Running title: Complete life cycle of the bioluminescent California Sea Firefly

Laboratory culture of the California Sea Firefly *Vargula tsujii* (Ostracoda: Cypridinidae):

Developing a model system for the evolution of marine bioluminescence

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Abstract

Bioluminescence, or the production of light by living organisms via chemical reaction, is

widespread across Metazoa. Culturing bioluminescent organisms from diverse taxonomic

groups is important for determining the biosynthetic pathways of bioluminescent substrates,

which may lead to new tools for biotechnology and biomedicine. Although some previously

cultured luminescent groups represent independent origins of bioluminescence, cnidarians,

ctenophores, and brittle stars use luminescent substrates (luciferins) obtained from their diets,

and therefore are not informative for determination of the biosynthethic pathways of the

luciferins. Terrestrial fireflies do synthesize their own luciferin, but the biosynthetic pathway for

firefly luciferin remains unclear. An additional independent origin of endogenous

bioluminescence is found within ostracods from the family Cypridinidae, which use their

luminescence for defense and, in Caribbean species, for courtship displays. Here, we report the

first complete life cycle of a luminous ostracod (*Vargula tsujii*, the California Sea Firefly) in the

laboratory. We also describe the embryonic development of *Vargula tsujii* and discuss the size

classes of instar development. We find embryogenesis in *V. tsujii* ranges between 25-38 days,

and this species appears to have five instar stages, consistent with ontogeny in other cypridinid

lineages. We estimate a complete life cycle at 3-4 months. We present the first complete

mitochondrial genome for *Vargula tsujii*. Finally, we find no evidence of significant population

genetic structure or cryptic species throughout the southern California range of *V. tsujii*. Bringing

a luminous ostracod into laboratory culture sets the stage for many potential avenues of study,

including the biosynthetic pathway of cypridinid luciferin and genomic manipulation of an

autogenic bioluminescent system.

Keywords: ostracod, cypridinid, animal culture, cypridinid luciferin, embryogenesis,

Crustacea

Introduction

The production of bioluminescence in animals is an important biological innovation that is particularly prevalent in marine environments [1]. To produce light, animals combine an enzyme (usually a luciferase or photoprotein) and a substrate (luciferin) with oxygen, and sometimes additional components such as ATP or calcium [2–4]. Although the enzymes that produce light are well-studied [5–13], and we know how the substrate is produced in bacteria [14] and fungi [15], we do not yet know how luciferin is synthesized in any animal system. A comprehensive understanding of this pathway could be transformative for optogenetics in transgenic organisms, where the ability to produce bioluminescence in situ as a biosensor or light source would be invaluable. Some laboratory-reared luminescent animals already exist (Table 1), but may not be suitable for studying luciferin biosynthesis. In particular, ctenophores, cnidarians, and brittle stars use coelenterazine obtained from their diet as a substrate [1]. Fireflies do use an endogenous luciferin specific to Coleoptera (beetles) [16], but they often have longer life cycles than other taxa, slowing research progress [17]. Although there are other independent origins of autogenic bioluminescence, which we define as that produced via luciferase and luciferin that are synthesized via the genome of the light producing animal, no laboratory cultures exist yet. This makes additional studies focused on the comparative evolution of this ability extremely challenging.

Ostracods from the family Cypridinidae independently evolved bioluminescence, and use a luciferin that is endogenous to ostracods and chemically different from that of other bioluminescent organisms [2,18,19]. Of the metazoan taxa already cultured, autogenic luminescence is only known to occur within fireflies [20,21]. Due to the independent origin of ostracod bioluminescence in the family Cypridinidae, and evidence for the autogenic nature of the necessary luciferin and luciferase, ostracods represent a critical lineage for understanding how bioluminescence evolved. Establishing laboratory cultures of luminescent ostracods within

Cypridinidae would pave the way for investigations into the biosynthetic pathway of luciferins in

Metazoa, as well as comparative studies of the biochemistry, physiology, genetics, and function

of endogenous bioluminescence.

Cypridinidae is estimated to include over 300 ostracod species [22], some of which use

bioluminescence for defense, while others possess the ability to create bioluminescent courtship

displays in addition to defensive secretions [23]. Lineages with sexually dimorphic bioluminescent

displays, such as those in Cypridinidae, have more species than their non-displaying sister

lineages, indicating that origins of bioluminescent courtship may increase diversification rates

(Ellis and Oakley 2016). As such, cypridinid ostracods represent an excellent system for

understanding how behavioral diversification can lead to increases in species accumulation.

Furthermore, cypridinid ostracods diversified while generating bioluminescence with a

consistent biochemical basis across the clade [24], meaning that they use the same luciferin and

homologous enzymes to make light. The conserved nature of the luminescent chemical reaction

provides a system within which bioluminescence can produce rapid changes in phenotypic

diversity by modifying amino acid sequences of the enzyme or how the enzyme is used [25].

Attempts to culture luminescent and non-luminescent species of Cypridinidae have led to

varying success, including *Skogsbergia lerneri* (non-luminous species with no mating in culture)

[26], *Photeros annecohenae* (luminous species without the complete life cycle in culture) [27], and

Vargula hilgendorfii (luminous species with no mating in culture) [28]. Researchers attempting to

culture *Vargula hilgendorfii* tried multiple alternative aquarium set-ups and tested sensitivity to

nutrients commonly measured in aquaria, but were still unable to induce mating in the lab [28]. An

unnamed species of luminescent ostracod is claimed to have been cultured at the CTAQUA

Foundation (Aquaculture and Technological Centre) in Spain for molecular gastronomy [29], but

no information on species, culture longevity, or whether mating occurred is available on this

enigmatic and uncertain culture. Other non-cypridinid ostracods have been reared in the

laboratory as well, including the myodocopids *Euphilomedes carcharodonta* [30] and

Euphilomedes nipponica [31] and the podocopid *Xestoleberis hanaii* (only record of copulation in

the laboratory for any ostracod) [32].

In this paper, we present evidence that we are the first to rear a luminous ostracod (*Vargula*

tsujii) through its complete life cycle in the laboratory. *Vargula tsujii* is the only bioluminescent

cypridinid ostracod described from the Pacific coast of North America. Commonly found in

southern California, the reported range of *V. tsujii* is from Baja California to Monterey Bay [33].

This species is primarily active in the kelp canopy at night [34]. Similarly to some other cypridinid

ostracods, *Vargula tsujii* is a scavenger, and is presumed to feed on dead and decaying fish and

invertebrates on the benthos since it can be collected via baited traps. However, some authors

also observed *V. tsujii* attacking the soft tissues of live fishes caged nearshore [35]. *Vargula tsujii*

is an important prey item of the plainfin midshipman fish (*Porichthys notatus*), as it is the source

of luciferin for the bioluminescence seen in the fish [36].

In addition to evidence for the completion of the life cycle of *Vargula tsujii* in the laboratory, we

provide a successful methodology for culturing individuals of *V. tsujii*, descriptions and analyses

of embryogenesis and instar development, a reconstruction of its mitochondrial genome, and a

brief description of the distribution of molecular diversity of *V. tsujii* across coastal southern

California.

Methods

Specimen collection

We collected *Vargula tsujii* from three primary locations: (1) Fisherman's Cove near Two

Harbors on Catalina Island, CA, USA (33°26'42.5"N 118°29'04.2"W) directly adjacent to the

Wrigley Marine Science Center, (2) Cabrillo Marina, Los Angeles, CA, USA (33°43'13.5"N

118°16'47.4"W), and (3) Shelter Island public boat ramp, San Diego, CA, USA (32°42'56.3"N

117°13'22.9"W) (Figure 1; Table 2). We also provide locations in Figure 1 and Table 2 where we

set traps but did not collect *V. tsujii*. The specimens used for culture and description of the life

cycle of *V. tsujii* were exclusively from Fisherman's Cove, Catalina Island, and we collected

additional specimens from the Cabrillo Marina and Shelter Island public boat ramp to discern

the genetic diversity of *V. tsujii* and test for the presence of any cryptic species. For specimen

collection we used Morin pipe traps: cylindrical polyvinyl chloride (PVC) tubes with mesh funnels

to prevent the ostracods from escaping once they entered [37]. We baited traps with dead fish or

fresh chicken liver (roughly 1-2 cm^3). We set traps in 1-10 meters of water at sunset and

collected them 1.5 to 2 hours after last light to allow time for the ostracods to accumulate.

Figure 1. Map of localities where collections (and attempted collections of Vargula tsujii were made). Black points represent geographic annotations for reference, purple points refer to the location where ostracods were collected that were ultimately cultured, blue where animals were found or collected, orange where Kornicker originally collected animals, and red where no V. tsujii were found. (A) Map of the California (USA) coastline where V. tsujii

collections were attempted; (B) Map of the region near Two Harbors (Santa Catalina Island, California, USA) where V. tsujii collections were attempted.

Population genetic analyses

We obtained *Vargula tsujii* sequence data for 16S rRNA (16S) and cytochrome oxidase 1 (COI)

from a previously published thesis [38]. We then aligned and visually inspected sequence

chromatograms with Sequencher version 3.1 (Gene Codes Corp) (Table S1). We constructed

haplotype networks for the two genes, COI (Number of individuals: Catalina, 18; San Diego, 11;

San Pedro, 12) and 16S (Number of individuals: Catalina, 19; San Diego, 20; San Pedro, 21)

(Figure 3) with the package pegas [39] in the R environment (version 3.4.2) [40]. To assess whether

sequences within populations cluster together, we analyzed each gene via Discriminant

Analysis of Principal Components (DAPC) using the adegenet package in R [41] and compared

models with one, two, and three clusters using the Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) [42].

Description of aquarium system and feeding

We cultured *Vargula tsujii* at the University of California, Santa Barbara in aquariums designed

for water to flow through sand and out the bottom. This allowed continuous water flow to keep

water fresh, and not suck ostracods into a filter. Instead, ostracods remain in sand where they

spend the daylight hours. We kept animals under a 12:12 light cycle with an indirect blue LED

light.

We first modified a five gallon glass tank by drilling a hole in the bottom, which was then

covered with the bottom of an undergravel filter and a 3 cm layer of commercial aragonite sand

for aquariums. To maintain continuous water flow, we used plastic tubing (diameter = 1 cm)

connected directly to an overflowing reservoir tank, which created a siphon system for moving

water into the tank (Figure 2). The siphon provided continuous water flow when needed, and

prevented overflow of the aquarium. In addition, to prevent a complete drain of the water if the

siphon flow broke, which is common with larger siphons, we attached an outflow pipe to the

bottom of the aquarium that drained halfway up the side of the tank (Figure 2).

We also created a similar system for smaller experimental aquaria, though these appeared to

be less effective long-term, as we saw high mortality in non-systematic studies. For the small

aquaria ("condos"), we cut a large hole (~5 cm diameter) into the bottom of seven 500 mL

Nalgene[TM] Square PETG Media Bottles with Septum Closures (Figure 2F). We then modified a

100 μm cell strainer to fit in the bore of the media bottle in such a way that it would remain there

when the closure of the media bottle was screwed back on, allowing water but not sand to flow

through. We inverted the bottle and added a ~3 cm layer of sand to the bottom, above the cell

strainer, measured from the edge of the bottle cap. For these smaller aquaria, we used 5 mm

diameter tubing as siphons from the reservoir tank and for the outflow. Similar to the large tank,

the outflow tubes (placed in the septum closure) drained roughly halfway up the side of the

aquaria to prevent the water from draining completely.

Most recently, we created custom aquariums from acrylic (Fig. 2G), with similar dimensions to

the 5-gallon glass aquarium. We installed a bulkhead in the bottom and attached PVC tubing as

a drain, which we again raised to about half the height of the aquarium to prevent complete

drainage if inflow of water stops accidentally. We added a valve to control the rate of outflow

and instead of a siphon, we added a float switch to set inflow rate.

Figure 2. Diagrammatic representation of aquarium setup for sea fireflies. (A) Source water flows into (B) a reservoir tank, which overflows to keep the reservoir full and water level constant. (C) We use a siphon to carry water from a reservoir tank to main aquarium where ostracods live. Water level of the main tank drains through sand (stippled), through (E) an outflow that is raised to a level that would cause water to remain at the level of the dashed line, even if a siphon is interrupted to cause water to stop flowing into the main tank. (F) Plastic bottle and parts used to create small aquarium using the same logic as main aquarium. (G) Custom-built acrylic aquarium with drain in bottom and raised outflow with adjustable rate.

We initially offered the ostracods multiple diet choices, including: (1) imitation crab, which is primarily pollock, (2) carnivore fish pellets or fish flakes, (3) tilapia fillets, and (4) anchovies, which have each made for successful food sources in Caribbean ostracods (Todd Oakley, personal observation; [27,37]). Although the adults appeared moderately interested in these food sources in non-systematic trials, we found the juvenile ostracods did not eat them, but they did

actively feed on raw chicken liver, as do *Vargula hilgendorfii* individuals from Japan [43]. In

culture, we therefore provided pieces of chicken liver daily (~1 cm^3 per 200 animals). Due to the

nocturnal life history of *V. tsujii*, we fed them in the late afternoon or early evening (around the

beginning of the dark cycle), and removed the food from the aquarium in the morning (~3-5

hours into the light cycle) to reduce the chance of bacterial fouling.

Rearing of embryos

We tested two primary methods for rearing embryos. The first was less successful in terms of

longevity of both the mothers and embryos, but provided usable data on embryogenesis.

Regardless of rearing method, ostracods did not appear to eat while they were brooding.

For the first method, we kept females individually in circular wells in twelve-well dishes [27], with

approximately 1 mL of 17°C seawater. We recorded visual observations of the females and their

embryos and changed the water daily. The advantage of this method is ease of identification

and observation of individual ostracods, allowing us to track the growth of specific embryos over

a given period of time. However, all females which deposited embryos into the brooding

chamber died before their embryos were released from the marsupium, although the precise

cause of death is unknown. These embryos were then removed from the female marsupium by

dissection, kept in wells, and observed until the animals hatched through the chorion (see

Supplemental Video).

For the second method, we identified and removed brooding females from the aquarium and

placed them in 50 mL Falcon™ tubes (2 females per tube). Roughly 5 mL of sand was added to

the bottom of each tube to allow females to burrow. Falcon tubes were then placed in a large

seawater reservoir that ranged from 17-19°C. We changed the water in each tube daily, and

imaged brooding females every other day with a camera attached to a dissecting scope. We

used key diagnostic features such as number of embryos and female size to distinguish

individual females from one another. Of the thirteen individuals kept in Falcon™ tubes, only one

died prior to embryo release from the marsupium.

Animal measurements and determination of instar size classes

We imaged ostracods across all life stages using a standard dissecting microscope and an

Olympus brand camera, and measured the carapace length, carapace height, eye width, and

keel width with the software Fiji (Sample size = 626 individuals; Table S3)[44]. These parameters

are useful in the determination of the instar stages in other bioluminescent ostracods [27]. A

subset of these individuals (9 males, 11 females) were dissected to confirm sex. We partitioned

the data into clusters using the KMeans clustering algorithm implemented in scikit-learn [45] in

Python 2.7 [46]. KMeans fits the data into k clusters, specified in the arguments, sorting each data

point into the cluster which has the minimum euclidean distance to the centroid of the cluster.

The value for k was originally specified as eight based on the five known stages of instar

development for related species of ostracods plus the embryonic stage and adult males and

females. However, a k-value of eight clusters resulted in a split of the inferred adult female

cluster into two clusters rather than the discrimination of adult males from inferred A-I instars. To

avoid this apparent over-clustering, we ran our final analysis with a k-value of seven, which

retained all inferred adult females in a single cluster but was unable to distinguish an adult male

cluster from the inferred A-I instars. We assigned development stages to each cluster based on

the relationship by comparison to the closely related *Photeros annecohenae*, which grew in 12-

well dishes to allow more precise documentation of instars [27].

Whole genome sequencing

We froze four adult female *Vargula tsujii*, collected from the WMSC Dock on 2017-09-01 in

liquid nitrogen and shipped the specimens on dry-ice to the Hudson Alpha Institute for

Biotechnology Genomic Services Lab (HAIB-GSL) for genomic DNA extraction and Chromium

v2 Illumina sequencing library preparation. HAIB-GSL extracted the DNA using the Qiagen

MagAttract Kit, yielding 141 ng, 99 ng ,153 ng , and 96 ng of extracted DNA respectively. This

quantity of DNA was not sufficient for a size distribution analysis via agarose pulse field gel

analysis, therefore we decided to proceed with Chromium v2 library prep with the 153 ng

sample (sample # 5047), without confirmation of a suitable high-molecular weight DNA size

distribution. We sequenced this library on three lanes of a HiSeqX instrument using a 151x151

paired-end sequencing mode, resulting in a total of 910,926,987 paired reads (260.6 Gbp). We

attempted whole genome assembly of the resulting sequencing data with the Supernova v2.0.0

genome assembly software [47]. We then used the Agilent Femto Pulse High Molecular Weight

DNA capillary electrophoresis instrument at the MIT BioMicro Center to perform a post

sequencing analysis of the size distribution of the DNA used for Chromium library preparation.

Mitochondrial genome assembly

To achieve a full length mitochondrial genome (mtDNA) assembly of *V. tsujii*, we partitioned and

assembled sequences separately from the nuclear genome. We mapped Illumina reads from

our Chromium libraries (Table S3) to the known mtDNA of the closest available relative, *Vargula*

hilgendorfii (NC_005306.1) [48] using bowtie2 (v2.3.3.1)[49] (parameters: --very-sensitive-local). We

then extracted read pairs with at least one read mapped from the resulting BAM file with

samtools (parameters: view -G 12), then name-sorted, extracted in FASTQ format (parameters:

samtools fastq) and input the reads into SPAdes (v3.11.1)[50] for assembly (parameters: --only-

assembler -k55,127). Inspection of the resulting assembly graph using Bandage (v.0.8.1)[51],

combined with a heuristic manual deletion of low coverage nodes (deletion of nodes with

coverage <200x, mean coverage ~250x) gave rise to two loops with sequence similarity to the

V. hilgendorfii mtDNA that both circularized through a single path (Supplementary Figure 1.8.1).

We then manually inspected this graph via a blastn(2.7.1+)[52] aligned against the *V. hilgendorfii*

mtDNA through SequenceServer (v1.0.11)[53] and visualized with the Integrated Genomics

Viewer (v2.4.5)[54]. We noted that the single circularizing path was homologous to the two

duplicated control regions reported in the *V. hilgendorfii* mtDNA [48]. We surmised that this

assembly graph structure indicated the *V. tsujii* mtDNA had the same global structure as the *V.*

hilgendorfii mtDNA, and so used the Bandage "specify exact path" tool to traverse the SPAdes

assembly graph and generate a FASTA file representing the circularized *V. tsujii* mtDNA with

the putative duplicated control regions (Figure S1). To avoid splitting sequence features across

the mtDNA circular sequence break, we circularly rotated this full assembly with the seqkit

(v0.7.2)[55] "restart" command, to set the first nucleotide of the FASTA file at the start codon of

ND2. We then confirmed 100% of the nucleotides via bowtie2 re-mapping of reads and

polishing with Pilon (v1.21)[56] (parameters: --fix all). We annotated the final assembly of the

mitochondrial genome using the MITOS2 web server [57] with the invertebrate mitochondrial

genetic code (translation table 5). We manually removed low confidence and duplicate gene

predictions from the MITOS2 annotation.

Results

Population genetics analyses

Our COI haplotype network revealed minimal structure among *V. tsujii* populations in southern

California (Figure 3A). Haplotypes from San Pedro and Catalina Island overlap or diverge by

only one to three mutations. Haplotypes from San Diego individuals, although still very similar to

haplotypes from Catalina Island and San Pedro, differ by at least eight mutations and show no

overlap with haplotypes from other populations of *V. tsujii*. However, the haplotype network for

16S indicates that sequences from San Diego individuals are identical to some individuals from

the other two populations. Furthermore, although the model with three clusters was favored in

the DAPC analysis for each gene (Supplementary Materials S2 and S3), membership in five of

the six clusters includes individuals from different populations (Supplementary Materials S4 and

S5). Therefore our analyses do not support three genetically distinct populations as defined by

location.

A **B**

Figure 3. Haplotype networks for (A) COI sequences, and (B) 16S sequences of Vargula tsujii animals from three localities sampled. Abbreviations: CI, Catalina Island; SD, San Diego; SP, San Pedro.

Embryogenesis Description

After fertilization and release into the marsupium, *V. tsujii* embryos resemble opaque, green,

ovoidal embryos (Figures 4 and 5). After five to eight days of growth, separation of the yolk

begins, which appears as a light green mass condenses within the embryo. Around ten to

eighteen days after deposition into the brooding chamber, two very small red lateral eyespots

are visible on each embryo and the separation of the yolk continues. Daily observations over the

next six days showed continual growth and darkening of the eyes. By day sixteen the yolk is

almost completely separated and has begun to form the gut of the ostracod. By days fifteen to

nineteen, the eyespots are mostly black and the light organ (a light brown/yellow mass) appears

anteroventral to the eyes of the embryo. Around twenty days after deposition, developing limbs

in the form of two rows of small brown masses are visible along the ventral side of the embryos.

At this point the gut has finished forming within the carapace and is visible as a yellow-white

mass on the posterior end of each embryo. Limb formation continues over the next few days,

and the eyes of each embryo become entirely black. Twenty-five to thirty-eight days following

embryo deposition, embryogenesis is complete, and instars are released from the mother's

marsupium.

Figure 4. Embryogenesis within brooding females of V. tsujii post release into the marsupium. (A) Day 0, (B) Day
1-4, (C) Day 5-7, (D) Day 8-9, (E) Day 10-13, (F) Day 14-17, (G) Day 18-19, (H) Day 20-21, (I) Day 22-23, (J) Day
332   25-39.

Figure 5. Summary of the timing of embryogenesis stages in V. tsujii. This represents the complete range of first appearance of each features across multiple broods, including: yolk separation (range = 5-8 days, N = 7); eye spot formation (range = 10-18 days, N = 12); upper lip formation (range = 15-19 days, N = 3); limb formation (range = 18-23 days, N = 11); hatching (range = 25-38 days, N = 11).

Instar development

Vargula tsujii has five inferred juvenile instar stages (A-I, A-II, A-III, A-IV, A-V) and an adult

stage, most of which have a conserved size range (Figure 6A; Table 3). Laboratory

measurements of specimens of unknown sex were compared with the measurements of sexed

individuals (9 males, 11 females) to confirm interpretation of the instar stage of size classes

(Figure 6C-D). Due to large amounts of overlap of A-1 females with adult and A-I males, these

three groups are currently indistinguishable in our data set. Sexual dimorphism becomes

apparent in adulthood, with adult females clearly larger than adult males. However, compared to

many other cypridinid ostracods, this dimorphism can be difficult to assess visually without a

side-by-side comparison.

Evidence for complete life cycle in the lab

To assess whether a complete life cycle was obtained in the laboratory, we began with only

brooding females in a small experimental aquarium. Those brooding females, although not

tracked individually, released a number of juveniles, which we measured intermittently over time

(Figure 6B). In this aquarium we found juveniles, and eventually adults, that fell across the full

size range of wild-caught ostracods. After all of the broods hatched, we removed all adult

females from the experimental aquarium to assess whether the ostracods would mature and

mate in the laboratory. Following removal of the original adult females, we found adult brooding

females that grew up in experimental aquarium that themselves gave birth to the next

generation in 3-4 months time.

Figure 6. (A) K-means clusters of Vargula tsujii developmental stages based on carapace height and width. Instar stages were assigned to each cluster via comparison to P. annecohenae and additional analysis of male and female size dimorphism. (B) Points representing laboratory cultured animals overlayed on wild caught and unknown data. Different colors represent different clusters in the k-means analysis, and are labeled with their inferred instar/adult stages. (C) Shows wild-caught animals dissected and identified as female in relation to the k-means clusters, and (D) shows wild-caught animals dissected and identified as male in relation to the k-means clusters.

Nuclear and mitochondrial genome assemblies

Our final *Vargula tsujii* nuclear genome assembly is highly fragmented, with an indication of high

levels of heterozygosity between haplotypes (~5%) and a high proportion of simple sequence

repeats. Our post-sequencing analysis indicated the mode of the DNA size distribution for the

four extracted DNA samples were 1244 bp, 3820 bp, 1285 bp (sample #5047), and 1279 bp,

respectively, with a tail of ~20-40 kbp in each sample.

The final *V. tsujii* mtDNA (15,729 bp) (Figure 7) aligned to the previously published *V.*

hilgendorfii mtDNA [48] with 98% coverage and 78.5% nucleotide identity, and is available on

NCBI GenBank (MG767172). The *V. tsujii* mtDNA contains 22 tRNA genes, 13 protein coding

genes, and 2 duplicated control regions in an identical positioning and orientation to the *V.*

hilgendorfii mtDNA. There is one polymorphic base in the final mitogenome assembly coding for

a synonymous wobble mutation in the COII gene (COII:L76).

Figure 7. Mitochondrial genome of V. tsujii. Note the duplicated control regions, CR1 and CR2 (in gray). Figure produced with Circos [80].

Discussion

Based on measurement data on the first and second generations of ostracods reared in the lab

(Figure 5), and the presence of brooding female ostracods in our experimental aquarium where

adult females had previously been removed, we can infer that we were successful in rearing

Vargula tsujii through its complete life cycle in the lab. This is a first for any bioluminescent

ostracod, as rearing in the lab has remained a significant hurdle for laboratory studies in these

animals [26–28]. Our current population was cultured from animals collected near Wrigley Marine

Science Center on Santa Catalina Island, which appears to contain much of the genetic

diversity sampled across much of the known the range of *V. tsujii* (Figure 3). Our population

genetics analyses support the hypothesis that populations of *Vargula tsujii* experience some

gene flow across the localities sampled, including Catalina Island. These results are consistent

with the hypothesis that *V. tsujii* represents a single, connected species. As such, we assume

our culture of ostracods from Santa Catalina Island, and inferences made from it, may be

representative of the genetic diversity of populations of *V. tsujii* across southern California

coastal systems. However, we cannot discount the possibility that there might be some variation

in development times and instar sizes across the range of this species. Also of note is that this

species is not easily collected throughout the reported range, and northern populations, if they

exist, may be divergent from southern California populations.

Attempted whole genome reconstruction

The 1C genome size of *Vargula tsujii* was previously reported to be 4.46 ± 0.08 pg (Female,

n=3), and 4.05 pg (Male, n=1) [58], corresponding to a 1C genome size of 4.36 Gbp and 3.96 Gbp

respectively and suggesting XO sex determination. Our reconstruction of the *Vargula tsujii*

nuclear genome assembly is highly fragmented, with an indication of high levels of

heterozygosity between haplotypes (~5%) and a high proportion of simple sequence repeats.

We speculate that our poor nuclear genome assembly results are likely due to the small size

distribution of the input DNA, as larger fragment sizes are especially critical for the

reconstruction of large genomes such as *V. tsujii*. Further protocol development is needed to

extract suitable High Molecular Weight DNA, which could allow long-read sequencing that would

improve assembly.

The life cycle of Vargula tsujii

The embryogenesis of *Vargula tsujii* is similar to closely related species, and the 24-day

average brooding duration falls within the range for other cypridinid ostracods (10-30 days) [59].

The primary stages of *V. tsujii* embryonic development are yolk separation, formation of eye

spots, development of the upper lip, development of limbs, and emergence from the chorion and

marsupium (Figure 5). In general, the embryonic development of *Vargula tsujii* is longer than

that of other luminescent ostracods whose development has been described (Table 4).

However, early embryonic development in *V. tsujii* is faster than in *P. annecohenae*. In *P.*

anncohenae, yolk separation begins on day 9 and eye development begins on days 14-15 [27],

while those stages begin at 5-7 and 10-13 days, respectively, in *V. tsujii*. Additionally, the order

of development in *V. tsujii* appears to differ from that of *Vargula hilgendorfii,* which starts to

develop limbs on days 4-5, before eye and upper lip development [27,60]. By contrast, *V. tsujii* limbs

do not appear until after eye-spot and upper lip formation. The reasons for this difference are

unclear.

Juvenile development of *Vargula tsujii* is also quite similar overall to that of *Photeros*

annecohenae, the only other bioluminescent cypridinid ostracod for which instar developmental

data is available [27]. We inferred five distinct instar stages (A-V through A-I), and A-I instars

develop into size dimorphic adult males and females (Table 3). Average measurements of size,

including carapace length and height, as well as eye width, were comparable between

respective instar stages in *V. tsujii* and *P. annecohenae*. However, in *V. tsujii* average eye width

remains within the range of 0.060 mm to 0.0684 mm from the embryonic stage until the second

instar, and makes a large jump by about two fold in the third instar (0.121 ± 0.0208 mm), as

compared to a gradual increase in eye size in *P. annecohenae*. In our k-means clustering

analysis, the second-to-largest cluster of *V. tsujii* appears to contain adult males as well as A-I

males and females. This finding differs from that in *P. annecohenae*, where adult males were

found to cluster separately from A-I males and females and adult females based on size and

shape, and A-I males and females could be distinguished by certain shape parameters [27]. We

hypothesize that this apparent reduction of sexual dimorphism observed in the later stages of

development may occur because *V. tsujii* may have lost the ability to use luminescence for

courtship, so selection acting on differences in male and female shape may have been reduced.

Benefits of completing the life cycle

Cypridinid ostracods represent an independent origin of endogenous autogenic

bioluminescence. This group is a natural comparison to other, well-studied bioluminescent

courtship systems, such as that of fireflies [61]. Other possible laboratory models for

bioluminescence, such as brittle stars [62] and cnidarians [63] are useful for some research tasks,

such as studies of luciferins obtained from the diet (e.g., coelenterazine). Others might be easier

to rear in the laboratory, such as the self-fertilizing brittle star *Amphiolus squamata* [64]. However,

ostracods produce their own luciferase and luciferin, unlike brittle stars and cnidarians.

Ostracods also have relatively fast generation times (on the order of months), which can be

modified somewhat by adjusting the temperature of the water, as is common among ostracods

[26–28,65,66]. In comparison, fireflies are usually on a six-month to one-year life cycle that is difficult to

alter [67–69], and some brittle stars appear to spawn only seasonally [70,71]. Furthermore, culture of an

organism (*Vargula tsujii*) from a clade with an independent origin of autogenic bioluminescence

allows for comparative studies between luminescence in ostracods and the autogenic

bioluminescence found in fireflies [16] or other organisms, which would not otherwise be possible.

Ostracods will be incredibly useful for studying the physiology and biochemistry of

bioluminescence [2], as both diversification and behavioral changes in cypridinids related to

luminescence have occurred using the same luciferin and homologous luciferases [24].

Furthermore, ostracod courtship signals are bright and easily simulated in a laboratory setting,

allowing for assessments of male and female behavior in response to changes in signal

parameters, such as intensity, color, and pulse duration (e.g., [72]). These tools provide

researchers with an excellent system for asking important questions related to selection on

genes important for rapid diversification [73], including those related to behavior [74], sexual selection

[75], and the role of the biochemical properties of bioluminescence [25].

Importantly, the biosynthetic pathway for luciferin production is currently unknown for any animal

system. One major obstacle to describing this pathway has been building laboratory cultures for

animal species that produce luciferin themselves and also have a relative fast generation time.

Solving this bottleneck to accessing specimens for bioluminescent ostracods has set the stage

for investigations into the biosynthetic pathway of cypridinid luciferin and its possible use in

biomedical tools such as optogenetics [76]. Finally, this is an excellent system with which to

consider developing genome editing techniques (e.g., CRISPR/Cas9) [77] to test candidate genes

for luciferin biosynthesis, and to assess how genetic variants in critical genes might affect

production or perception of bioluminescent signals.

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Author contributions

JAG, ET, JKW, and THO conceived of and designed the study; JAG, GM, MNB, MSD, JDM,

TRF, and DTS contributed to the acquisition and analysis of the data in this study; all authors

participated in the interpretation of data, helped draft or substantially revise the manuscript, and

gave final approval for publication.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Data availability

Sequence data for COI and 16S are available in GenBank (Table S1) and our whole genome

Chromium reads are available in the Sequence Read Archive (SRR9308458). Scripts and data

for the population genetics and k-means clustering analyses are provided on Github

(https://github.com/goodgodric28/vargula_tsujii_culture). An additional video which shows

Vargula tsujii hatching from the chorion and outside the mother is provided on Youtube

(https://youtu.be/8o5CqHTcTjl).

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Figures

Figure 1. Map of localities where collections (and attempted collections of *Vargula tsujii* were

made). Black points represent geographic annotations for reference, purple points refer to the

location where ostracods were collected that were ultimately cultured, blue where animals were

found or collected, orange where Kornicker originally collected animals, and red where no *V.*

tsujii were found. (A) Map of the California (USA) coastline where *V. tsujii* collections were

attempted; (B) Map of the region near Two Harbors (Santa Catalina Island, California, USA)

where *V. tsujii* collections were attempted.

Figure 2. Diagrammatic representation of aquarium setup for sea fireflies. (A) Source water

flows into (B) a reservoir tank, which overflows to keep the reservoir full and water level

constant. (C) We use a siphon to carry water from a reservoir tank to main aquarium where

ostracods live. Water level of the main tank drains through sand (stippled), through (E) an

outflow that is raised to a level that would cause water to remain at the level of the dashed line,

even if a siphon is interrupted to cause water to stop flowing into the main tank. (F) Plastic bottle

and parts used to create small aquarium using the same logic as main aquarium. (G) Custom-

built acrylic aquarium with drain in bottom and raised outflow with adjustable rate.

Figure 3. Figure 3. Haplotype networks for (A) COI sequences, and (B) 16S sequences of

Vargula tsujii animals from three localities sampled. Abbreviations: CI, Catalina Island; SD, San

Diego; SP, San Pedro.

Figure 4. Embryogenesis within brooding females of *V. tsujii* post release into the marsupium.

(A) Day 0, (B) Day 1-4, (C) Day 5-7, (D) Day 8-9, (E) Day 10-13, (F) Day 14-17, (G) Day 18-19,

(H) Day 20-21, (I) Day 22-23, (J) Day 25-38.

Figure 5. Summary of the timing of embryogenesis stages in *V. tsujii*. This represents the

complete range of first appearance of each features across multiple broods, including: yolk

separation (range = 5-8 days, N = 7); eye spot formation (range = 10-18 days, N = 12); upper lip

formation (range = 15-19 days, N = 3); limb formation (range = 18-23 days, N = 11); hatching

(range = 25-38 days, N = 11).

Figure 6. (A) K-means clusters of *Vargula tsujii* developmental stages based on carapace

height and width. Instar stages were assigned to each cluster via comparison to *P.*

annecohenae and additional analysis of male and female size dimorphism. (B) Points

representing laboratory cultured animals overlayed on wild caught and unknown data. Different

colors represent different clusters in the k-means analysis, and are labeled with their inferred

instar/adult stages. (C) Shows wild-caught animals dissected and identified as female in relation

to the k-means clusters, and (D) shows wild-caught animals dissected and identified as male in

relation to the k-means clusters.

Figure 7. Mitochondrial genome of V. tsujii. Note the duplicated control regions, CR1 and CR2

(in gray). Figure produced with Circos [78].

 Tables

782 **Table 1.** Species of bioluminescent metazoans for which cultures are known to exist, including

783 information on the luciferin used for luminescence, estimated generation times, and whether the

784 luciferin used is synthesized via the genome of the luminescent organism itself (autogenic).

Species	Phylum	Luciferin	Autogenic luciferin?	Generation time	Citations
Mnemiopsis leidyi, Bolinopsis infundibulum, Leucothea pulchra	Ctenophora	coelenterazine	Possibly	~13 days (based on *M. mccradyi*)	[80–83]
Clytia haemispherica	Cnidaria	coelenterazine	No	~14 days (based on other *Clytia*)	[65,84]
Amphiura filiformis	Echinodermata	coelenterazine	No	Unknown	[85]
Photuris spp. Aspisoma lineatum Aquatica lateralis Aquatica ficta	Arthropoda	beetle luciferin	Yes	3-24 months	[17,69,70,86]
Arachnocampa richardsae	Arthropoda	glow worm luciferin	Possibly	10-12 months	[87–89]
Pontodrilus litoralis	Annelida	earthworm luciferin	?	1-3 months	[90]
Oikopleura dioica	Chordata	?	?	5 days	[91,92]

788 **Table 2.** List of collections locations or attempted collection locations for *Vargula tsujii*.

789 Collection locations for which a latitude and longitude could not be determined were not figured,

790 but are included here.

Number	Location	Latitude	Longitude	Collected?
1	WMSC, Santa Catalina Island, CA, USA	33.445139	-118.4845	Yes
2	Shelter Island boat launch, San Diego, CA, USA	32.69	-117.2230228	Yes
3	Cabrillo Beach, San Pedro, CA, USA	33.7133066	-118.2836733	Yes
4	Goleta Beach Pier, Goleta, CA, USA	34.414065	-119.8287077	Yes
5	Santa Catalina Island, CA, USA	33.375	-118.6105556	Yes [33]
6	Un-named site	33.3805556	-117.5819444	Yes [33]
7	Un-named site	33.5797222	-118.1380556	Yes [33]
8	Santa Monica Pier, Santa Monica, CA, USA	34.0008333	-118.5777778	Yes [33]
9	Pinos Point, Pacific Grove, CA, USA	36.6658333	-121.9583333	Yes [33]
10	Seaport Village Pier, San Diego, CA, USA	32.708943	-117.171855	No

11	Shelter Island Police Dock, San Diego, CA, USA	32.709057	-117.235108	No
12	Mission Point, San Diego, CA, USA	32.761427	-117.245091	No
13	Mission Bay - Pacific Passage, San Diego, CA, USA	32.773906	-117.2103887	No
14	Dana Point Harbor, Dana Point, CA, USA	33.460975	-117.699136	No
15	Balboa Peninsula Point, Newport Beach, CA, USA	33.599048	-117.884112	No
16	Balboa Beach Pier, Newport Beach, CA, USA	33.6075	-117.9288	No
17	Los Alamitos Bay, Long Beach, CA, USA	33.752434	-118.113842	No
18	Redondo Beach, CA, USA	33.84519	-118.395764	No
19	Marina del Rey, CA, USA	33.976286	-118.445642	No
20	Santa Monica Pier, Santa Monica, CA, USA	34.0093	-118.4967	No
21	Prisoners Harbor, Channel Islands National Park, CA, USA	34.020384	-119.684361	No
22	Ventura Harbor boat ramp, Ventura, CA, USA	34.249224	-119.2632328	No

23	Ventura Harbor Pier, Ventura, CA, USA	34.273498	-119.291992	No
24	Santa Barbara Harbor, Santa Barbara, CA, USA	34.406417	-119.690501	No
25	Santa Barbara Harbor boat ramp, Santa Barbara, CA, USA	34.408094	-119.692132	No
26	Stearns Wharf, Santa Barbara, CA, USA	34.411296	-119.687706	No
27	Monterey Bay Pier, Monterey, CA, USA	36.6050389	-121.8919972	No
28	Monterey Bay Aquarium, Monterey CA, USA	36.6186583	-1219014222	No
29	Half Moon Bay, CA, USA	37.501913	-122.482173	No
30	Bodega Harbor, Bodega Bay, CA, USA	38.3333806	-123.0497833	No
-	La Jolla, CA, USA	unknown	unknown	Yes [33]
-	Bahia Los Angeles, Baja California, Mexico	unknown	unknown	Yes [33]

797   **Table 3.** Measurements for each cluster (and inferred instar) of *Vargula tsujii* ± SD.

Instar	N	Carapace Length (mm) ± SD	Carapace Height (mm) ± SD	Eye width (mm) ± SD
Embryo	84	0.418 +- 0.0271	0.326 + 0.0112	0.0630 + 0.0112
A-V	106	0.687 +- 0.0504	0.427 + 0.0289	0.0682 + 0.0164
A-IV	89	0.863 +- 0.0448	0.517 + 0.0374	0.0684 + 0.0271
A-III	66	1.078 +- 0.0516	0.632 + 0.0494	0.121 + 0.0208
A-II	96	1.214 +- 0.0426	0.711 + 0.0409	0.133 + 0.0160
Male A-1/Female A-1/ Adult Male	106	1.581 +- 0.0605	0.913 + 0.0402	0.226 + 0.0345
Adult Female?	70	1.983 +- 0.0798	1.154 + 0.0591	0.210 + 0.0326

810   **Table 4**: Comparison of embryogenesis timing between five different ostracod species post-

811   deposition. Species with an asterisk (*) are bioluminescent cypridinids.

Species	Cloudy Embryo	Yolk Sep.	Eye Spot Formation	Upper Lip	Limbs	Release	Citation
Vargula annecohenae *	2-3 days	9 days	14-15 days	17 days	-	19 days	[27]
Euphilomedes carcharodonta	-	14 days	58-70 days	-	14-41 days	65-75 days	[30]
Vargula hilgendorfii *	-	1-2 Days	6-8 days	6-8 days	4-5 days	16 days	[28]
Vargula tsujii *	3-4 days	5-8 days	10-18 days	15-19 days	18-23 days	25-38 days	This study
Xestoleberis hanaii	-	-	-	-	-	9-11 days	[32]

Supplementary Materials

Table S1. List of specimens examined in this paper for which sequences were obtained,

including locality, museum collection numbers (where applicable), and GenBank accession

numbers for the two genes sequenced (COI and 16S).

Table S2. Raw measurements of *Vargula tsujii* individuals, including carapace height and

length, keel width and eye width.

Table S3. Unfiltered library sequencing statistics for *V. tsujii*.

Figure S1. Traversal of the cleaned SPAdes *V. tsujii* mitochondrial genome assembly graph

nodes plotted by Bandage (gray). The single circularizing path representing the collapsed

duplicate control regions are shown in blue. The black stroke shows the path traversed through

the assembly graph followed to produce the circularized mtDNA FASTA file with two control

region, matching the structure of the V. hilgendorfii mtDNA (Ogoh and Ohmiya 2004).

Figure S2. Results for our 16S DAPC model test to determine the number of clusters that is

favored via comparison of Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) values.

Figure S3. Results for our COI DAPC model test to determine the number of clusters that is

favored via comparison of Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) values.

Figure S4. Cluster membership based on our 16S DAPC analysis compared with the original

population designation for each specimen. Overall, the clusters are not representative of any

population-level structure.

Figure S5. Cluster membership based on our 16S DAPC analysis compared with the original

population designation for each specimen. Overall, the clusters are not representative of any

population-level structure.

Figure S6. Exploded diagram of custom aquarium for rearing *Vargula tsujii*. A photo of built

aquarium is in main text, Figure 2. **A**. Plumbing components include 1. PVC pipe 1.5 inch

diameter. 2. PVC socket ball valve to control the rate of outflow 3. PVC 1.5 inch elbows 4. PVC

elbow with one side threaded to screw into 5. threaded bulkhead to span bottom of aquarium for

drainage 6. float switch valve to control water level (not shown on Figure 2 of main text). **B**.

Acrylic panels of ¼ inch thickness welded together with solvent include 7. Two panels of

dimension 16.5 x 13.25 inches that form the long sides of the aquarium 8. Two panels of

dimension 8 x 10.75 inches that form the short sides of the aquarium. One of these panels has

a hole drilled for the water inflow and float switch 9. One panel of 16.5 x 7.5 inches to form the

bottom of the aquarium, including a hole drilled for the bulkhead 10. One panel of 16.5 x 7.5

inches to forms a false bottom for the aquarium similar to the bottom of an undergravel

aquarium filter. We drilled small holes throughout to allow water but not sand to flow through.

(Not shown on Figure 2). In practice, we welded legs on the false bottom to allow it to stand on

the true bottom of the aquarium above the height of the bulkhead drain.