-	-	21.93	-	-	-	14.61	-	-	-	
<i>Staphylococcus</i>	0.025	0.029	0.032	0.096	0.003	0.00146	0.00583	0.00176	0.224	0.139	0.338	0.579	0.00256504	0.0006	0.00663	0.00014	0.251	0.116	0.349	0.562	10.50	15.43	5.52	17.98	0.525	0.863	0.300	0.857	
<i>Variovorax</i>	0.123	0.107	0.042	0.049	-	-	0.05343	0.03308	-	0.008	-	-	-	-	0.01556	0.00596	-	0.392	-	-	-	-	-	3.31	5.31	-	0.677	-	-
<i>Unknown.Microbacteriaceae</i>	0.039	0.062	0.029	0.071	0.001	0.00095	0.00101	0.00052	0.174	0.118	0.327	0.066	0.00026518	0.00013	0.00045	0.0004	0.754	0.914	0.725	0.427	23.45	5.14	14.44	7.90	0.572	0.091	0.169	0.695	
<i>Unknown.Rickettsiales</i>	0.007	0.009	0.004	0.078	0.002	0.00339	0.00032	0.00314	0.115	0.022	0.090	0.854	0.00128602	0.00014	0.0003	0.0027	0.930	0.159	0.359	0.503	0.92	13.15	0.69	8.29	0.011	0.646	0.984	0.263	
<i>Enhydrobacter</i>	0.034	<0.001	0.071	0.020	0.002	0.00068	0.00203	0.00063	0.078	0.162	0.816	0.828	0.00205446	0.00034	0.00193	0.00016	0.208	0.185	0.948	0.590	10.75	17.96	12.17	1.48	0.468	0.664	0.724	0.255	
<i>Aeromonas</i>	0.051	0.022	0.033	0.017	0.001	0.00195	0.00058	0.03569	0.576	0.003	0.215	0.003	0.00105233	0.00196	0.00021	0.01322	0.487	0.415	0.376	0.450	3.82	23.51	0.74	13.96	0.269	0.962	0.816	0.678	
<i>Unknown.Oxyphotobacteria</i>	0.007	<0.001	0.086	0.096	0.002	0.00121	0.00078	0.00132	0.440	0.321	0.165	0.858	0.00070053	0.0015	0.00099	0.00033	0.462	0.397	0.781	0.185	22.26	22.43	2.31	20.83	0.972	0.396	0.423	0.829	
<i>Unknown.Betaproteobacteriales</i>	0.079	0.002	0.035	0.011	0.003	0.00884	0.00082	0.03662	0.077	0.009	0.064	0.035	0.00251023	0.00546	0.00064	0.01901	0.556	0.343	0.203	0.453	7.01	21.42	6.61	22.08	0.091	0.913	0.947	0.945	
<i>Azotobacter</i>	0.129	0.107	0.100	0.010	-	-	0.00038	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.00016	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	20.67	-	-	-	-	
<i>Unknown.Rhodobacteraceae</i>	0.256	0.032	0.020	0.090	-	0.00152	0.00034	0.00304	-	<0.001	-	0.060	-	0.00088	0.00018	0.00089	-	0.489	-	0.992	-	15.16	2.88	7.16	-	0.785	-	0.094	-
<i>Paeniglutamicibacter</i>	0.093	0.003	0.084	0.033	0.001	0.00132	0.00166	0.00091	0.857	0.134	0.439	0.290	0.00043922	0.00129	0.00045	0.00016	0.166	0.690	0.984	0.048	16.57	14.40	15.61	5.81	0.572	0.404	0.878	0.340	
<i>Pseudoclavibacter</i>	0.073	0.089	0.020	0.019	6E-04	0.00048	0.00066	0.00056	0.473	0.615	0.726	0.671	0.00017014	0.00027	0.0004	0.0003	0.654	0.750	0.415	0.875	19.18	11.84	19.43	10.86	0.073	0.010	0.954	0.778	
<i>Undibacterium</i>	<0.001	<0.001	0.027	0.003	3E-04	0.00655	0.00056	0.01478	0.016	0.002	0.530	0.094	0.000535	0.00912	0.00023	0.01638	0.013	0.009	0.493	0.277	23.73	23.00	11.96	2.59	0.970	0.908	0.072	0.143	
<i>Deelfga</i>	0.094	0.029	0.035	0.004	0.014	0.0127	0.01754	0.873	0.013	0.045	0.514	0.02113251	0.00884	0.00015	0.00521	0.237	0.579	0.023	0.023	0.719	6.44	22.47	19.70	22.21	0.024	0.988	0.947	0.968	
<i>Fluvicola</i>	0.046	0.069	0.027	0.090	1E-03	0.00075	0.00061	0.00095	0.596	0.466	0.308	0.705	0.00035129	0.00035	0.00043	0.00068	0.998	0.701	0.893	0.638	4.20	23.69	6.17	23.35	0.534	0.162	0.701	0.960	
<i>Streptococcus</i>	0.039	0.006	0.049	0.107	0.002	0.00233	0.00175	-	0.801	-	0.973	-	0.00070337	0.0045	0.00191	-	0.234	-	0.384	-	20.89	18.91	1.42	-	0.869	-	0.421	-	
<i>Lactobacillus</i>	0.039	0.019	0.141	0.015	0.001	0.00043	-	0.00085	0.047	-	-	0.179	0.00091334	0.00012	-	0.00113	0.148	-	-	0.028	10.17	15.87	-	7.85	0.632	-	-	0.404	
<i>Chryseobacterium</i>	0.025	<0.001	0.049	0.090	0.002	0.00094	0.00036	0.00096	0.356	0.087	0.077	0.972	0.00172183	0.00099	0.00029	0.00019	0.519	0.845	0.180	0.280	8.70	2.70	7.98	7.40	0.094	0.942	0.943	0.638	
<i>Massilia</i>	0.013	<0.001	0.059	0.033	9E-04	0.00165	0.0005	0.00275	0.120	0.015	0.311	0.224																	



644

645 **Figure 1:** Expression of immune genes in uninfected (control; cyan) and *Argulus*-infected (orange)
646 rainbow trout maintained under 12:12 LD and 24:0 LD conditions. Letters denote significant
647 differences in expression between groups. Expression is normalised counts of mRNA copies detected
648 via Nanostring nCounter.
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651 **Figure 2:** Mean expression (± 1 S.E.) of core clock genes of uninfected (cyan) and *Argulus*-infected
652 (orange) rainbow trout maintained at 12:12 LD (left) and 24:0 LD (LL, right). Expression is
653 normalised counts of mRNA copies detected via Nanostring nCounter. Curves denote cosinor
654 waveform fitted using CircaCompare. Grey shading indicates time periods in darkness (grey dashed
655 indicates equivalent 12:12 LD light transitions on LL plots).

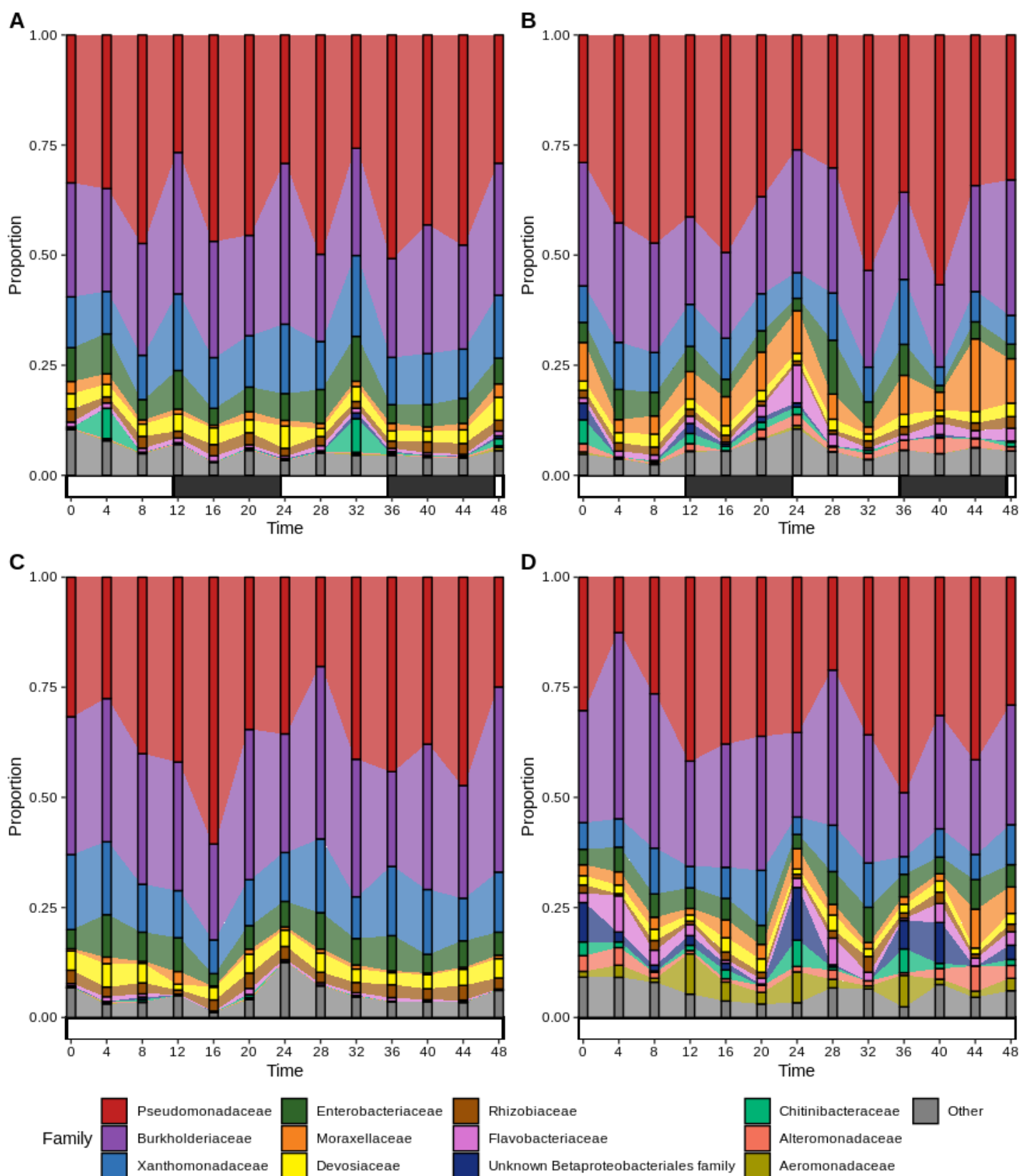
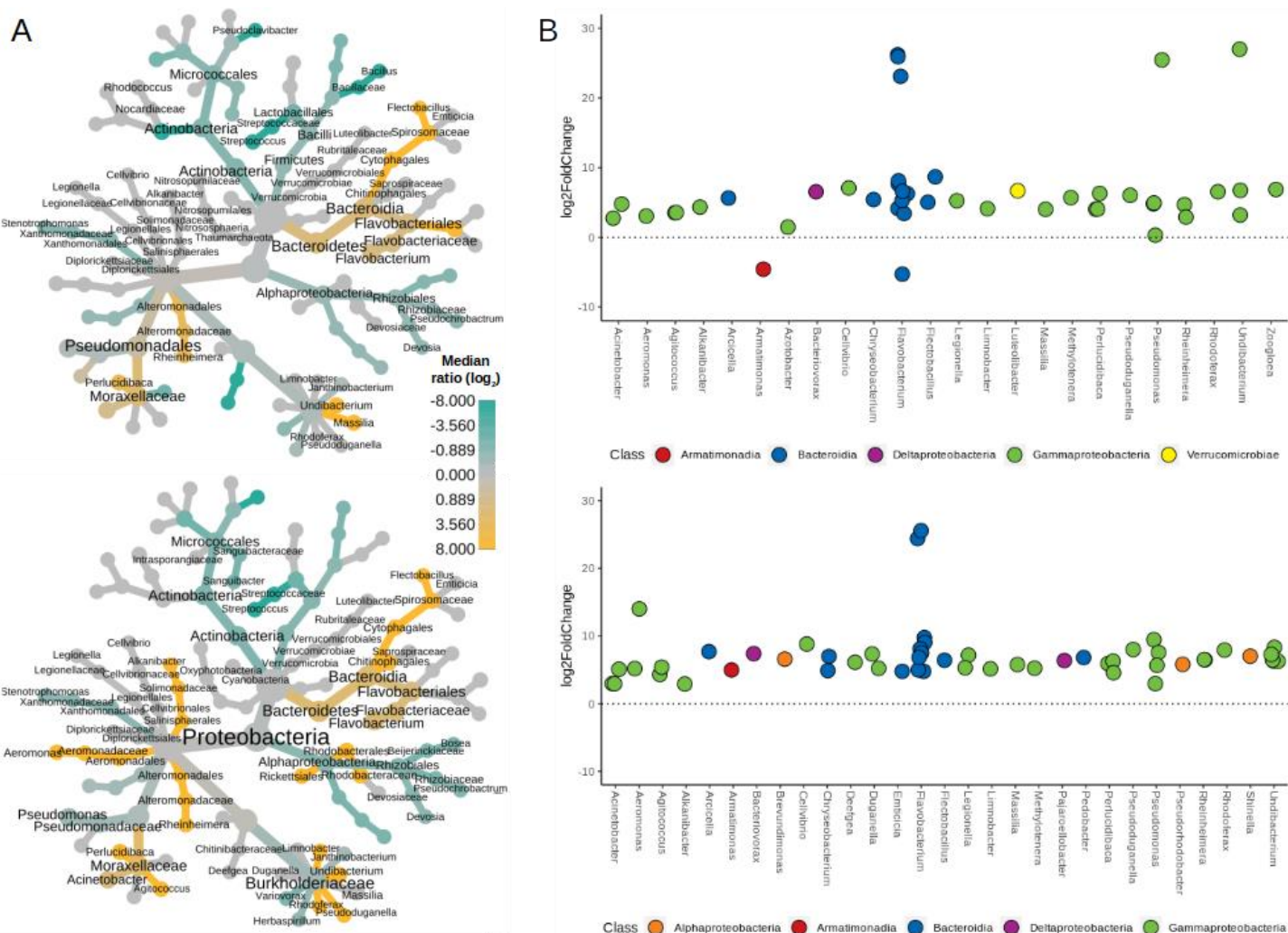


Figure 3: Alluvial plots of most abundant bacteria families (average >1% across all data) in healthy (A, C) and *Argulus foliaceus* infected (B, D) trout under 12:12 LD (A, B) and 24:0 LD (C, D) photoperiods. Horizontal bars indicate periods of light (white) and dark (black).



661

662 **Figure 4:** A) Heat trees contrasting bacteria taxa abundance between healthy and *Argulus foliaceus*
663 infected fish under 12:12 LD (top) or 24:0 LD (bottom) photoperiods. The colour of each taxon
664 represents the log₂ ratio of median proportions of reads. Taxa with significant differences are
665 labelled, determined using a Wilcoxon rank-sum test followed by a Benjamini-Hochberg (FDR)
666 correction for multiple comparisons. Taxa coloured cyan are enriched in healthy fish and those
667 coloured orange are enriched in infected fish. Node size is relative to prevalence in all samples. B)
668 Taxa with significantly different abundances (FDR-corrected p-value <0.05) between healthy and *A.*
669 *foliaceus* infected fish under 12:12 LD (top) or 24:0 LD (bottom) photoperiods, determined via
670 DESeq2 analyses. Taxa above the dotted line are significantly more abundant in infected fish, below
671 the line are more abundant in healthy fish.

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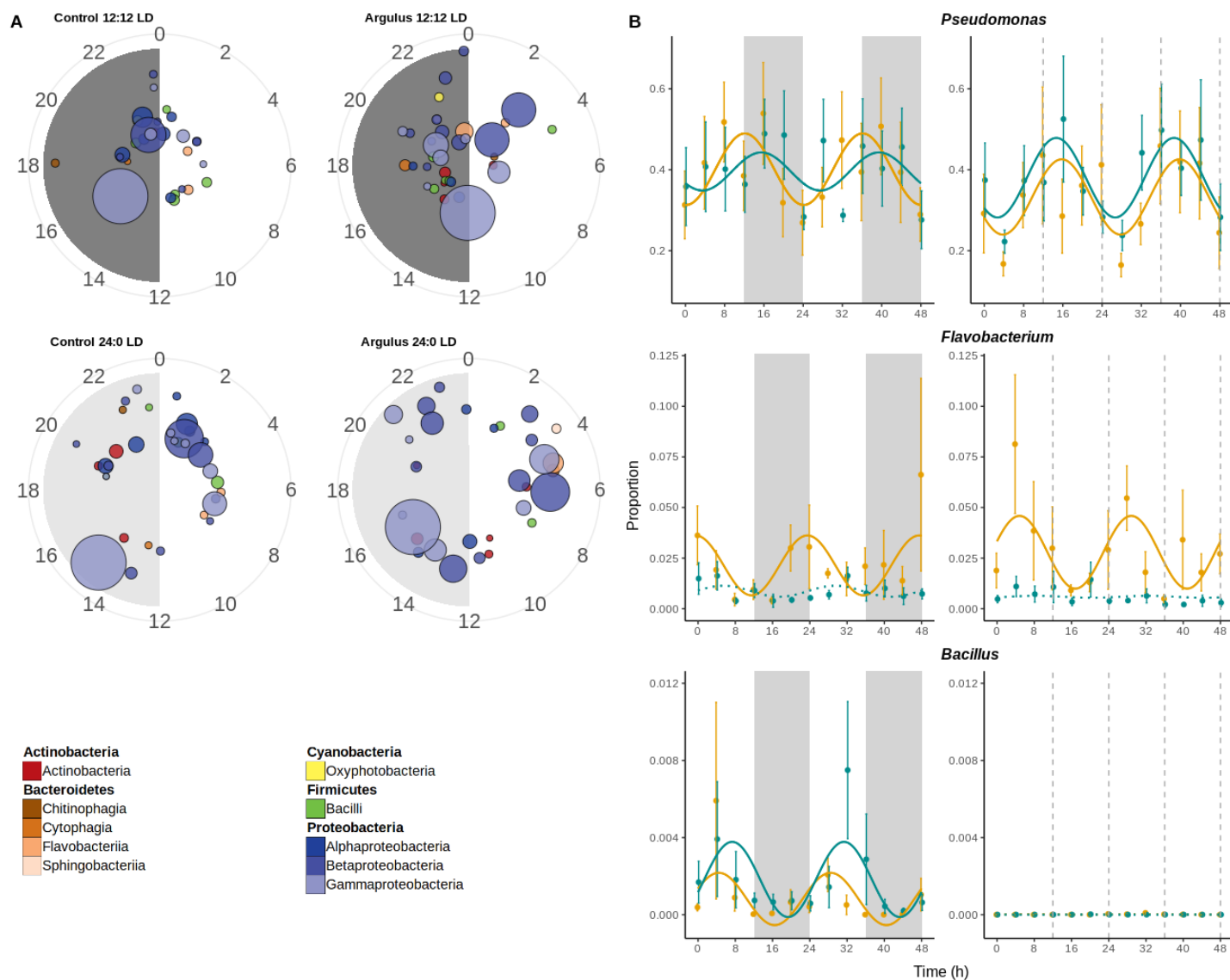
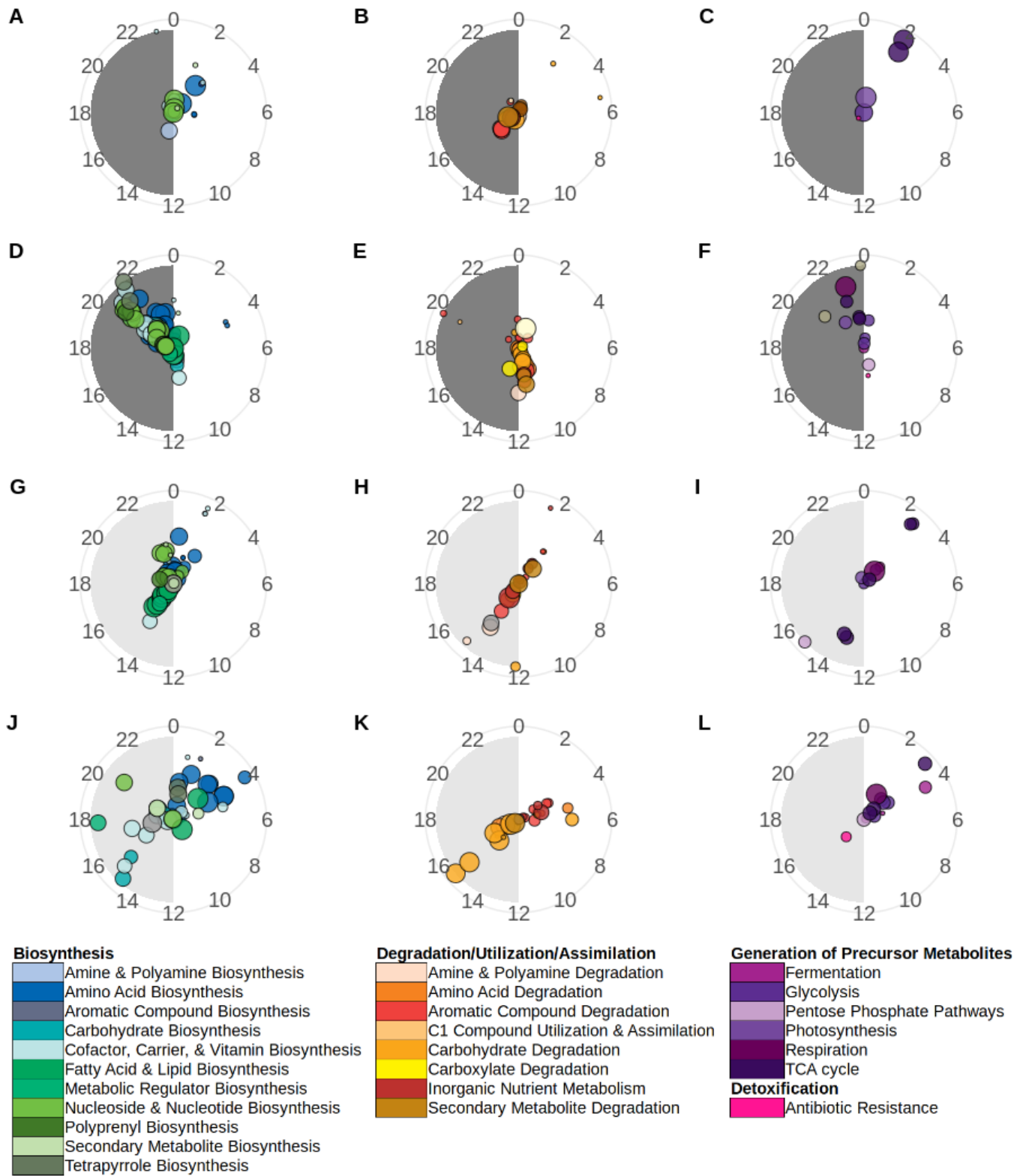


Figure 5: A) Polar plots showing times of peak relative abundance of significantly rhythmic microbiome genera. Each circle represents a genus, coloured by class and scaled by average relative abundance. Radian indicates time of peak and distance from centre indicates significance (more significant/stronger rhythms toward edge of plot). B) Examples of rhythmic bacteria genera (full results presented in Table 3).



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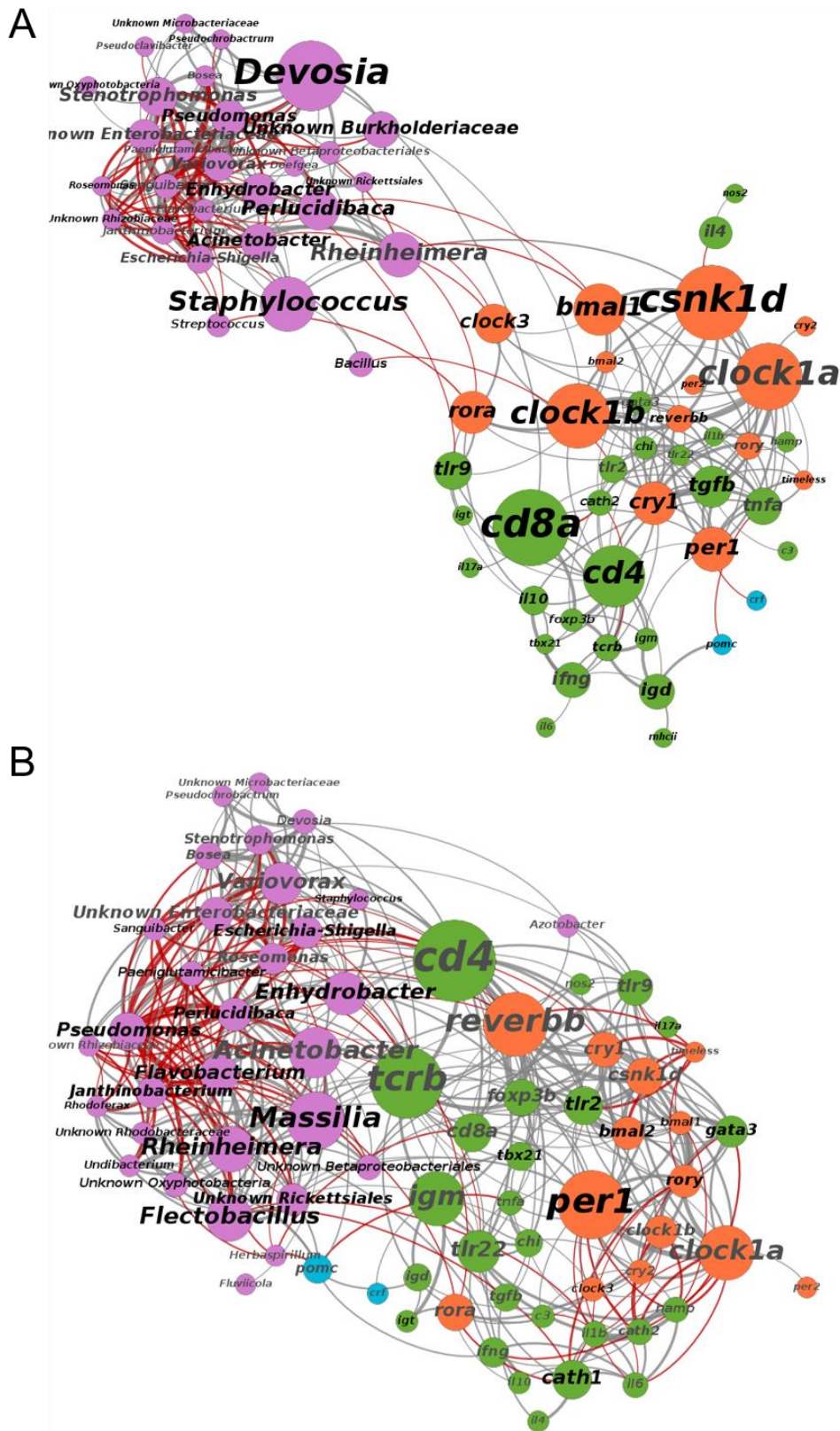
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Figure 6: Polar plots showing peak relative abundance of significantly rhythmic microbiome MetaCycle pathways. Each circle represents a pathway, coloured by MetaCycle class and sized by average relative abundance. Pathway radian indicates time of peak and distance from centre indicates significance (more significant/stronger rhythms toward edge of plot). Pathway identity determined via Picrust2 and rhythmicity significance determined via eJTK_cycle (Bonferoni-corrected P-values <0.05). Circacompare was used to fit waveforms and determine estimates of rhythms peaks. A, B, C = healthy trout under 12:12 LD. D, E, F = *Argulus*-infected trout under 12:12 LD. H, I, J = healthy trout under 24:0 LD. K, L, M = *Argulus*-infected trout under 24:0 LD. Full details of pathways are provided in Supplementary Datafile 1.



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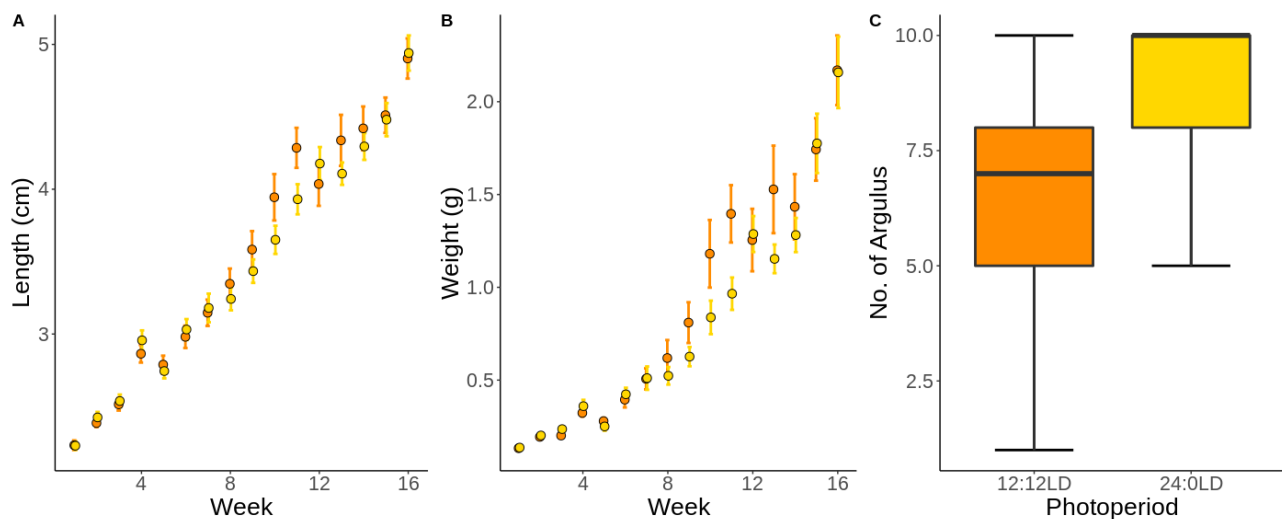
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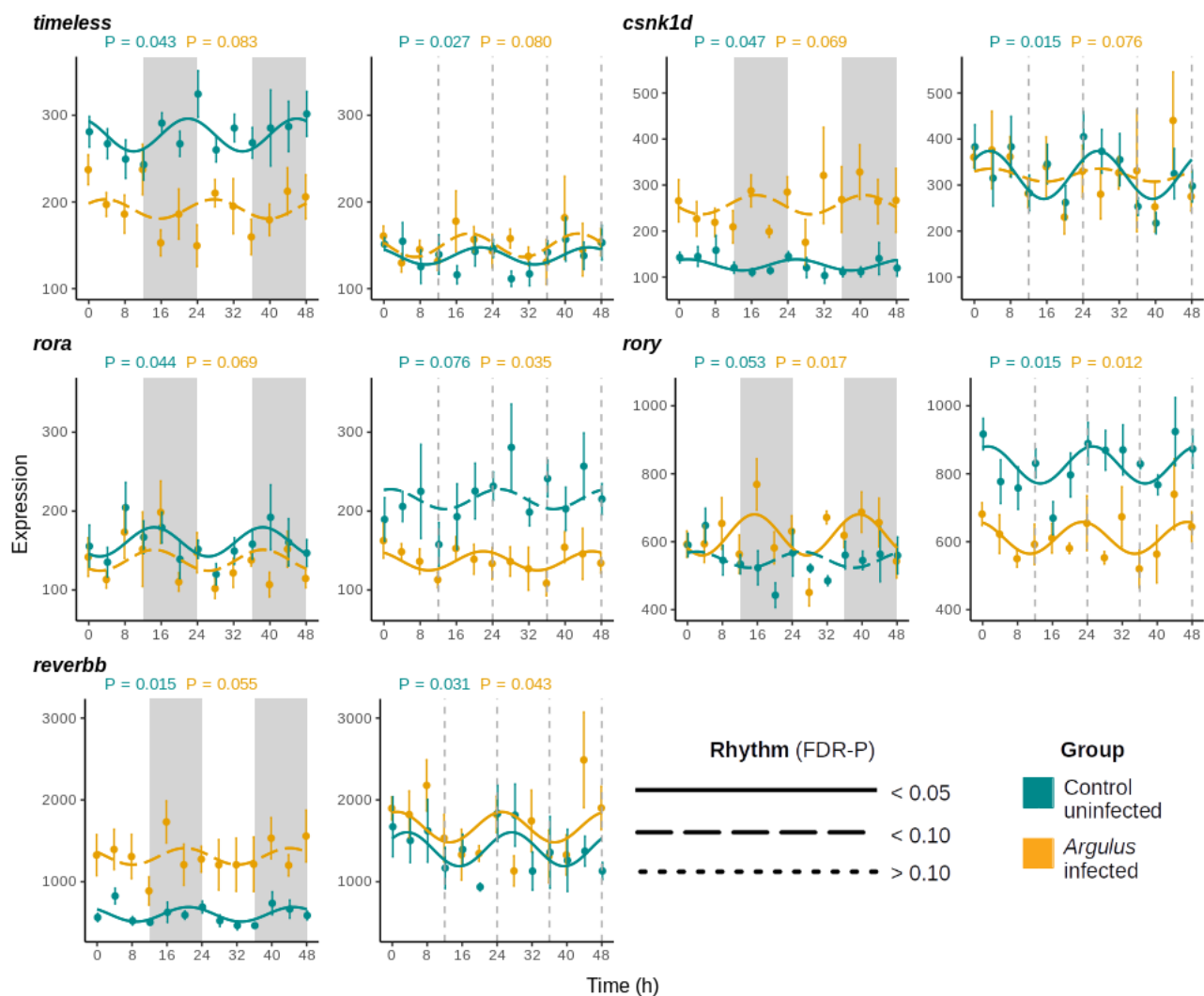
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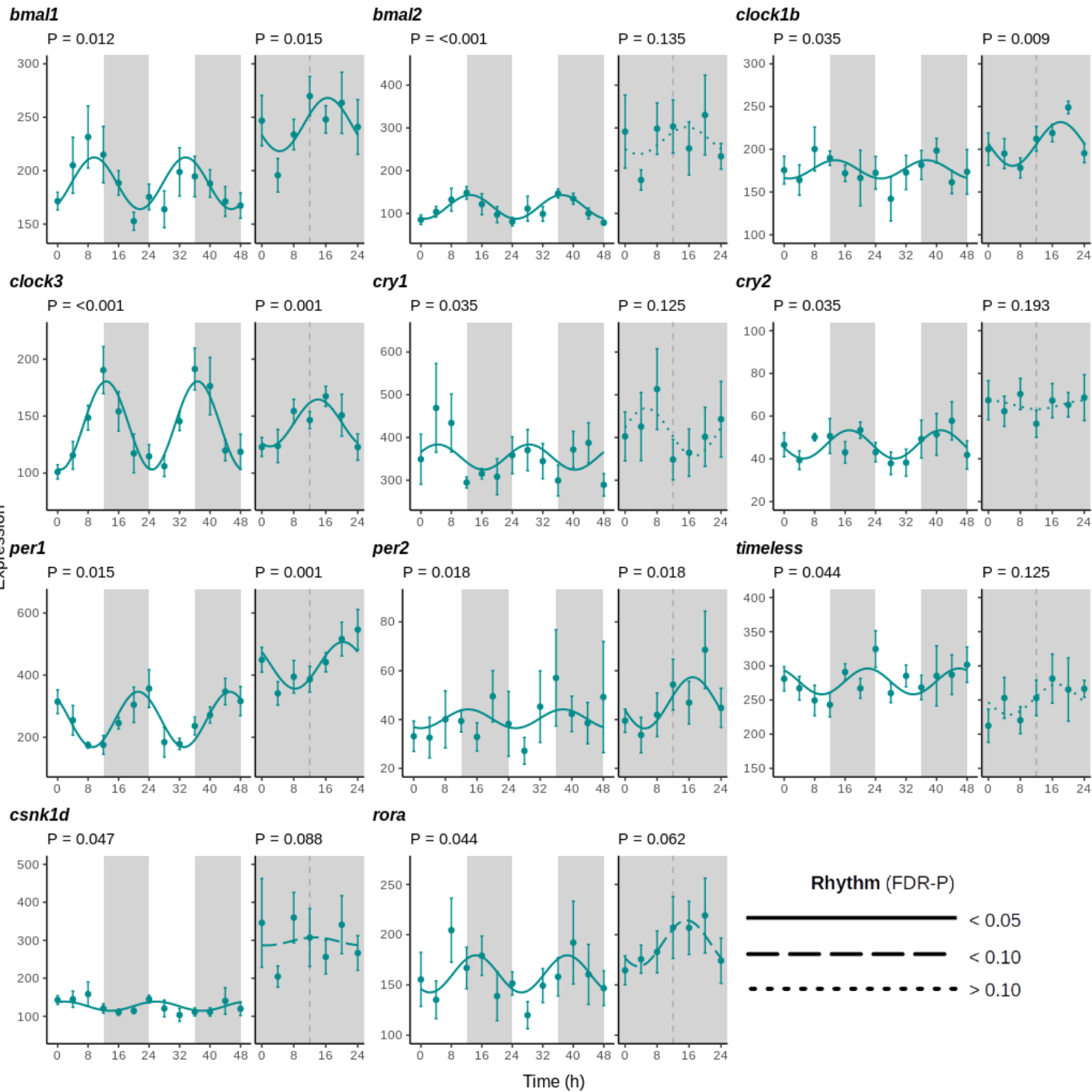
Figure 7: Co-occurrence networks of microbial genera (pink) and host gene expression (orange = clock, green = immune, blue = corticotropin) in healthy (top) and *Argulus*-infected (bottom) trout under 12:12 LD. Node and label size scaled to degree centrality score. Label colour denotes rhythmicity (black = rhythm FDR p-value <0.05, grey = rhythm FDR p-value >0.05). Connection colour indicates association (grey = positive, red = negative, determined by Spearman correlation tests) and connection width scaled to correlation strength (thicker lines denote a higher correlation coefficient).



Supplementary Figure 1: Average A) standard length and B) weight of trout (± 1 S.E.) over 16-week growth trial under 12:12 LD (orange) and 24:0 LD (yellow). C) Boxplots of number of *Argulus foliaceus* lice infecting fish 7 days post-inoculation.

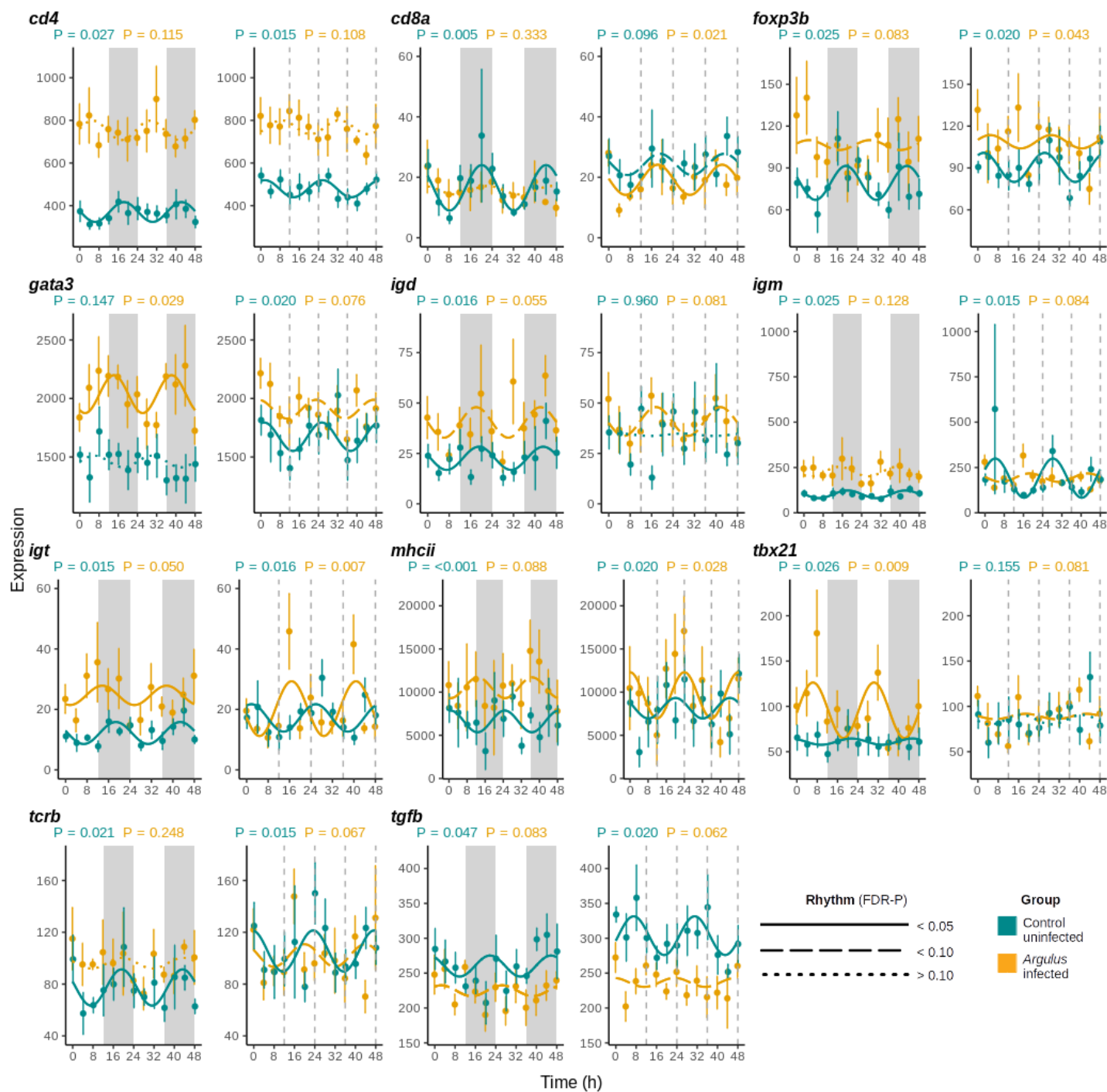


Supplementary Figure 2: Mean expression (± 1 S.E.) of accessory clock genes of uninfected (cyan) and *Argulus*-infected (orange) rainbow trout maintained at 12:12 LD (left) and 24:0 LD (LL, right). Expression is normalised counts of mRNA copies detected via Nanostring nCounter. Curves denote cosinor waveform fitted using CircaCompare. Grey shading indicates time periods in darkness (grey dashed indicates equivalent 12:12 LD light transitions on LL plots).

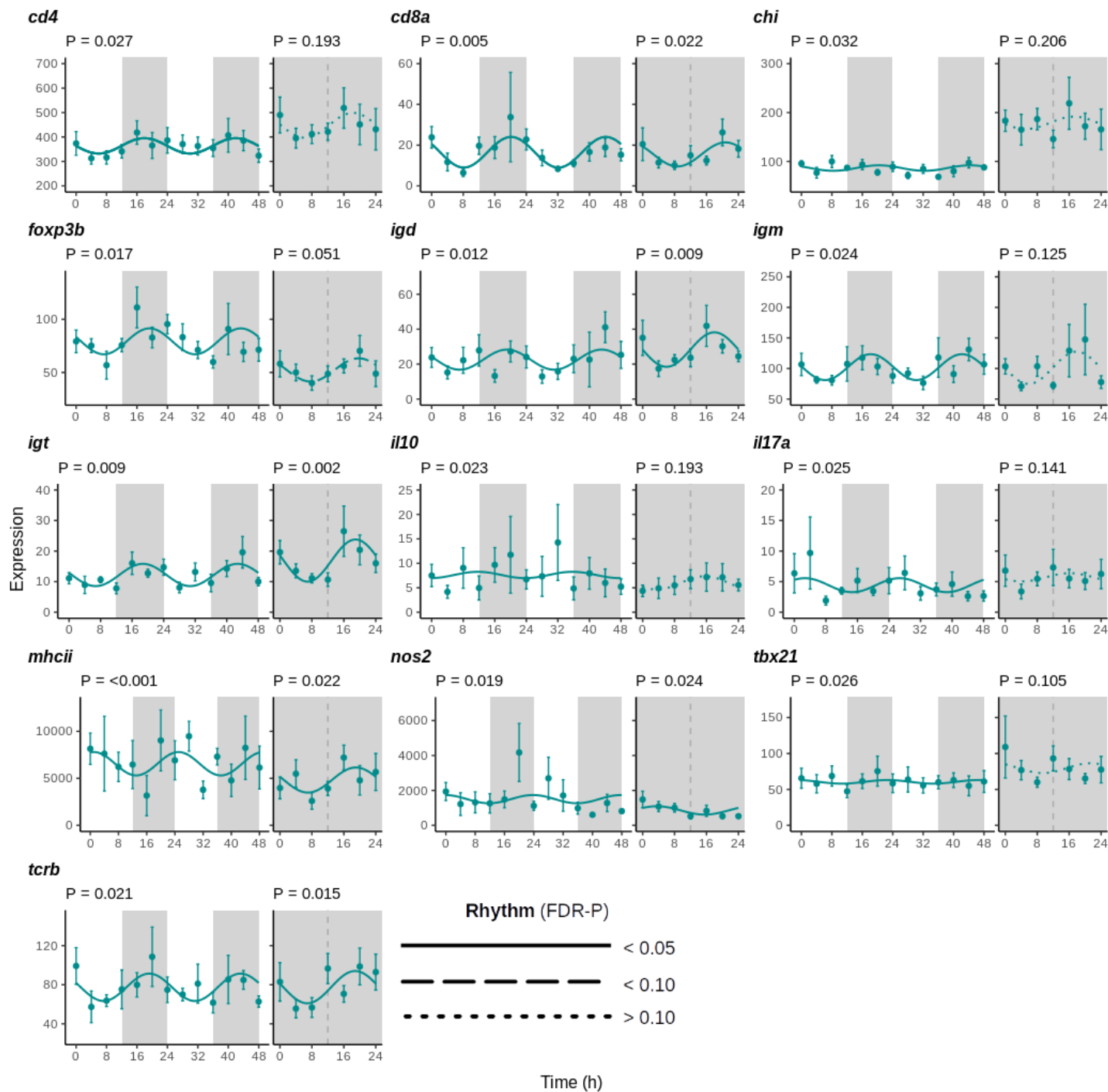


Supplementary Figure 3: Mean expression (± 1 S.E.) of clock genes of rainbow trout under 12:12 LD and DD. Expression is normalised counts of mRNA copies detected via Nanostring nCounter. Curves denote cosinor waveform fitted using CircaCompare. Grey shading indicates time periods in darkness (grey dashed indicates subjective day-night transition in DD).

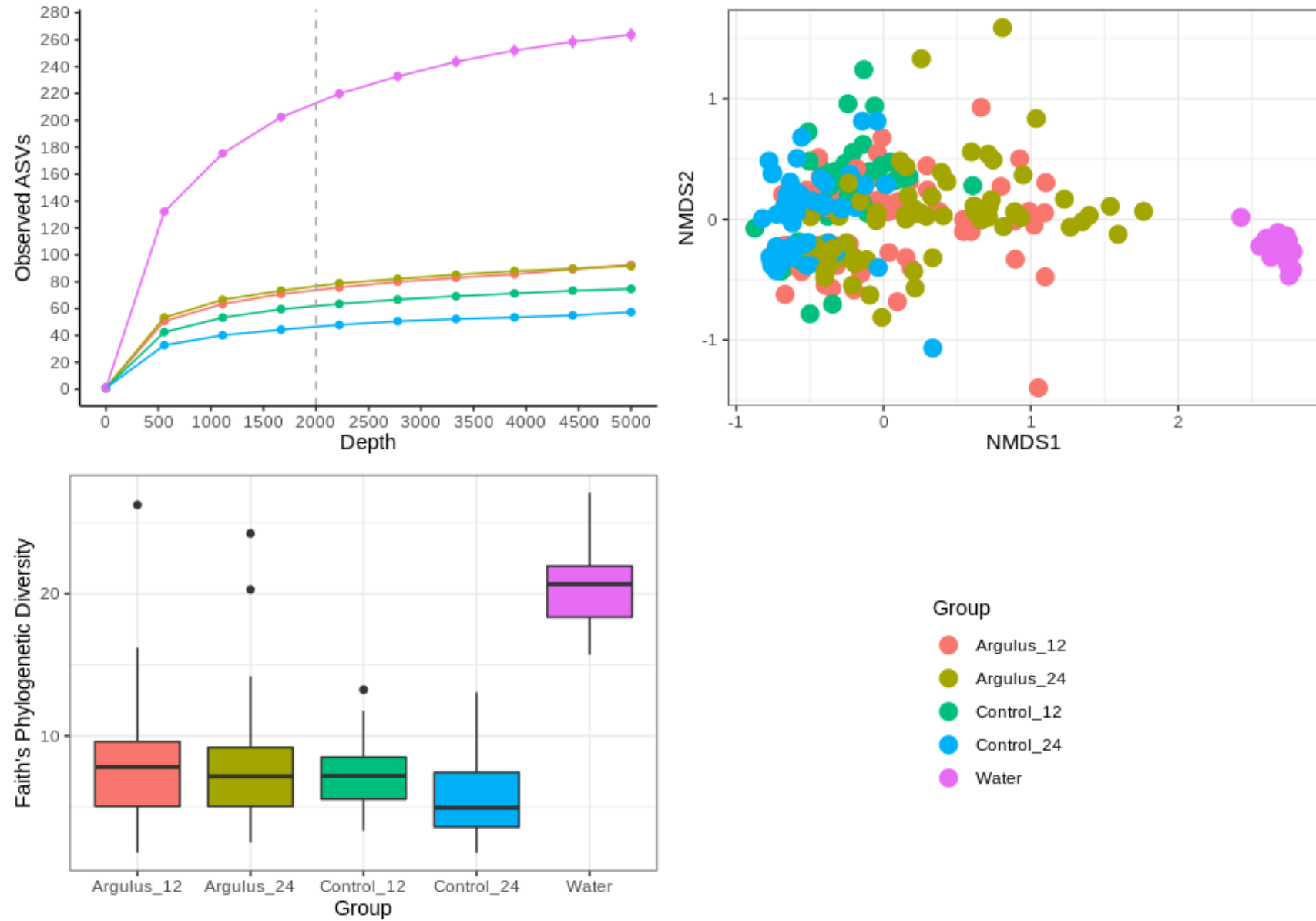




Supplementary Figure 5: Mean expression (± 1 S.E.) of adaptive immune genes of uninfected (cyan) and Argulus-infected (orange) rainbow trout maintained at 12:12 LD (left) and 24:0 LD (LL, right). Expression is normalised counts of mRNA copies detected via Nanostring nCounter. Curves denote cosinor waveform fitted using CircaCompare. Grey shading indicates time periods in darkness (grey dashed indicates equivalent 12:12 LD light transitions on LL plots). Only genes with significant rhythm in one or more groups shown.



Supplementary Figure 6: Mean expression (\pm 1 S.E.) of immune genes of rainbow trout under 12:12 LD and DD. Expression is normalised counts of mRNA copies detected via Nanostring nCounter. Curves denote cosinor waveform fitted using CircaCompare. Grey shading indicates time periods in darkness (grey dashed indicates subjective day-night transition in DD).



Supplementary Figure 7: A) Rarefaction plots of detected amplified sequence variants (ASVs) by sampling depth. B) NMDS ordination of microbiome profiles. C) Alpha diversity plots by treatment group.

A

B

Supplementary Figure 8: Co-occurrence networks of microbial genera (pink) and host gene expression (orange = clock, green = immune, blue = corticotropin) in healthy (top) and *Argulus*-infected (bottom) trout under 24:0 LD. Node and label size scaled to degree centrality score. Label colour denotes rhythmicity (black = rhythm FDR p-value <0.05, grey = rhythm FDR p-value >0.05). Connection colour indicates association (grey = positive, red = negative, determined by Spearman correlation tests) and connection width scaled to correlation strength (thicker lines denote a higher correlation coefficient).