High levels of cyclic diguanylate interfere with beneficial bacterial colonization

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ABSTRACT

During colonization of the Hawaiian bobtail squid (*Euprymna scolopes*), *Vibrio fischeri* bacteria

undergo a lifestyle transition from a planktonic motile state in the environment to a biofilm state

in host mucus. Cyclic diguanylate (c-di-GMP) is a cytoplasmic signaling molecule that is

important for regulating motility-biofilm transitions in many bacterial species. *V. fischeri* encodes

50 proteins predicted to synthesize and/or degrade c-di-GMP, but a role for c-di-GMP regulation

during host colonization has not been investigated. We examined strains exhibiting either low or

high levels of c-di-GMP during squid colonization and found that while a low c-di-GMP strain

had no colonization defect, a high c-di-GMP strain was severely impaired. Expression of a

heterologous c-di-GMP phosphodiesterase restored colonization, demonstrating that the effect

is due to high c-di-GMP levels. In the constitutive high c-di-GMP state, colonizing *V. fischeri*

exhibited reduced motility, altered biofilm aggregate morphology, and a transcriptional

regulatory interaction between two key polysaccharides, cellulose and Syp. Our results highlight

the importance of proper c-di-GMP regulation during beneficial animal colonization, illustrate

multiple pathways regulated by c-di-GMP in the host, and uncover an interplay of multiple

exopolysaccharide systems in host-associated aggregates.

IMPORTANCE

There is substantial interest in studying cyclic diguanylate (c-di-GMP) in pathogenic and

environmental bacteria, which has led to an accepted paradigm in which high c-di-GMP levels

promote biofilm formation and reduce motility. However, considerably less focus has been

placed on understanding how this compound contributes to beneficial colonization. Using the

Vibrio fischeri-Hawaiian bobtail squid study system, we took advantage of recent genetic

advances in the bacterium to modulate c-di-GMP levels and measure colonization and track c-

di-GMP phenotypes in a symbiotic interaction. Studies in the animal host revealed a c-di-GMP-

dependent interaction between two distinct biofilm polysaccharides, Syp and cellulose, that was

not evident in culture-based studies: elevated c-di-GMP altered the composition and abundance

of the *in vivo* biofilm by decreasing Syp transcription due to increased cellulose synthesis. This

study reveals important parallels between pathogenic and beneficial colonization and

additionally identifies c-di-GMP-dependent regulation that occurs specifically in the squid host.

INTRODUCTION

In both pathogenic and beneficial associations, bacteria transition from a motile, planktonic state

in the environment to a surface-associated biofilm state within the host. Cyclic diguanylate (c-di-

GMP) is an intracellular signaling molecule that regulates this lifestyle transition for many

bacterial species, including *Vibrio cholerae*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Caulobacter crescentus*,

and *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* (Heindl et al., 2014; Hengge et al., 2016). Generally, higher

intracellular c-di-GMP concentrations lead to increased biofilm formation and decreased motility,

while lower intracellular c-di-GMP concentrations lead to the opposite phenotypes. C-di-GMP

levels are regulated by diguanylate cyclase (DGC) proteins, which synthesize c-di-GMP, and

phosphodiesterase (PDE) proteins, which degrade c-di-GMP. DGCs contain a GGDEF domain

and PDEs contain either an EAL or HD-GYP domain. While the effects of c-di-GMP on motility,

biofilm formation, and infectivity of pathogens such as *V. cholerae* have been extensively

studied (Römling et al., 2013), the impact of c-di-GMP during the establishment of beneficial

bacterial symbioses is not well understood. The focus of this study is to examine how c-di-GMP

impacts beneficial colonization in a system where we can manipulate intracellular levels of the

compound and dissect the colonization process in detail.

Vibrio fischeri is the exclusive, beneficial light organ symbiont of the Hawaiian bobtail squid

(*Euprymna scolopes*). *V. fischeri* undergoes the motility-to-biofilm lifestyle transition during the

initiation of host colonization (Ludvik et al., 2021; Nyholm et al., 2000; Visick, 2009; Yip et al.,

2006). While *V. fischeri* is solitary and expresses polar flagella in seawater, upon encountering

the juvenile bobtail squid light organ the bacteria require the symbiosis polysaccharide (Syp) to

aggregate in the host mucus prior to commencing further colonization (Koehler et al., 2019;

Rotman et al., 2019; Ruby and Asato, 1993; Yip et al., 2006, 2005). The bacterial aggregates

form on the outer face of the light organ independent of flagellar motility and are influenced by

physical currents generated by cilia on the light organ surface (Nawroth et al., 2017; Nyholm et

al., 2000). Host-produced nitric oxide stimulates dispersal from the biofilm aggregates

(Thompson et al., 2019), and the bacteria swim through the pore into the light organ ducts using

flagellar motility and chemotaxis toward squid-derived chitin oligosaccharides (Brennan et al.,

2013b; Graf et al., 1994; Mandel et al., 2012; Millikan and Ruby, 2002; Ruby and Asato, 1993).

The symbionts pass through an antechamber and bottleneck before reaching the crypts of the

light organ, where they reach high density and produce light to camouflage the shadow of the

squid host (Jones and Nishiguchi, 2004; McFall-Ngai and Ruby, 1991; Sycuro et al., 2006). The

initiation of this process—including biofilm formation, chemotaxis, and motility—occurs only

when the squid is newly hatched, as colonizing bacteria seed the host for its lifetime. Therefore,

the mechanisms that regulate these processes are fundamental to selection for the correct

symbionts and the establishment of the association.

As with the pathogens noted above, *V. fischeri* (strain ES114) encodes a large number of

proteins predicted to regulate c-di-GMP levels: 50 total that encompass 28 DGCs, 14 PDEs, 5

DGC/PDEs, and 3 proteins that are predicted to be degenerate (Wolfe and Visick, 2010). Roles

for DGCs MifA and MifB, and PDEs BinA and PdeV in *V. fischeri* motility and/or biofilm

formation have been described (Bassis and Visick, 2010; Christensen et al., 2020; O'Shea et

al., 2006). However, those studies did not examine individual mutants during squid colonization,

and a large-scale transposon-insertion sequencing study did not identify individual mutations in

genes related to c-di-GMP that were predicted to have significant phenotypes in the squid host

(Brooks et al., 2014). Given the predicted complexity of the c-di-GMP network in *V. fischeri*, we

used new technology (Visick et al., 2018) to generate strains lacking multiple DGCs or PDEs to

mimic either low or high c-di-GMP levels, and we applied these strains to determine the effects

of c-di-GMP extremes on squid colonization. This approach allowed us to directly study the role

of c-di-GMP *in vivo* during beneficial colonization, to determine bacterial behaviors that are

influenced by the compound during animal colonization, and to reveal signaling interactions that

are not evident during growth in culture.

RESULTS

Deletion of multiple DGCs or PDEs effectively manipulates c-di-GMP levels in the

symbiont *V. fischeri*

To determine the role that c-di-GMP plays during the beneficial colonization of *E. scolopes* by *V.*

fischeri, we constructed strains that were altered in their basal levels of c-di-GMP. While it is not

yet feasible to delete all 50 c-di-GMP-related genes in a single strain, we applied recently

developed technology that facilitates rapid construction of multiple gene deletions *(Visick et al.,*

2018) to generate a strain that lacked seven DGCs (Δ7DGC; lacking *VF_1200*, *mifA*, *VF_1245*,

VF_A0342-A0343, *VF_1639*, and *VF_A0216*) and another that lacked six PDEs (Δ6PDE;

lacking *pdeV*, *VF_2480*, *binA*, *VF_0087*, *VF_1603*, and *VF_A0506*). These genes were targeted

based on preliminary experiments assessing the importance of individual genes in biofilm

formation, primarily the control over cellulose production (via Congo red binding), a c-di-GMP-

dependent phenotype (Bassis and Visick, 2010). We examined the levels of c-di-GMP in these

strains using the pFY4535 c-di-GMP reporter (Zamorano-Sánchez et al., 2019) and determined

that the Δ7DGC strain had c-di-GMP levels over 9-fold lower than the parent strain, while the

Δ6PDE strain exhibited c-di-GMP levels about 1.5-fold higher (**Fig. 1A**). These differences were

observed in rich medium as well as in artificial seawater (**Fig. 1A**), suggesting to us that these

strains would be effective for studying the role of c-di-GMP during squid colonization. We

examined phenotypes known to be regulated by c-di-GMP, including cellulose biofilm formation

and flagellar motility. The Δ7DGC strain displayed elevated motility on TBS soft agar, reduced

Congo red binding, and reduced activity of a *bcsQ'-gfp*$^+$ cellulose locus transcriptional reporter

(**Fig. 1B-D**). The Δ6PDE strain exhibited the opposite phenotypes (**Fig. 1B-D**). These data

supported our contention that we could use the multiple deletion approach to examine c-di-GMP

regulation in the symbiont. Together, these data and those below support that the Δ7DGC strain

represents cells in a low c-di-GMP state whereas the Δ6PDE cells are in a high c-di-GMP state,

and for the remainder of the study we will refer to these strains as the "Low cdG" and "High

cdG" strains, respectively.

Fig. 1. High c-di-GMP levels inhibit swimming motility, promote Congo red binding, and promote cellulose gene transcription. (A) Quantification of c-di-GMP concentration for *V. fischeri* and indicated mutants using the pFY4535 c-di-GMP reporter plasmid. For each strain, n = 3 biological and n = 3 technical replicates, each point represents the mean of technical replicates, average bars represent the mean of biological replicates, and error bars represent standard error of the mean. (B) Quantification of migration through soft (0.3%) agar for *V. fischeri* and indicated mutants. For each strain, n = 8-9 biological replicates, average bars represent mean, and error bars represent standard error of the mean. Motility plate images are representative. (C) Quantification of Congo red binding for *V. fischeri* and indicated mutants. For each strain, n = 3 technical replicates, average bars represent mean, and error bars represent standard error of the mean. Congo red spot images are representative. (D) Quantification of *in vitro bcs* transcription by *V. fischeri* and indicated mutants using the pRYI063 *bcsQ-gfp*[+] transcriptional reporter plasmid. For each strain, n = 3 biological replicates. Points represent each biological replicate, average bars represent the mean, and error bars represent standard error of the mean. For A-D, one-way ANOVA was used for statistical analysis and asterisks represent significance relative to the WT strain; ns = not significant, *p < 0.05, **p < 0.006, ****p < 0.0001.

153 **Elevated c-di-GMP levels interfere with productive colonization initiation**

155 To determine whether the lower and/or higher c-di-GMP levels impacted symbiotic colonization,

156 we introduced the Low cdG and High cdG strains to newly hatched *E. scolopes* squid. Each

157 strain was individually inoculated into a bowl with hatchling squid and allowed to initiate

158 colonization for 3 h. The squid were transferred to new water, and the bacterial load in each

159 host was measured at 18 and 48 hours-post-inoculation (hpi) (Naughton and Mandel, 2012). For

160 WT *V. fischeri* ES114, this process leads to approximately 10^5 CFU per squid at 18 and 48 hpi,

161 and a similar yield was observed for the Low cdG strain (**Fig. 2**). This was surprising to us,

162 given that there are 50 genes that encode c-di-GMP synthesis/degradation factors, yet

163 downregulation of c-di-GMP levels by over 9-fold did not impact the ability to colonize the squid

164 host (**Fig. 2**). To ask whether the low cdG strain exhibited a more subtle colonization defect that

165 we were not detecting in this single strain colonization assay, we performed a competitive

166 colonization assay in which the Low cdG and WT strain were co-inoculated. We reasoned that if

167 the Low cdG strain had a slight defect in the host, then the competitive assay could reveal this

168 effect. However, in the competitive assay, the Low cdG strain exhibited similar fitness as the WT

169 strain (**SFig. 1**). In contrast, in the single-strain colonization assay, the High cdG strain had a

170 substantial deficit in bacterial yield in the host as early as 18 hpi and also at 48 hpi, with a

171 median CFU below 10^3 per light organ (**Fig. 2**). In the competitive colonization, the High cdG

172 strain displayed a significant deficit, as WT outcompeted the High cdG strain by over 3000-fold

173 (**SFig. 1**). Growth of the High cdG strain in culture was similar to WT (**SFig. 2**), arguing that the

174 colonization defect is due to a developmental deficit in the host and not an inherent growth

175 property of the strain. From these data, we conclude that high levels of c-di-GMP are

176 detrimental for the initiation of a beneficial colonization in the squid light organ, whereas low

177 levels of c-di-GMP do not impact the colonization behavior during the first 48 h of symbiosis.

Fig. 2. Elevated c-di-GMP levels inhibit host colonization. (A) Quantification of squid colonization levels at 18 hpi by *V. fischeri* and indicated mutants. Sample sizes from left to right are 8, 14, 25, and 13 squid. (B) Quantification of squid colonization levels at 48 hpi by *V. fischeri* and indicated mutants. Sample sizes from left to right are 23, 68, 75, and 65 squid. For A and B, box-and-whisker plots represent minimum, 25th percentile, median, 75th percentile, and maximum. Kruskal-Wallis test was performed for statistical analysis for squid that were introduced to bacteria; ns = not significant, $**p < 0.002$, $****p < 0.0001$.

Supp. Fig. 1. Low levels of c-di-GMP do not inhibit host colonization. Quantification of squid competitive colonization index at 48 hpi by the indicated *V. fischeri* mutants. Competitive index represents $\log_{10}((\text{test strain/WT})_{output}/ (\text{test strain/WT})_{input})$. Box-and-whisker plots represent minimum, 25th percentile, median, 75th percentile, and maximum. Sample sizes from left to right are 36, 26, and 20 squid. Kruskal-Wallis test was performed for statistical analysis; ns = sot significant, $****p < 0.0001$.

Supp. Fig. 2. The High c-di-GMP *V. fischeri* strain does not have a growth defect. Growth curves for *V. fischeri* and indicated mutants. For each strain, n = 3 biological and n = 6 technical replicates. Points represent the mean of biological replicates. Error bars represent standard error of the mean. Doubling time during exponential phase for High cdG is 30.4 minutes, for WT is 27.4 minutes, and for Low cdG is 31.9 minutes.

To ask whether the phenotypes we observed in the High cdG strain were due to regulation of c-

di-GMP levels or whether they were due to a specific gene product that is absent (i.e., signaling

specificity), we introduced a PDE from *V. cholerae*, VC1086, that is known to be active in

heterologous bacteria (Spurbeck et al., 2012; Waters et al., 2008), and that we predicted would

lower c-di-GMP levels in *V. fischeri*. Across the phenotypes tested, the plasmid-expressed

VC1086 had only a slight effect in a WT background (**Fig. 3**). However, in the High cdG

background, expression of VC1086 reduced cdG levels by 1.6-fold, restored swimming motility

on TBS agar, and reduced Congo red binding 1.7-fold in the High cdG background (**Fig. 3A-C**).

In a squid colonization assay, expression of the *V. cholerae* PDE rescued colonization of the

High cdG strain (**Fig. 3D**). This result argues that the squid colonization defect observed in the

High cdG strain is a result of the altered c-di-GMP levels and not due to the absence of a

specific *V. fischeri* protein. This set of experiments confirmed that our results were due to

altering levels of c-di-GMP rather than the absence of a single gene product. We conclude that

lower levels of c-di-GMP are not harmful to establishing a symbiotic association, while higher

levels are detrimental to symbiotic initiation.

Fig. 3. Reduced swimming motility, increased Congo red binding, and diminished squid colonization of the High cdG strain are dependent on high c-di-GMP levels. (A) Quantification of c-di-GMP concentration for *V. fischeri* and indicated mutants using the pFY4535 c-di-GMP reporter plasmid. For each strain, n = 3 biological and n = 3 technical replicates, each dot represents mean of technical replicates, average bars represent the mean of biological replicates, and error bars represent standard error of the mean. (B) Quantification of migration through TBS soft (0.3%) agar for *V. fischeri* and indicated mutants. For each strain, n = 5 biological replicates, average bars represent mean, and error bars represent standard error of the mean. (C) Quantification of Congo red binding for *V. fischeri* and indicated mutants. For each strain, n = 3 technical replicates, average bars represent the mean, and error bars represent standard error of the mean. Congo red spot images are representative. For A-C, one-way ANOVA was used for statistical analysis; ns = not significant, *p = 0.017, ****p < 0.0001. (D) Quantification of squid colonization levels at 48 hpi by *V. fischeri* and indicated mutants. Box-and-whisker plots represent minimum, 25th percentile, median, 75th percentile, and maximum. Sample sizes from left to right are 30, 26, 34, 37, and 11 squid. Kruskal-Wallis test was performed for statistical analysis for squid that were introduced to bacteria; ns = not significant, ****p < 0.0001.

The High c-di-GMP strain exhibits flagellar motility *in vivo*

In culture, the High cdG strain had a substantial swimming motility defect (**Fig. 1B**). We

therefore considered the hypothesis that a key basis for the poor colonization by the High cdG

strain was due to the altered flagellar motility, which is required for host colonization (Brennan et

al., 2013b; Millikan and Ruby, 2002; Ruby and Asato, 1993). In culture, we did observe a

migration ring, demonstrating that the strain is not amotile (**Fig. 1B**). Cells from the outer ring of

motility from the High cdG strain (**Fig. 1B**) retained their phenotype upon reinoculation into a

new plate, arguing that the motility observed was not due to spontaneous suppressor mutants.

At the same time, we observed that the motility detected was dependent on the media used,

with higher motility being observed in the presence of magnesium sulfate (**Fig. 1B**) (O'Shea et

al., 2005). An open question, then, was whether this strain exhibited flagellar motility under the

conditions experienced in the light organ mucus. We therefore performed a competitive

colonization assay between the High cdG strain and the amotile High cdG Δ*flrA* isogenic

derivative. The High cdG strain outcompeted the amotile Δ*flrA* derivative, with a median

advantage of approximately 10-fold (**Fig. 4**), supporting that the High cdG strain is indeed motile

in the host.

Fig. 4. High c-di-GMP levels do not eliminate motility during host colonization. Quantification of squid competitive colonization index at 48 hpi by the indicated *V. fischeri* mutants. Competitive index represents $\log_{10}((\text{test strain/High cdG})_{\text{output}}/ (\text{test strain/High cdG})_{\text{input}})$. Box-and-whisker plots represent minimum, 25th percentile, median, 75th percentile, and maximum. Sample sizes from left to right are 43 and 75 squid. Kruskal-Wallis test was performed for statistical analysis; ****p < 0.0001.

Elevated c-di-GMP levels lead to altered aggregate morphology *in vivo*

The *V. fischeri*-squid system provides an opportunity to combine genetic and imaging

approaches to study the planktonic-to-biofilm transition during colonization of a symbiotic host.

Symbiosis polysaccharide (Syp) is required for host colonization (Yip et al., 2006), while the

distinct cellulose polysaccharide is not known to impact host phenotypes, so we questioned

whether c-di-GMP would impact Syp-dependent aggregation *in vivo*. At 3 hpi, we examined *in*

vivo biofilm aggregates using *V. fischeri* that constitutively expressed a fluorescent protein (GFP

or mCherry). Compared to the Low cdG strain, the High cdG strain produced larger-sized

aggregates, while the WT aggregates were an intermediate size (**Fig. 5A,B**). In over 10% of the

light organs examined, the High cdG strain had four or more aggregates, which were not

observed in the WT strain (**Fig. 5C**).

Fig. 5. Elevated c-di-GMP levels lead to a greater number of *V. fischeri* aggregates in the squid host. (A) Representative fluorescence microscopy images of aggregates made by *V. fischeri* and indicated mutants carrying a constitutive GFP on the pVSV102 plasmid within the host mucus. Arrows indicate location of aggregates. (B) Quantification of aggregate area per squid for *V. fischeri* and indicated mutants carrying a constitutive GFP on the pVSV102 plasmid. Samples sizes from left to right are 73, 134, 101, 38, and 12 squid. Kruskal-Wallis test was used for statistical analysis; ns = not significant, **p < 0.02, ****p < 0.0001. (C) Quantification of number of *V. fischeri* aggregates formed per squid. Box-and-whisker plots represent minimum, 25th percentile, median, 75th percentile, and maximum. Samples sizes from left to right are 73, 134, and 101 squid.

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Supp. Fig. 3. Absence of the cellulose synthase BcsA does not rescue the high c-di-GMP strain colonization defect. (A) Quantification of squid colonization levels at 18 hpi by *V. fischeri* and indicated mutants. Sample sizes from left to right are 14, 25, 17, and 13 squid. (B) Quantification of squid colonization levels at 48 hpi by *V. fischeri* and indicated mutants. Sample sizes from left to right are 68, 16, 75, 56, 17, and 65 squid. For A and B, data for WT, High cdG, and Apo groups are the same as in Fig. 2. Box-and-whisker plots represent minimum, 25th percentile, median, 75th percentile, and maximum. Kruskal-Wallis test was performed for statistical analysis for squid that were introduced to bacteria; ns = not significant.

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To test if the Syp polysaccharide was required for the pattern of multiple bacterial aggregates

we observed in the High cdG strain, we deleted the gene encoding the structural Syp protein

SypQ in the High cdG background. This strain failed to colonize the host robustly at 48 hpi

(**SFig. 3B**) and did not form detectable aggregates (**Fig. 5A,B**), demonstrating that Syp-

dependent biofilm is required for *in vivo* aggregation in the High cdG background. We asked

whether transcription of the *syp* locus was altered in the High cdG strain. Activity of a *sypA'-gfp*[+]

reporter was examined during the aggregation phase, where we found that in the host, *sypA*

transcription was substantially reduced in the High cdG strain compared to the WT parent (**Fig.**

6A, SFig. 4A). High levels of c-di-GMP therefore negatively impact the expression of the

symbiosis polysaccharide locus *in vivo*. Notably, when we asked whether the High cdG strain

had altered *syp* transcription *in vitro*, we found no significant effects under two different media

conditions (**Fig. 6C**). Therefore, c-di-GMP exerts a host-specific effect on symbiotic biofilm

expression.

Fig. 6. c-di-GMP downregulates *syp* via BcsA in host mucus but not in culture. (A) Quantification of *syp* transcription for *V. fischeri* and indicated mutants using the pM1422 *sypA'-gfp+* transcriptional reporter plasmid in aggregates within the host mucus. Samples sizes from left to right are 47, 40, and 22 aggregates. (B) Quantification of *bcs* transcription for *V. fischeri* and indicated mutants using the pRYI063 *bcsQ'-gfp+* transcriptional reporter plasmid in aggregates within the host mucus. Samples sizes from left to right are 24 and 28 aggregates. For A and B, Box-and-whisker plots represent minimum, 25th percentile, median, 75th percentile, and maximum. Kruskal-Wallis test was used for statistical analysis; ns = not significant, ****p < 0.0001. (C) Quantification of *in vitro syp* transcription in LBS and TBS-Ca^{2+} for *V. fischeri* and indicated mutants carrying the pM1422 *sypA'-gfp+* transcriptional reporter plasmid. For each strain, n = 3 biological replicates. Points represent each replicate, average bars represent the mean of replicates, and error bars represent the standard error of the mean. One-way ANOVA was used for statistical analysis; ns = not significant relative to the WT strain in the same media.

Supp. Fig. 4. High c-di-GMP-dependent *bcs* expression inhibits *syp* expression in bacterial aggregates within the host mucus. (A) Representative fluorescent microscopy images of squid light organs containing *V. fischeri* and indicated mutants carrying the pM1422 *sypA'-gfp*[+] transcriptional reporter plasmid. (B) Representative fluorescent microscopy images of squid light organs containing *V. fischeri* and indicated mutants carrying the pRYI063 *bcsQ'-gfp*[+] transcriptional reporter plasmid.

High levels of c-di-GMP repress *syp* polysaccharide transcription via the cellulose

polysaccharide and in a host-dependent manner

In previous studies in the squid host, larger bacterial aggregates have correlated with an

upregulation of *syp* gene transcription and a higher propensity for colonization initiation and

competitive fitness (Brooks and Mandel, 2016; Morris et al., 2011; Yip et al., 2006). In this case,

however, the larger aggregates of the High cdG strain have reduced *syp* transcription and

exhibit poor colonization (**Fig. 6A, SFig. 4A, Fig. 2**). We therefore asked if there was another

component of the aggregate that may contribute to the morphology observed but that may not

enhance colonization ability in the same way that additional Syp polysaccharide promotes

colonization. A candidate for this component is cellulose, as we demonstrated above that

cellulose is upregulated in the High cdG strain (**Fig. 1C,D**). Therefore, we asked whether there

may be an interaction between the cellulose and Syp polysaccharide biosynthetic pathways. We

measured *bcsQ* transcription *in vivo* using a fluorescent transcriptional reporter (*bcsQ'-gfp$^+$*),

and we determined that *bcsQ* transcription was elevated in bacterial aggregates in the host

mucus in the High cdG strain compared to WT (**Fig. 6B, SFig. 4B**). Using a *bcsA*::Tn*erm*

transposon insertion mutant that interrupts cellulose synthase, we examined colonization in the

context of the High cdG background. Interruption of *bcsA* did not improve colonization at 18 or

48 hpi compared to the High cdG strain (**SFig. 3**). However, compared to the High cdG strain, a

bcsA derivative exhibited higher *sypA'-gfp$^+$* transcription *in vivo* (**Fig. 6A, SFig. 4A**), yet no

difference in *sypA'-gfp$^+$* transcription was observed *in vitro* with the same strains (**Fig. 6C**).

These data present a novel connection between transcriptional control of polysaccharide

systems that occurs specifically in the host.

DISCUSSION

Cyclic di-GMP impacts multiple pathways during beneficial colonization. Our study was

motivated by the question of how c-di-GMP impacts a beneficial microbe-host association. To

ask this question, we focused on the *V. fischeri*-squid mutualism. This well-studied binary

association allows us to examine individual stages of colonization using strains deleted for 6-7

genes and that consequently have altered levels of c-di-GMP. We found that a strain with

elevated levels of c-di-GMP exhibited striking defects during host colonization. The High cdG

strain formed aggregates that trended larger (**Fig. 4**), had altered host-specific polysaccharide

gene expression in the aggregates (**Fig. 6A,B, SFig. 4**), exhibited reduced flagellar motility (**Fig.**

1B), and displayed a significant colonization defect as enumerated by bacterial counts in the

host as early as 18 hpi (**Fig. 2**). Colonization of the High cdG strain was rescued by

overexpression of a heterologous PDE that does not have significant homology to proteins in *V.*

fischeri (**Fig. 3D**), strongly supporting that the observed effects are due to the c-di-GMP levels

and not to individual functions of the gene products affected in the multiple deletion strains.

Our results parallel work in several pathogenic bacteria, where constitutively elevated c-di-GMP

levels are correlated with a decrease in virulence (Hall and Lee, 2018; Römling et al., 2013). In

V. cholerae, for example, elevated c-di-GMP led to 5-fold reduced competitive colonization in

the infant mouse small intestine model (Tamayo et al., 2008). In that study, the authors tested if

the reduction was due to overexpression of biofilm (VPS), but it was not, and they attributed the

phenotype to the resulting virulence gene expression downstream of c-di-GMP. We note that

the magnitude of the effect we observe in *V. fischeri* colonization of bobtail squid is substantially

higher: >100-fold in a single-strain colonization assay. It therefore seems likely that this aspect

of mutualism is broadly shared with pathogenic colonization, and we expect there to be strong

constraints to retain c-di-GMP levels low during the initiation of the host colonization process.

There are also likely to be beneficial symbiosis-specific adaptations within c-di-GMP signaling.

For example, the zebrafish gut symbiont *Aeromonas veronii* responds to host amino acids to

inhibit a diguanylate cyclase, thereby stimulating bacterial motility into the host (Robinson et al.,

2021). It remains to be seen whether there are similar specific adaptations in the *V. fischeri*-

squid symbiosis.

Despite encoding 50 genes that manipulate c-di-GMP, we were surprised to find that

substantially lowering levels of c-di-GMP (approximately 9-fold) (**Fig. 1A**) led to no significant

defect in host colonization. In the Low cdG strain, we detected slightly smaller bacterial

aggregates in the host mucus (**Fig. 5**), but no consequent diminution of bacterial counts in the

light organ at 18 hpi or 48 hpi (**Fig. 2**). The Low cdG strain similarly exhibited no competitive

colonization defect (**SFig. 1**). When examining transcriptional reporters for the symbiosis

polysaccharide gene *sypA* or the cellulose biosynthesis gene *bcsQ in vivo*, the Low cdG strain

resembled the wild-type parent (**Fig. 6A,B, SFig. 4**). We note that colonization was intact

despite this strain exhibiting strong biofilm and motility phenotypes *in vitro* (**Fig. 1**), thus

emphasizing the importance of studying these phenotypes in the relevant host system.

It seems likely that the squid host environment may influence c-di-GMP levels during

colonization. Our transcriptional reporter data support this contention. In culture, we observed a

3.2-fold increase in *bcsQ'-gfp*[+] reporter expression in the WT strain relative to the Low cdG

strain (**Fig. 1D**). However, in the animal, we observed similar *bcsQ* expression in the two strains

(**Fig. 6B, SFig. 4B**), suggesting that the lower *bcsQ* expression of the WT strain occurs in

response to the host environment. Similarly, the upregulation of *bcs* gene expression due to

elevated c-di-GMP conditions resulted in a substantial downregulation of *sypA'-gfp*[+] in the host,

yet no comparable effect was observed under two distinct culture conditions (**Fig. 6**). Given the

multiple cases in which gene expression in the host is distinct from that observed in culture, it

remains an intriguing question as to how the host influences bacterial c-di-GMP signaling and

the downstream pathways.

If the Low cdG strain thrives in the host, is c-di-GMP required for *V. fischeri* biology in the squid?

Given that there are another twenty-one DGCs and five putative bifunctional DGC/PDEs still

present in the Low cdG strain, our results do not preclude a requirement for c-di-GMP during

colonization. It remains possible that additional DGCs perform localized functions that were not

addressed in the current study and/or that DGCs play critical roles at later stages in the

colonization process.

Construction of multiple-gene deletions in *V. fischeri* is an effective tool to tackle gene

families. The recent development of a method for construction of serial deletions (Visick et al.,

2018) enabled the construction of multiple-mutant strains such as the Low cdG and High cdG

strains in this study. We have further extended the method to allow for detection of barcoded

deletions in competitive colonization experiments (Burgos et al., 2020). The work in this study

highlights the utility of such approaches to interrogate gene families. There are many instances

in which deletions of multiple genes could clarify the role of various biological processes.

Previously, we identified a role for chemotaxis toward chitin oligosaccharides as a key

developmental stage during squid colonization (Mandel et al., 2012). Efforts from our group and

others have studied 23 *V. fischeri* chemoreceptors through a combination of single and multiple

mutants (Bennett et al., 2020; Brennan et al., 2013a; Nikolakakis et al., 2015), but there are a

total of 43 methyl-accepting chemoreceptors encoded in the ES114 genome, and the

receptor(s) for chitin oligosaccharides remain elusive. Generation of multiple mutant strains has

been especially valuable to dissect gene families in *V. cholerae* (Hayes et al., 2017), and our

work suggests that a similar approach will be useful in *V. fischeri*.

Elevated c-di-GMP levels diminish, but do not eliminate, flagellar motility *in vivo*

The High cdG strain has a significant soft agar motility defect (**Fig. 1B**), and amotile strains are

at a significant colonization disadvantage compared to WT. Our competition of the High cdG

strain with the isogenic Δ*flrA* derivative revealed a 15-fold advantage for the former during squid

colonization (**Fig. 4**). Our interpretation of this result is that the High cdG strain retains the ability

to be motile in the host despite the elevated c-di-GMP levels. The magnitude of the competitive

advantage (15-fold) is diminished compared to that of the wild-type strain competing against a

Δ*flrA* strain (>1,000-fold) (Burgos et al., 2020; Millikan and Ruby, 2003). Therefore, it seems

likely that c-di-GMP does impact motility in the host, but not to the extent that it fully prohibits

colonization.

Cyclic di-GMP has a qualitative effect on the nature of the exopolysaccharide in animal

tissue. The increased number of aggregates observed in the High cdG strain in squid is, to our

knowledge, the first time such a phenotype has been observed (**Fig. 5**). Hypermotile mutants

were noted to exhibit more diffuse aggregates on the light organ surface, though these were

often smaller than their WT counterparts (Millikan and Ruby, 2002). Multiple studies have noted

larger *in vivo* aggregates upon overexpression of biofilm activator RscS or removal of biofilm

inhibitor BinK (Brooks and Mandel, 2016; Yip et al., 2006). In both cases, it was shown that Syp

was the relevant pathway induced, and the cells within the resulting larger aggregates were

functional to outcompete those from WT aggregates. The morphology and gene expression in

High cdG aggregates are significantly more complicated and implicate an interaction between

cellulose and Syp exopolysaccharides. We showed that cellulose on its own is not required for

colonization (**SFig. 3B**). However, the high c-di-GMP condition revealed a role for the *bcs*

(cellulose synthase) locus in regulating *syp* (mirroring results obtained in specific agar

conditions in (Dial et al., 2021b)) (**Fig. 6A, SFig. 4A**). Therefore, while cellulose production on

its own does not impact colonization, in the High cdG background it significantly impacts

expression of *syp*. In *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, roles for multiple exopolysaccharide systems in

biofilm formation have been explored, for example as the Psl and Pel systems have distinct but

also overlapping roles in attachment and biofilm formation (Colvin et al., 2012). In *V. fischeri*,

our work supports data in the literature that Syp is the key system for *in vivo* biofilm formation

and that the cellulose system is dispensable for host colonization. At the same time, this study

reveals a novel transcriptional interaction among two exopolysaccharide systems. This interplay

may impact the formation of multiple-exopolysaccharide biofilms during later stages of host

colonization or under environmental conditions that have yet to be explored, and points to a

novel regulatory mechanism that connects biofilm regulation in an animal host.

In conclusion, this work identified a role for c-di-GMP regulation during the initiation of a

mutualism, identified specific developmental stages in the host that were regulated by altered c-

di-GMP levels, and revealed a transcriptional interplay between multiple exopolysaccharide

systems that is apparent only in the host. Our study therefore lays the groundwork for future

investigations into how this widespread bacterial compound influences bacterial behaviors

beyond pathogenesis to impact microbiome behavior and interactions with symbiotic hosts.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bacterial strains, plasmids, and media

V. fischeri and *E. coli* strains used in this study are listed in Table 1. Plasmids used in this study

are listed in Table 2. *V. fischeri* strains were grown at 25°C in Luria-Bertani salt (LBS) medium

(per liter: 25 g Difco LB broth [BD], 10 g NaCl, 50 mL 1 M Tris buffer [pH 7.5]), or TBS (per liter:

10 g tryptone [VWR], 20 g NaCl, 35 mM $MgSO_4$ [where noted], 10 mM calcium chloride [where

noted], 50 mM 1 M Tris buffer [pH 7.5]) where noted. *E. coli* strains used for cloning and

conjugation were grown at 37°C in Luria-Bertani (LB) medium (per liter: 25 g Difco LB broth

[BD]). When needed, antibiotics were added to the media at the following concentrations:

kanamycin, 100 µg/mL for *V. fischeri* and 50 µg/mL for *E. coli*; chloramphenicol, 1 or 5 µg/mL for

V. fischeri and 25 µg/mL for *E. coli*; erythromycin, 2.5 or 5 µg/mL for *V. fischeri*; gentamicin, 2.5

µg/mL for *V. fischeri* and 5 µg/mL for *E. coli*; trimethoprim, 10 µg/mL for *V. fischeri*;

spectinomycin, 160 µg/mL in LB for *V. fischeri*. When needed, thymidine was added at 0.3 mM

for *E. coli*. Growth media was solidified using 1.5% agar when needed. For Congo red agar, 40

µg/mL Congo red and 15 µg/mL Coomassie blue were added to LBS. For Xgal agar, 20 µg/mL

Xgal were added to LBS. Plasmids were introduced from *E. coli* strains into *V. fischeri* strains

using standard techniques (Christensen and Visick, 2020; Stabb and Ruby, 2002)**.**

DNA synthesis and sequencing

Primers used in this study are listed in Table 3 and were synthesized by Integrated DNA

Technologies (Coralville, IA). Full inserts for cloned constructs and gene deletions were

confirmed by Sanger Sequencing at Functional Biosciences via UW-Madison. Sequence data

were analyzed using Benchling. PCR to amplify constructs for cloning and sequencing were

performed using Q5 High-Fidelity DNA polymerase (NEB), OneTaq DNA polymerase (NEB), or

MilliporeSigma Novagen KOD DNA Polymerase. Diagnostic PCR was performed using GoTaq

polymerase (Promega) or OneTaq DNA polymerase.

Construction of multiple gene deletion mutants

The multiple DGC and PDE mutants were constructed as follows. First, single gene deletions

were generated using PCR-SOE and *tfoX*-induced transformation methods previously described

(Pollack-Berti et al., 2010; Visick et al., 2018); some of these mutants have been previously

described (Christensen et al., 2020; Dial et al., 2021b). Briefly, regions flanking a gene of

interest were amplified using primers listed in Table 3 and joined to an antibiotic-resistance

cassette (e.g., Trim^R/Erm^R/Spec^R) flanked by Flp-recombinase target (FRT) sites that was

amplified with primers 2089 and 2090. The resulting fused PCR product was transformed into a

V. fischeri strain (generally ES114) that contained a TfoX-overproducing plasmid (pLostfoX or

pLostfoX-Kan plasmid (Brooks et al., 2014; Pollack-Berti et al., 2010). Selection for the

integrants was conducted on selective agar. The deletion/insertion was verified by PCR,

generally with the outside primers used to generate the flanking fragments. Next, strains with

multiple mutations were generated using genomic DNA from specific single mutants as follows.

A *tfoX*-overexpression plasmid was introduced into a mutant of interest and transformed with

genomic DNA containing a specific mutation, followed by selection for and verification of the

mutation as described above. The resulting strain carrying a *tfoX*-overexpression plasmid could

then serve as a recipient for the introduction of the next mutation. Because some mutants were

generated using the same antibiotic resistance cassette, as needed the Flp-encoding plasmid

pKV496 was introduced to induce the loss of the antibiotic resistance cassette and the retention

of a 112 bp FRT scar in the gene. Following strain construction, the integrity of each deletion

junction was verified with diagnostic primers listed in Table 3 to ensure that only recombination

at local FRT sites occurred. As noted in the strain list (Table 1), the final cassette often was left

in place. As an example, for Δ7PDE strain KV9601, the starting strain, KV8969 (Christensen et

al., 2020) (Δ*pdeV*::FRT) carrying *tfoX* plasmid pLostfoX-Kan was sequentially transformed with

genomic DNA carrying the Δ*VF_2480*::FRT-Erm, Δ*binA*::FRT-Trim, and Δ*VF_0087*::FRT-Spec

mutations. The cassettes were removed, and the *tfoX* plasmid reintroduced. Next, the

Δ*VF_1603*::FRT-Trim mutation was introduced, and the cassette removed. Finally, the

Δ*VF_A0506*::FRT-Trim mutation was introduced. Similar methods were used to generate

KV9599 (Δ7DGC) and the derivatives of KV9601 that carry mutations in *sypQ* or *bcsA* (the latter

of which was derived from strain KV8408, which carries a Tn mutation in *bcsA* (Visick et al.,

2018)) rather than a cassette as described above).

Construction of *bcsA*::Tn*erm* strain

Genomic DNA isolated from KV9767 (Δ6PDE *bcsA*::Tn*erm*) was introduced into MJM1100 via

transformation using pLostfoX-Kan (Brooks et al., 2014; Pollack-Berti et al., 2010). Mutant

candidates were selected using erythromycin and screened by PCR using RYI560 and RYI561

primers.

Construction of the *bcsQ'*-*gfp*⁺ transcriptional reporter plasmid pRYI063

The *bcsQ* promoter (*bcsQ* -444 to -29; P*bcsQ*) was amplified from MJM1100 genomic DNA

using RYI576 and RYI577 primers that added flanking XmaI and XbaI restriction sites. The

amplified P*bcsQ* and pTM267 were digested with XmaI and XbaI. Digested pTM267 was treated

with antarctic phosphatase. Digested P*bcsQ* was ligated into digested pTM267 using T4 DNA

ligase (NEB). The ligation reaction was transformed into chemically competent DH5α λpir.

Transformant candidates were selected using chloramphenicol and confirmed by Sanger

sequencing using the RYI526 primer.

Construction of the *VC1086* expression plasmid pRYI064

pVSV105 was amplified using RYI578 and RYI579 primers. *VC1086*, along with 101 bp

upstream and 99 bp downstream, was amplified from *Vibrio cholerae* C6706 str2 genomic DNA

using RYI580 and RYI581 primers. *VC1086* was assembled with pVSV105 by Gibson assembly

using NEBuilder HiFi DNA Assembly Master Mix (NEB). The Gibson reaction was transformed

into chemically competent DH5α λpir and transformant candidates were selected using

chloramphenicol. Plasmid was screened by PCR using M13 For. (-20) and M13 Rev. (-48)

primers. Plasmid was confirmed by Sanger sequencing using M13 For. (-20), M13 Rev. (-48),

RYI584, RYI587, RYI585, and RYI586 primers.

C-di-GMP quantification

Strains were streaked on LBS agar and incubated overnight at 25°C. Liquid LBS was inoculated

from single colonies and grown at 25°C overnight on a rotator. 8 µL of liquid culture were

spotted onto LBS agar and incubated at 25°C for 24 h. Spots were resuspended in 1 mL 70%

Instant Ocean (IO). OD_{600}, TurboRFP (555 nm excitation/585 nm emission), and AmCyan (453

nm excitation/486 nm emission) for each resuspended spot were measured in triplicate using

BioTek Synergy Neo2 plate reader. To compare c-di-GMP levels of strains in LBS vs. IO, 1 mL

of overnight LBS liquid cultures were pelleted at 8000 x *g* for 10 min, resuspended in 600 µL IO,

and both the IO and LBS samples were incubated at room temperature for 3 hr; LBS and IO

strains were pelleted at 8000 x *g* for 10 min, and resuspended in 600 µL IO. OD_{600}, TurboRFP,

and AmCyan for each sample were measured in triplicate as described above.

Motility assay

Strains were streaked on TBS and TBS-Mg^{2+} agar and incubated overnight at 25°C. Single

colonies were inoculated into TBS and TBS-Mg^{2+} soft agar (0.3% agar), respectively, and

incubated at 25°C for 5 h. Images of plates were taken using a Nikon D810 digital camera and

diameter of migration was measured using ImageJ software.

Congo red assay

Strains were streaked on LBS agar and incubated overnight at 25°C. Liquid LBS was inoculated

with single colonies and grown at 25°C overnight on a shaker. 4 µL spots of liquid culture were

spotted on LBS Congo red agar and incubated 24 h at 25°C. Spots were transferred onto white

printer paper (Visick et al., 2018) and images were scanned as TIFF files. Congo red binding

was quantified using ImageJ software.

syp and *bcs* **expression analysis** *in vitro*

Strains were streaked on LBS agar and incubated overnight at 25°C. Liquid media was

inoculated with single colonies and grown at 25°C for 24 hr on a shaker. 4 µL of overnight

cultures were spotted onto TBS or TBS-Ca^{2+} agar plates and grown at 25°C for 24 hr (Dial et al.,

2021b). Spots were imaged using the Zeiss Axio Zoom.v16 large-field 561 fluorescent stereo

microscope and fluorescence levels were measured using the Zen Blue Software polygon tool.

Growth curves

Strains were streaked on LBS agar and incubated overnight at 25°C. Liquid LBS was inoculated

with single colonies and grown at 25°C overnight on a rotator. Cultures were diluted 1:1000 in

LBS and grown at 25°C on a rotator to OD$_{600}$ ~0.5. Cultures were diluted 1:100 in LBS (n = 6

replicates per culture) in a 96-well microtiter plate. OD$_{600}$ was measured every 15 min for 20 hr

using BioTek Synergy Neo2 plate reader.

Squid single strain colonization assay

E. scolopes hatchlings were colonized with approximately 10^3-10^5 CFU/mL of bacteria

according to standard procedure (Naughton and Mandel, 2012). At 18 hpi and 48 hpi,

luminescence of hatchlings was measured using the Promega GloMax 20/20 luminometer and

euthanized by storage at -80°C. CFU counts per light organ were determined by plating

homogenized euthanized hatchlings and counting colonies.

Squid competitive colonization assay

Strains were grown overnight in liquid LBS at 25°C on a rotator. Strains were diluted 1:80 in

liquid LBS and grown to an OD_{600} of approximately 0.2. Strains were mixed in a 1:1 ratio and the

mixed cultures were used to inoculate *E. scolopes* hatchlings with approximately 10^3-10^4

CFU/mL. At 3 hpi, hatchlings were washed and transferred to 40 mL filter-sterilized Instant

Ocean (FSIO). Water was changed at 24 hpi and hatchlings were euthanized at 48 hpi by

storage at -80°C. Euthanized hatchlings were homogenized and plated on LBS-Xgal agar.

Competitive index of strains was measured by calculating the blue/white colony ratios as

previously described (Brooks et al., 2014; Naughton and Mandel, 2012).

Squid aggregation assays

Strains were grown overnight in liquid LBS at 25°C on a rotator. *E. scolopes* hatchlings were

inoculated with approximately 10^5-10^8 CFU/mL of bacteria. At 3 hpi, squid were anesthetized in

2% EtOH in FSIO and immediately dissected and imaged as described below, or were fixed in

4% paraformaldehyde in 1x mPBS (50 mM phosphate buffer, 0.45 M NaCl, pH 7.4) for

approximately 48 h. Fixed hatchlings were washed in 1x mPBS x4, dissected, and imaged using

the Zeiss Axio Zoom.v16 large-field 561 fluorescent stereo microscope. Aggregate area was

selected and fluorescence levels were measured using the Zen Blue Software polygon tool.

Squid with no aggregates were not included in the analyses.

Data analysis

Congo red binding was quantified using ImageJ by subtracting the WT gray value from the

mutant gray value and multiplying the value by -1. Fluorescence of strains in liquid culture were

measured using a BioTek Synergy Neo2 plate reader. Fluorescence of strains spotted on agar

plates and bacterial aggregates in the squid were measured using Zen Blue Software.

GraphPad Prism was used to generate graphs and conduct statistical analyses. Graphs were

further refined in Adobe Illustrator.

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563   **Table 1: Strains used in this study**
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Strain	Genotype	Source or Reference(s)
V. fischeri		
KV4674 = ES114	Natural isolate, squid light-organ (Visick Lab Stock)	Boettcher and Ruby, 1990; Mandel et al., 2008
KV8069	KV4674 / Δ*sypQ*::FRT-Cam	Tischler et al., 2018
KV8408	KV4674 / *bcsA*::Tn*erm*	Visick et al., 2018
KV8920	KV4674 / Δ*VF_1639*::FRT-Spec	Tischler et al., 2021
KV8932	KV4674 / Δ*VF_1200*::FRT-Cam	Dial et al., 2021a
KV8969	KV4674 / Δ*pdeV*::FRT	Christensen et al., 2020
KV9599 = Δ7DGC (Low cdG)	Δ*VF_1200*::FRT Δ*mifA*::FRT Δ*VF_1245*::FRT Δ(*VF_A0342-VF_A0343*)::FRT Δ*VF_1639*::FRT Δ*mifB*::FRT-Spec	This study

Strain	Genotype	Source or Reference(s)
KV9601 = Δ6PDE (High cdG)	Δ*pdeV*::FRT Δ*VF_2480*::FRT Δ*binA*::FRT Δ*VF_0087*::FRT Δ*VF_1603*::FRT Δ*VF_A0506*::FRT-Trim	This study
KV9767	KV9601 *bcsA*::Tn*erm*	This study
KV9769	KV9601 Δ*sypQ*::FRT-Cam	This study
MJM1100 = ES114	Natural isolate, squid light-organ (Mandel Lab Stock)	Boettcher and Ruby, 1990; Mandel et al., 2008
MJM1438	MJM1100 / pM1422	Brooks and Mandel, 2016
MJM4009	MJM1100 / pFY4535	This study
MJM4135	KV9599 / pFY4535	This study
MJM4137	KV9601 / pFY4535	This study
MJM4138	KV9560 / pFY4535	This study
MJM4139	KV9569 / pFY4535	This study
MJM4140	KV9599 / pVSV102	This study
MJM4142	KV9601 / pVSV102	This study
MJM4198	KV9599 / pM1422	This study
MJM4200	KV9601 / pM1422	This study
MJM4308	KV9767 / pFY4535	This study
MJM4310	KV9769 / pFY4535	This study
MJM4312	KV9767 / pVSV102	This study
MJM4314	KV9769 / pVSV102	This study
MJM4322	KV9767 / pM1422	This study
MJM4484	MJM1100 *bcsA*::Tn*erm*	This study
MJM4592	KV9601 / pVSV103	This study
MJM4593	MJM1100 / pRYI063	This study
MJM4594	KV9599 / pRYI063	This study
MJM4595	KV9601 / pRYI063	This study
MJM4596	KV9767 / pRYI063	This study

Strain	Genotype	Source or Reference(s)
MJM4597	MJM4484 / pRYI064	This study
MJM4603	KV9601 Δ*flrA*::*erm*-bar	This study
MJM4630	MJM1100 / pRYI064	This study
MJM4631	KV9601 / pRYI064	This study
MJM4632	MJM1100 / pFY4535; pRYI064	This study
MJM4634	KV9601 / pVSV105	This study
MJM4635	MJM1100 / pFY4535; pVSV105	This study
MJM4636	KV9601 / pFY4535; pVSV105	This study
E. coli		
KV6937	DH5α / pLostfox-Kan	Brooks et al., 2014
KV8052	π3813 / pKV496	Visick et al., 2018
MJM542	DH5α λpir / pVSV102	Brennan et al., 2013a
MJM552	DH5α λpir / pVSV103	Brennan et al., 2013a
MJM579	DH5α λpir / pVSV105	Brennan et al., 2013a
MJM1422	DH5α λpir / pM1422	Brooks and Mandel, 2016
CAB1516	DH5α λpir / pVSV105	Brennan et al., 2013a
MJM3999	NEB5α / pFY4535	Zamorano-Sánchez et al., 2019
MJM4580	DH5α λpir / pRYI063	This study
MJM4625	DH5α λpir / pRYI064	This study

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567 **Table 2: Plasmids used in this study**
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Plasmid	Description	Source or Reference(s)
pEVS104	Conjugal helper plasmid (Kan[R])	Stabb and Ruby, 2002
pFY4535	c-di-GMP reporter plasmid (Gent[R])	Zamorano-Sánchez et al., 2019
pJJC4	Vector carrying *tfoX* and *litR* genes (Cam[R])	Cohen et al., 2021

pKV494	Vector carrying FRT-Erm[R]	Visick et al., 2018
pKV495	Vector carrying FRT-Cam[R]	Visick et al., 2018
pKV496	pLostfoX-Kan backbone containing the FLP recombinase (Kan[R])	Visick et al., 2018
pKV521	Vector carrying FRT-Spec[R]	Visick et al., 2018
pLostfoX-Kan	TfoX induction vector for chitin-pathway transformation (Kan[R])	Brooks et al., 2014
pM1422	pTM267 *sypA'-gfp*[+] (Cam[R])	Brooks and Mandel, 2016
pMCL2	Vector carrying FRT-Trim[R]	Visick et al., 2018
pRYI063	pTM267 *bcsQ'-gfp*[+] (Cam[R])	This study
pRYI064	pVSV105 carrying *VC1086* (Cam[R])	This study
pVSV102	Constitutive GFP (Kan[R])	Dunn et al., 2006
pVSV103	Constitutive LacZ (Kan[R])	Dunn et al., 2006
pVSV105	Complementation vector (Cam[R])	Brennan et al., 2013a

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571 **Table 3: Primer List**
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Primer Name	Sequence (5'-3')	Notes
2089	CCATACTTAGTGCGGCCGCCTA	Forward primer to amplify antibiotic resistance cassette
2090	CCATGGCCTTCTAGGCCTATCC	Reverse cassette to amplify antibiotic resistance cassettes
2537	AGTGCCTCATATAAGGGTTAAG	Outside forward PCR primer for the Δ(*VF_A0342-A0343*) construct
2538	taggcggccgcactaagtatggTGTTACGTCAACAACCTTTTGG	Inside reverse PCR primer for the Δ(*VF_A0342-A0343*) construct
2543	ggataggcctagaaggccatggATGGCGGATACTGCATTGTATC	Inside forward PCR primer for the Δ(*VF_A0342-A0343*) construct
2544	CCAAATCGACAGAGATCCCC	Outside reverse PCR primer for the Δ(*VF_A0342-A0343*) construct
2593	GCCAATGCAGATATGACAAAGG	Outside forward PCR primer for the Δ*VF_1245* construct
2558	taggcggccgcactaagtatggTAAGCGCTGAAGACGAGATTG	Inside reverse PCR primer for the Δ*VF_1245* construct
2559	ggataggcctagaaggccatggATTGAACAAGCAGATAAGGCGC	Inside forward PCR primer for the Δ*VF_1245* construct

2560	GCATTCATTAGTGATGTGCGTG	Outside reverse PCR primer for the Δ*VF_1245* construct
2905	ggataggcctagaaggccatggCACTTCGTGTTAAAGAATTTATAC	Confirmation of Δ*VF_1639*
2564	CTAACCATTCATGCAAGAACC	Confirmation of Δ*VF_1639*
2577	TAAAGCAGCAGCTGAGCAAG	Confirmation of Δ*VF_1200*
2580	GTTTGGTGAGTACCAATCGC	Confirmation of Δ*VF_1200*
2585	CAAAGCATCAAAAACTCACTTGC	Outside forward PCR primer for the Δ*VF_0087* construct
2586	taggcggccgcactaagtatggAATGCTTTGAACACTAAATGAGAG	Inside reverse PCR primer for the Δ*VF_0087* construct
2587	ggataggcctagaaggccatggGGTGAGCCTAAATCGTTACAC	Inside forward PCR primer for the Δ*VF_0087* construct
2588	AACGAACGCCACAAACTCAC	Outside reverse PCR primer for the Δ*VF_0087* construct
944	CGCATACGTTTCTACCGTTTC	Confirmation of ΔVF_0087
945	CCAAGCTGAACGAAGTGGAC	Confirmation of ΔVF_0087
2598	CACTGATGGTTTAGAGCTTGG	Outside forward PCR primer for the Δ*mifA* construct
2599	taggcggccgcactaagtatggCAGCTCTGTTTGATATAGTGTCC	Inside reverse PCR primer for the Δ*mifA* construct
2600	ggataggcctagaaggccatggAGTGAAATGGATCAAATCGCATG	Inside forward PCR primer for the Δ*mifA* construct
2601	TTGATGCGAGATTGAAATACGC	Outside reverse PCR primer for the Δ*mifA* construct
2618	AGAGCAGCTCGTGAGTTATC	Confirmation of Δ*pdeV*
2621	CTTCCATAGTAAGAACCTCTGC	Confirmation of Δ*pdeV*
2648	GCATGTGTACCAAGTAAGCTTG	Outside forward PCR primer for the Δ*VF_A0506* construct
2649	taggcggccgcactaagtatggCATTGTCCATTCATAAGATGGGC	Inside reverse PCR primer for the Δ*VF_A0506* construct
2650	ggataggcctagaaggccatggCGAGGTCAACAATTTGACCC	Inside forward PCR primer for the Δ*VF_A0506* construct
2651	GGCATTGATGAGTCTTAAGCTG	Outside reverse PCR primer for the Δ*VF_A0506* construct
2674	CTAAAGTGCACAAACCATGGC	Outside forward PCR primer for the Δ*VF_1603* construct
2675	taggcggccgcactaagtatggGTCTAAGATTGGTTGACGAGC	Inside reverse PCR primer for the Δ*VF_1603* construct

2676	ggataggcctagaaggccatggTCTGCCAAATGGGTAGATGAG	Inside forward PCR primer for the Δ*VF_1603* construct
2677	TTATTGCAGGTGCTGCACTG	Outside reverse PCR primer for the Δ*VF_1603* construct
2678	TTGGCCACGGTGATCGAAAG	Outside forward PCR primer for the Δ*VF_2480* construct
2679	taggcggccgcactaagtatggTATCGGTTGTCTGGCAACG	Inside reverse PCR primer for the Δ*VF_2480* construct
2680	ggataggcctagaaggccatggACCTACCAAGAAGCGGTTAAG	Inside forward PCR primer for the Δ*VF_2480* construct
2681	TTGCTGCTAATCGTGACAGC	Outside reverse PCR primer for the Δ*VF_2480* construct
1152	CAGTAGAGTCACTACCGTTG	Outside forward PCR primer for the Δ*binA* construct
2714	taggcggccgcactaagtatggTTGTTCAGGAATGTCGATGGC	Inside reverse PCR primer for the Δ*binA* construct
2715	ggataggcctagaaggccatggCACTTTGTGTAATGGGCACTC	Inside forward PCR primer for the Δ*binA* construct, inside forward
2716	GCCTCTGGATTTGGATAGTG	Outside reverse PCR primer for the Δ*binA* construct
850	gggcccAGAATAAACTGCTACTATCT	Confirmation of Δ*binA*
445	AAAACAGTAATCAGGGTGGAACG	Confirmation of Δ*binA*
2753	ATAGATGGTAAAGCGTCATACC	Outside forward PCR primer for the Δ*mifB* construct
2754	taggcggccgcactaagtatggACGTAAGCTCACATATGGGC	Inside reverse PCR primer for the Δ*mifB* construct
2755	ggataggcctagaaggccatggTTTACCGTTGCTGATGAACATATG	Inside forward PCR primer for the Δ*mifB* construct
2756	CAAACCATTGAACGCCATGATC	Outside reverse PCR primer for the Δ*mifB* construct
M13 For. (-20)	GTAAAACGACGGCCAGT	For amplification of gene inserts in pVSV105
M13 Rev. (-48)	AGCGGATAACAATTTCACACAGG	For amplification of gene inserts in pVSV105
RYI526	GTGCCCATTAACATCACCATCTAATTCA	Primer to confirm replacement of Kan^R cassette with promoter of choice
RYI560	GATATCAATGAGGTAATGCTTTTATTTTTTGCGAA	Forward primer to confirm transposon insertion in *bcsA*
RYI561	GCATAATTCTTACTTGGTTGCATGGTTTG	Reverse primer to confirm transposon insertion in *bcsA*
RYI576	gctaCCCGGGgggtttgtggcatgacgatcact	Forward primer to amplify P*bcsQ* with XmaI restriction site

RYI577	cacgTCTAGAactaactttattctccaatgtattaactacac attttgg	Reverse primer to amplify P*bcsQ* with XbaI restriction site
RYI578	CAGGTCGACTCTAGAGGATCCCC	Forward primer to linearize pVSV105 for Gibson assembly
RYI579	CAGGCATGCAAGCTTGAGTATTCTAT	Reverse primer to linearize pVSV105 for Gibson assembly
RYI580	tactcaagcttgcatgcctgGAAGAACACCATGGCA AAATAAAGCTC	Forward primer to amplify *VC1086* with 101 bp upstream for Gibson assembly with pVSV105
RYI581	gatcctctagagtcgacctgCGGTTAAGCGCTTTCA AAATATCGTTTTC	Reverse primer to amplify *VC1086* with 99 bp downstream for Gibson assembly with pVSV105
RYI584	GGTGATAGAGATTAATCGCCGCTATCC	Sequencing primer for *VC_1086*
RYI585	GATAGCTTTCAGAACCCAGCACCT	Sequencing primer for *VC_1086*
RYI586	GTTACTGAGCGTCGCGGAGG	Sequencing primer for *VC_1086*
RYI587	TTATGGAGATAGTTTGTTATGGAGATAGTT CAGGA	Sequencing primer for *VC_1086*

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