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The type VI secretion system governs strain maintenance

in a wild mammalian gut microbiome

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Abstract

Bacteria inhabiting the mammalian gut coexist in dense communities where contact-dependent antagonism mechanisms are widespread. The type VI secretion system (T6SS) is an interbacterial toxin delivery pathway prevalent among gut Bacteroidales, yet its function in naturally evolved microbiomes remains poorly defined. Here, we examine the physiological role of the T6SS in *Bacteroides* within a gut community derived from wild mice (the WildR microbiome). Using newly developed genetic tools and a strategy for functional replacement of strains within the WildR community, we demonstrate that the WildR isolate *B. acidifaciens* employs a T6SS to antagonize co-resident Bacteroidales. We also show that loss of T6SS function compromises the long-term maintenance of *B. acidifaciens* in the community but not its initial colonization, establishing the system as a determinant of strain persistence. The T6SS we identified resides on an integrative and conjugative element (ICE). ICE-seq, a targeted sequencing approach, reveals that the T6SS-ICE is distributed among select *Bacteroidales* and *Muribaculaceae* species in the WildR microbiome, between which it appears to be recently exchanged. We also show that transfer of the T6SS-ICE to WildR isolate *Phocaeicola vulgatus* confers transient colonization benefits in mice, but an eventual fitness cost. Our findings demonstrate that the T6SS can stabilize the presence of specific strains within a complex, co-evolved gut microbiome, yet its value is context dependent and constrained by the ecological and physiological landscape of the host community.

Introduction

Pathways for contact-dependent antagonism between bacteria are prevalent among species residing in the densely colonized mammalian gut (Coyne et al. 2016, Verster et al. 2017, Whitney et al. 2017, Garcia-Bayona and Comstock 2018). Prominent among these is the bacterial type VI secretion system (T6SS), a mechanism employed by Gram-negative species to deliver toxic effector proteins directly to contacting Gram-negative cells (Hood et al. 2010, Schwarz et al. 2010, Coulthurst 2019). The T6SS is widely distributed among gut resident species belonging to the Bacteroidota phylum. Over half of *Bacteroides* spp. isolated from mammalian gut samples encode T6SS genes, and Bacteroidales T6SS effector genes can be found in >60% of individual human metagenomic datasets (Verster et al. 2017, Garcia-Bayona et al. 2021). *In vitro* experiments suggest the T6SS of *Bacteroides* spp. can target a broad cross section of gut Bacteroidales, while it does not appear to act on Proteobacteria, the second most abundant group of Gram-negative organisms in the gut (Chatzidaki-Livanis et al. 2016).

A number of model murine gut microbiome studies have sought to provide insight to the role of the Bacteriodales T6SS in the gut. Studies employing gnotobiotic animals co-colonized by pairs of strains demonstrate that T6SS-mediated killing can occur in this environment, and show that targeting in laboratory co-cultures is not necessarily diagnostic of an interaction between strains in the murine intestine(Chatzidaki-Livanis et al. 2016, Wexler et al. 2016, Ross et al. 2019, Robitaille et al. 2023, Sheahan et al. 2024). Gnotobiotic experiments in which more complex mixtures of bacteria (up to 12 species) are co-inoculated and colonization of conventional mice with pairs of *Bacteroides* strains demonstrate T6SS-mediated antagonism can occur in the context of a more diverse assemblage (Hecht et al. 2016, Wexler et al. 2016, Hill et al. 2024). However, these experiments all suffer from a number of limitations. For instance, the

species employed are not native to the mouse gut, and the antagonistic interactions being

assessed are between strains that may have never co-inhabited a natural community. Gnotobiotic

experiments additionally suffer from the lack of community complexity, while experiments

employing conventional animals require antibiotic pre-treatment or large inoculums to enable

strain engraftment (Hecht et al. 2016, Hill et al. 2024). As a result of these limitations, the

physiological role of the T6SS in mammalian gut microbial communities remains largely

unknown.

The limited insights available into the function of the T6SS in native gut microbiomes

primarily derive from metagenomic analyses of T6SS gene distribution patterns. T6SS gene

clusters in Bacteroidales segregate into three Genetic Architectures (GA) 1-3 based on synteny

and evolutionary relatedness; however, each contain conserved structural genes and variable

effector and cognate immunity genes (Coyne et al. 2016). GA1 and GA2 loci are encoded on

mobile elements, and several studies show they can be horizontally exchanged among

Bacteroidales strains co-resident in a microbiome, suggesting a selective benefit to obtaining

T6SS effector and immunity genes shared by neighboring species (Coyne et al. 2014, Garcia-

Bayona et al. 2021, Sheahan et al. 2024). Further evidence supporting selection for compatibility

among the T6SS effector repertoire in co-resident species lies in the finding that effector gene

diversity in individual microbiomes is low, in contrast to the high degree of effector diversity

observed across metagenomes (Verster et al. 2017). Studies have also revealed that gut

Bacteroidales species can encode clusters of T6SS immunity genes unlinked to cognate effectors

(Ross et al. 2019). One type of these acquired interbacterial defense (AID) gene clusters,

designated rAID for recombinase-associated, are widely distributed across Bacteroidales and

have features consistent with active acquisition of additional immunity genes. A subset of genes

encoded within AID and rAID systems selectively neutralize T6SS toxins, indicative of the

selective benefit of resisting T6SS-based intoxication in the gut environment. However, other

evidence suggests that under certain conditions the cost of producing a T6SS can outweigh its

benefit. Studies of the prevalence of T6SS genes among *B. fragilis* strains reveal they are more

common in the microbiomes of infants than in adults (Verster et al. 2017, Robitaille et al. 2023).

Furthermore, longitudinal sampling of individual human gut microbiomes has revealed instances

in which the *B. fragilis* T6SS acquires inactivating mutations over time(Robitaille et al. 2023). A

comprehensive understanding of the physiological role of the T6SS in gut *Bacteroidales* has thus

yet to emerge.

Experimental testing of the hypotheses regarding T6SS function generated from

metagenomic and theoretical studies requires a tractable experimental model substantially more

representative of natural gut communities than those that have been employed to date. Here, we

study the function of a Bacteroidales T6SS in a natural gut community derived from wild mice

and reintroduced into gnotobiotic animals (Rosshart et al. 2017). We show that this community

retains a similar composition and level of diversity as the wild mouse community from which it

derives, and we demonstrate we can functionally replace members of the community by adding

an excess of a mutant strain of interest at the time of community introduction. Using this

approach, we demonstrate that the T6SS of *B. acidifaciens* is important for maintaining this

species in the community. We also demonstrate T6SS-mediated targeting between *Bacteroides*

species from the same gut microbiome, and provide evidence that not all Bacteroidales in the

community benefit from horizontal acquisition of the T6SS. Together, our findings show that the

T6SS can be an important fitness determinant in a native gut community of naturally co-occuring

organisms, and that its contribution to competitiveness in the gut varies across species.

Results

The WildR microbiome is stable and similar to wild mice microbiomes despite propagation

The WildR microbial community consists of a complex assemblage of organisms

obtained from the pooled ileocecal contents of three wild mice and subsequently introduced to

germ-free mice for laboratory propagation (Rosshart et al. 2017). This community diverges

substantially from that found in lab-reared mice, with a significantly greater proportion of strains

from the Bacteroidota and Pseudomonodata phyla, and a lower proportion of Bacillota and

Verrucomicrobia. Additionally, the most abundant OTUs in the WildR population are

consistently missing from lab mouse microbiomes. Importantly, by the F4 generation of

laboratory propagation in mice, much of the diversity of the WildR was retained, and its

composition was indistinguishable from that found in the originally gavaged dams (Rosshart et

al. 2017).

To establish whether mice colonized by the WildR community could serve as an

appropriate model to study T6SS-mediated interactions in the gut, we first sought to determine

whether community composition diverged in the subsequent generations of propagation since its

initial study. We obtained ileocecal contents of the F7 WildR generation, introduced these to

gnotobiotic mice via oral gavage, then harvested and cryopreserved cecal contents after 14 days

of *in vivo* propagation of the community (Supplemental Figure 1A). To assess the phylogenetic

composition of the WildR microbiome after this propagation, we performed short-read

metagenomic sequencing on DNA extracted from two stored aliquots and two fecal pellets from

mice used to propagate the community, generating a total of 63 Gb of sequence data. Reads were

then mapped to a mouse microbiome-specific reference database using Kraken 2 (Wood et al.

2019). This analysis revealed that, like the initial wild mouse microbiome samples and F2

generation, the WildR F7 community is enriched for Bacteroidota and depleted in Bacillota

compared to that of lab reared mice (Figure 1A, Supplemental Table 1). Comparison of the

relative abundance of the 100 most prevalent genera in the wild donor mice across each

community indicated strong correlations between the wild, WildR F2 and Wild F7 communities

(Figure 1B, C, Supplemental Figure 1B). In contrast, lab mouse microbiomes diverge

substantially from these communities, and lack 24 genera found in each wild-mouse derived

microbiome (Figure 1D, E, Supplemental Figure 1C).

Two WildR species share a mobile T6SS

Having determined that the overall community composition and diversity found in wild

mouse microbiomes is preserved in the WildR F7 generation, we aimed to identify organisms in

the community that encode T6SS genes. Toward this end, we used metagenomic and long-read

sequencing data from WildR F7 samples to assemble high quality metagenome associated

genomes (MAGs). In parallel, we obtained genome sequences for 15 strains isolated from the

community. In total, we generated nine closed and six draft genomes from isolates and 72 MAGs

with an average contig N50 of 946 kb (Supplemental Table 2). Collectively, these genomes

represent ~50% of the species level diversity present in the community (Supplemental Figure

1D).

Within our collection of WildR-derived genomes, we identified three encoding T6SS

genes. These include genomes from isolates of *B. acidfaciens* and *B. caecimuris* and a MAG

identified as deriving from *Mucispirillum schaedleri.* The latter species is a member of the

Chrysiogenota phylum (formerly Deferribacteres) for which no genetic tools are available. Thus,

with the aim to functionally investigate the role of the T6SS using the WildR model, we focused

on the more tractable *Bacteroides* spp. systems. We found that the T6SSs present in the WildR

B. acidfaciens and *B. caecimuris* strains we isolated exhibit the GA1 architecture and are nearly

identical across the gene cluster (Figure 1F). Like GA1 systems identified in other species, the

T6SS appears to be encoded on an integrative and conjugative element (ICE) (Coyne et al.

2016). The ICE encompasses a 115 kb region, includes genes coding for DNA transfer and

assorted other functions, and is identical between the genomes except for a one base-pair

deletion within a predicted effector of the *B. caecimuris* GA1 cluster (Supplemental Figure 1E).

This degree of similarity is consistent with recent exchange of the element between the species;

previous studies of human microbiome isolates found that GA1 elements from strains co-resident

in the same individual share >99% sequence identity, while those of strains isolated from

different individuals share 95-98% identity(Coyne et al. 2016, Garcia-Bayona et al. 2021).

Interestingly, the T6SS we found in *B. acidifaciens* and *B. caecimuris* shares only 82-83%

identity with previously identified GA1 systems found in human isolates, suggesting the ICE is

not being frequently exchanged between human and murine-adapted *Bacteroides* species

(Supplemental Table 3).

Within the *B. acidfaciens* and *B. caecimuris* T6SS loci, we identified two candidate

secreted effector genes (BA_01695 and BA_01705 in *B. acidifaciens*; Figure 1F, G). The

predicted toxins contain N-terminal PAAR and Rhs domains, which are common among T6SS

effectors. The C-terminal toxin domains of these proteins share no significant sequence

homology or predicted structural similarity with characterized proteins. However, conserved

domain analysis and comparison to structural models in the AlphaFold database indicated that

both bear features of predicted nuclease toxins. BA_01695, herein renamed Bae1 (*B.*

acidifaciens effector 1), contains the AHH predicted nuclease domain, while the toxin domain of

BA_01705, renamed Bae2, resembles the enzymatic domain of endonucleases in the GIY-YIG

family. Genes conferring immunity to T6SS system toxins are typically small open reading

frames (ORFs) encoded immediately downstream of their cognate effector. Indeed, we found a

putative immunity gene downstream of *bae1* (BA_01696, renamed *bai1*); a candidate immunity

gene for Bae2 is located just upstream of the toxin gene (BA_01704, renamed *bai2*), and encodes

a protein domain previously classified as an immunity determinant (Figure 1G). Interestingly, the

single base-pair difference between the T6SSs of *B. acidifaciens* and *B. caecimuris* occurs within

the *bae1* gene of *B. caecimuris*, introducing a likely inactivating frameshift (Supplemental Figure

1E). Therefore, we focused our initial functional studies of the T6SS in the WildR community on

B. acidifaciens.

The *B. acidifaciens* T6SS intoxicates WildR Bacteroidales

As a first step toward understanding the role played by the *B. acidifaciens* T6SS in

WildR-colonized mice, we sought to determine which, if any, members of the community are

susceptible to intoxication by this system *in vitro*. However, these efforts were initially

confounded by our inability to genetically manipulate the WildR *B. acidifaciens* isolate using

previously published approaches (Garcia-Bayona and Comstock 2019, Bencivenga-Barry et al.

2020). We hypothesized that, as in other wild isolates, restriction modification (RM) systems

constitute a significant barrier to the introduction of foreign DNA in this strain (Johnston et al.

2019). To circumvent this problem, we applied the previously described RM-silencing

SyngenicDNA approach (Johnston et al. 2019). Using single-molecule sequencing, we identified

eight distinct methylated motifs in *B. acidifaciens* (Supplemental Table 4), representing a

complex RM system barrier within this strain. Elimination of the single methylated motif found

in the integrative plasmid pNUB2 enabled us to obtain transconjugants with the plasmid

harboring a *B. acidifaciens* gene of interest (*tssC*), which was otherwise recalcitrant to transfer

(Supplemental Figure 2A). Although conjugation is often considered relatively insensitive to RM

barriers, these data indicate that the RM landscape can substantially limit conjugative plasmid

transfer in wild Bacteroides (Dimitriu et al. 2024). Thus, we applied this same RM silencing

approach to generate a series of improved plasmids for allelic exchange, which were used to

successfully inactivate several T6SS effector, immunity and structural genes from *B.*

acidifaciens.

To confirm that Bae1 and Bae2 are active T6SS effectors, we performed *in vitro* growth

competition assays under contact-promoting conditions using wild-type *B. acidifaciens* and

mutants sensitized to one or both of the toxins by deletion of the predicted immunity

determinants. These experiments revealed that co-cultivation with the wild-type strain inhibits

the growth of mutants sensitized to Bae1 or Bae2 through immunity gene inactivation (Figure

2A). A strain lacking a functional T6SS (*B. acidifaciens* Δ*tssC*) did not inhibit the effector-

sensitized strains, indicating both Bae1 and Bae2 are delivered via the T6SS and have the

capacity to inhibit target cell growth. We then used similar assays to measure T6SS targeting of

other strains isolated from the WildR community. Like the T6SS of other Bacteroidales, we

found that targets of the *B. acidifaciens* system were restricted to members of the same order

(Figure 2B)(Russell et al. 2014, Chatzidaki-Livanis et al. 2016, Wexler et al. 2016). Given that

the fitness benefit conferred by the T6SS in these experiments was relatively modest (<10 fold),

we also generated two additional T6SS inactivated mutants of *B. acidifaciens* (Δ*clpV* and Δ*tssN*).

These strains exhibited a similar competitive defect against *B. caeicimuris* F5 and *Phocaeicola*

vulgatus as *B. acidifaciens* Δ*tssC*, and the phenotype could be complemented by heterologous

expression of the inactivated genes (Supplemental Figure 2B, C). There were also Bacteroidales

for which we were unable to observe evidence of targeting by the *B. acidifaciens* T6SS. As

expected, the *B. caecimuris* strain F12, which carries homologs of *bai1* and *bai2* within its T6SS

gene cluster, is resistant to targeting. With the exception of *B. uniformis*, the other strains

resistant to target are Bacteroidales from outside of the genus *Bacteroides*. Importantly,

examination of the metagenomic data from two of the wild mice used to generate the WildR

revealed that *B. acidifaciens*, and each of the candidate target species we tested were detected in

both animals, indicating the interaction patterns we observe are reflective of T6SS targeting

between species co-resident within a natural microbiome (Figure 2C). Together, these results

demonstrate the potential for T6SS-mediated targeting between members of the same natural gut

community.

Previous studies indicate that the range of T6SS-mediated targeting observed for

Bacteroides strains during *in vitro* growth assays does not necessarily predict *in vivo* interactions

(Wexler et al. 2016). Thus, we used co-colonization of gnotobiotic mice assays to evaluate the *B.*

acidifaciens T6SS targeting capacity in the murine gut. As a first test of T6SS activity in this

environment, we assessed the ability of *B. acidifaciens* wild-type or Δ*tssC* to intoxicate an

immunity-deficient target strains (Δ*bae1*Δ*bai1*Δ*bae2*Δ*bai2*). By 14 days after introduction of the

strain pairs by co-gavage, we found the immunity-deficient strain was significantly depleted in

the presence of wild-type but not T6SS-inactive *B. acidifaciens,* and decline of the immunity-

deficient population continued until the end of the experiment 35 days post-gavage (Figure 2D).

We then used this model to evaluate *B. acidifaciens* T6SS-mediated targeting of two strains we

found to be susceptible to intoxication by the system *in vitro, B. caecimuris* F5 and *P. vulgatus.*

During co-colonization with wild-type *B. acidifaciens, in vivo* growth of *B. caecimuris* F5 was

largely inhibited, whereas by 28 days post gavage with *B. acidifaciens* Δ*tssC*, this strain became

the predominant population in fecal samples (Figure 2E, Supplemental Figure 2D). To our

knowledge, these data represent the first demonstration of *in vivo* T6SS-mediated targeting

between *Bacteroidales* strains derived from the same natural gut microbiome.

In contrast to the dynamics observed during *B. acidifaciens–B. caecimuris* co-

colonization experiments, we found that T6SS inactivation had little impact when *B. acidifaciens*

was introduced to gnotobiotic mice along with *P. vulgatus* (Supplemental Figure 2E, F). In these

experiments, *P. vulgatus* quickly became the predominant colonizer regardless of the T6SS

activity of *B. acidifaciens*, representing ~80% of the total population by 7 days post gavage. This

overall level of competitiveness of *P. vulgatus* is consistent with the predominance of this

species among Bacteroidales in the WildR community (Supplemental Figure 2G).

A method for modified strain introduction into the WildR

Evaluating the role of the *B. acidifaciens* T6SS in the context of WildR colonized mice,

requires a method to introduce mutant strains into the community. Prior studies of strain

engraftment indicate that priority effects and competitive exclusion are barriers to introducing a

derivative strain to an established microbiome containing the parent or closely related strains

(Lee et al. 2013, Maldonado-Gomez et al. 2016, Obadia et al. 2017, Martinez et al. 2018, Segura

Munoz et al. 2022). Additionally, previously proposed methods for manipulating microbiomes *in*

situ with antibiotic treatments followed by delivery of a new strain or *in situ* genetic engineering

suffer from the requirement to identify antibiotics or *in vivo* amenable genetic tools that

specifically target a species of interest (Jin et al. 2022, Rubin et al. 2022, Segura Munoz et al.

2022). Given that our method of introducing the WildR community to the murine gut involves

oral gavage of the mixed population and its subsequent establishment, we hypothesized that we

could circumvent these challenges and facilitate colonization of *in vitro* modified *B. acidifaciens*

isolate by taking advantage of the natural carrying capacity of the gut microbiome (Lee et al.

2013, Hecht et al. 2016, Segura Munoz et al. 2022). Specifically, we reasoned that the addition

of an excess of a *B. acidifaciens* modified strain to the WildR community during gavage would

lead to displacement of the endogenous *B. acidifaciens* population while maintaining the overall

natural composition of the WildR community (Figure 3A).

To test this hypothesis, we assessed the potential for *B. acidifaciens* marked with

erythromycin resistance (*B. acid* ^{exo}) to replace the endogenous population (*B. acid* ^{endo}) when

titrated into the WildR gavage mixture at different levels (Figure 3A). In cryopreserved samples

of the F7 WildR community, we determined that *B. acid* ^{endo} is present at ~$3x10^4$ CFU/mL (see

Methods). We then added 1x, 10x, or 100x *B. acid* ^{exo} relative to this population ($3x10^4$-$3x10^6$

CFU/mL) to aliquots of the reference stocked WildR community and inoculated mice via oral

gavage. Supporting our hypothesis that endogenous *B. acidifaciens* populations represent the

carrying capacity for this species in the murine gut microbiome, we found that addition of 100-

fold excess *B. acidifaciens* in the gavage did not significantly increase the total relative

abundance of the species in mice at 7 days post-gavage (Figure 3B). We also observed that at

each titration level, we successfully replaced ~80% of the *B. acid* ^{endo} population with the marked

strain; this frequency is likely an underestimate due to the detection limit of the qPCR-based

method used for distinguishing the strains (Figure 3C). Higher titrations of the marked strain

resulted in a trend toward lengthening its persistence in the community, although this effect was

not statistically significant (Figure 3D, Supplemental Figure 3A, B). Additionally, β-diversity

analyses of 16S rRNA amplicon sequences revealed that *B. acid* ^{exo} addition did not impact

overall community composition, regardless of the inoculum level employed (linear mixed effects

model P>|z| > 0.05 for all comparisons, Figure 3E).

Long-term maintenance of *B. acidifaciens* in the WildR community requires the T6SS

306   With a method in hand for introducing a genetically modified strain into the WildR

community, we applied this approach toward dissecting the physiological role of the *B.*

acidifaciens T6SS. Our experiment was designed to test two different possible roles that have

been proposed for the T6SS of *Bacteroides* in the gut microbiome: *i*) facilitating niche

establishment during initial colonization and *ii*) population maintenance once stable colonization

is achieved (Hecht et al. 2016, Verster et al. 2017, Robitaille et al. 2023). Germ-free mice were

co-gavaged with either *B. acid* ^{exo} or *B. acid* ^{exo} Δ*tssC* and the WildR community. *B. acid* ^{exo}

populations in fecal samples were then monitored over time by plating on selective media, and

the proportion of the total *B. acidifaciens* population represented by *B. acid* ^{exo} was monitored by

qPCR. We found that through 14 days post gavage, population levels of *B. acid* ^{exo} and *B. acid* ^{exo}

Δ*tssC* were indistinguishable (Figure 3E, Supplemental Figure 3E). However, by day 28, *B. acid*

^{exo} Δ*tssC* was significantly depleted from the community compared to the marked wild-type

parent strain. By 56 days post gavage, we observed a nearly 100-fold difference in the abundance

of the two strains in both fecal and cecal content samples (Figure 3F, Supplemental Figure 3F).

To confirm that inactivation of the T6SS is responsible for the depletion of *B. acid* ^{exo} Δ*tssC*, and

not a secondary site mutation, we sequenced the genomes of the strains employed in the

experiment. *B. acid* ^{exo} Δ*tssC* used in the first replicate of the experiment carried a single

synonymous mutation (in *cdr*) and in the second replicate the strain bore no mutations. Of note,

the marked wild-type *B. acid* ^{exo} population also declined over time relative to endogenous *B.*

acidifaciens levels, while the overall abundance of *B. acidifaciens* in the community remained

similar throughout the experiment (Figure 3G, H); we hypothesize that the decline of *B. acid* ^{exo}

derives from a fitness cost associated with carrying the erythromycin resistance marker.

However, this decline was modest compared to the decrease in abundance of *B. acid* ^{exo} $\Delta tssC$.

To determine which organisms could be the targets of the *B. acidifaciens* T6SS, we

performed 16S rRNA amplicon sequencing on fecal samples from mice colonized by the two *B.*

acid ^{exo} strains and parallel control mice colonized with the WildR community alone. This

analysis revealed no significant differences between the three communities at any of the time

points sampled (Supplemental Figure 3G). One potential explanation for this finding is *B.*

acidifaciens is present at significantly lower abundance in the community than the organism(s) it

targets. In this scenario, T6SS-targeting could be required for *B. acidifaciens* population survival

without causing a sufficiently large decrease in the population of the target to be detectable by

the relatively low-resolution measurement method we employed. Consistent with this potential

explanation for the lack of overall community shift upon inactivation of the *B. acidifaciens*

T6SS, we find that this species is present at 5 to 10-fold lower abundance than five other

Bacteroidales species in WildR F7 samples (Supplemental Figure 2G). Together, our results

suggest that the T6SS is required for *B. acidifaciens* population maintenance in the gut, but

dispensable for initial colonization.

Distribution of a mobile T6SS in the WildR community

Given the fitness benefit of the T6SS we observed for *B. acidifaciens* during stable

colonization of the mouse gut, and previous observations that T6SS-containing ICE can be

present in multiple species in a single microbiome (Coyne et al. 2014, Zhang et al. 2024), we

sought to better understand the distribution of the system in the WildR community. To avoid

both the biases inherent in screening for the element in cultured isolates and the challenges of

assigning repetitive sequences from metagenomic datasets to MAGs, we developed a targeted

sequencing-based approach for identifying ICE-carrying strains in DNA extracted directly from

WildR-colonized mouse fecal samples. Our method, which we named ICE-seq, is based on

techniques used for identifying transposon insertion locations (Gallagher 2019). In short, we

designed primers to specifically amplify and sequence outward from the 5' and 3' ends of the

ICE to capture the genomic context of the insertion (e.g., ICE junctions; Supplemental Figure

4A). After amplification and sequencing of ICE junctions from fecal pellets collected from 4

WildR-colonized mice, reads were mapped to a large, dereplicated genome catalog containing

the WildR MAGs generated in this study and the comprehensive mouse microbiota genome

(CMMG) catalog to identify ICE-containing strains (Gallagher 2019, Kieser et al. 2022). We

assigned a positive identification of an ICE-containing strain based on the presence of reads

mapping from either end of the ICE that diverge from a single position on a contig.

Supporting the validity of our approach, we detected ICE insertion within *B. acidifaciens*

and *B. caecimuris* F12 (Figure 4A). For these and other species, detection of ICE and the

proportion of ICE-seq reads each represented varied between mice. For *B. acidifaciens* and *B.*

caecimuris F12, this appears to reflect their abundance in individual mice; however, we posit that

exchange of the ICE on a rapid timescale could explain the additional variability observed. We

also found three additional strains harboring the ICE: *Muribaculaceae* CAG-485 sp002362485*,*

Bacteroides spMGG23559, and *Phocaeicola sartorii*. In *Muribaculaceae* CAG-485

sp002362485, we identified four insertion locations for the ICE, suggesting there are multiple

populations of this species harboring the element within the community. To our knowledge,

T6SS-encoding ICE have not previously been detected in a Muribaculaceae family member.

Strikingly, we did not find evidence of ICE insertion in many of the more abundant

Bacteroidales species in the community, including *P. vulgatus, Bacteroides* sp. 910578895 and

Parabacteriodes sp. 910577325. These findings suggest that fitness benefits conferred by

acquiring the ICE could vary across species.

Acquisition of a T6SS-encoding ICE transiently benefits *P. vulgatus*

378   Our finding that the ICE harboring a GA1 T6SS is shared by multiple Bacteroidales

species in the WildR community suggests that it can be exchanged among community members.

However, we also found that many WildR Bacteroidales species do not contain the element,

suggesting the fitness benefit is confers may be species-specific, or that barriers exist that

prevent its transmission to certain strains. To gain insight into the mechanisms governing ICE

distribution, we focused on *P. vulgatus,* a prominent member of the WildR community which

our ICE-seq analysis indicates does not naturally harbor the element (Figure 4A). Using *in vitro*

conjugation assays with *B. acidfaciens* in which we introduced a chloramphenicol resistance

cassette to the ICE, we were able to obtain integrants of the wild-type ICE and mutant

derivatives in *P. vulgatus* (Supplemental Figure 4B)*.* Sequencing revealed the ICE inserts at

multiple locations in this strain characterized by a degenerate, AT-rich sequence (Supplemental

Figure 4C). These findings suggest that barriers to horizontal gene transfer are unlikely to

explain the lack of acquisition of the element by *P. vulgatus* in the context of the WildR.

391   Having obtained *P. vulgatus* strains carrying the ICE, we next asked whether the

transferred T6SS is functional in this context. Surprisingly, we found that *P. vulgatus* carrying

the element is able to use the ICE-encoded T6SS to robustly antagonize a range of Bacteroidales

strains isolated from the WildR, including the parent strain lacking the ICE (Figure 4B). We also

found that acquisition of the ICE by *P. vulgatus* enabled this strain to resist antagonism by *B.*

acidifaciens as a result of acquiring the immunity genes *bai1* and *bai2* (Figure 4C).

While our *in vitro* experiments suggest multiple potential fitness benefits for *P. vulgatus*

of acquiring the ICE, the fact that we fail to detect transfer of the element to this species in

WildR-colonized mice suggests it incurs a fitness cost under physiological conditions not

captured by our *in vitro* assays. To evaluate this possibility, we co-gavaged germ-free mice with

wild-type *P. vulgatus* and derivatives marked with an erythromycin resistance cassette integrated

at a neutral site and carrying the intact ICE, or a version of the ICE in which the T6SS is

inactivated (ICE Δ*tssC*). Strikingly, we found that despite their 10-fold excess in the gavage

sample, each ICE-containing strain was eventually supplanted by the wild-type parent (Figure

4D). Replacement occurred more rapidly when the T6SS on the ICE was inactivated, indicating

that T6SS mediated targeting of the parent strain likely occurred, but was insufficient to

compensate for the fitness cost incurred from acquisition of the element.

We next examined the fitness consequence to *P. vulgatus* of carrying the ICE in the

context of the WildR-colonized mouse intestine. Employing the same carrying capacity-

mediated approach for strain engraft we developed with *B. acidifaciens*, we colonized mice with

the WildR community and *P. vulgatus* strains carrying the wild-type or Δ*tssC* ICE (Figure 4E).

Up to three weeks post-gavage, *P. vulgatus* carrying the wild-type ICE colonized to higher levels

than *P. vulgatus* ICE Δ*tssC,* and dominated endogenous *P. vulgatus* populations (Figure 4F,

Supplemental Fig 4D). This result suggests that T6SS activity provides an advantage to *P.*

vulgatus early in the establishment of the gut community. However, by the conclusion of the

experiment, the abundance of *P. vulgatus* ICE declined significantly, with a concomitant rise in

endogenous *P. vulgatus* populations (Figure 4F, Supplemental Fig 4D). This contrasts with our

findings using germ-free mice co-colonized with endogenous *P. vulgatus* and *P. vulgatus* ICE, in

which we observed a cost to carrying the ICE at early time points (Figure 4D). We speculate that

in the context of the WildR, the competition from the increased diversity of species exerts greater

selection for antagonistic capacity. The extent of T6SS-mediated antagonism by *P. vulgatus*

carrying the ICE is supported by analysis of the overall community structure. In fecal samples

collected 14-21 days post gavage, when *P. vulgatus* ICE and ICE Δ*tssC* abundance differs, we

observe a significant degree of variation between the two communities (Supplemental Figure

4E). At later timepoints, the communities of mice colonized by the two strains were less distinct,

although they remained significantly divergent in one replicate.

The transient nature of the fitness benefit conferred to *P. vulgatus* by T6SS activity in

WildR-colonized mice contrasts with the long-term benefit to T6SS activity we observed for *B.*

acidifaciens (Fig 3E). Given that ICE acquisition by *P. vulgatus* would likely occur after

community establishment – a state in which our data suggest the element does not provide a

lasting benefit to *P. vulgatus* – these results offer an explanation for the lack of ICE in this

species. Interestingly, we found that while *P. vulgatus* ICE Δ*tssC* was initially less able to

colonize mice in the context of the WildR community than *P. vulgatus* carrying an active T6SS,

this strain persisted at similar population levels in a subset of mice throughout the duration of the

experiment (Figure 4F). This result was unexpected, given that *P. vulgatus* ICE Δ*tssC* was

rapidly displaced by the endogenous *P. vulgatus* strain in pairwise gnotobiotic mouse

colonization experiments (Figure 4D). This finding suggests that in the context of the WildR,

functions encoded on the ICE beyond toxin delivery by the T6SS provide a benefit to *P.*

vulgatus. Of note, *P. vulgatus* ICE Δ*tssC* carries the intact immunity genes and therefore retains

the capacity to resist intoxication by Bae1 and Bae2 (Figure 4C); these may contribute to the

fitness benefit of the element in the presence of the WildR, where these toxins could be delivered

by other T6SS-ICE encoding strains.

Discussion

445   In the stable mammalian gut microbiome, where individual strains can persist throughout

the lifetime of an individual, the role of interbacterial antagonism pathways is not well

understood. Modeling-based studies suggest that antagonistic relationships between community

members can be stabilizing to the community as a whole, but how these pathways are employed

in an established community and the degree to which active targeting occurs between community

members in this setting is unexplored (Coyte et al. 2015, Coyte and Rakoff-Nahoum 2019).

Here, we show that an active T6SS is required for persistence of the mouse commensal *B.*

acidifaciens in a natural murine gut community. To our knowledge, our results represent the first

evidence of T6SS-mediated targeting between naturally co-resident gut species. The species

targeted by the *B. acidifaciens* T6SS *in vivo* could not be confidently ascertained by the approach

we employed, likely because this strain represents a small fraction of the community and its

antagonistic activity did not detectably affect other populations. However, *in vitro* experiments

demonstrate that other Bacteroidales species from the same community are effectively targeted

by the T6SS of this organism. We postulate that *B. acidifaciens* relies on T6SS-mediated

antagonism to prevent displacement by competing *Bacteroides.* This model for the role of the

T6SS in gut Bacteroidales is consistent with metagenomic analyses showing that in adult human

gut microbiomes, *B. fragilis* is most likely to carry the T6SS if the overall prevalence of

Bacteroides species is high (Verster et al. 2017, Robitaille et al. 2023).

Under our experimental conditions, the T6SS of *B. acidifaciens* appears to be dispensable

for initial colonization of the murine gut. This result was unexpected, as the T6SS is more

prevalent in human infant gut microbiomes than in adults, suggesting that T6SS-mediated

competition between *Bacteroides* is important during microbiome establishment (Verster et al.

2017, Robitaille et al. 2023). The colonization dynamics associated with WildR introduction to

adult animals differ from the natural process of gut microbiome development. Modifications to

our carrying capacity-driven approach to strain engraftment will be needed to establish a model

that more faithfully replicates the early stages of natural gut microbiome establishment.

Additionally, our experiments did not address the role of the T6SS in resilience following

disturbance, nor in preventing strain invasion, both of which are questions that should be

amenable to future studies employing the WildR model.

A feature shared by the widely distributed GA1 and GA2 T6SSs is their placement within

an ICE (Coyne et al. 2016). Previous studies show these can be exchanged between species

within the gut of an individual human or mouse, suggesting selection for compatibility among

the effector repertoires they encode (Coyne et al. 2014, Garcia-Bayona et al. 2021, Sheahan et al.

2024). However, the factors governing the extent to which the ICE-encoded T6SSs spread

among co-resident *Bacteroides* species are not well understood. We show using ICE-seq that an

ICE-encoded GA1 T6SS is present in a minority of *Bacteroides* species within the gut of a

natural mouse community. The ICE present in two species, *B. acidifaciens* and *B. caecimuris,*

shares >99% sequence identity across the element, indicated it was recently exchanged between

them. Interestingly, we find that T6SS activity contributes to *B. acidifaciens* competitiveness

towards *B. caecimuris* during co-colonization of gnotobiotic mice, suggesting these species may

occupy a similar niche, and thus be in direct competition in their native habitat. Accordingly,

ICE acquisition by one of these species could be expected to exert strong selective pressure for

acquisition and retention of the element in the second species, allowing it to resist intoxication by

its competitor.

In contrast, we find that *P. vulgatus* has not acquired the T6SS-encoding ICE in the

WildR gut community. We show that the T6SS is active in this species, and it can promote initial

gut colonization by *P. vulgatus*. However, during stable gut colonization, the fitness cost of

harboring the element appears to outweigh its benefit. One potential explanation for these results

is that *P. vulgatus* relies on mechanisms other than T6SS-mediated antagonism to maintain its

niche in the gut. An alternative possibility is that the fitness cost incurred by T6SS expression in

P. vulgatus is higher than in species that maintain the element, such as *B. caecimuris* and *B.*

acidifaciens. In support of this, we observed that T6SS activity provided up to a 100-fold

competitive advantage over two days to *P. vulgatus* during growth in competition with WildR

Bacteroidales isolates, whereas in *B. acidifaciens,* the degree of T6SS-dependent

competitiveness was considerably more modest (up to five-fold). This difference suggests that *P.*

vulgatus may lack a regulator that modulates the activity of the T6SS in *B. acidifaciens,* thus

increasing the cost of producing the system in this species. This observation is in-line with a

proposal by Comstock and colleagues that dysregulation is a factor limiting GA1 and GA2

mobility within communities (Garcia-Bayona et al. 2021). Whether other factors contribute to

the differences in the fitness costs and benefits conferred by ICE acquisition across species

remains to be determined.

Our finding that the T6SS of a gut *Bacteroides* species is important for stable

colonization of its native habitat expands the diversity of demonstrated benefits to T6SSs in

natural environments. In both the midgut of honeybees and the light organ of bobtail squid, the

T6SS appears to be primarily important for intraspecies competition (Speare et al. 2018, Motta et

al. 2024). Strains of the squid symbiont *Vibrio fischeri* encoding a T6SS exclude T6SS-deficient

competitors from the light organ crypts they colonize (Speare et al. 2018). Similarly, T6SS-

encoding honeybee gut resident *Snodgrassella alvi* excludes T6SS-deficient strains from bee gut

colonization (Motta et al. 2024). In contrast, the T6SS of *Pseudomonas* species appears to be

important for colonization of soil and the plant roots, and one study found that T6SS activity of

P. protegens affected overall community composition in the tomato rhizosphere (Duran et al.

2021, Vazquez-Arias et al. 2025). Additional studies across more habitats and species will serve

to build a complete picture of the ecological and evolutionary factors that have led to the

dissemination of the T6SS across such a wide diversity of species.

A key challenge facing the field of microbiome research is how to investigate gut

microbe functions of interest in a physiologically relevant context that recapitulates the

complexity of native gut communities. In this study, we have developed a number of resources

and methods to facilitate the use of WildR-colonized mice as a model microbiome composed of

co-evolved species native to the murine gut environment. We have isolated 16 species from the

community, and obtained genomes representing 55% of the phylogenetic diversity of the

community. Our finding that the carrying capacity of the WildR community can be exploited to

facilitate functional replacement of endogenous strains with modified derivatives is a

generalizable method that can be used to answer questions unrelated to T6S or interbacterial

antagonism. These resources and methods should further encourage adoption of the WildR

community as a valuable tool for advancing mechanistic gut microbiome research.

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 Figure Legends

Figure 1. The WildR murine gut microbiome is stable over multiple generations and

harbors an ICE-encoded T6SS

(A) Phylum-level taxonomic composition of the WildR or lab-derived murine gut microbiome at

different generations. Data from the initial wild-caught donor mice (Wild), the WildR F2

generation and the lab mice-derived community derive from new analysis of previously

published sequencing data (Rosshart et al. 2017). WildR F7 data derives from two cryopreserved

samples of pooled ilocecal contents (A, B) and fecal pellets from two mice (1, 2) used to

propagate the community. *indicates technical duplicate samples. Source data is presented in

Supplemental Table 1. (B-E) Comparison of the abundance of the 100 genera most prevalent in

wild donor mice between the indicated communities. Points are shaded to show overlapping

datapoints (darker shades), and Spearman's correlation for each comparison is indicated (ρ). ND,

not detected. (F) To-scale schematic depicting the *Bacteroides acidifaciens* T6SS gene cluster.

(G) Bioinformatic domain predictions for T6SS effector and immunity proteins of *B.*

acidifaciens. Conserved amino acids are indicated in bold.

Figure 2. The *B. acidifaciens* T6SS intoxicates other WildR Bacteroidales species.

(A) Normalized growth yield (final/initial CFU, mean ± SD) of the indicated strains of *B.*

acidifaciens (recipients) after *in vitro* growth in competition with *B. acidifaciens* wild-type or

$\Delta tssC$ (donors). Data are representative of at least three biological replicates. *$p \leq 0.05$ (two-

tailed t-test). CFU, colony forming units; *bae, e; bai, i*. (B) Mean (± SD) relative fitness of wild-

type *B. acidifaciens* relative to a $\Delta tssC$ derivative during *in vitro* growth competition assays with

the indicated species isolated from the WildR community. Data represent 3 biological replicates.

*indicates the T6SS is significantly important for competitiveness (unpaired two-tailed t-test. $p <$

0.05). (C) Abundance (% reads per kilobase per million) of WildR species in two initial wild-

caught donor mice used to establish the WildR (Rosshart et al. 2017). (D) Abundance of *B.*

acidifaciens Δbae1 Δbai1 Δbae2 Δbai2 in mouse fecal samples collected following co-gavage of

germ-free mice with this strain and wild-type or T6SS-inactivated (*ΔtssC*) *B. acidifaciens.* ND,

not detected. *$p < 0.05$ (mixed-model ANOVA with repeated measures and Šidák's multiple

comparisons tests) (E) Relative abundance (compared to total *Bacteroides*) of *B. caecimuris* F5

following co-gavage of germ-free mice with *B. acidifaciens* wild-type or *ΔtssC*. *$p < 0.05$ (two-

way ANOVA with repeated measures and Šidák's multiple comparisons tests). For D and E, n=6

mice from two independent replicates. Boxplots represent the interquartile range and mean for

each condition; whiskers represent minimum and maximum detectable values; points represent

individual values.

Figure 3. Maintenance of *B. acidifaciens* in the WildR community is mediated by the T6SS

(A) Schematic of approach to exploit the carrying capacity of the mouse gut to promote modified

strain engraftment during WildR microbiome establishment without affecting community

structure. Left, design of proof-of-concept experiment to evaluate the effect of increasing the

amount of *B. acidifaciens* relative to the amount of the WildR microbiome during oral gavage.

Right, design of experiment to evaluate the importance of the T6SS for *B. acidifaciens* fitness in

the WildR microbiome-colonized mouse gut. (B-D) Analysis of total (B), or introduced (C,D) *B.*

acidifaciens populations in gavage (Day 0) or post-gavage fecal samples from germ-free mice

colonized with the WildR and variable levels of *B. acid* [exo]. B) Total abundance of *B.*

acidifaciens calculated from sequencing 16S rRNA genes amplified from DNA extracted from

fecal samples. Differences in *B. acidifaciens* abundance across mice gavaged with different

amounts of *B. acid* ^{exo} was not significant (n=4 mice/sample, mixed-effects analysis). C) Relative

abundance of *B. acid* ^{exo} in the indicated fecal samples compared to total *B. acidifaciens* as

determined by qPCR. D) Abundance of *B. acid* ^{exo} in the indicated fecal samples as determined

by plating for CFU on selective media. (E) Principal coordinate analysis of weighted Unifrac

diversity metrics calculated from 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing data from feces collected

from mice colonized with the WildR and variable amounts of *B. acid* ^{exo}. (F-H) Quantification of

B. acid ^{exo} (F,G) or total (H) *B. acidifaciens* population in gavage (Day 0) and post-gavage fecal

samples from germ-free mice colonized with the WildR community and 10-fold excess wild-type

or Δ*tssC B. acid* ^{exo}. n=8 mice per strain, across two biological replicates. (F) CFU quantification

of *B. acid* ^{exo} and *B. acid* ^{exo} Δ*tssC* . $*p \leq 0.05$ (two-way ANOVA with repeated measures and

Šidák's multiple comparisons test). (G) Abundance of *B. acid* ^{exo} or *B. acid* ^{exo} Δ*tssC* relative to

the total *B. acidifaciens* population, as determined by qPCR. $*p \leq 0.05$ (two-way ANOVA with

repeated measures and Šidák's multiple comparisons test). (H) Total abundance of *B.*

acidifaciens, calculated from 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing. Samples from mice

colonized by the WildR community alone (no *B. acid* ^{exo}, white bars) are included for

comparison. Differences in *B. acidifaciens* abundance based on *B. acid* ^{exo} genotype were not

significant (mixed-model ANOVA test). For panels B-D and F-H, boxplots represent the

interquartile range with indicated mean for each condition, whiskers represent maximum and

minimum detectable values, and points show values from individual mice.

Figure 4. *P. vulgatus* gains a limited fitness benefit from the T6SS-encoding ICE in WildR-

colonized mice.

(A) Frequency of mapped ICE junctions deriving from the indicated species as determined by 5′

or 3′ ICE-Seq analysis of DNA extracted from fecal samples collected either 7 or 14 days post-

gavage of the WildR into germ-free mice (n=4). Mice housed in separate or shared cages are

indicated. (B) Relative competitive index from *in vitro* growth competitions between *P. vulgatus*

ICE or ICE Δ*tssC* and recipient strains isolated from the WildR microbiome (Pseudomonadata,

grey; Bacteroidota, green). The mean ± SD from three biological replicates is shown. Asterisks

indicate recipient species for which the difference in competitive index was statistically

significant between donor strains (p<0.05, unpaired two-tailed t-test). (C) Recovery of *P.*

vulgatus strains containing the indicated versions of the ICE after *in vitro* growth with *B.*

acidifaciens. The mean ± SD from one biological replicate and its associated technical replicates

are shown, which represent results from at least three biological replicates. *$p \leq 0.05$ (two-tailed

t-test). *bae, e; bai, i.* (D) Abundance of wild-type *P. vulgatus* in feces collected from mice (n=4)

co-colonized with *P. vulgatus* ICE or *P. vulgatus* ICE Δ*tssC*. Boxplots represent the interquartile

range with indicated mean for each condition, whiskers represent minimum and maximum

values, points show values from individual mice. *$p \leq 0.05$ (two-way ANOVA with repeated

measures test and Šidák's multiple comparisons test). (E) Schematic of experimental design to

test the fitness of *P. vu*l ^{exo} + T6SS-ICE in the WildR community. (F) Recovery of *P. vul* ^{exo} +

ICE (dark blue) or *P. vul* ^{exo} + ICE Δ*tssC* (light blue) from post-gavage fecal samples of mice co-

colonized with the WildR community as depicted in (E). Boxplots represent the interquartile

range with indicated mean for each condition, whiskers represent minimum and maximum

values, points show values from individual mice. Data in panel F is from two biological

replicates with 4 mice per group per replicate (n=8). *$p < 0.05$ (two-way ANOVA with repeated

635 measures and Šidák's multiple comparisons test to compare *P.vulgatus* ICE and ICE Δ*tssC*

636 populations), † $p < 0.05$ (unpaired t-test to compare day 7 and day 56 samples).

638 **Supplemental Figure 1. Evidence supporting stability of the WildR microbiome over**

639 **multiple generations and identification of an ICE-encoded T6SS**

640 (A) Schematic depicting the generation of the WildR F7 cryoprserved stocks from the combined

641 cecal contents of six mice used to propagate the community, and subsequent community

642 characterization steps. (B-C) Comparison of the abundance of the 100 genera most prevalent in

643 wild donor mice between the indicated communities. Points are shaded to show overlapping

644 datapoints (darker shades), and Spearman's correlation for each comparison is indicated (ρ). ND,

645 not detected. (D) Mapping efficiency of metagenomic reads from different WildR community

646 generations to selected murine-derived genome databases: the WildR catalog (86 MAGs and

647 genomes from the WildR, generated in this study) or the comprehensive mouse microbiota

648 genome catalog (CMMG; 1573 species across mouse microbiomes (Kieser et al. 2022)). (E) To-

649 scale schematic of the ICE containing the GA1 T6SS encoded in *B. acidifaciens* and *B.*

650 *caecimuris* F12. Location of single base deletion in *B. caecimuris* F12 highlighted in the orange

651 box.

653 **Supplemental Figure 2. Activity of the *B. acidifaciens* T6SS against species co-resident in**

654 **the WildR community.**

655 (A) *In vitro* mating efficiency of the integrative plasmid pNBU2-*ermG:: tssC* into *B.*

656 *acidifaciens*. "RM silent" indicates plasmid was mutated to remove a *B. acidifaciens* methylated

657 motif. Data shown are mean ± SD from 3 independent matings. N.D., not detected; D.L.,

detection limit. (B) Recipient abundance after *in vitro* growth competitions between *B.*

acidifaciens donors lacking various structural components of the T6SS and the indicated

recipient species. (C) Competitive index from *in vitro* growth competition between indicated

WildR isolates (recipient) and *B. acidifaciens* donors. For B & C, data show the mean ± SD of

technical replicates from one biological replicate and represent results from at least three

biological replicates. *$p \leq 0.05$ by two-tailed t-test; all other comparisons were not significant.

(D) *B. caecimuris* F5 abundance in cecal contents from germ-free mice co-colonized with *B.*

acidifaciens wild-type or $\Delta tssC$. Data show the mean ± SD and points indicate values from

individual mice (n=6) across two biological replicates. *$p \leq 0.05$ (two-tailed t-test). (E) *P.*

vulguatus abundance in feces from germ-free mice (n=6, two biological replicates) co-colonized

with *B. acidifaciens* wild-type or $\Delta tssC$ and *P. vulguatus*. Boxplots represent the interquartile

range with indicated mean for each condition, whiskers represent minimum and maximum

values, points represent individual values. *$p \leq 0.05$ (two-way ANOVA with repeated measures

test and Šidák's multiple comparisons test). (F) *P. vulguatus* abundance in cecal contents from

mice described in panel E. Data show the mean ± SD and points show values from individual

mice (n=6). No statistical difference was found based on *B. acidifaciens* genotype by two-tailed

t-test. (G) Relative abundance (% reads per kb per million) of selected WildR Bacteroidales

species in the WildR F7 generation. Data are mean + SD from cryopreserved WildR stocks and 2

fecal samples from mice used to propagate the WildR F7 community.

Supplemental Figure 3. Addition of *B. acid* [exo] to the WildR does not alter community

composition and enables *in situ* measurement of T6SS-mediated fitness.

(A,B) Recovery of *B. acid* [exo] from feces (A) and cecal contents (B) following gavage of germ-

free mice with the WildR community and the indicated amount of *B. acid* [exo] relative to the

endogenous population. (C,D) Recovery of *B. acid* [exo] or *B. acid* [exo] Δ*tssC* from feces (D) or

cecal contents (E) from mice colonized with the WildR and *B. acid* [exo] strains. *$p \leq 0.05$ (two-

way ANOVA with repeated measures test and Šidák's multiple comparisons test in C, unpaired

t-test in D). For data in panels A-D, boxplots represent the interquartile range with indicated

mean for each condition, whiskers represent minimum and maximum values, and points show

values from individual mice. (E) Principal coordinate analysis of weighted Unifrac diversity

metrics calculated from 16S rRNA amplicon sequencing data from feces collected from mice

colonized with the WildR alone or in combination with the indicated strain of *B. acid* [exo]. Gavage

samples highlighted in pink and remaining timed fecal and cecal (collected at 56 days post

gavage) samples are colored as indicated. Data shown are from one biological replicate,

representative two experiments conducted.

Supplemental Figure 4. Distribution of the T6SS-ICE in the WildR suggests limited fitness

benefit to some *Bacteroides* sp.

(A) Schematic of ICE-seq approach to identify WildR species encoding the ICE. The junction

amplification and sequencing strategy applied to both ends of the ICE is depicted only for the 3′

end for simplicity. (B) Schematic depicting ICE transfer from *B. acidifaciens* (marked with Cm[R])

to *P. vulgatus* (marked with Erm[R]) via *in vitro* conjugation and selective plating. (C) To-scale

schematic of ICE insertion sites in *P. vulgatus* [exo] + ICE transconjugants that acquired the

indicated versions of the ICE. (D) Abundance (relative to total *P. vulgatus*) of the indicated *P.*

vulgatus [exo] in fecal samples from mice co-colonized with the WildR community, as determined

by qPCR. Boxplots represent the interquartile range with indicated mean for each condition,

whiskers represent minimum and maximum values, and points show values from individual mice

(n=8) from two biological replicates. Asterisks indicate significant differences between *P. vul* [exo]

+ ICE and *P. vul* [exo] + ICE Δ*tssC* frequency at the indicated time points ($p<0.05$, Šídák's multiple

comparisons test, mixed model ANOVA with multiple comparisons). N.D., not detected. (E)

Principal coordinate analysis of weighted Unifrac diversity metrics calculated from 16S rRNA

gene amplicon sequencing data from feces collected from mice (n=8/group across 2 biological

replicates) colonized with the WildR and either *P. vul* [exo] + ICE (closed circles) or *P. vul* [exo] +

ICE Δ*tssC* (open circles). The community composition varied between groups at early time

points (purple; Rep 1, $p=0.021$, pseudo-F=2.7; Rep 2, $p=0.011$, pseudo-F=12, PERMANOVA

test), but varied less or not signifcantly at late time points (orange; Rep 1, $p=0.25$, pseudo-F=1.3;

Rep 2, $p=0.003$, pseudo-F=5).

Methods

Strains and culture conditions

Strains employed in this study are listed in Supplemental Table 5. *E. coli* strains employed

include *E. coli* EC100D pir+ (for cloning), and *E. coli* S17-1 λpir and *E. coli* S17-1 λpir +

RK231 (for conjugation into Bacteroidales sp.). *E. coli* was grown aerobically at 37 ˚C in LB.

Other bacterial strains employed in this study were isolated from the WildR community as

described below. Isolates and their culture conditions are listed in Supplemental Tables 5 and 6.

A hard-sided anaerobic workstation (Don Whitley Scientific) containing 10% CO_2, 10% H_2, and

80% N_2 was used for all anaerobic microbiology procedures. If required, antibiotics were

supplemented at the following concentrations: 25 μg erythromycin (erm)/mL, 200 μg gentamicin

(gent)/mL, 25 μg chloramphenicol (cm)/mL, and 100 ng anhydrotetracycline (aTc)/mL.

Generation of WildR reference stocks

Cryoperserved stocks of the WildR microbiome were prepared as previously described

with modifications as described below (Rosshart et al. 2017). All procedures were approved by

the Yale University Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC). Male and female 6-

8 week old mice were housed in as singles or pairs in flexible plastic gnotobiotic isolators with at

12-hr light/dark cycle. Mice were a provided standard chow (5K67 LabDiet; Purina) and water

ad libitum. Frozen ileo-cecal contents from mice colonized with the F6 generation of the WildR

microbiome were obtained from Taconic Biosciences

(https://www.taconic.com/services/microbiome/wild-mouse-microbiome). To propagate this

community, six germ-free C57BL6 mice were inoculated with the WildR microbiome by oral

gavage (100 μL/mouse) on two consecutive days. Fecal samples were collected 14 days after

gavage. After 14 days post gavage, fecal samples were collected for downstream

characterization, mice were euthanized and transferred to an anaerobic chamber. The contents of

the ileum, cecum, and colon ("gut") were collected and pooled from each mouse. Pooled gut

contents were diluted in pre-reduced, sterile PBS-C (PBS pH 7.4 with 1% cysteine) at 15 mL/g

gut contents before passing through a 70 µm cell strainer. Material was then diluted in an equal

volume of storage buffer (PBS-C with 40% glycerol final concentration), aliquoted into Wheaton

vials to maintain an anerobic environment, and stored at -80 ˚C.

Metagenomic sequencing of the WildR community

For shotgun sequencing on the Illumina platform, genomic DNA was extracted from two

aliquots of the propagated, cryopreserved WildR stock (~250 mg of pelleted cells) and fecal

pellets (~50 mg) from two of the six mice inoculated with the Taconic WildR material using the

MoBio PowerFecal DNA Isolation kit (Catalog #12830-50, MoBio Laboratories, California,

USA). Sequencing libraries were prepared using an in-house protocol (Salipante et al. 2014) and

sequenced on the Illumina NextSeq using the NextSeq 500/550 Highoutput kit v2.5 300 cycles

(Cat # 20024908). Samples were processed in technical duplicates to correct for PCR errors.

Raw reads have been deposited with links to BioProject PRJNA1367654 in the NCBI database.

For long-read sequencing (Oxford Nanopore MinION), high-molecular weight (HMW)

gDNA was extracted from ~500 µL of the WildR cryopreserved stock using the Qiagen

Genomic-tip 20/G (Cat#13323) following the protocol for bacterial DNA extraction, except 5 µL

of Qiagen lytic enzyme (catalog #158928) and 10 µL of MetaPolyzme (Millipore Sigma

MAC4L-5MG resuspended in 750 µL of water) were added instead of lysosome for more

efficient enzymatic lysis of diverse bacteria in the community (Maghini et al. 2021). HMW DNA

was then cleaned and concentrated with an isopropanol precipitation as described and eluted in

100 µL of water as previously described (Maghini et al. 2021). DNA was incubated at 55 ˚C for

1 hr before placing at 4 ˚C for 3 days to increase resuspension of HMW gDNA fragments.

Quality and quantity of HMW gDNA were assessed by NanoDrop UV-Vis spectroscopy and

Qubit dsDNA HS fluorimetry assay (Cat# Q33231), respectively, and the presence of fragments

>10 kb was confirmed by agarose gel electrophoresis. Libraries for sequencing using the Oxford

Nanopore MinION were prepared using the Oxford Nanopore SQK-LSK110 kit and 902 ng of

WildR HMW gDNA as the starting material. The sequencing library was loaded onto a R9.4.1

SpotON flow cell and run for 74 hrs on the Mk1C until ~50 pores remained. The run resulted in

22 Gb of sequencing data from 8.6 million reads with an N50 of 5.3 kb. Raw reads have been

deposited with links to BioProject PRJNA1367654 in the NCBI database.

Taxonomic classification of WildR-derived metagenomic sequences

Metagenomic reads, generated from Illumina sequencing of either WildR reference

stocks or fecal samples from mice 14 days post gavage with cecal contents from Taconic, were

cleaned to remove adapter sequences using Trimmomatic (v0.39) (Bolger et al. 2014) and any

reads mapping to the mouse (*Mus musculus*) genome (RefSeq GCF_000001635.27) using

bowtie2 (Langmead and Salzberg 2012). Taxonomic classification of each read was performed

using a publicly available custom Kraken2-Bracken Snakemake pipeline based on the

comprehensive mouse microbiota genome catalog (CMMG; (Lu et al. 2017, Wood et al. 2019,

Kieser et al. 2022) https://github.com/SilasK/Krak). To ensure high fidelity alignment, the

pipeline was modified to include a confidence of 0.51 in the Kraken2 command, and a threshold

of 1000 reads per sample was applied to the Bracken analysis. The same classification pipeline

was applied to metagenomic sequencing data from other WildR generations and lab mice

previously published by Rosshart and colleagues (Rosshart et al. 2017). Classifications were

condensed at the order and genus levels for downstream analyses.

Metagenome assembly

WildR metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs) were generated from Illumina and

MinION reads using the MUFFIN 1.0.6 pipeline ((Van Damme et al. 2021);

https://github.com/RVanDamme/MUFFIN). Briefly, short and long reads were filtered for high-

quality before performing hybrid assembly with MetaFlye (version 2.7;

https://github.com/mikolmogorov/Flye). Instead of the default polishing step using Pilon, we

modified the MUFFIN pipeline to reduce error by using Polypolish for short read polishing of

our assemblies ((Wick and Holt 2022); https://github.com/rrwick/Polypolish). Binning was

performed with Concot (version 1.1.0) (Alneberg et al. 2014) , Metabat2 (version 2.13) (Kang et

al. 2019), and Maxbin2 (version 2.2.7, https://sourceforge.net/projects/maxbin2/), and refined by

metawrap (version 1.2.2) (Uritskiy et al. 2018). Hybrid reassembly was then performed with

Unicycler (version 0.4.7) (Wick et al. 2017). Bin quality was determined using CheckM (version

1.0.13) (Parks et al. 2015) and taxonomic classification was performed with GTDB-tk (version

2.1.0) (Chaumeil et al. 2019) . Finally, all genomes were annotated with Prokka (version 1.12)

(Seemann 2014). The assembly details and quality for each MAG are listed in Supplemental

Table 2. MAG sequences are available at https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.17716312.

WildR isolate collection and identification

Media used for cultivation of isolates from the WildR community include supplemented

Brucella-blood agar [BBL ™ Brucella broth (BD Cat#90000-076), 50 mg hemin/L, 0.5 mg

menadione/L, and 5% defibrinated horse blood], Tryptone Yeast Extract Glucose (TYG)

Medium (20g tryptone/L, 10g yeast extract/L, 5 g glucose/L, 1 g cysteine/L, 71 µM CaCl$_2$, 78

µM MgSO$_4$, 0.3 mM KH$_2$PO$_4$, 0.3 mM K$_2$HPO$_4$, 1.4 mM NaCl, 5 mg hemin/L, and 0.2%

NaHCO$_3$) (PMID: 18770533), BHIS-FBS [Brain heart infusion (BHI) powder supplemented

with 5 mg hemin/L, 0.2 mg menadione/L, 0.5 g cysteine/L, and 10% fetal bovine serum], BHIS-

blood agar (BHI supplemented with 5 mg hemin/L, 1 g cysteine/L, 0.2% NaHCO$_3$, 5%

defibrinated horse blood, and 1.5% agar), Columbia-blood agar [Columbia broth powder (BD

#294420) supplemented with 0.5 mg menadione/L and 5% defibrinated horse blood], MRS

[MRS broth (BD #288130), supplemented with 1.5% agar if required], YCFAC [Yeast casitone

fatty acids with carbohydrates broth (#AS-680) or agar (#AS-675) purchased from Anaerobe

Systems], and BG [23.1 g Bryant and Burkey Medium (BB)/L (Sigma Aldrich #91903) and 12.5

g modified Gifu Anaerobic Medium (mGAM)/L (Himedia Laboratorires #M2079), which is a

70:30 ratio of BB:mGAM] (Javdan et al. 2020). All media was degassed for at least 24 hours

before culturing.

Dilutions of the WildR reference stock or fresh fecal pellets collected from WildR-

colonized mice resuspended in PBS were plated on anaerobic media and incubated anaerobically

at 37 ˚C for 2-4 days. Single colonies were picked and used to inoculate broth cultures or were

restruck on fresh plates and incubated at 37 ˚C anaerobically for 2 days. For storage, sterile, pre-

reduced 50% glycerol was added to cultures, and the mixture was stored at -80 ˚C. Cultures were

then screened for taxonomic identity by full-length 16S rRNA gene or *gyrB* gene sequencing

(primer sequences provided in Supplemental Table 5. Target genes were amplified from ~2 µL

of cultured cells resuspended in 20 µL TE (10 mM Tris, pH 8; 1 mM EDTA). PCR products

were cleaned up with Exo-SAP-IT (ThermoFisher, Catalog # 78201.1.ML) and then sequenced

by Sanger sequencing. Resulting reads were trimmed and assigned putative taxonomy using

blastn against the 16S ribosomal RNA sequences (Bacteria and Archea) database {Altschul,

1990 #280}. After initial screening, representative cultures from each species identified were

subjected to an additional round of strain purification by streaking for single colonies, and

species identity was reconfirmed by Sanger sequencing of the full-length 16S rRNA gene

amplicons. Strains isolated and their growth conditions are listed in Supplemental Table 6.

Whole genome sequencing of WildR isolates

De novo genome sequencing of WildR isolates was performed using a combination of

short (Illumina) and long-read sequencing. High molecular weight gDNA was extracted from

Bacteroidales sp. using the Qiagen genomic tip (20/G) kit following the standard protocol for

Gram-negative extraction. The HMW DNA extraction kit from NEB (#T3060) was used for

extracting HMW gDNA from *L. murinus* following the standard input protocol except the lysis

buffer contained 5 µL of Qiagen lytic enzyme (catalog #158928) and 10 µL of metapolyzme

(Millipore Sigma MAC4L-5MG resuspended in 750 µL of water). HMW gDNA was extracted

from *L. reuteri* and *L. johnsonii* using the Promega Wizard HMW DNA Extraction kit (#A2920).

For *M. intestinale*, *M. gordoncarteri*, *S. musculi*, and *D. freteri*, gDNA was extracted with

mechanical lysis and column clean up. To lyse cells, 500 µL of PB (Qiagen), 250 µL 20% SDS,

550 µL of phenol:chloroform:isoamyl alcohol (24:24:1), and ~250 µL of 0.1-mm-zirconia-silica

beads were added to ~2×10^9 cells. Cells were then mechanically lysed with bead beating (RT, 1

min at high speed, 2 cycles) (BioSpec). Genomic DNA was further purified using columns from

the Qiagen Blood and Tissue kit (#69504) and washed following the standard protocol.

Extraction of genomic DNA from modified *B. acidifaciens* and *P. vulgatus* clones for

resequencing was performed using the Qiagen Blood & Tissue kit (#69504) following the

protocol for Gram-negative bacteria. For all gDNA extractions, the quality and size of gDNA

was assessed by Qubit, nanodrop, and agarose gel electrophoresis before library prep.

Libraries for short-read whole genome sequencing were prepared with the Illumina DNA

prep kit (catalog #20018704), multiplexed using barcoded adapters purchased from IDT (IDT for

Illumina DN/RNA UD Indexes SetA, Catalog #20027213), and sequenced on either the Illumina

iSeq or the MiniSeq, which included a 5% PhiX spike-in, to obtain paired-end reads (2x150 bp).

To facilitate generation of closed genomes, *Bacteroidales* and *Lactobacillales* spp. were also

sequenced on the Oxford Nanopore MinION. Libraries for long-read sequencing were prepared

using LSK-110 with modifications to include ligation of barcodes (EXP-NBD104) following the

protocol described for the LSK-109 kit. Briefly, DNA was repaired following the LSK-110

protocol using NEB buffers. Then, barcodes were ligated using Blunt/TA ligase following steps

described for the LSK-109 kit. Finally, after barcode ligation, adapter sequences were ligated as

described for LSK-110. The sequencing library was loaded onto a R.9.4.1 SpotON flow cell and

run on the Mk1C until $\geq$ 200,000 reads were collected for each sample. If more reads were

required, the flow cell was washed, and more libraries were loaded.

For *Bacteroidales* and *Lactobacillales* spp., genomes were assembled from long reads

using Trycycler (v0.5.3, (Wick et al. 2021)). Briefly, reads were subsampled and assembled with

either Flye (v2.9-b1768; (Kolmogorov et al. 2019)), Miniasm (v0.3-r179)+Minipolish (v0.1.2)

(Wick and Holt 2019), or Raven (v1.8.1; https://github.com/lbcb-sci/raven) before combining

similar assemblies to generate a single consensus sequence as described in the Trycycler wiki

(https://github.com/rrwick/Trycycler/wiki). Assemblies were polished with Illumina reads using

Polypolish (version 0.5.0; (Wick and Holt 2022)) and Pilon (version 1.24; (Walker et al. 2014)).

For *Phocaeicola vulgatus*, genomes were assembled using the hybrid assembly feature in

Unicycler (version 0.4.8; (Wick et al. 2017)). Finally, genomes were annotated with Prokka

(version 1.14.6; (Seemann 2014)). For other species, adapters were removed from reads using

BBDuk (version 38.84) in Geneious Prime (2024.0.5) (https://www.geneious.com), and then

genomes were assembled with the Geneious assembler. For genomes deriving from modified

clones of *B. acidifaciens* and *P. vulgatus,* spontaneous mutations were determined by aligning

short reads to assembled genomes from the parental strains using BreSeq (Deatherage and

Barrick 2014). Genome and assembly metrics for each isolate genome are listed in

Supplemental Table 2, and all genomes have been deposited with links to BioProject

PRJNA1367654 in the NCBI database.

Determining the abundance of species in the WildR community

Abundance of species for which we had obtained a genome sequence (MAG or isolated-

derived) was assessed by quantifying the frequency of metagenomic sequencing reads mapping

to the genome of interest. Cleaned short, metagenomic reads from either wild donor, F2 WildR

mice (Rosshart et al. 2017) or F7 WildR cryopreserved stocks were mapped to a catalog

containing WildR F7 MAGs and isolate genomes using BWA-MEM

(https://arxiv.org/abs/1303.3997), retaining only correctly paired read alignments using samtools

(Li et al. 2009). Reads for all contigs in a MAG or isolate genome were summed and the

percentage of reads per kilobase per million reads was calculated. For each sample, the total

reads mapping to this catalog was retrieved using samtools flagstat. The same metagenomic

reads were also mapped to all genomes in the CMMG catalog (https://ezmeta.unige.ch/CMMG/)

using the same BWA-MEM command.

Identification and bioinformatic characterization of an ICE-encoded T6SS in WildR

genomes

905   To identify T6SS gene clusters present in WildR strains, we first searched for genes

annotated to encode T6SS-related functions in the genomes of Bacteroidales isolates from the

community. This led to the identification of candidate T6SS gene clusters in strains of *B.*

acidifaciens and *B. caecimuris*. Blastp searches against the NCBI non-redundant protein

sequence database with each of the candidate T6SS genes in the clusters found that each

predicted T6SS component shares ≥80% identity with previously characterized T6SS proteins in

other Bacteroidales species, and confirmed that the gene clusters contain the complete

compliment of genes required to constitute a functional T6SS[iii] {Altschul, 1990 #280;Coyne,

2016 #106;Russell, 2014 #1311}. Putative effector genes were identified based on proximity of

genes to the T6SS structural genes (e.g., VgrG) and the presence of N-terminal domains

associated with T6SS effectors (e.g., PAAR). Effector activity of the C-terminal region of

candidate effectors (~100 aa) was predicted using CD-Search and Foldseek {Marchler-Bauer,

2009 #1033;van Kempen, 2023 #2245}. For the later, positive hits from the AFDB50 database

were defined by a probability score of 1. Immunity genes were assigned based on proximity to a

putative effector, length (<200 a.a.), and presence of immunity domains identified by CD-

Search.

921   The boundaries of the 115 kb T6SS-ICE were determined based on loss of 100% identity

in a pairwise alignment between the *B. acidifaciens* and *B. caecimuris* F12 T6SS neighboring

sequences (Geneious). Putative functions were assigned to each gene based on similar blastp hits

(>30% identity) and classified according to functions typically encoded in ICEs {Coyne, 2014

#85}.

***B. acidifaciens* methylome identification**

For long-read sequencing using Pacific Biosciences (HiFi/SMRT sequencing), high-

molecular-weight (HMW) genomic DNA from each isolate was extracted as described above for

the Oxford Nanopore workflow. PacBio HiFi libraries were prepared using the SMRTbell

Express Template Prep Kit v2.0 (Pacific Biosciences) according to the manufacturer's

recommendations for microbial HiFi genome sequencing, starting with 5–10 µg of HMW DNA

per sample. Sequencing was performed on a PacBio Sequel II instrument at the Fred Hutchinson

Cancer Center, generating circular consensus sequence (CCS) reads. Raw subreads were

processed in SMRT Link (v11.0.0.146107), and CCS reads were used as input for the Microbial

Assembly workflow, which performs long-read assembly, polishing, and contig finishing. For

each genome, assembly statistics, CCS concordance, contiguity, depth of coverage, and base

modification metrics were obtained directly from the SMRT Link analysis reports. Methylation

analysis was carried out using the Base Modification and Motif Analysis module with default

m6A/m4C detection models. Final polished assemblies and methylome calls for all strains (*B.*

acidifaciens, *B. caecimuris* F12, *B. thetaiotaomicron*, *B. uniformis*, *P. vulgatus*, and *P.*

distasonis) were exported from SMRT Link and used for downstream comparative analysis.

Raw sequences have been deposited with links to BioProject PRJNA1367654 in the NCBI

database.

Genetic manipulation of *Bacteroides* strains

Standard molecular procedures were employed for creation, maintenance and

transformation of plasmids in *E. coli.* The primers, plasmids, and strains designed for this study

are listed in Supplemental Table 5. All primers were purchased from Integrated DNA

Technologies (IDT) and geneblocks were synthesized by Twist Biosciences. Enzymes such as

OneTaq polymerase, restriction enzymes, and Gibson Assembly reagents were purchased from

New England Biolabs (NEB). To generate pNBU2-erm-us1311::*tssC*-singleRMsilent, a two bp

change was introduced in the GATATC motif found in the plasmid using quickchange. To

generate pLGB13-RMsilent and pNBU2-erm-RMsilent::P5E4, all *B. acidifaciens* methylation

sites were identified in the parent plasmid by sequence homology (eight and four, respectively)

and then single base pair mutations were designed to remove specific motifs. Plasmids were

assembled from synthesized geneblocks containing mutations and amplified fragments of

unmodified regions using Gibson assembly and validated by whole plasmid sequencing

(Plasmidsauraus).

Gene knockouts in *B. acidifaciens* using either pSIE1 or pLGB13 derivatives were

generated following previously published protocols with the following modifications (Garcia-

Bayona and Comstock 2019, Bencivenga-Barry et al. 2020). Briefly, plasmids were mobilized

from *E. coli* S17 into *B. acidifaciens* via overnight anaerobic mating at 37 ˚C where *E. coli* was

mixed with a 10-fold excess of *B. acidifaciens*. To further improve mating efficiency, *E. coli* S17

harboring the RK231 helper plasmid was also included in the mating mixture at equal CFU to *E.*

coli S17 harboring the plasmid for allelic exchange (Smith et al. 1992). Merodiploids were

isolated by plating on selective media, passaged once in BHIS-FBS without antibiotics to allow

for plasmid excision, and plated on Brucella-blood supplemented with aTc for counter selection

of the plasmid. Resulting colonies were patched onto selective Brucella-blood plates to confirm

loss of the plasmid, and the gene disruption of interest was confirmed by colony PCR. For select

mutants employed in germ-free mouse colonization experiments, we performed whole-genome

sequencing using an Illumina MiniSeq to identify second site mutations, as described above.

Strains expressing heterologous copies of *clpV* were generated by cloning *clpV* and an intrinsic

terminator from pWW3855 downstream of the P5E4 promoter in pNBU2-ermG-RMsilent::P5E4

as previously described (Whitaker et al. 2017).

Integration of pNBU2-ermG or derivatives was performed as previously described (Wang

et al. 2000, Koropatkin et al. 2008, Whitaker et al. 2017), but with modified mating conditions as

indicated above. Resulting transconjugants were selected on Brucella-blood supplemented with

gentamycin and erythromycin, colony purified to confirm Erm^R, and stocked.

Interbacterial transfer of the GA1 T6SS-encoding ICE

To transfer the T6SS-encoding ICE from *B. acidifaciens* to *P. vulgatus*, we modified

previously described methods for spontaneous *in vitro* mobile element transfer (Supplemental

Figure 4B; (Ross et al. 2019)). First, we used allelic exchange as described above to insert a

chloramphenicol resistance gene under the control of the constitutive P1 promoter in a neutral

site in the ICE in *B. acidifaciens*. Then, Cm^R *B. acidifaciens* cells from overnight cultures were

mixed with Erm^R *P. vulgatus* cells at a 10:1 ratio (OD$_{600}$ 6) on Brucella-blood plates. Following

24-hours of anaerobic co-culture growth, cells were harvested, resuspended in PBS, and plated

on Brucella-blood supplemented with chloramphenicol and erythromycin to select

transconjugants. Resulting transconjugants were colony purified and whole genome sequencing

was performed using the Illumina platform as described above. Resulting reads that aligned to

both the ICE and *P. vulgatus* genome, determined using minimap2 were used to identify the ICE

insertion sites (Li 2018). Reads generated in this sequencing have been deposited with links to

BioProject PRJNA1367654 in the NCBI database.

***In vitro* bacterial growth competition assays**

For intra- and interspecies growth competition experiments, donor and recipient strains

were spread as lawns on plates and incubated anaerobically at 37 ˚C for 24-48 hours. Most

Bacteroides sp, *Parabacteroides distasonis*, and *Phocaeicola vulgatus* were grown on Brucella-

blood plates, except for *B. sp*910578895, which was grown on BHIS-blood. Other media such as

Columbia-agar (*S. musculi*, *M. intestinale*), MRS agar (*L. murinus*), LB agar (*E. fergusonii*), and

YCFAC (*D. freteri*, *M. gordoncarteri*) were used to culture additional recipient species tested

(Supplemental Table 6). Cells were harvested from plates and resuspended in 1 mL PBS, before

measuring the OD_{600} and diluting to OD 20 or OD 0.2 for donor and recipient strains,

respectively. Cell dilutions were combined at a 1:1 ratio (100:1 final donor:recipient ratio), 10

μL of the mixture was spotted onto plates, and mixtures were incubated anaerobically at 37 ˚C

for 16-20 hours. Most assays were performed on Brucella-blood plates supplemented with 3%

agar except for competitions performed on BHIS-blood with 3% agar (*B. sp*910578895 and *E.*

gallinarum), Columbia-blood with 3% agar (*S. musculi* and *M. intestinale*), or YCFAC (*M.*

gordoncarteri, *D. freteri*). Growth competitions with strict anaerobes (*S. musculi*, *M intestinale*,

M. gordoncateri, and *D. freteri*) were performed entirely under anaerobic conditions using pre-

reduced media. After incubation, all cells were harvested and resuspended in 1 mL of PBS.

Quantification of species abundance at the start and end of each assay was performed by

enumerating colony forming units (CFU) or qPCR. CFU enumeration was used to quantify

species abundance for intraspecies (recipients, Em^R) or interspecies (donors, *B. acidifaciens*

Cm^R; recipients *P. vulgatus*, *B. uniformis*, *B. thetaiotaomicron*, *B. caecimuris* F5, *B. caecimuris*

F12, and *P. distasonis*, Em^R or *E. gallinarum* (BHI-blood, aerobic), *L. murinus* (MRS,

anaerobic), or *E. fergusonii* (LB, aerobic)) growth competitions. Interspecies growth

competitions with strict anaerobes, *B. sp*910578895, or *P. vulgatus* donors were quantified by

qPCR using strain specific primers (Supplemental Table 5). For qPCR, genomic DNA from cell

pellets of competition mixtures was extracted using either the Qiagen Blood & Tissue kit

following the protocol for extraction from Gram-negative organisms or via mechanical lysis as

described above. DNA was quantified via Qubit (ThermoFisher) and diluted before using as

template DNA in qPCR (SsoAdvanced, BioRad). All experiments were performed with technical

triplicates for at least three biological replicates.

1026

Gnotobiotic mouse colonization studies

Animal care

In accordance with protocols approved by the University of Washington Institutional

Animal Care and Use Committee, germ-free 5-12 week old male and female Swiss Webster mice

from multiple litters were randomly selected and housed in pairs in single Techniplast cages with

a 12-hour light/dark cycle and fed a standard lab diet (Laboratory Autoclavable Rodent Diet

5010, LabDiet). Blinding was not performed. For each experiment, the number of animals per

group (n=4) was selected based on Lemorte power calculations to measure a difference of ~10-

fold bacterial abundance with a $p < 0.05$ at 80% power along with housing and maintenance

considerations for gnotobiotic mice. Mouse feces were confirmed to be sterile prior to

colonization by PCR with primers targeting the 16S rRNA gene.

1038

Mouse colonization procedures

Bacterial strains to be employed in germ-free mouse colonization experiments were

grown anaerobically on Brucella-blood plates, resuspended in BHI broth, and diluted. For

experiments to determine strain competitiveness in a simplified context, pairs of strains were

combined at a 100:1 (10^9 : 10^7 CFU, *B. acidifaciens: P. vulgatus*) or 10:1 ratio (10^9: 10^8 CFU, all

other donor–recipient pairs), as determined by prior calculation of the OD600 to CFU

correspondence. This mixture was introduced into germ-free mice via oral gavage (200 µL per

mouse).

To colonize mice with the WildR microbiome and a genetically modified WildR isolate

(e.g., *B. acid ^{exo}*), we first estimated the approximate abundance of the endogenous isolate (e.g.,

B. acid ^{endo}) in the WildR stocks using a combination of CFU enumeration, qPCR, and 16S

rRNA sequencing. The total CFU of Bacteroidales strains from the *Bacteroides*, *Phocaeicola*,

and *Parabacteroides* in the WildR reference stocks was determined by plating on Brucella-blood

agar supplemented with gentamycin, a condition selective for the order. The abundance of *B.*

acidifaciens relative to total Bacteroidales levels in WildR stocks was then determined using

qPCR with species and order-specific primers on DNA extracted from WildR reference stocks,

and this measurement was used to estimate the contribution of CFUs from *B. acidifaciens* to the

total Bacteroidales population (~3×10^4 CFU/ml of WildR cryopreserved stocks). An estimate for

the abundance of *P. vulgatus* CFUs in WildR stocks (~3×10^6 CFU/ml) was calculated in a

similar manner, except the fraction of total Bacteroidales represented by this strain was

determined by counting reads from 16S rRNA gene sequencing of amplicons from WildR

reference stock genomic DNA, as described below.

Modified strains to be introduced to mice along with the WildR community were grown

and suspended in BHI broth as described above for isolate colonization studies. Suspensions

were then diluted to the desired CFU level (~3x10^4, 3x10^5 or 3x10^6 *B. acid* ^{exo} CFU or ~3x10^7 *P.*

vul ^{exo} CFU) in 1 mL of the WildR reference stock under anaerobic conditions. After preparation,

the mixture was stored in Wheaton crimp top vials to maintain an anaerobic environment and

then introduced into germ-free Swiss Webster mice via a single oral gavage (150-200 µL per

mouse). For all germ-free mouse colonization experiments, levels of introduced strains in the

gavage mixtures were determined by diluting and plating on selective media.

1069

Quantification of bacterial populations in fecal and cecal samples

Fresh fecal pellets were collected from colonized animals at regular intervals, and cecal

contents were collected from euthanized animals at the conclusion of the experiment as

described for WildR reference stock generation. To enumerate CFUs of marked strains, fresh

fecal pellets or cecal contents (~50-100 mg/sample) were homogenized in PBS using sterile

pestles. Insoluble material was removed via gentle centrifugation (500 x*g*, 30s) and the resulting

supernatant was diluted in PBS. Dilutions were plated on selective media (e.g., Brucella-blood

supplemented with erythromycin and gentamycin to isolate *B. acid* ^{exo} from the WildR

community) and incubated anaerobically at 37 ˚C. Final CFU counts were normalized to initial

fecal weights. Remaining fecal or cecal material from these collections was stored at -80 ˚C for

gDNA extraction.

The abundance of modified strains relative to total bacteria present or endogenous

populations in WildR-colonized mice was determined by qPCR. Genomic DNA was extracted

from thawed fecal pellets or cecal contents (~50-100 mg/sample) by first combining samples

with 200 µL of 0.1-mm-diameter zirconia/silica beads (BioSpec Products, Bartlesville, OK), 500

µL of CP Buffer (Omega Biotek, #PDR042) or PB Buffer (Qiagen), 250 µL of 20% SDS, and

550 µL of phenol:chloroform:isoamyl alcohol (24:24:1) (ThermoFisher). Microbial cells were

mechanically lysed with a bead beater at room temperature (BioSpec Products; instrument on

high for 1 min; 2 cycles) and then centrifuged at 10,000 xg for 10 min to separate phases. All of

the aqueous phase containing gDNA (~400-500 µL/sample) was applied to E-Z 96™ DNA

plates (Omega Biotek; #BD96-01) or Qiagen Blood and Tissue columns and cleaned following

the standard protocol. DNA was quantified by fluorimetry (Qubit, ThermoFisher) and then

diluted to ~5 ng/uL in EB (10 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.5; Omega Biotek PDR048). Relative species

or strain abundance was determined by qPCR using primers described in Supplemental Table 5.

All qPCR was performed using a CFX96 instrument (BioRad) and SsoAdvanced Universal

SYBR Green Supermix (BioRad).

1096

Community structure analysis by 16S rRNA gene amplicon

The V3-V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene was amplified from genomic DNA extracted

from fecal and cecal samples following the standard Illumina protocol for 16S metagenomic

sequencing (Illumina Part # 15044223 Rev. B) with the following modifications. Briefly,

purified gDNA was quantified by Qubit, diluted to 5 ng/µL, and amplified using primers

16S_v3v4_fwd_Illumina and 16S_v3v4_rev_Illumina (Supplemental Table 5) and 2x KAPA

HiFi HotStart ReadyMix (Roche). PCR was performed in triplicate to avoid jackpot

amplification. Reactions were prepared in a biosafety cabinet to prevent contamination and each

run included no-template controls. Pooled PCR products for each sample were cleaned using

AmpureXP beads (Bruker). A second PCR was performed to add sequencing adapters and

barcodes (IDT for Illumina UD Indexes Plates A-D) using 2x KAPA HiFi HotStart ReadyMix.

Final PCR products were cleaned and normalized with the Sequalprep Normalization Plate kit

(Thermo Scientific). The size and quantity of DNA libraries from select samples was confirmed

by agarose gel electrophoresis and fluorimetry (Qubit), respectively.

Equal volumes of 16S rRNA libraries prepared from up to 384 samples was pooled and

quantified for sequencing. Libraries were denatured, diluted, and combined with PhiX spike-in

before sequencing on the MiSeq or NextSeq2000 (300-bp paired reads; dual 10 bp indexes; 10 or

25% PhiX, respectively). Samples were demultiplexed with onboard software for each

instrument. All data generated from this sequencing has been deposited with links to BioProject

PRJNA1367654 in the NCBI database.

Analysis of 16S rRNA sequencing data was performed using Qiime2 (v2020.11; (Bolyen

et al. 2019)). Primers were trimmed using the qiime cutadapt plugin before using DADA2 for

ASV calling and counting to determine the relative abundance of each ASV. Beta diversity

metrics (Unifrac) were calculated from rarefied data using the qiime diversity plugin and

statistical tests were performed with the qiime longitudinal plugin. Principle component analysis

plots were generated in R using cmdscale. To quantify total *B. acidifaciens* abundance, we

performed a custom taxonomic assignment of ASVs. The top taxonomic hit for each ASV was

obtained by a BLAST search of each ASV in the WildR MAG and isolate genome catalog.

These new taxonomic assignments were combined with relative abundance of each ASV

calculated from the DADA2 analysis to determine relative frequencies of *B. acidifaciens*.

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ICE-seq library preparation and data analysis

Genomic DNA was extracted from fecal samples as described above and used to prepare

ICE-seq libraries following previously described methods with the modifications described

below (Gallagher 2019) (Supplemental Figure 4A). Briefly, DNA was sheared to ~500 bp

average size and C-tailed. Sequences outside of the ICE at either the 5' or 3' ends of the ICE were

specifically amplified using primers annealing within the ICE at either the 5' or 3' end ("ICE

junction") and a C-tailed specific primer (Supplemental Table 5). After DNA purification, a

second round of PCR was performed to amplify the ICE junctions and add adapter and index

sequences for sequencing. Samples were pooled and multiplexed samples were sequenced as 75-

bp single-end reads on an Illumina MiniSeq with 30% PhiX DNA spiked in using a custom mix

containing three primers for sequencing the 5', 3', and PhiX sequences.

Illumina sequencing reads were analyzed using a portion of previously described custom

Python script (Gallagher 2019). Sequences were filtered for those containing the first 5 bp

(ATAAT) or 7 bp (ATTATTG) of the ICE 5' and 3' ends, respectively. Then reads were aligned

using a BWA aligner to a composite CMMG-WildR catalog, which was dereplicated (at 99%

ANI) using dRep (v3.5.0) (Olm et al. 2017, Kieser et al. 2022). Reads per insertion site were

tallied, and insertion sites were filtered to include only sites where reads mapped in opposite

directions from both ends of the ICE. To calculate the percentage of ICE reads mapping in a

sample, the total of mapped reads fitting these criteria was calculated and the fraction of each

insertion site was then determined. The percentage was independently calculated for reads

generated from either end of the ICE. Sequencing reads have been deposited with links to

BioProject PRJNA1367654 in the NCBI database.

1150

1151   **Statistical analysis**

1152   Statistical analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism (version 10.2.3 for Mac OS X,

1153   GraphPad Software, Boston, Massachusetts USA, www.graphpad.com) using tests described in

1154   the main text and figure legends.

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1371

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

A Generate WildR cryopreserved stocks & isolate collection

E GA1 T6SS containing integrative and conjugative element (ICE)