1 ***Euprymna berryi* as a comparative model host for *Vibrio fischeri* light organ symbiosis**
2

3 Avery M. Imes[1,2], Morgan N. Pavelsky[3], Klodia Badal[3], Derrick L. Kamp[4], John L. Briseño[4],
4 Taylor Sakmar[5], Miranda A. Vogt[5], Spencer V. Nyholm[4], Elizabeth A. C. Heath-Heckman[6], Bret
5 Grasse[5], Alecia N. Septer[3], Mark J. Mandel[1,2],*
6
[1] Department of Medical Microbiology and Immunology, University of Wisconsin-Madison,
Madison, WI USA
[2] Genetics Training Program, University of Wisconsin-Madison, Madison, WI USA
[3] Department of Earth, Marine & Environmental Sciences, University of North Carolina, Chapel
Hill, NC USA
[4] Department of Molecular and Cell Biology, University of Connecticut, Storrs, CT USA
[5] Eugene Bell Center, Marine Biological Laboratory, Woods Hole, MA USA
[6] Department of Integrative Biology, Michigan State University, East Lansing, MI USA
15

16 Running Title: *Euprymna berryi* light organ colonization
17
18 Keywords: bobtail squid; *Aliivibrio fischeri*; biofilm; motility; Type 6 Secretion System; apoptosis;
19 laboratory models
20

21 * Correspondence to:
22
Mark J. Mandel
University of Wisconsin-Madison
Department of Medical Microbiology and Immunology
1550 Linden Drive
Madison, WI 53706
Phone: (608) 261-1170
Fax: (608) 262-8418
Email: mmandel@wisc.edu

ABSTRACT

Functional studies of host-microbe interactions benefit from natural model systems that enable exploration of molecular mechanisms at the host-microbe interface. Bioluminescent *Vibrio fischeri* colonize the light organ of the Hawaiian bobtail squid, *Euprymna scolopes*, and this binary model has enabled advances in understanding host-microbe communication, colonization specificity, *in vivo* biofilms, intraspecific competition, and quorum sensing. The hummingbird bobtail squid, *Euprymna berryi,* can be generationally bred and maintained in lab settings and has had multiple genes deleted by CRISPR approaches. The prospect of expanding the utility of the light organ model system by producing multigenerational host lines led us to determine the extent to which the *E. berryi* light organ symbiosis parallels known processes in *E. scolopes*. However, the nature of the *E. berryi* light organ, including its microbial constituency and specificity for microbial partners, have not been examined. In this report, we isolate bacteria from *E. berryi* animals and tank water. Assays of bacterial behaviors required in the host, as well as host responses to bacterial colonization, illustrate largely parallel phenotypes in *E. berryi* and *E. scolopes* hatchlings. This study reveals *E. berryi* to be a valuable comparative model to complement studies in *E. scolopes*.

IMPORTANCE

Microbiome studies have been substantially advanced by model systems that enable functional interrogation of the roles of the partners and the molecular communication between those partners. The *Euprymna scolopes-Vibrio fischeri* system has contributed foundational knowledge, revealing key roles for bacterial quorum sensing broadly and in animal hosts, for bacteria in stimulating animal development, for bacterial motility in accessing host sites, and for *in vivo* biofilm formation in development and specificity of an animal's microbiome. *Euprymna berryi* is a second bobtail squid host, and one that has recently been shown to be robust to laboratory husbandry and amenable to gene knockout. This study identifies *E. berryi* as a strong symbiosis model host due to features that are conserved with those of *E. scolopes*, which will enable extension of functional studies in bobtail squid symbioses.

INTRODUCTION

Symbiotic microbes play critical roles in animal development, immunity, and health. Invertebrate
animal models have played foundational roles in elucidating the mechanisms by which
microbiomes are established and maintained, and the bobtail squid-*Vibrio fischeri* system has
been extensively studied with regard to host, symbiont, and the interaction between the two (1–
5). Many bobtail squid species harbor a light-emitting organ that is colonized by luminescent
bacteria, the light from which camouflages the host's silhouette as the animal forages under
moonlight (6, 7). During each generation, squid hatch aposymbiotically and acquire their
symbiotic bacteria from the seawater. Over the course of hours, the colonization initiation
process selects for the partner symbionts. Host-microbe communication continues into the
persistence phase as the host provides nutrients to the bacteria, which in turn produce light for
the host. A majority of symbionts are expelled each day and the remaining bacteria continue on
a diel cycle of regrowth and luminescence (8, 9).
71
Most bobtail squid studies have focused on the Hawaiian bobtail squid, *Euprymna scolopes*.
Studies in *E. scolopes* have revealed bacterial factors that are required for colonization initiation
(10, 11), including flagellar motility (12, 13) and symbiotic biofilm formation (14–16).
Luminescence, which is produced at high cell density in response to quorum sensing, is
required during the persistence phase; while dark mutants can colonize successfully at 24 h,
beginning at 48 h they exhibit a defect and are not detectable after a few weeks (17–19). Work
in *E. scolopes* has additionally revealed principles regarding host responses to bacterial
colonization. Ciliated epithelial appendages that recruit the symbionts undergo apoptosis and
regression in response to release of the bacterial peptidoglycan fragment tracheal cytotoxin
(TCT), with apoptotic nuclei detectable as early as 24 h post infection (20–22). Additionally, TCT
triggers the migration of macrophage-like hemocytes into the light organ, where the hemocytes
begin a light organ maturation process that results in the stable tolerance of the *V. fischeri*
symbiont (23–25). As a result of the cited studies and many others, it is clear that there is a rich
dialogue between host and microbe during the colonization process (26).
86
The availability of multiple bacterial strains has facilitated comparative approaches that have
yielded a broad understanding of microbiome dynamics and evolution. Interbacterial competition
takes place inside the host, as revealed from the function of a Type 6 Secretion System on
chromosome II (T6SS2) that is present in approximately half of sequenced *V. fischeri* strains
and enables those strains to kill competitors that lack the system (27, 28). Comparisons
between fish and squid symbionts revealed differential biofilm regulation as a key basis for host
colonization specificity in the North Pacific Ocean (29). At the same time, a variety of
cephalopod models have been cultivated both within and outside the squid-Vibrio field; *E.
scolopes* have been used to build cephalopod reference genomes (30, 31), multiple *Euprymna*
species have revealed novel biology in neuroscience (32, 33), and a broad range of
cephalopods have been used to study transcriptome plasticity (34). In contrast to the diversity of
symbiont strains that are gaining traction for functional studies, most host work continues in *E.
scolopes*. This is due to its substantial literature, ease of collection in the United States, and that
it lays large clutches of eggs to support experimentation. While significant work has been
conducted in other bobtail squid hosts, most notably *Euprymna tasmanica* (though also *Sepiola*

robusta and others), no comparative host has offered scientific or husbandry advantages that
have led to widespread adoption (35–37).
104
Euprymna berryi, the hummingbird bobtail squid, has been suggested as a cultivable model that
could be applied for symbiosis studies (38). Recent efforts have expanded the aquaculture
viability of valuable cephalopod models including *E. berryi* (38). Previous work culturing *E. berryi*
noted similarity between *E. berryi* and *E. scolopes* and suggested that *E. berryi* could make a
promising model system due to higher survivorship and fecundity in aquaculture compared to *E.*
scolopes (38). The first CRISPR-mediated knockouts in bobtail squids were performed in *E.*
berryi to remove pigmentation from the organism, demonstrating the ability to genetically
manipulate *E. berryi* (39). Therefore, the focus of this study is to evaluate the suitability of lab-
raised *E. berryi* for mechanistic studies in an animal-microbe symbiosis.

RESULTS

***Euprymna berryi* bobtail squid harbor luminescent bacteria in a light organ**. Given the
prominence of *E. scolopes* as a model host for light organ symbioses, we directly compared the
adult and hatchling *E. berryi* animals with their *E. scolopes* counterparts. While similar in overall
appearance, the *E. berryi* animals were larger than the *E. scolopes* animals (**Fig. 1, Fig. S1**),
and the *E. berryi* animals were darker brown in color compared to *E. scolopes* adults when the
animals were placed on the same substrate. The eggs laid by *E. berryi* animals were also
darker and had more defined structures outside of the eggs. However, the hatchling animals of
both species were similar in color, with the *E. berryi* hatchlings notably larger (**Fig. 1**).
123
We used GFP-expressing *V. fischeri* strains as biological probes to detect a possible light organ
in *E. berryi.* The strains used included the *E. scolopes* light organ isolate ES114 and the *E.*
berryi isolate BW2 that we describe in detail later. *E. berryi* were reported to contain a luminous
organ when first identified (40), so we asked whether this organ was colonized by
bioluminescent bacteria as observed in closely related *Euprymna* species. We introduced the
bacteria to water containing aposymbiotic *E. berryi* hatchlings, washed the hatchlings at 3 and
24 h, and assayed luminescence of the animals at 48 h. All animals were luminous and were
fixed for imaging. Confocal imaging of the animals revealed that the bacteria of both strains
were localized to the light organ in the mantle cavity in a structure that strongly resembled the
light organ of *E. scolopes* (41). Representative images from BW2 are presented in Fig. 2 and
quantification of the distribution of both strains are presented in Fig. S2. The bilobed organ of *E.*
berryi contains three crypts on each side, with a dedicated exterior pore connecting to each
crypt. The posterior pore leads to Crypt 2 (c2), middle pore to c1, and anterior pore to c3 (Fig.
2), which matches the morphology observed in *E. scolopes* (41). The relative crypt size is
conserved with *E. scolopes*, with c1 as the dominant crypt, and c2 as the next smallest followed
by c3 (Fig. S2). c1 contains approximately 70% of the bacteria by volume (Fig. S2).
Furthermore, we observed antechambers and host anatomical bottleneck structures that were
first described in *E. scolopes* (Fig. 2C) (41). Overall, imaging suggested strong conservation of
light organ structures between *E. scolopes* and *E. berryi*.
143

V. fischeri and other γ-proteobacteria were isolated from _E. berryi_ adult tank water and
colonized hatchlings. We sought to identify bacterial strains that colonize the _E. berryi_ light
organ. We noticed that _E. berryi_ raised with access to water pumped in from Eel Pond (Woods
Hole, MA, USA) readily became luminous. Therefore, we used bacteria isolated from these
luminous _E. berryi_ hatchlings as a source for putative _E. berryi_ colonizing strains. As a second
source for bacterial isolates, we hypothesized that _E. berryi_ may expel bacteria in a rhythmic
daily cycle similar to _E. scolopes_ (9, 23, 42), so we isolated bacteria from the tank water of wild-
caught _E. berryi_ adult animals. In both cases, we isolated bacteria on LBS agar, streak-purified
different colony morphologies, and conducted secondary screening for isolates that were
detected as luminous in liquid LBS medium. We identified nine (9) distinct strains from the adult
"_berryi_ water" (BW) sampling: two of these isolates represented colony types that were highly
abundant in our sampling yet minimally luminous (BW4, BW8), while the other seven were
luminous. From the "_berryi_ hatchling" (BH) sampling, we identified two (2) strains, both of which
were luminous. For each strain above, we grew a culture in LBS media, obtained whole genome
Nanopore sequencing, and determined the likely species by FastANI analysis (43). This
analysis identified three _V. fischeri_ strains (BH2, BW2, BW9), 7 other _Vibrio spp._ isolates, and
one _Pseudoalteromonas flavipulchra_. Figure 3 lists the isolates and shows specific
luminescence for each strain when grown in liquid culture.

E. berryi is colonized specifically by _V. fischeri_ bacteria. The _E. scolopes_ light organ is
colonized only by _V. fischeri_ bacteria, yet we isolated a number of bacterial species from the
water and hatchlings. We therefore asked whether _E. berryi_ was more permissive to
colonization. We conducted standard 3 h inoculation, 48 h colonization assays that are well-
established for _E. scolopes_ and that we adapted for _E. berryi_ (44). The key adjustments needed
from our published protocol were to accommodate the larger animal size. Specifically, we
enabled a larger opening into the transfer pipet by using a razor blade to cut the stem of the
transfer pipet closer to the bulb, where the stem diameter is larger, and we transferred the
animals at a slower pace, which we found necessary with the larger bodies.

We found that our _E. berryi_-isolated _V. fischeri_ strains generally colonized _E. berryi_ hatchlings,
with BW9 as the only strain showing slightly reduced CFU counts (Fig. 4A). In contrast, the
other species isolated from _E. berryi_ water were unable to colonize, as was the _V. campbellii_
isolate BH1 isolated from a hatchling. These colonization patterns match what has been
reported for colonization of non-_V. fischeri_ strains in _E. scolopes_ (45, 46).

Our standard method of assaying colonization includes homogenization of thawed frozen whole
animals, as symbionts in the light organ are osmotically protected from freezing while other
bacteria in the animal are generally at low abundance and do not survive freezing well.
However, to gain additional precision into the patterns observed in Figure 4, we dissected light
organs from squid inoculated with a subset of the strains. Those data, shown in Fig. S3A,
demonstrate robust light organ colonization for the new _V. fischeri_ strains, with the same relative
abundance of symbionts across the three samples. Non-_V. fischeri_ strains BW1 and BW4 show
essentially no light organ colonization. Fish _V. fischeri_ isolates CG101 and MJ11 demonstrate
either no colonization or low colonization, consistent with their data from the whole animal

assay. Additionally, we inoculated hatchlings with GFP-expressing derivatives of the same
strains to visualize bacterial localization. We observed consistent presence of the new *V.*
fischeri strains BH2, BW2 and BW9 in the light organ, but did not detect CG101, MJ11, BW1 or
BW4 in the light organ (Fig. S3B). Overall, these data support a clear specificity for *V. fischeri*,
and squid isolates of *V. fischeri*, in colonization of the *E. berryi* light organ.

V. fischeri isolated from squid light organs in the North Pacific Ocean and the Mediterranean
Sea that can robustly colonize *E. scolopes* are similarly able to colonize *E. berryi* (Fig. 4A). This
includes *V. fischeri* from *E. scolopes, Euprymna morsei, Sepiola robusta, and Sepiola affinis*.

The only divergence between colonization patterns in *E. scolopes* and those in *E. berryi* were
noted for the fish isolates MJ11 and CG101. These strains do not robustly colonize the
Hawaiian host (29, 47, 48), yet for both strains we observed a bimodal colonization pattern of *E.*
berryi (Fig. 4A). In both cases, most animals had either undetectable levels of bacteria or $>10^3$
CFU per squid. While in the case of MJ11, the bimodality partitioned by experiment, in neither
case did it correlate with the concentration of bacteria in the inoculum (Fig. 4A, Fig. S4).

The above results suggest that most colonization patterns for *E. scolopes* strains are conserved
during colonization in *E. berryi*. We therefore asked whether the new *V. fischeri* isolates from *E.*
berryi were capable of colonizing *E. scolopes* squid. Not all *V. fischeri* can colonize *E. scolopes*,
although squid isolates of *V. fischeri* (including those from other bobtail squid species) are
typically able to colonize *E. scolopes* (29, 47, 49, 50). All three of the new *V. fischeri* strains
isolated from *E. berryi* samples, BW2, BW9, and BH2, consistently colonized *E. scolopes* squid
(Fig. S5).

Bacterial factors required for host colonization in *E. scolopes* are similarly required for
colonization of *E. berryi*. Decades of work in *E. scolopes* have defined bacterial colonization
factors (10, 11, 13–15, 51–53). If the process of colonization is conserved in *E. berryi*, then a
specific prediction is that mutants that fail to undergo key steps in the initiation or persistence of
the symbiosis will exhibit colonization defects in *E. berryi*. To test this hypothesis, we examined
ES114 mutants with initiation defects in the Syp biofilm (Δ*sypF*) or in flagellar motility (Δ*flrA*) and
determined their ability to colonize *E. berryi*. Both genes are required for colonization of *E.*
scolopes (13, 15, 51, 53). Both strains exhibited significant colonization defects with a majority
of animals completely uncolonized (Fig. 5). In *E. scolopes*, non-luminescent mutants such as
Δ*luxCDABEG* (Δ*lux*) are known to colonize the light organ but fail to persist. We observed a
similar defect in *E. berryi*, with no significant defect at 24 h post inoculation (hpi), but with a
highly significant defect and 4-fold fewer bacteria at 48 hpi (Fig. 5). This pattern matches that
observed in *E. scolopes,* wherein the Δ*lux* mutant first exhibits its persistence defect at 48 hpi
and is eventually lost from the *E. scolopes* light organ over 3-4 weeks (17–19). These data
together argue that colonization in *E. berryi* bears large parallels to that which occurs in *E.*
scolopes, especially with regard to specificity for bacterial strains and genetic requirements
during symbiont entry and establishment in the host.

The E. berryi **appendages exhibit developmental phenotypes cued by bacterial**
colonization. In *E. scolopes*, colonization by the *V. fischeri* symbiont triggers irreversible host
morphological changes, particularly the dramatic apoptosis of the light organ appendages (21).
In *E. scolopes,* colonized squid have detectable TUNEL staining in the anterior appendage at 24
hpi as a result of DNA fragmentation in apoptotic cells. To determine if similar host development
is triggered by symbiotic colonization in *E. berryi*, we used a TUNEL assay. In *E. berryi,* BW9
induced the highest TUNEL count, followed by BH2 (Fig. 6A). Another measure for host
development stimulated by symbiont colonization is hemocyte trafficking into the light organ
appendages, which is elevated at 24 hpi in *E. scolopes* and minimal in aposymbiotic animals.
Among the strains tested, BW9 and BH2 again promoted the strongest responses but with a
wide range of variability across animals in all groups (Fig. 6B). BW2 was the only strain that did
not yield statistically significant hemocyte trafficking (Fig. 6B). Overall, these results point to
conserved host responses in *E. berryi* compared to *E. scolopes*, and with BH2 and BW9 (along
with ES114) able to elicit both TUNEL staining and hemocyte trafficking in *E. berryi*.
245
Type 6 secretion-mediated competition operates in the *E. berryi* host. Among the
competitive mechanisms influencing squid colonization, some *V. fischeri* strains are known to
use a strain-specific type VI secretion system found on chromosome II (T6SS2), which confers
a contact-dependent ability to kill off competitive strains (27). We aimed to determine if this
mechanism for interbacterial competition operates and influences colonization of *E. berryi*. All
three *V. fischeri* isolates from *E. berryi* encode T6SS2. To determine if the system was
functional, we co-incubated the isolates with GFP-expressing ES114. The control strain for this
assay, the *E. scolopes* isolate ES401, kills the target ES114-GFP and results in no detectable
fluorescence from the resulting colony spot. In the absence of the structural protein TssF,
T6SS2 activity is prevented and ES114-GFP is able to grow and produce fluorescence. This
phenotype was mirrored in the isolates from *E. berryi*: all three strains exhibited functional
T6SS2 activity, and this activity was removed in BW2 by mutation of *tssF* (Fig. 7A). A halo effect
seen in BW2—i.e., the green ring around the edge of the colony spot—has been previously
observed in other T6SS2[+] strains and sometimes occurs when survivors at the edge of the
colony escape T6SS-mediated killing. Moreover, when BW2-derived strains expressed a GFP-
tagged component of the sheath protein (VipA) that is required for assembly of the T6SS
injection apparatus, sheaths were observed in BW2 as puncta near the edges of cells (Fig. 7B).
However, for the *tssF* mutant that lacks the ability to make T6SS2 sheaths, sheaths were not
observed, with the VipA-GFP protein instead forming a homogeneous distribution of the GFP
across the cell (Fig. 7B) and results in a non-killing phenotype (Fig. 7AB).
266
To ask whether T6SS-mediated competition occurs in *E. berryi* juveniles, as it does in *E.*
scolopes (54), we conducted competition assays within the squid host. Both ES401 and its non-
killing *tssF* derivative are able to consistently colonize *E. berryi* in single-strain colonizations
(Fig. 7C). To determine if T6SS2 competition functions in the *E. berryi* host, we used a
competitive colonization assay between ES401 and ES114, where strains are differentially
fluorescently labeled and co-inoculated into squid hatchlings. ES401 exhibited a 60-fold
competitive colonization advantage over ES114 (Fig. 7D; comparing the *tssF*[+]/*tssF*[−] results).

This result confirmed that T6SS2 in the *V. fischeri* isolates from *E. berryi* is functional and that
the system provides a competitive advantage in colonization in *E. berryi*.

DISCUSSION

277
Overall, this work establishes *E. berryi* as a culturable model for bobtail squid-*V. fischeri*
symbiosis studies. We demonstrate that for the light organ symbiosis, the host anatomy, host-
microbe specificity, bacterial gene requirements, interbacterial competition, and host responses
to symbiosis broadly mirror those processes observed in the well-studied *E. scolopes* model.
Recent work in wild-caught *E. berryi* characterized the microbial community in the female
accessory nidamental gland (ANG), a reproductive organ in which bacteria provide key
defensive roles including provisioning antifungal compounds into the jelly coat of the developing
squid eggs (55–58). Therefore, the ability to use cultured animals for bobtail squid symbiosis
studies, in a host species in which it was recently shown that gene knockouts could be
conducted (39), opens additional resources to investigate how animal microbiomes are
established across both the light organ and ANG microbiomes.
289
One area in which we observed a variable response in *E. berryi* was in the host responses to
symbiotic colonization. Although all strains tested exhibited a significant response in the TUNEL
assay, the overall response was weak compared to *E. scolopes*, which averages around 40
TUNEL+ cells per anterior appendage in colonized animals at the 24 hpi time point (22). Only
strain BW9 exhibited median counts of >20 per appendage (Fig. 6A). Similarly, the average
hemocyte count induced by ES114 has been previously observed to be higher in *E. scolopes*
than we observed in Fig. 6B*,* averaging 15 per anterior appendage (59). One possibility is that
the host responses in *E. berryi* are qualitatively similar but quantitatively distinct from *E.*
scolopes. Another possibility is that the timeline for the response in *E. berryi* differs from that in
E. scolopes. A future study could examine this question by comparing the responses side-by-
side, and carrying out the timeline to 5-7 d. A general limitation of this study is that most work
was examined only to the 48 h timepoint, so differences at later times are possible and were not
examined in this initial investigation.
303
We expect that the non-*V. fischeri* strains isolated from the *E. berryi* water and hatchlings were
not light organ symbionts, but instead were environmental samples. We did not conduct light
organ dissections for the BH samples, so bacteria present in other tissues could have been
isolated if they were osmotically protected during freezing. Given that the non-*V. fischeri* strains
failed to colonize aposymbiotic *E. berryi* hatchlings when presented at >10^3 CFU/ml in
monoassociation suggests that they are not able to colonize the light organ. The *V. fischeri*
isolates BH2, BW2, and BW9 are clearly capable of colonizing the bobtail squid light organs,
both for *E. berryi* and *E. scolopes*, and with BW2 we confirm specific light organ colonization via
direct imaging (Fig. 2). These *V. fischeri* isolates may have originated from the adult *E. berryi* in
the aquaculture system or from the Atlantic Ocean water feeding the tank systems. Strain BH2
colonizes *E. berryi* consistently across replicates (Fig. 4) and also stimulates significant host
responses in both assays tested (Fig. 6), suggesting that it may be a natural symbiont and/or

share characteristics with natural *E. berryi* symbionts. When it is possible to isolate symbionts
from wild *E. berryi* animals, it would be valuable to address the phylogenetic distribution and
phenotypes of those symbionts.
319
In summary, we describe *E. berryi* as a model for *V. fischeri* colonization and light organ
symbiosis. This work therefore will enable use of tools developed for *E. berryi* to be applied for
symbiosis studies and will allow for comparative studies between bobtail squid hosts.

MATERIALS AND METHODS
Animal comparison
Eggs/embryos. *Euprymna* spp. eggs were imaged using a Nikon D810 digital camera at
University of Wisconsin-Madison and measured using FIJI (60). *Euprymna* spp. hatchlings were
imaged within 24 hours post-hatching using a Leica M60 stereomicroscope with Leica FireCam
software. **Adults.** Adult *E. berryi* (120-178 d post-hatching) were raised at Woods Hole Marine
Biological Laboratory and photographed using an iPad 9th generation (model number
MK2K3LL/A). Adult *E. scolopes* were collected from Oahu, Hawaii, and housed in an
aquaculture facility for 61 d. Artificial seawater was maintained at a salinity of 34-35 ppt by
addition of Instant Ocean (Spectrum Brands, Blacksburg, VA) to RO water. Animals were
photographed using a Nikon D810 digital camera. Mantle lengths were measured using FIJI
(60). A non-parametric one-way ANOVA (Kruskal-Wallis) using Dunn's multiple comparisons
test was used to compare the mantle lengths between males and females of each species.
336
Bacterial strains and media
Bacterial strains used in this study are listed in Table 1. All bacteria except for *E. coli* were
grown in Lysogeny broth salt (LBS) medium at 25°C (25 g Difco LB broth [BD], 10 g NaCl, and
50 mL 1 M Tris buffer [pH 7.5] per liter). An *E. coli* strain, used as the conjugation donor for the
GFP plasmid, was grown in Lysogeny broth (LB) medium at 37°C (25 g Difco LB broth [BD] per
liter). When required, kanamycin was added to a final concentration of 100 µg/ml (*V. fischeri*) or
50 µg/ml (*E. coli*), and erythromycin to 5 µg/ml (*V. fischeri*). *E. coli* strains requiring erythromycin
were grown in Brain-Heart Infusion (BHI) medium at 37°C (37 g BBL BHI powder [BD] per liter)
with 150 µg/ml. Growth media was solidified to 1.5% agar as needed by adding 15 g Bacto agar
(BD) per liter.
347
Squid monocolonizations
Hatchling squid, either *E. scolopes* or *E. berryi*, were colonized according to our previously
described protocol (44) and summarized below. Bacterial strains were grown overnight with
aeration in LBS at 25°C. Cultures were diluted 1:80 in LBS and subcultured until an approximate
OD_{600} of 0.3. This culture was used to inoculate 40 mL of artificial seawater containing squid
hatchlings, with the inoculum normalized to approximately 5 x 10^3 CFU/mL. Squid remained in
the inoculum water for 3 h at room temperature. Squid were then washed in filter-sterilized
Instant Ocean (FSIO) and transferred to individual vials containing 4 mL FSIO each. Squid were
transferred to fresh FSIO at 24 hpi. At 46-48 hpi, individual squid were measured for
luminescence using a Promega GloMax 20/20 luminometer before euthanasia via freezing. CFU

per squid was enumerated as described, wherein euthanized squid were homogenized,
dilutions were plated on LBS agar, and total light organ counts were calculated from the count
and proportion of colonies that were plated (44). When assaying colonization-deficient mutants,
some squid in the Δ*lux* treatment group (*n* = 9) were euthanized and frozen at 24 hpi. Mutant
strain CFU counts were compared to the ES114 treatment group using a Kruskal-Wallis with
Dunn's multiple comparisons test.
364
365 For light organ dissections in Fig. 3S, the above colonization protocol was adapted. At 46-48
366 hpi, squid were anesthetized in FSIO containing 2% ethanol and pithed. Animals were placed
367 ventral side up and the light organ was dissected out with minimal surrounding tissue. The light
368 organs for individual animals were then plated and enumerated as described above.
369
Light organ imaging
E. berryi hatchlings were colonized as described above. At 48 hpi, animals were fixed in 4%
paraformaldehyde in 1X mPBS (10 mL DI water, 10 mL 16% paraformaldehyde, and 20 mL 2x
mPBS [marine phosphate-buffered saline: 50 mM phosphate buffer and 0.45 M NaCl [pH 7.4]).
Animals remained in fixative for 48 h at 4°C. Squid were then washed 4 times for 15 minutes
each at 4°C with 1X mPBS. Mantles and funnels of fixed squid were dissected away to expose
the light organs of symbiotic animals. Samples were stained overnight in the dark in a
permeabilization solution containing mPBS + 0.5% Triton-X 100. An overnight staining of DAPI
(5 µg/µL) and Alexa647-conjugated phalloidin (25 µg/µL) was used to stain host nuclei and host
F-actin, respectively. The excess stain was removed with 3 washes of mPBS. The tissues were
immersed in a mPBS + 90% glycerol solution and allowed to equilibrate overnight in the dark at
4°C. Samples were transferred to 3 mm depression well slides (United Scientific), mounted
ventral side facing up in the mPBS + 90% glycerol solution, and overlaid with a No. 1.5
coverslip.
384
Qualitative sample images were acquired on a Nikon AXR confocal microscope, illuminated with
405-, 488- and 647-nm lasers and imaged with either a 10X 0.45 NA or 20X 0.80 NA PLAN
Apochromat objective. To reconstruct crypts in 3D and determine the volume occupied by
bacteria, 150 µm deep Z-stacks of one lobe of each animal (*n* = 10) were acquired. The 20X
0.80 NA PLAN Apochromat objective was used, and the laser power and gain were adjusted at
different focal depths using the Z Intensity Correction function (NIS Elements; Nikon) to
normalize signal from the GFP-expressing bacteria across all Z-positions. Image stacks were
imported to and analyzed in arivis Pro (Zeiss), where the 3D crypts were reconstructed via
threshold segmentation of the GFP channel. The resulting segmented 3D objects were used to
determine crypt volume.
395
For imaging in Fig. S3, *E. berryi* hatchlings were colonized as described above. At 48 hpi,
animals were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde in 1X mPBS. Animals remained in fixative for 24 h
at 4°C. Squid were then washed 3 times for 30 minutes at 4°C with 1X mPBS. Mantles were
dissected away and confirmed to have detectable GFP on the removed tissue using Zeiss Axio
Zoom.V16 large-field fluorescent stereomicroscope. Samples were stained overnight in the dark
at 4°C in a permeabilization solution containing mPBS + 0.5% Triton-X 100. An overnight

staining of TO-PRO-3 (1 µM) was used to stain host nuclei. Excess stain was removed by
washing 3 times with 1X mPBS. Samples were stored overnight at 4°C in the dark in mPBS.
Samples were transferred to Corning microscope slides, mounted ventral side facing up in
Vectashield Plus antifade mounting media, and overlaid with a No. 1.5 coverslip. Qualitative
sample images were acquired on a Zeiss LSM 800 confocal microscope using Airyscan,
illuminated with 488- and 640-nm lasers and imaged with a 20X 0.80 M27 PLAN Apochromat
objective. Approximately 70 µm deep Z-stacks of each light organ lobe of each animal (n = 4-
10) were acquired. Zen software was used for image acquisition and processing.
Representative images shown are orthogonal projections of maximum intensity.
411
Bacterial strain isolation and identification
Bacterial strains were isolated from *E. berryi* using two distinct methods. In the first method,
luminous *E. berryi* hatchlings raised at the Marine Biological Laboratory (MBL) were euthanized,
frozen, homogenized, and plated onto LBS, providing "*berryi* hatchling" (BH) isolates. As a
second approach, the tank water from a wild-caught adult *E. berryi* ("*berryi* water"; BW) was
collected and serial diluted onto LBS agar. This water was expected to be enriched in expelled
native symbionts but also potentially included Atlantic bacteria from flow-through source water.
In both approaches, bacterial isolates were streak purified on LBS, screened for luminescence,
and saved as 50% glycerol stocks.
421
Genomic DNA was extracted from all isolates with the Qiagen DNeasy Blood & Tissue Kit.
Samples were submitted to Plasmidsaurus (Eugene, OR) for bacterial genome sequencing
using Oxford Nanopore Technology. Plasmidsaurus results included taxonomic assignment
using sourmash (61), though this did not always provide species-level precision. Isolate species
identity was then determined using FastANI v1.34 (43) against the species suggested by
sourmash and likely candidates of our choosing (Table S1). Organisms belonging to the same
species typically result in >95% average nucleotide identity (ANI). All bacterial isolates were
found to have an ANI >95% for the listed species.
430
Specific luminescence
Bacterial cultures were incubated from glycerol stocks into LBS liquid and grown overnight with
aeration at 25°C. Strains were diluted 1:2 in 150 mM NaCl SWTO in a clear-bottom black 96-
well optical plate using a BioTek Synergy Neo2 plate reader (62). The plate was shaken for 10
seconds before luminescence was recorded at a gain setting of 135. The plate was again
shaken for 10 seconds and OD_{600} was recorded. Luminescence and OD_{600} values were
normalized to blanks. Specific luminescence was calculated as luminescence-135 divided by
OD_{600}. Each assay was performed in triplicate, with two biological replicates conducted.
439
TUNEL counts and hemocyte trafficking
E. berryi were inoculated as described above for monocolonizations. At 24 hpi, animals were
fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde in 1X mPBS. Animals remained in fixative for 24 h at 4°C before
being washed in 1X mPBS for 30 minutes each a total of 4 times at 4°C. Treatment groups had
a minimum of 13 squid (n = 13-15). Apoptosis was assayed using the DeadEnd Fluorometric
TUNEL Assay kit (Promega) according to manufacturer instructions, as described (22).

Hemocyte counts were taken from the anterior appendage of individual *E. berryi*, adapted from
the method described (24, 63). Briefly, we stained fixed animals with FITC-DnaseI overnight,
counterstained with TOTO-3 to visualize nuclei, and then visualized samples on a Lecia Stellaris
5 CLSM. A non-parametric one-way ANOVA (Kruskal-Wallis) using Dunn's multiple
comparisons test was used to compare each symbiotic group to the aposymbiotic control group.
451
452 **T6SS2 Assays**
453
The BW2 *tssF* mutant was made by introducing a disruption into *tssF_2* in BW2 through
triparental mating and *E. coli* carrying the *tssF_2* disruption plasmid pAS2038 (27). Because the
tssF_2 gene, which encodes an essential structural protein in the T6SS gene cluster on
chromosome II (T6SS2), is conserved across different strains, but distinct from the *tssF* gene
encoded in the T6SS cluster on chromosome I (T6SS1), we can use the same *tssF_2* disruption
plasmid (pAS2038) to generate a T6SS2 mutant in diverse strains while leaving T6SS1 intact.
Fluorescently-tagged strains were made by triparental mating, introducing pVSV102 for GFP-
tagged variants and pVSV208 for dsRed-tagged variants. VipA-GFP expressing strains were
made by introducing pSNS119 (27) using triparental mating.
463
We previously identified a high-viscosity condition that mimics the host environment and
enables visualization of T6SS sheaths *in vitro* (64). To visualize T6SS sheath formation, strains
carrying the IPTG-inducible VipA_2-GFP expression vector (pSNS119) were grown in LBS
liquid supplemented with kanamycin overnight with shaking at 24°C. Cultures were then diluted
1:80 into fresh LBS supplemented with 5% w/v polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP) and 0.5 mM
isopropyl-β-d-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG) and grown to an OD_{600} of 1.0 (64). Two microliters
of each culture was spotted onto a 35 mm petri dish with #1.5 glass bottom, and a 2% agarose
pad with 0.5 mM IPTG was placed on top of the culture. Cells were imaged using a Nikon Ti2
inverted fluorescence microscope outfitted with a Hamamatsu Orca Fusion C1440 and CFI plan
apo lambda 100X oil objective lens. Images were captured using NIS-element software and
brightness and contrast was adjusted using FIJI.
475
476 Co-incubation assays were performed between the indicated strain and GFP-tagged ES114 as
477 described (65).
478
479 Competitive colonizations were performed as described for single-strain monocolonizations,
480 except both designated strains were provided as inoculum. Strains were differentiated for colony
481 counting by fluorescent label, using ES114-GFP and ES401-RFP, or the respective ES401
482 derivative with RFP.
483
Data analysis
Plotting and statistical analysis were conducted in GraphPad Prism. All data analyses were
performed using nonparametric tests. Normality tests in Prism (Kolmogorov-Smirnov, Shapiro-
Wilk, and Anderson-Darling tests) indicated for all datasets that data were not normally
distributed or the sample size was too small to determine normality. Affinity designer was used
for figure design.

490
491   **Table 1.** List of strains used in this study. Strains are listed by name, and lab stock number is
492   shown in parentheses.
493

Strain	Description	Source
MJ11 (MJM1059)	Natural isolate, *Monocentris japonica* light organ	(49)
ES114 (MJM1100)	Natural isolate, *E. scolopes* light organ	(42)
CG101 (MJM1115)	Natural isolate, *Cleidopus gloriamaris* light organ	(47)
ES213 (MJM1117)	Natural isolate, *E. scolopes* light organ	(66)
MB11B1 (MJM1130)	Natural isolate, *E. scolopes* light organ	(67)
EM17 (MJM1136)	Natural isolate, *E. morsei* light organ	(68)
ES114 Δ*luxCDABEG* (MJM1296)	Non-luminescent ES114 (MJM1100)	(18)
ES401 (MJM1318)	Natural isolate, *E. scolopes* juvenile light organ	(47)
ES114 Δ*flrA::bar* (MJM3782)	Non-motile ES114, barcoded mutant (MJM1100)	(69)
ES114 Δ*sypF::bar* (MJM3972)	Syp-deficient ES114, barcoded mutant (MJM1100)	(70)
SA1 (MJM3859)	Natural isolate, *Sepiola affinis* light organ	(50)
SR5 (MJM3878)	Natural isolate, *Sepiola robusta* light organ	(50)
MJM1100 / pVSV102 (MJM1107)	ES114-GFP (Kan[R])	(11)
MJM1059 / pVSV102 (MJM1112)	MJ11-GFP (Kan[R])	This study
MJM5770 / pVSV102 (MJM5780)	BH2-GFP (Kan[R])	This study

MJM5772 / pVSV102 (MJM5781)	BW2-GFP (Kan^R)	This study
MJM5779 / pVSV102 (MJM5782)	BW9-GFP (Kan^R)	This study
MJM1115 / pVSV102 (MJM6330)	CG101-GFP (Kan^R)	This study
MJM5771 / pVSV102 (MJM6331)	BW1-GFP (Kan^R)	This study
MJM5774 / pVSV102 (MJM6332)	BW4-GFP (Kan^R)	This study
BH1 (MJM5769)	Natural isolate (*Vibrio campbellii)*, *E. berryi* hatchling	This study
BH2 (MJM5770)	Natural isolate (*Vibrio fischeri)*, *E. berryi* hatchling	This study
BW1 (MJM5771)	Natural isolate (*Vibrio campbellii)*, *E. berryi* tank water	This study
BW2 (MJM5772)	Natural isolate (*Vibrio fischeri)*, *E. berryi* tank water	This study
BW3 (MJM5773)	Natural isolate (*Vibrio campbellii)*, *E. berryi* tank water	This study
BW4 (MJM5774)	Natural isolate (*Vibrio atypicus)*, *E. berryi* tank water	This study
BW5 (MJM5775)	Natural isolate (*Vibrio campbellii)*, *E. berryi* tank water	This study
BW6 (MJM5776)	Natural isolate (*Vibrio campbellii)*, *E. berryi* tank water	This study
BW7 (MJM5777)	Natural isolate (*Vibrio jasicida)*, *E. berryi* tank water	This study
BW8 (MJM5778)	Natural isolate (*Pseudoalteromonas flavipulchra)*, *E. berryi* tank water	This study

BW9 (MJM5779)	Natural isolate (*Vibrio fischeri*), *E. berryi* tank water	This study
ES401 *tssF_2* (ANS2100)	ES401 *tssF_2/vasA_2* mutant (Erm^R)	(71)
BW2 *tssF_2* (KB100)	ErmR *tssF_2/vasA_2* mutant (Erm^R)	This study
BW2 / pSNS119	BW2 with *vipA_2-gfp* expression vector (Kan^R)	This study
KB100 / pSNS119	BW2 *tssF_2* mutant with *vipA_2-gfp* expression vector (Kan^R, Erm^R)	This study
ES401 / pVSV208	ES401-RFP (Cam^R)	(27)
***E. coli* strains**		
CC118 λpir / pEVS104 (MJM534)	*E. coli* carrying the conjugation helper plasmid for triparental matings.	(72)
DH5α λpir / pVSV102 (MJM542)	*E. coli* carrying the GFP-expressing plasmid	(73)

495　Table 2: Plasmids used in this study.

Plasmid	Description	Source
pEVS104	Conjugation helper plasmid (Kan^R)	(72)
pVSV102	Constitutive GFP (Kan^R)	(73)
pVSV208	Constitutive DsRed (Cam^R)	(73)
pAS2038	*tssF_2/vasA_2* disruption vector (Erm^R)	(27)
pSNS119	IPTG inducible *vipA_2-gfp* expression vector (Kan^R)	(27)

Cam, chloramphenicol; Erm, erythromycin; Kan, kanamycin; GFP, green fluorescent protein;

DsRed, Discosoma sp. red fluorescent protein; IPTG, isopropyl-β-d-thiogalactopyranoside.

FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Comparison of *Euprymna* species. (A) *E. berryi* (left) and *E. scolopes* (right) eggs
immediately prior to hatching. (B) An *E. berryi* and *E. scolopes* hatchling 24 hours post-
hatching. (C) An adult female *E. berryi.* (D) An adult female *E. scolopes.*

Figure 2. The light organ of juvenile *E. berryi*. Images are representative of all symbiotic
animals (n = 10). (A) Representative image of an *E. berryi* light organ. Image is a maximum
intensity projection of a confocal z-stack approximately 150 µm deep. DAPI staining (blue) of
host tissue shows that each side of the bi-lobed organ has a long anterior appendage (aa) and
shorter posterior appendage (pa). At the base of each anterior appendage are three pores (p).
Three crypts (c1-3) are on each side. Each crypt is visualized by GFP-expressing *V. fischeri*
(green). The hindgut (hg) lies in the anterior end. (B) A single lobe of the light organ,
counterstained with Alexa640-conjugated phalloidin to visualize actin cytoskeleton. (C) Enlarged
image of boxed region in B. Pores (p) lead to crypts. A tight bottleneck (bn) separates the
antechamber (ac) from crypt 1 (c1). (D) Maximum intensity projection and orthogonal views of
crypts from one lobe of the light organ. Locations of orthogonal slices represented by dashed
line. Each of the three crypts (c1, c2, c3) is fully colonized by GFP-expressing *V. fischeri*. (E)
Three-dimensional model of the crypts, each a different color. Crypt 1 (c1) is the largest crypt,
with branching structures. The smaller crypts 2 (c2) and 3 (c3) lay dorsally to crypt 1. Bars: A&B
= 150 µm, C = 10 µm, D&E = 100 µm.

Figure 3. Isolation and characterization of bacterial strains. Hatchling isolates were plated
from colonized *E. berryi* hatchlings. Water isolates were plated from tank water housing a wild-
caught adult *E. berryi.* Isolate species was identified by average nucleotide identity. Specific
luminescence for each strain (n = 6) when grown in liquid culture was plotted with circles
representing individual biological replicates. The median is indicated by a vertical bar.

Figure 4. *V. fischeri* are the exclusive colonizers of *E. berryi*. *E. berryi* hatchlings were used
in single-strain colonization experiments, where circles represent individual animals. The limit of
detection for this assay, represented by the dashed line, is 7 CFU/light organ. Horizontal bars
represent the median for each group (n = 10-25).

Figure 5. Colonization-deficient mutants are defective in *E. berryi*. *E. berryi* hatchlings were
used in single-strain colonization experiments, where circles represent individual animals. The
limit of detection for this assay, represented by the dashed line, is 7 CFU/light organ. Horizontal
bars represent the median for each group. All mutants are constructed from the wildtype strain
ES114. The inoculum strain is indicated on the X-axis, with the hour squid were fixed post-
inoculation labeled below each group (n = 9-13). Treatment groups were compared to the
ES114 control group using a Kruskal-Wallis test using Dunn's multiple comparisons test.

Figure 6. *V. fischeri* strains stimulate variable intensities of host development responses
in *E. berryi*. *E. berryi* hatchlings were inoculated with a single bacterial strain and evaluated at
24 hours post-inoculation, where circles represent individual animals. Horizontal bars represent
the median for each group (n = 13-15). New bacterial isolates from *E. berryi* are shown as blue

circles. (A) The TUNEL+ counts in the anterior appendage were taken as a measurement for
cell apoptosis, a marker of colonization-driven host development. (B) Hemocyte counts in the
anterior appendage were used to measure hemocyte trafficking into the appendage, which is
elevated in colonized *E. scolopes*. P-values were calculated using a Kruskal-Wallis test with
Dunn's multiple comparisons test.
550
Figure 7. *E. berryi* can be used to study T6SS-mediated competition in *V. fischeri*
symbionts. (A) Coincubation assays between the indicated strain and a GFP-tagged ES114
target strain. The scale bar for images in panel A is 2 mm. (B) Representative images of T6SS2
sheaths in wildtype BW2 and the *tssF* derivative carrying a VipA-GFP expression vector. The
scale bar for images in panel B is 2 µm. (C) Single colonization assays for indicated ES401
strains at 24 hr (n = 11-28). (D) Competitive colonization assays with GFP-tagged ES114 and
RFP-tagged ES401-derived strain (n = 30-31 per competition). Time points are 24hr post-
inoculation. Panel D shows the competitive index (CI) in log 10 scale for each squid, where the
ending strain ratio is divided by the beginning strain ratio. Statistical comparison was made
using a Mann-Whitney test.
561
Supplemental Material
• **Supplemental Table S1**: Reference genomes used in FastANI analysis for species
identification.
• **Supplemental Figure S1.** Comparison of adult mantle length.
• **Supplemental Figure S2.** ES114 occupies a greater crypt volume in crypt 1 than BW2.
• **Supplemental Figure S3**. Non-*V. fischeri* are not observed in the *E. berryi* light organ or
surrounding tissues.
• **Supplemental Figure S4**. Inoculum concentration did not positively correlate to squid
colonization concentration in strains that exhibited bimodality.
• **Supplemental Figure S5**. *E. scolopes* are colonized by *V. fischeri* isolated from *E. berryi.*
572
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We are grateful to Joshua Rosenthal for assistance throughout this project; to Denise Ludvik for
support with imaging; to Ruth Isenberg for construction of MJM3972; and to Kewalo Marine
Laboratory for *Euprymna scolopes* field resources. Work in the lab of MJM was supported by
NIGMS R35GM148385, in the lab of ANS by NIGMS R35GM137886, in the lab of EACH by
NIGMS R35GM150478, and in the lab of SVN by NSF IOS-2247195 and the Gordon and Betty
Moore Foundation. AMI was supported on NIGMS T32GM007133.
580

REFERENCES

1. Ruby EG. 2008. Symbiotic conversations are revealed under genetic interrogation. Nat Rev
Microbiol 6:752–762.

2. Bosch TCG, Guillemin K, McFall-Ngai M. 2019. Evolutionary "experiments" in symbiosis:
The study of model animals provides insights into the mechanisms underlying the diversity
of host-microbe interactions. Bioessays 41:e1800256.

3. Mandel MJ, Dunn AK. 2016. Impact and influence of the natural *Vibrio*-squid symbiosis in
understanding bacterial-animal interactions. Front Microbiol 7:1982.

4. Nyholm SV, McFall-Ngai MJ. 2021. A lasting symbiosis: how the Hawaiian bobtail squid
finds and keeps its bioluminescent bacterial partner. Nat Rev Microbiol 19:666–679.

5. Visick KL, Stabb EV, Ruby EG. 2021. A lasting symbiosis: how *Vibrio fischeri* finds a squid
partner and persists within its natural host. Nat Rev Microbiol 19:654–665.

6. Ruby EG, McFall-Ngai MJ. 1992. A squid that glows in the night: development of an animal-
bacterial mutualism. J Bacteriol 174:4865–4870.

7. Jones BW, Nishiguchi MK. 2004. Counterillumination in the Hawaiian bobtail squid,
Euprymna scolopes Berry (Mollusca: Cephalopoda). Mar Biol 144:1151–1155.

8. Boettcher KJ, Ruby EG, McFall-Ngai MJ. 1996. Bioluminescence in the symbiotic squid
Euprymna scolopes is controlled by a daily biological rhythm. J Comp Physiol A Neuroethol
Sens Neural Behav Physiol 179:65–73.

9. Wier AM, Nyholm SV, Mandel MJ, Massengo-Tiassé RP, Schaefer AL, Koroleva I, Splinter-
Bondurant S, Brown B, Manzella L, Snir E, Almabrazi H, Scheetz TE, Bonaldo M de F,
Casavant TL, Soares MB, Cronan JE, Reed JL, Ruby EG, McFall-Ngai MJ. 2010.
Transcriptional patterns in both host and bacterium underlie a daily rhythm of anatomical
and metabolic change in a beneficial symbiosis. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 107:2259–2264.

10. Visick KL, Skoufos LM. 2001. Two-component sensor required for normal symbiotic
colonization of *Euprymna scolopes* by *Vibrio fischeri*. J Bacteriol 183:835–842.

11. Brooks JF 2nd, Gyllborg MC, Cronin DC, Quillin SJ, Mallama CA, Foxall R, Whistler C,
Goodman AL, Mandel MJ. 2014. Global discovery of colonization determinants in the squid
symbiont *Vibrio fischeri*. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 111:17284–17289.

12. Ruby EG, Asato LM. 1993. Growth and flagellation of *Vibrio fischeri* during initiation of the
sepiolid squid light organ symbiosis. Arch Microbiol 159:160–167.

13. Millikan DS, Ruby EG. 2003. FlrA, a σ^{54}-dependent transcriptional activator in *Vibrio
fischeri*, is required for motility and symbiotic light-organ colonization. J Bacteriol 185:3547–
3557.

14. Yip ES, Grublesky BT, Hussa EA, Visick KL. 2005. A novel, conserved cluster of genes
promotes symbiotic colonization and σ-dependent biofilm formation by *Vibrio fischeri*. Mol
Microbiol 57:1485–1498.

15. Yip ES, Geszvain K, DeLoney-Marino CR, Visick KL. 2006. The symbiosis regulator RscS
controls the *syp* gene locus, biofilm formation and symbiotic aggregation by *Vibrio fischeri*.
Mol Microbiol 62:1586–1600.

16. Fung BL, Esin JJ, Visick KL. 2024. *Vibrio fischeri*: a model for host-associated biofilm
formation. J Bacteriol 206:e0037023.

17. Visick KL, Foster J, Doino J, McFall-Ngai M, Ruby EG. 2000. *Vibrio fischeri lux* genes play
an important role in colonization and development of the host light organ. J Bacteriol
182:4578–4586.

18. Bose JL, Rosenberg CS, Stabb EV. 2008. Effects of *luxCDABEG* induction in *Vibrio
fischeri*: enhancement of symbiotic colonization and conditional attenuation of growth in
culture. Arch Microbiol 190:169–183.

19. Koch EJ, Miyashiro T, McFall-Ngai MJ, Ruby EG. 2014. Features governing symbiont
persistence in the squid-vibrio association. Mol Ecol 23:1624–1634.

20. Montgomery MK, McFall-Ngai M. 1994. Bacterial symbionts induce host organ

morphogenesis during early postembryonic development of the squid *Euprymna scolopes*.
Development 120:1719–1729.

21. Koropatnick TA, Engle JT, Apicella MA, Stabb EV, Goldman WE, McFall-Ngai MJ. 2004.
Microbial factor-mediated development in a host-bacterial mutualism. Science 306:1186–
1188.

22. Troll JV, Adin DM, Wier AM, Paquette N, Silverman N, Goldman WE, Stadermann FJ,
Stabb EV, McFall-Ngai MJ. 2009. Peptidoglycan induces loss of a nuclear peptidoglycan
recognition protein during host tissue development in a beneficial animal-bacterial
symbiosis. Cell Microbiol 11:1114–1127.

23. Nyholm SV, McFall-Ngai MJ. 1998. Sampling the light-organ microenvironment of
Euprymna scolopes: description of a population of host cells in association with the
bacterial symbiont *Vibrio fischeri*. Biol Bull 195:89–97.

24. Koropatnick TA, Kimbell JR, McFall-Ngai MJ. 2007. Responses of host hemocytes during
the initiation of the squid-Vibrio symbiosis. Biol Bull 212:29–39.

25. Nyholm SV, Stewart JJ, Ruby EG, McFall-Ngai MJ. 2009. Recognition between symbiotic
Vibrio fischeri and the haemocytes of *Euprymna scolopes*. Environ Microbiol 11:483–493.

26. Visick KL, Ruby EG. 2006. *Vibrio fischeri* and its host: it takes two to tango. Curr Opin
Microbiol 9:632–638.

27. Speare L, Cecere AG, Guckes KR, Smith S, Wollenberg MS, Mandel MJ, Miyashiro T,
Septer AN. 2018. Bacterial symbionts use a type VI secretion system to eliminate
competitors in their natural host. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 115:E8528–E8537.

28. Suria AM, Smith S, Speare L, Chen Y, Chien I, Clark EG, Krueger M, Warwick AM, Wilkins
H, Septer AN. 2022. Prevalence and diversity of type VI secretion systems in a model
beneficial symbiosis. Front Microbiol 13:988044.

29. Mandel MJ, Wollenberg MS, Stabb EV, Visick KL, Ruby EG. 2009. A single regulatory gene
is sufficient to alter bacterial host range. Nature 458:215–218.

30. Heath-Heckman E, Nishiguchi MK. 2021. Leveraging short-read sequencing to explore the
genomics of sepiolid squid. Integr Comp Biol 61:1753–1761.

31. Schmidbaur H, Kawaguchi A, Clarence T, Fu X, Hoang OP, Zimmermann B, Ritschard EA,
Weissenbacher A, Foster JS, Nyholm SV, Bates PA, Albertin CB, Tanaka E, Simakov O.
2022. Emergence of novel cephalopod gene regulation and expression through large-scale
genome reorganization. Nat Commun 13:2172.

32. Howard RB, Lopes LN, Lardie CR, Perez PP, Crook RJ. 2019. Early-life injury produces
lifelong neural hyperexcitability, cognitive deficit and altered defensive behaviour in the
squid *Euprymna scolopes*. Philos Trans R Soc Lond B Biol Sci 374:20190281.

33. Crook RJ. 2022. Somatotopic organization of mechanosensory afferents in the stellate
ganglion of the squid, *Euprymna*. https://doi.org/10.1101/2022.10.21.513268. bioRxiv.

34. Liscovitch-Brauer N, Alon S, Porath HT, Elstein B, Unger R, Ziv T, Admon A, Levanon EY,
Rosenthal JJC, Eisenberg E. 2017. Trade-off between transcriptome plasticity and genome
evolution in cephalopods. Cell 169:191-202.e11.

35. Soto W, Rivera FM, Nishiguchi MK. 2014. Ecological diversification of *Vibrio fischeri* serially
passaged for 500 generations in novel squid host *Euprymna tasmanica*. Microb Ecol
67:700–721.

36. Chavez-Dozal AA, Gorman C, Lostroh CP, Nishiguchi MK. 2014. Gene-swapping mediates
host specificity among symbiotic bacteria in a beneficial symbiosis. PLoS One 9:e101691.

37. Foster JS, von Boletzky S, McFall-Ngai MJ. 2002. A comparison of the light organ
development of *Sepiola robusta* Naef and *Euprymna scolopes* Berry (Cephalopoda:
Sepiolidae). Bull Mar Sci 70:141–153.

38. Jolly J, Hasegawa Y, Sugimoto C, Zhang L, Kawaura R, Sanchez G, Gavriouchkina D,
Marlétaz F, Rokhsar D. 2022. Lifecycle, culture, and maintenance of the emerging
cephalopod models *Euprymna berryi* and *Euprymna morsei*. Front Mar Sci 9:1039775.

39. Ahuja N, Hwaun E, Pungor JR, Rafiq R, Nemes S, Sakmar T, Vogt MA, Grasse B, Diaz
Quiroz J, Montague TG, Null RW, Dallis DN, Gavriouchkina D, Marletaz F, Abbo L,
Rokhsar DS, Niell CM, Soltesz I, Albertin CB, Rosenthal JJC. 2023. Creation of an albino
squid line by CRISPR-Cas9 and its application for *in vivo* functional imaging of neural
activity. Curr Biol 33:2774-2783.e5.

40. Sasaki M. 1929. A monograph of the dibranchiate cephalopods of the Japanese and
adjacent waters. Journal of the Faculty of Agriculture, Hokkaido Imperial University 1–357.

41. Sycuro LK, Ruby EG, McFall-Ngai M. 2006. Confocal microscopy of the light organ crypts
in juvenile *Euprymna scolopes* reveals their morphological complexity and dynamic function
in symbiosis. J Morphol 267:555–568.

42. Boettcher KJ, Ruby EG. 1990. Depressed light emission by symbiotic *Vibrio fischeri* of the
sepiolid squid *Euprymna scolopes*. J Bacteriol 172:3701–3706.

43. Jain C, Rodriguez-R LM, Phillippy AM, Konstantinidis KT, Aluru S. 2018. High throughput
ANI analysis of 90K prokaryotic genomes reveals clear species boundaries. Nat Commun
9:5114.

44. Naughton LM, Mandel MJ. 2012. Colonization of *Euprymna scolopes* squid by *Vibrio
fischeri*. J Vis Exp e3758.

45. McFall-Ngai MJ, Ruby EG. 1991. Symbiont recognition and subsequent morphogenesis as
early events in an animal-bacterial mutualism. Science 254:1491–1494.

46. Bongrand C, Koch E, Mende D, Romano A, Lawhorn S, McFall-Ngai M, DeLong EF, Ruby
EG. 2022. Evidence of genomic diversification in a natural symbiotic population within its
host. Front Microbiol 13:854355.

47. Ruby EG, Lee KH. 1998. The *Vibrio fischeri-Euprymna scolopes* light organ association:
current ecological paradigms. Appl Environ Microbiol 64:805–812.

48. Xu F, Gonzalez-Escalona N, Drees KP, Sebra RP, Cooper VS, Jones SH, Whistler CA.
2017. Parallel evolution of two clades of an Atlantic-endemic pathogenic lineage of *Vibrio
parahaemolyticus* by independent acquisition of related pathogenicity islands. Appl Environ
Microbiol 83:e01168-17.

49. Ruby EG, Nealson KH. 1976. Symbiotic association of *Photobacterium fischeri* with the
marine luminous fish *Monocentris japonica*; a model of symbiosis based on bacterial
studies. Biol Bull 151:574–586.

50. Fidopiastis PM, von Boletzky S, Ruby EG. 1998. A new niche for *Vibrio logei*, the
predominant light organ symbiont of squids in the genus *Sepiola*. J Bacteriol 180:59–64.

51. Brennan CA, Mandel MJ, Gyllborg MC, Thomasgard KA, Ruby EG. 2013. Genetic
determinants of swimming motility in the squid light-organ symbiont *Vibrio fischeri*.
Microbiologyopen 2:576–594.

52. Brooks JF 2nd, Mandel MJ. 2016. The histidine kinase BinK is a negative regulator of
biofilm formation and squid colonization. J Bacteriol 198:2596–2607.

53. Norsworthy AN, Visick KL. 2015. Signaling between two interacting sensor kinases
promotes biofilms and colonization by a bacterial symbiont: Two interacting kinases permit
biofilm formation. Mol Microbiol 96:233–248.

54. Speare L, Woo M, Dunn AK, Septer AN. 2022. A putative lipoprotein mediates cell-cell
contact for type VI secretion system-dependent killing of specific competitors. MBio
13:e0308521.

55. Gromek SM, Suria AM, Fullmer MS, Garcia JL, Gogarten JP, Nyholm SV, Balunas MJ.
2016. *Leisingera* sp. JC1, a bacterial isolate from Hawaiian bobtail squid eggs, produces
indigoidine and differentially inhibits vibrios. Front Microbiol 7:1342.

56. Kerwin AH, Gromek SM, Suria AM, Samples RM, Deoss DJ, O'Donnell K, Frasca S Jr,
Sutton DA, Wiederhold NP, Balunas MJ, Nyholm SV. 2019. Shielding the next generation:
Symbiotic bacteria from a reproductive organ protect bobtail squid eggs from fungal fouling.
MBio 10.

57. McAnulty SJ, Kerwin AH, Koch E, Nuttall B, Suria AM, Collins AJ, Schleicher TR, Rader
BA, Nyholm SV. 2023. "Failure to Launch": Development of a reproductive organ linked to
symbiotic bacteria. MBio 14:e0213122.

58. Vijayan N, McAnulty SJ, Sanchez G, Jolly J, Ikeda Y, Nishiguchi MK, Réveillac E, Gestal C,
Spady BL, Li DH, Burford BP, Kerwin AH, Nyholm SV. 2024. Evolutionary history influences
the microbiomes of a female symbiotic reproductive organ in cephalopods. Appl Environ
Microbiol 90:e0099023.

59. McFall-Ngai M, Heath-Heckman EAC, Gillette AA, Peyer SM, Harvie EA. 2012. The secret
languages of coevolved symbioses: insights from the *Euprymna scolopes-Vibrio fischeri*
symbiosis. Semin Immunol 24:3–8.

60. Schindelin J, Arganda-Carreras I, Frise E, Kaynig V, Longair M, Pietzsch T, Preibisch S,
Rueden C, Saalfeld S, Schmid B, Tinevez J-Y, White DJ, Hartenstein V, Eliceiri K,
Tomancak P, Cardona A. 2012. Fiji: an open-source platform for biological-image analysis.
Nat Methods 9:676–682.

61. Titus Brown C, Irber L. 2016. sourmash: a library for MinHash sketching of DNA. J Open
Source Softw 1:27.

62. Bose JL, Kim U, Bartkowski W, Gunsalus RP, Overley AM, Lyell NL, Visick KL, Stabb EV.
2007. Bioluminescence in *Vibrio fischeri* is controlled by the redox-responsive regulator
ArcA. Mol Microbiol 65:538–553.

63. Altura MA, Heath-Heckman EAC, Gillette A, Kremer N, Krachler A-M, Brennan C, Ruby
EG, Orth K, McFall-Ngai MJ. 2013. The first engagement of partners in the *Euprymna
scolopes-Vibrio fischeri* symbiosis is a two-step process initiated by a few environmental
symbiont cells. Environ Microbiol 15:2937–2950.

64. Speare L, Woo M, Bultman KM, Mandel MJ, Wollenberg MS, Septer AN. 2021. Host-like
conditions are required for T6SS-mediated competition among *Vibrio fischeri* light organ
symbionts. mSphere 6:e0128820.

65. Speare L, Septer AN. 2019. Coincubation assay for quantifying competitive interactions
between *Vibrio fischeri* isolates. J Vis Exp https://doi.org/10.3791/59759.

66. Boettcher KJ, Ruby EG. 1994. Occurrence of plasmid DNA in the sepiolid squid symbiont

Vibrio fischeri. Curr Microbiol 29:279–286.

67. Wollenberg MS, Ruby EG. 2009. Population structure of *Vibrio fischeri* within the light
organs of *Euprymna scolopes* squid from Two Oahu (Hawaii) populations. Appl Environ
Microbiol 75:193–202.

68. Nishiguchi MK, Ruby EG, McFall-Ngai MJ. 1998. Competitive dominance among strains of
luminous bacteria provides an unusual form of evidence for parallel evolution in Sepiolid
squid-vibrio symbioses. Appl Environ Microbiol 64:3209–3213.

69. Burgos HL, Burgos EF, Steinberger AJ, Suen G, Mandel MJ. 2020. Multiplexed competition
in a synthetic squid light organ microbiome using barcode-tagged gene deletions.
mSystems 5:e00846-20.

70. Vander Griend JA, Isenberg RY, Kotla KR, Mandel MJ. 2024. Transcriptional pathways
across colony biofilm models in the symbiont *Vibrio fischeri*. mSystems 9:e0081523.

71. Speare L, Smith S, Salvato F, Kleiner M, Septer AN. 2020. Environmental Viscosity
Modulates Interbacterial Killing during Habitat Transition. MBio 11:e03060-19.

72. Stabb EV, Ruby EG. 2002. RP4-based plasmids for conjugation between *Escherichia coli*
and members of the *Vibrionaceae*. Methods Enzymol 358:413–426.

73. Dunn AK, Millikan DS, Adin DM, Bose JL, Stabb EV. 2006. New *rfp*- and pES213-derived
tools for analyzing symbiotic *Vibrio fischeri* reveal patterns of infection and *lux* expression in
situ. Appl Environ Microbiol 72:802–810.

A

ES401 ES401 tssF BW2 BW2 tssF BW9 BH2

B

BW2 BW2 tssF

C

Log$_{10}$(CFU / Squid)

Apo ES401 tssF

D

ES114 wins   ES401 wins

ES401 vs ES114

ES401 tssF vs ES114

p < 0.0001

CI (ES401/ES114)