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Phenotypic and genomic diversification in complex carbohydrate degrading human gut bacteria

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Running Title: *Bacteroidetes* carbohydrate utilization

40 **Abstract**

41 Symbiotic bacteria are responsible for the majority of complex carbohydrate digestion in
42 the human colon. Since the identities and amounts of dietary polysaccharides directly impact the
43 gut microbiota, determining which microorganisms consume specific nutrients is central to
44 defining the relationship between diet and gut microbial ecology. Using a custom phenotyping
45 array, we determined carbohydrate utilization profiles for 354 members of the Bacteroidetes, a
46 dominant saccharolytic phylum. There was wide variation in the numbers and types of substrates
47 degraded by individual bacteria, but phenotype-based clustering grouped members of the same
48 species indicating that each species performs characteristic roles. The ability to utilize dietary
49 polysaccharides and endogenous mucin glycans was negatively correlated, suggesting exclusion
50 between these niches. By analyzing related *Bacteroides ovatus/xylanisolvens* strains that vary in
51 their ability to utilize mucin glycans, we addressed whether gene clusters that confer this
52 complex, multi-locus trait are being gained or lost in individual strains. Pangenome
53 reconstruction of these strains revealed a remarkably mosaic architecture in which genes
54 involved in polysaccharide metabolism are highly variable and bioinformatics data provide
55 evidence of interspecies gene transfer that might explain this genomic heterogeneity. Global
56 transcriptomic analyses suggest that the ability to utilize mucin has been lost in some lineages of
57 *B. ovatus* and *B. xylanisolvens*, which still harbor residual gene clusters that are involved in
58 mucin utilization by strains that still actively express this phenotype. Our data provide insight
59 into the breadth and complexity of carbohydrate metabolism in the microbiome and the
60 underlying genomic events that shape these behaviors.

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62

63

64 **Introduction**

65 Microbial communities in the distal intestines of humans and other mammals play critical
66 roles in the digestion of dietary polysaccharides (1-3). Unlike proteins, lipids and simple sugars,
67 which can be assimilated in the small intestine, the vast majority of non-starch polysaccharides
68 (fibers) transit undegraded to the distal gut due to a lack of requisite enzymes encoded in the
69 human genome (4). Microbial transformation of dietary fiber polysaccharides into host-
70 absorbable organic and short chain fatty acids is a beneficial process that unlocks otherwise
71 unusable calories from our diet (5), shapes the composition and behavior of the gut microbial
72 community (6-8), provides preferred nutrients directly to the colonic epithelium (9-11) and
73 shapes the development of immune cell populations (12, 13).

74 The abundance of dietary fiber in the mammalian diet, and the substantial chemical
75 diversity within this class of molecules, provides a prominent selective pressure that drives
76 genome evolution and diversification within symbiotic bacterial populations. The genomes of
77 individual human gut bacteria frequently encode dozens-hundreds more polysaccharide-
78 degrading enzymes than human secrete into the gastrointestinal tract, reflecting gut microbial
79 adaptations to degrade dietary fibers (3, 4). As examples, the genomes of a few well-studied
80 Gram-negative *Bacteroides* (*B. thetaiotaomicron*, *B. ovatus* and *B. cellulosylyticus*) encode
81 between 250 and over 400 CAZymes that collectively equip them to target nearly all commonly
82 available dietary polysaccharides (14-16). However, none of these three species is by itself
83 capable of degrading all available polysaccharides, a conclusion that was supported by early
84 phenotypic surveys of cultured human gut bacteria that encompassed species from other phyla
85 (17, 18). These findings suggest that individual microbes fill multiple, specific carbohydrate
86 degradation niches and that a diverse community is required to ensure degradation of the entire

87 repertoire of dietary fibers. Given that hundreds of different microbial species typically coexist in
88 an individual over long time periods (19), it is important to understand how many different
89 polysaccharide metabolism pathways are present within the individual microbial species that
90 compose a community and how these traits are represented across strains and species. If some
91 species possess very similar phenotypic abilities, they may be functional surrogates or compete
92 for similar niches and therefore seldom co-occur.

93 Members of the Bacteroidetes are often among the most numerous bacteria in the colonic
94 microbiota of people from industrialized countries (19-21). These bacteria are well appreciated
95 for their abilities to degrade a broad range of polysaccharides (16-18, 22, 23) and modify disease
96 states in a bacterial species-specific fashion (24-26). In this study, we empirically measured the
97 abilities of members of 29 different Bacteroidetes species to grow on a custom panel of
98 carbohydrates that span the diversity of plant, animal and microbial polysaccharides. Our results
99 reveal a wide range of metabolic breadth between different species, indicating that some have
100 evolved to be carbohydrate generalists while others have become metabolically specialized to
101 target just one or a few nutrients. Pangenome analysis of several related strains provides insight
102 into the evolutionary events that shape carbohydrate utilization among these important symbionts
103 and reveals a dizzying mosaic of heterogeneity at the level of discrete gene clusters mediating
104 polysaccharide metabolism. Based on analysis of several variable loci, we provide evidence to
105 support a mechanism of lateral gene transfer that may account for this mosaic architecture. Our
106 results provide a glimpse into the metabolic breadth and diversity of an important group of
107 human gut bacteria towards polysaccharide metabolism. Given the large amount of genomic and
108 metagenomic sequence information that has been generated from the human microbiome,

109 phenotypic studies such as the one presented here represent important next steps in deciphering
110 the functionality of these organisms in their native gut habitat.

111

112 **Results**

113 Phenotypes are the ultimate measures of biological function. However, large-scale
114 phenotypic analyses are still uncommon in surveys of the human gut microbiome, which have
115 instead relied on sequence-based approaches to infer function, often with substantial uncertainty.
116 This lack of phenotypic information is partly due to a lack of high-density (*e.g.*, strain level)
117 culture representation for the dominant taxa combined with a lack of defined growth conditions
118 to measure behavior of these organisms. With the resurgence of gut microbial culturing, both of
119 these gaps have begun to close (27-30), revealing an urgent need for scalable platforms to define
120 the actual behavior of these organisms. To address this gap, we assembled a collection of human
121 and animal gut Bacteroidetes and constructed a custom anaerobic phenotyping platform centered
122 around carbohydrate metabolism, a key function that symbiotic gut microorganisms contribute to
123 mammalian digestion (4). This array consists of 45 different carbohydrates (30 polysaccharides
124 and 15 monosaccharides) that span the repertoire of common sugars and linkages present in
125 dietary plants and meat, as well as host mucosal secretions and some rare nutrients consumed in
126 regional populations or as food additives (see **Fig. S1** for a summary of polysaccharide
127 structures).

128 The carbohydrate utilization abilities of 354 different human and animal Bacteroidetes
129 strains were measured by individually inoculating each into this custom growth array and
130 automatically monitoring anaerobic growth every 10-20 min for four days (see *Materials and*

131 *Methods*). Based on 16S rRNA gene sequence for each strain, this collection encompasses 29
132 different species based on the requirement that each strain possesses $\geq 98\%$ 16S rRNA gene
133 identity to a named type strain in a given species (**Table S1**, note that all but three strains, which
134 were all related to each other and to *Bacteroides uniformis*, met this criterion). The resulting
135 31,860 individual growth curves were first inspected manually and then subjected to automated
136 analysis to quantify total growth and growth rate parameters for each substrate (see *Materials*
137 *and Methods*). A normalization scheme was employed to compensate for general growth
138 differences in the two different defined medium formulations employed (see **Table S1** for a full
139 list of strains assayed and all raw and normalized growth measurements, **Fig. S2** for analysis of
140 replicates).

141 **Members of the same species possess similar carbohydrate utilization profiles**

142 Growth results are summarized in **Figs. 1, 2** and **S3**. Whether considered from the
143 perspective of how many species degrade a particular polysaccharide (**Fig. 1A**), or how many
144 individual polysaccharides are targeted by members of a particular species (**Fig. 1B**), there was
145 substantial variability in carbohydrate utilization among the organisms surveyed (range, 1-28
146 polysaccharides degraded per strain; mean, 15.6). Some polysaccharides like soluble
147 starch/glycogen were degraded by a majority of the species tested, yet others like the edible
148 seaweed polysaccharides carrageenan and porphyran were used by just one or two strains.

149 Given the diversity in observed carbohydrate utilization phenotypes, we wished to
150 address if closely related strains display similar abilities or instead if strains of the same species
151 have diverged from one another. To assist in visualizing the overall trends in carbohydrate
152 utilization across this phylum, we performed unsupervised clustering of the strains based on their
153 carbohydrate utilization profiles. While many species are not deeply represented by multiple

154 strains, clustering based on a combination of normalized growth and rate measurements largely
155 grouped strains of the same species together (**Fig. 2**) and, as expected, this was driven mostly by
156 polysaccharide utilization abilities (**Fig. S4**).

157 Our data reveal that strains belonging to several individual species possess more similar
158 polysaccharide degrading abilities to each other compared to their more distant relatives, a
159 finding that has importance for interpreting or predicting function based on community
160 sequencing data. As examples, all 56 strains of *B. fragilis* clustered together, reflecting their
161 generally restricted abilities to utilize forms of soluble starch/glycogen, inulin and mucus *O*-
162 glycans. Likewise, all 36 strains of *B. uniformis*, a species with broader metabolic capacity that
163 includes digestion of plant cell wall hemicelluloses, were also grouped together into a single
164 branch. The inclusivity of these groupings was generally independent of the time period when
165 strains were isolated or whether they were isolated from humans or other mammals (**Fig. 2**).

166 Another important feature of the observed species clustering is that the grouping does not
167 mirror the overall phylogeny of the gut Bacteroidetes. Rather, phylogenetically separated species
168 often group adjacent to one another based on similarities in carbohydrate metabolism (*e.g.*, *B.*
169 *ovatus/xylanisolvans* and *B. cellulosilyticus*; and *B. vulgatus/dorei* and *B. fragilis*; see **Fig. 3A**
170 for a phylogenetic tree based on conserved housekeeping genes) (31, 32). In the latter case, it is
171 interesting to directly compare *B. fragilis* and *B. vulgatus/dorei*, two groups with deep strain
172 representation (**Fig. 2**). Despite being phylogenetically more distant, these species possess very
173 similar phenotypic patterns that reflect degradation of soluble starch and similar molecules
174 (glycogen, pullulan), inulin and mucin *O*-glycans. The major distinguishing feature between
175 these groups is the presence of some, often-weak, pectin utilization among strains of *B.*
176 *vulgatus/dorei*.

177 Some polysaccharides, especially those present in the cell walls of dietary plants, occur in
178 the same physical context and presumably traverse the gut together, potentially exerting selective
179 pressure for bacteria to use them simultaneously. To test for co-occurrence of traits, we
180 performed a pairwise correlation analysis to determine the extent to which any two
181 polysaccharides were co-utilized by the same strain (**Fig. S5**). The presence of two different
182 soluble starches (potato and maize amylopectin) and two starch-like glycans (glycogen and
183 pullulan) provide an internal control since they are essentially identical in their sugar and linkage
184 chemistry but vary in the proportion and placement of branches as well as polymer length,
185 crystallinity and solubility (**Fig. S1**). These four molecules are utilized through a single
186 degradation/transport system in the type strain of *B. thetaiotaomicron*, which was included in our
187 study (33). As expected, the abilities to use these four polysaccharides were among the strongest
188 positive correlations (between 44-75%); although, there was not a perfect correlation suggesting
189 that some finer adaptation may exist even for different structural forms of a chemically similar
190 molecule.

191 We also observed positive correlations in the ability to use components of two different
192 groups of plant cell wall polysaccharides (pectins and hemicelluloses), as well as animal tissue
193 glycosaminoglycans, despite the fact that the polysaccharides within each of these groups often
194 possess different chemical structures (**Fig. S1**). In the case of the hemicelluloses, there was even
195 some apparent separation based on dicotyledonous vs. monocotyledonous sources. The
196 predominantly dicot hemicelluloses (**Fig. 2**, blue labels) and monocot hemicelluloses (**Fig. 2**,
197 green labels) show some exclusivity with respect to the bacteria that utilize them. Many *B.*
198 *ovatus*/*B. xylanisolvens* strains lack the ability to utilize the three dicot hemicelluloses (GalM,
199 GlcM, XyG); whereas the ability to degrade those from monocots (OSX, WAX, BBG) is more

200 evenly distributed. *B. uniformis* has a partially opposite pattern, preferring substrates from dicots,
201 while only degrading one of the two major monocot structures (BBG) and poorly degrading the
202 two xylans tested (OSX, WAX). Similar observations were also made for pectins and GAGs and
203 could reflect adaptations to simultaneously harvest different nutrients from digesta particles
204 derived from dicot plant cell walls or animal tissue ingested in a carnivorous diet.

205

206 **Specialization for mucus *O*-linked glycans**

207 The most noteworthy correlation between polysaccharide utilization traits was observed
208 between utilization of host-produced mucin *O*-glycans and many of the other polysaccharides
209 tested. Growth on a total of 19/30 polysaccharides showed negative correlations with the ability
210 to utilize *O*-glycans, with the strongest negative correlations being between *O*-glycans and the
211 seven different hemicelluloses (**Fig. S5**). This negative correlation is easily observed by
212 comparing the rightmost column in **Fig. 2** (*O*-glycan utilization) with the respective columns for
213 hemicellulose degradation. Because this trend was observed across several species, it suggests
214 that there could be a more general exclusive relationship between the two niches associated with
215 foraging on mucus and hemicellulose. This idea is further supported by experiments described
216 below, which suggest that isolates of *B. ovatus* and *B. xylanisolvens*, both adept hemicellulose
217 consumers, are in the process of losing the ability to degrade *O*-glycans, relative to an ancestor
218 that contained multiple gene clusters involved in the metabolism of these structures.

219 Interestingly, the mucin *O*-glycan mixture was the only substrate for which we observed
220 absolute metabolic specialization among the substrates tested. A single, and only available strain
221 of *Barnesiella intestinhominis* exhibited the ability to exclusively utilize mucin *O*-glycans, along
222 with a subset of the sugars that are contained in these structures (**Table S1**). Three strains of

223 *Bacteroides massiliensis* exhibited similar behavior with very strong growth on mucin *O*-glycans
224 and only weak growth on soluble starches and a few other polysaccharides (**Table S1**). These
225 three *B. massiliensis* strains were also restricted in the repertoire of simple sugars they could
226 metabolize with this list being limited to those found in mucin and other host glycans (galactose,
227 *N*-acetylgalactosamine, *N*-acetylglucosamine, *N*-acetylneuraminic acid and L-fucose; weak
228 fructose utilization by one strain was the only exception). Members of these two species are
229 poorly represented in culture collections and remain lightly studied. However, their specific
230 adaptations for host mucin glycans may render them important members of the microbiota,
231 potentially thriving at the interface between the gut lumen and host tissue and relying exclusively
232 on the host to be sustained. The continuous supply of mucin *in vivo* could explain why some
233 species have become specialized for it as a nutrient, whereas dietary fiber degraders may need to
234 be more generalist since the substrates available to them change with the host's meals.

235

236 **Pangenome reconstruction reveals extensive genetic diversification among related**

237 ***Bacteroides***

238 With a view of the carbohydrate utilization traits present in our gut Bacteroidetes
239 collection, we next sought to determine if certain variable traits were being gained or lost within
240 strains of certain species and if available genomes provide insight into the mechanisms driving
241 genomic adaptations to particular nutrients. Connections between polysaccharide utilization
242 phenotypes and the underlying genes involved have been systematically explored for a few
243 *Bacteroides* species (*B. thetaiotaomicron*, *B. ovatus* and *B. cellulosilyticus*) with partial analyses
244 in others (6, 16, 22, 23, 34-37). These studies have revealed that, in essentially all cases, the
245 ability to degrade a particular polysaccharide is conferred by one or more clusters of co-

246 expressed genes termed polysaccharide utilization loci (PULs) (38). PULs share defining
247 features such as genes encoding homologs of outer membrane TonB-dependent transporters
248 (SusC-like), surface glycan-binding proteins (SGBPs; or SusD- and SusE/F-like), usually an
249 associated sensor/transcriptional regulator and one or more degradative CAZymes (glycoside
250 hydrolase, GH; polysaccharide lyase, PL; carbohydrate esterase, CE), as well as other enzymes
251 like sulfatases or proteases. Since the presence of one or more cognate PULs is required to utilize
252 a given polysaccharide and these genes typically exhibit large increases in gene expression in
253 response to their growth substrate, we rationalized that we could focus on traits that were
254 variable in closely related strains and locate the associated PULs by transcriptomic analysis to
255 gain insight into the basis of their acquisition or loss.

256 To test this, we focused on members of two closely related species, *B. ovatus* (*Bo*) and *B.*
257 *xylanisolvens* (*Bx*), for which there is noticeable inter-strain variation in the ability to use mucin
258 *O*-glycans (**Figs. 2, 3**). Investigation of these two species also benefits from substantial culture
259 depth and many strains with available sequences. The *O*-glycans attached to mucins represent a
260 diverse family of over one hundred different structures (39), albeit with common linkage patterns
261 (**Fig. S1**). Correspondingly, the ability to utilize these glycans is a complex trait, involving
262 simultaneous expression of at least 6-13 different *O*-glycan inducible PULs in *B.*
263 *thetaitaomicron*, *B. massiliensis*, *B. fragilis* and *B. caccae* (6, 22, 35). Quantification of *O*-
264 glycan growth for individual *Bo* and *Bx* strains was widely variable (**Fig. 3B**). One hypothesis to
265 explain this variability is that some *Bo* and *Bx* strains have gained the ability to utilize *O*-glycans
266 relative to an ancestor that lacked this phenotype. If so, the PULs they express during *O*-glycan
267 degradation might be unique to their genomes and may indicate lateral gene transfer (LGT) as
268 has been the case for acquisition of phenotypes such as porphyran, agarose and λ -carrageenan

269 utilization in gut *Bacteroides*, which are all components of integrative conjugative elements or
270 mobilizable plasmids (31, 40). An alternative hypothesis is that some *Bo* and *Bx* strains are in the
271 process of losing this ability from a common ancestor. If so, the genomes of non-degraders may
272 still contain some PULs that are homologous to those present in more proficient *O*-glycan-
273 degrading strains, but these strains may have lost a key step(s) that has eroded their ability to
274 express this phenotype.

275 To distinguish these hypotheses, we selected seven strains (black arrows in **Fig. 3B**) that
276 vary in their ability to degrade *O*-glycans and for which genome sequences exist. Note that three
277 strains that degrade *O*-glycans were initially chosen because they were among the strongest
278 degraders in our dataset with sequenced genomes when we initiated these experiments. We later
279 identified strains with better *O*-glycan growth abilities and address one of these (strain H59)
280 separately below. Four of the selected strains were *Bo* (two positive and two negative for *O*-
281 glycan degradation); three strains were *Bx* (one weakly positive and two negative for *O*-glycan
282 degradation). One of these strains (*B. xylanisolvens* XB1A) has a finished circular genome and
283 was used as a scaffold to align the remaining six draft genome sequences, with manual curation
284 (see *Material and Methods*), resulting in a nearly contiguous pangenome sequence that captures
285 the spatial arrangement of homologous and variable genes that are present in these seven strains
286 (**Table S2, Fig. S6**).

287 Analysis of the *Bo/Bx* pangenome revealed remarkable variability in gene content among
288 just the seven strains used. A total of 12,960 different genes were delineated based on $\geq 90\%$
289 identity in their translated amino acid sequence (**Table S2**). Remarkably, only 2,264 (17.5%) of
290 these genes were shared among all seven strains. The largest proportion of genes (7,244; 55.9%)
291 was only present in one of the seven strains. Separating two major classes of core PUL functions,

292 SusC/D homologs and degradative CAZymes (GH, PL and CE), revealed that these key
293 components of Bacteroidetes polysaccharide metabolism were also heavily represented in the
294 “accessory gene” pool that is not common to all strains (**Fig. 4A**).

295 Through informatics-based and manual annotation of gene clusters containing typical
296 PUL functions, we delineated between 180-236 different PULs in the reconstructed pangenome
297 (ambiguity is caused by many PULs occurring adjacent to each other; although in many cases
298 separation of adjacent PULs according to individual genomes allowed us to make more precise
299 delineations, **Table S3**). Direct comparison of the *O*-glycan-degrading and non-degrading strains
300 revealed that there was a substantial number of genes (3,351) that were unique to the three *O*-
301 glycan degrading strains, including genes belonging to 51 PULs (**Fig. 4B**). However, such a
302 distribution in gene content might be expected given the overall large proportion of non-core
303 genes in these seven strains and there was correspondingly no indication that all three *O*-glycan-
304 degrading strains shared overlapping PULs with each other: no PULs were common to all three
305 *O*-glycan degraders and only five PULs were shared by any two strains (**Fig. 4C**). Considering
306 that there are 51 total PULs that are unique to the mucin-degrading strains, if these strains have
307 gained the ability to degrade *O*-glycans from an ancestral lineage that lacked this ability it likely
308 occurred by acquisition of separate gene clusters. To more directly distinguish between the two
309 hypotheses given above, we performed transcriptional profiling on all three *O*-glycan degrading
310 strains to determine if the PUL genes that they express during *O*-glycan degradation are indeed
311 unique to these strains.

312 Compared to reference growth in minimal medium containing glucose (MM-glucose), the
313 *Bx* D22, *Bo* 3-1-23 and *Bo* D2 strains activated expression of 196, 227 and 359 total genes more
314 than 10-fold and these gene lists included components of 14, 19, and 42 different PULs,

315 respectively (**Tables S4-6**). As expected from studies in other *Bacteroides*, these PULs were
316 scattered throughout the genome (**Fig. S7**), suggesting that they are autonomously regulated in
317 response to glycan cues present in the *O*-glycan mixture. Strikingly, the majority of PULs that
318 contained *O*-glycan-activated genes (63/75, 84%) were *not* unique to the *O*-glycan degrading
319 strains (**Tables S4-S6, Fig. S7**). Moreover, in each of the three strains analyzed, the most highly
320 upregulated PULs were also often shared with non-mucin degrading strains. These observations
321 lend support to the hypothesis that strains of *Bo* and *Bx* are in the process of losing the ability to
322 utilize *O*-glycans relative to a common ancestor that possessed a more expansive gene repertoire
323 to successfully access these nutrients. However, we cannot rule out that individual non-degrading
324 strains are separately acquiring PULs that are associated with mucin degradation and retaining
325 them without the full benefit that presumably occurs with the ability to fully execute this growth
326 phenotype. This latter idea is consistent with inter-species PUL exchange observations
327 elaborated on below.

328 Finally, because we subsequently identified a *B. ovatus* strain (NLAE-zl-H59, red arrow
329 in **Fig. 3B.**) with a substantially higher ability to use *O*-glycans relative to the strains used for
330 pangenome construction, we performed additional RNA-seq analysis on this strain. Compared to
331 a glucose reference, this strain activated 373 total genes in response to *O*-glycans, including
332 genes from 30 different PULs (**Table S7**). Among these, 26 activated PULs were also present in
333 one of the seven strains in our pangenome and 24 were homologous to PULs in strains that did
334 not degrade *O*-glycans. However, this strain did activate expression of genes within four PULs
335 that were completely unique to its genome compared to the seven strains used for pangenome
336 reconstruction, suggesting that it could possess additional genes that augment its ability to grow
337 on mucin *O*-glycans. This increased PUL expression could be responsible for the enhanced

338 growth of the H59 strain on *O*-glycans, especially if genes included within these unique PULs
339 are responsible for key metabolic steps required for efficient *O*-glycan utilization.

340

341 **Evidence that intergenomic recombination has driven *Bacteroides* pangenome evolution**

342 Similar to other bacteria, we observed that many accessory genes in the *Bo* and *Bx*
343 pangenome are located in contiguous clusters or “islands” often involving PULs or capsular
344 polysaccharide synthesis gene cluster (**Fig. S6, Table S2**). In contrast to previously identified
345 *Bacteroides* PULs that have more obviously been subjects of lateral transfer (31, 40, 41) and are
346 associated with integrative and conjugative elements (ICEs), most of the variable genomic
347 regions that we identified were not associated with functions indicative of mobile DNA. Instead,
348 these regions are often precisely located in between one or more core genes (*i.e.*, those common
349 to all seven strains; herein referred to as “genomic nodes”) that flank each side of the variable
350 gene segment (**Fig. 5A,B**).

351 Several intergenomic transfer mechanisms might cause the observed mosaic structure of
352 the *Bo-Bx* pangenome. The first possibility is movement of variable genes into a recipient
353 genome by direct conjugation of individual, mobile ICEs. While such events would be expected
354 to leave behind residual genes involved in mobilization and transfer, which were not observed,
355 these DNA vehicles are known to target a subset of core genes, such as tRNAs (41), and may
356 have undergone subsequent genomic deletion events that eliminated the mobile DNA. Two other
357 known mechanisms of bacterial LGT are natural competence and phage transduction, neither of
358 which has been observed in members of the Bacteroidetes.

359 A final potential mechanism is direct conjugation of the chromosome from a donor
360 bacterium into a related recipient, followed by subsequent homologous recombination between

361 flanking nodes to add or delete intervening DNA in the recipient genome (**Fig. 5C**). A
362 mechanism that is conceptually similar to high-frequency recombination (Hfr) transfer in *E. coli*
363 has been described for *B. thetaiotaomicron* and *B. fragilis* and involves chromosomal ICEs,
364 which may have lost their ability to transfer autonomously by circularizing from the genome and
365 instead act as transfer initiation points to conjugate a donor genome into a recipient (42-44). If
366 such a mechanism was more broadly active in LGT between *Bacteroides*, we would expect that
367 some of the core/node genes involved would reflect sequence identities that were more similar to
368 the donor and this difference would be more easily detectable if the transfer was between
369 members of different species like *Bo* and *Bx*. Moreover, such transfer events could either result
370 in introduction of new genes into the recipient or elimination of genes depending on the genetic
371 content in between recombination nodes from the donor chromosome.

372 To test this hypothesis, we took a bioinformatics approach aimed at first identifying high-
373 confidence examples of inter-species recombination involving core genes and then assessed
374 whether those genes were associated with co-transfer of adjacent accessory genes (**Fig. 6A**). We
375 collected a dataset of 33 *Bo* and *Bx* genomes, which represent a subsample of the isolates for
376 which we generated phenotypic data. We identified a set of 1,384 core genes—expectedly
377 smaller than the core genome of the seven strains used above due to additional strains being
378 added—that are present as a single copy in all members of both species. To identify cases of
379 putative inter-species LGT via homologous recombination at core genes, we searched for
380 instances in which a core gene sequence was more similar to the corresponding sequence from
381 the other species than to sequences of the species to which a strain belonged. To this end, for
382 each allele of each core gene, we calculated the median distance to all other alleles of both
383 species (**Fig. 6B**). We identified instances where the median distance to the same species was

384 high and median distance to the opposite species was low and used these genes as markers for
385 putative LGT core loci. To identify additional accessory genes that may have been
386 simultaneously transferred, we searched for instances in which genes were perfectly syntenic and
387 collinear between each genome with a putative LGT core gene and genomes of the opposite
388 species. Among these candidate LGT loci, we then investigated if any of these transfer events
389 have resulted in pan-genome diversification, which we defined as the presence of any accessory
390 gene(s) that was only observed adjacent to a core gene with evidence of LGT based on the above
391 criteria.

392 In total, we identified 29 different loci at which exchange of core genes appeared to have
393 occurred and LGT accessory genes were identified, including seven that appeared to involve
394 transfer of PULs (**Fig. 6C, Fig. S8**). Similar numbers of potentially transferred loci were
395 identified for each species, with 16 loci in *Bx* and 13 loci in *Bo*. Within the identified HGT
396 events, variable numbers of HGT accessory genes were found within the loci ranging from one
397 to thirteen genes (**Fig. 6C, Fig. S8**). More genes (57 total) appeared to be transferred into *Bo*
398 than into *Bx* (36 total).

399 Finally, we determined if any of the identified LGT events could explain differential
400 phenotypes measured by our high throughput growth assay by modifying the complement of
401 PULs in individual genomes. As a specific example, we focused on a PUL that was previously
402 associated with β -mannan degradation (23, 45) that was among our candidate loci with evidence
403 of transfer from a *Bx* ancestor into two *Bo* strains. The presence of this PUL (PUL-A in **Fig. 6C,**
404 **Fig. S9A**) was observed in all strains with the ability to grow on the β -mannan galactomannan
405 (GalM), including two strains of *Bo* (ATCC8483 and CL02T12C04) for which the flanking node
406 regions were more similar to *Bx*. We previously showed that deletion of this PUL from *B. ovatus*

407 ATCC8483 eliminated growth on GalM and glucomannan (GluM) (45), suggesting that it was
408 both acquired from a *Bx* strain and conferred growth on these two β -mannans. However, the
409 presence of this PUL was not perfectly correlated with growth on GalM and several strains that
410 lacked PUL-A still exhibited robust growth. Thus, we searched for other PULs that harbor GH26
411 family enzymes and determined that all of the other strains that grow on GalM, but lack PUL-A,
412 harbor another candidate GalM PUL (PUL-B, **Fig. S9A**) at a different genomic location and
413 some strains possess both (**Fig. 6C**). Gene expression analysis by qPCR revealed that PUL-B
414 was highly expressed in strains that lacked PUL-A during growth in GalM (**Fig. S9B**) and every
415 strain that grew robustly on GalM had at least one of these two PULs. While we had previously
416 shown that PUL-A was required for GluM growth in *B. ovatus* ATCC8483, there were a number
417 of other strains (red “+” symbols in **Fig. 6C**) that displayed some ability to grow only on GlcM,
418 while lacking both of the GalM-associated PULs, suggesting the presence of additional, partially
419 orthogonal PULs that confer the ability to grow on variant β -mannans. Such a presence of
420 multiple orthologous PULs that confer the same or similar functions, and some which may be
421 moving between genomes of related species by the putative LGT mechanisms noted above,
422 complicates the process of understanding the genotype-phenotype relationships in human gut
423 Bacteroidetes, but will need to be resolved to make better functional predictions from sequence-
424 based data.

425

426 **Discussion**

427 In this study we leveraged a scalable, high-throughput quantitative growth platform to
428 characterize the phenotypic abilities that are present in a sample of hundreds of Bacteroidetes
429 strains from the human and animal gut. Our anaerobic screening technique is directly applicable

430 to other bacterial phyla from the human gut and other environments. Moreover, it can be adapted
431 to include new polysaccharides or to focus on different nutrient utilization or chemical resistance
432 phenotypes. The current study, in concert with future applications of phenotypic screening, will
433 help close the gap between our largely sequence-based view of the human gut microbiota and the
434 functions that its members provide. However, instances like the ones investigated here for mucin
435 glycan and β -mannan utilization by *Bacteroides* serve as a warning that the presence or absence
436 of genes that are experimentally associated with a particular function do not always indicate that
437 the phenotype is expressed or not.

438 Pangenome reconstruction for *Bo* and *Bx* revealed extensive variability between strains of
439 these closely related species, which is not unexpected for bacteria that engage in LGT. However,
440 the lack of mobile DNA signatures for the majority of accessory genes and evidence of inter-
441 genomic recombination between species at core genes provides new insight into what may be a
442 prominent mechanism of genome diversification in members of this phylum. The previously
443 described intergenomic transfer mechanisms in *B. thetaiotaomicron* and *B. fragilis* required the
444 presence of active or inactive ICEs, highlighting the potential roles for these mobile elements in
445 not just shaping genomes directly but also indirectly through their ability to catalyze exchange of
446 broader genomic segments. In *B. thetaiotaomicron*, genome transfer was determined to initiate at
447 genomically-integrated ICEs of which there are four in the type strain of *B. thetaiotaomicron*
448 (VPI-5482). These have not been shown to be fully functional for circularization and
449 mobilization. However, introduction and activation of an additional, excision-proficient
450 conjugative transposon (either cTnDOT or cTnERL) (42), which share common features with the
451 genomic ICEs, catalyzed expression of genes in the genomic ICEs and transfer of parts of the
452 genome in a manner that requires *recA* and homologous DNA to be present in the recipient (42).

453 An additional study in *B. fragilis* showed that conjugation from a strain with multiple genomic
454 ICEs, with one or more presumably retaining transfer activity, results in transfer of up to 435Kb
455 of chromosome into a recipient that initiates near genomic ICEs, with individual transfer events
456 being of variable size. The latter observation suggests that intergenomic recombination could
457 then occur at different homologous regions (*i.e.*, the core gene nodes observed in the
458 pangenome), which could depend on the amount of genomic DNA transferred and the
459 length/homology of available recombination sites. Given that the number of ICEs in individual
460 genomes is variable, and their ability to be activated by functional conjugative transposons that
461 are circulating in the ecosystem may also vary, it will be interesting to determine in future work
462 if there are hotspots for genome transfer or if certain strains/species are dominant genome donors
463 that could play a disproportionate role.

464 The phenotypic similarity between members of the same species (*e.g.*, *Bo* and *Bx*) and the
465 large amount of gene diversity, including genes involved in carbohydrate metabolism, presents a
466 paradox and raises the question of why the genome diversification observed in strains of *Bo* and
467 *Bx* has not pushed members of these species to behave more differently and cluster based on
468 phenotype with members of other species. One answer may be the apparent exclusion of some
469 traits, such as mucin *O*-glycan/hemicellulose metabolism, which may limit the fitness advantage
470 associated with acquiring new phenotypes. A second emerges from the proposed genome-
471 exchange mechanism for which we offer new experimental support. Since this intergenomic
472 exchange relies on homologous recombination, its frequency should decrease between genomes
473 that are more divergent. Thus, this strategy may be one mechanism through which only closely
474 related bacteria can share traits that are advantageous with other close relatives. The presence of
475 orthologous PULs that confer the same function (*e.g.*, GluM and GalM utilization), some of

476 which appear to be subjected to LGT, further complicates interpretations of genotype-to-
477 phenotype relationships in these bacteria. Notably, the genome transfer mechanism proposed
478 here does not account for how new genes can be incorporated between conserved nodes. Rather,
479 this variability must pre-exist among different strains and therefore be created by different inter-
480 and intragenomic diversification mechanisms. Nevertheless, the data that we report here
481 underscore the notion that individual gut symbiont genomes are not just highly variable, but also
482 dynamically so.

483

484 **Materials and methods**

485 **Bacterial strains and growth conditions**

486 A total of 354 human and animal gut Bacteroidetes were included in this study. A
487 complete list is provided in **Table S1**, along with species designation based on 16S rRNA gene
488 sequencing and associated meta-data. Dr. Abigail Salyers (University of Illinois, Urbana-
489 Champagne) kindly provided many of the strains and two large portions of this collection were
490 isolated over several decades: 99 strains with “WH” designations were collected from fecal
491 samples of healthy human volunteers as part of the Woods Hole Summer Course on Microbial
492 Diversity in the late 1990s; 95 additional strains with “VPI” designations were collected from
493 human samples at the Virginia Polytechnic Institute in the 1960s-1970s. Species classifications
494 were made based on alignment of a minimum of 734 bp of 16S rRNA gene sequence to a
495 database containing the type strains of >29 named human gut Bacteroidetes species using the
496 `classify.seqs` command with Bayesian settings in the program `mothur` (46); assignment for each
497 strain was also manually checked by Blast (47). Isolates with $\geq 98\%$ 16 rDNA gene sequence
498 identity to the type strain of a named species were labeled with that species designation. This

499 classification strategy included all except for three of the 354 strains examined, which ranged
500 between 96.6 to 96.7% sequence identity to the *B. uniformis* ATCC type strains and based on
501 sequential isolate numbers might be clones from the same individual (see WH15, WH16, WH17
502 entries in **Table S1**). Because of the small number of strains that did not satisfy our 98% cutoff,
503 we grouped these unclassified strains with their nearest relative and label them as more divergent
504 in **Table S1**; although, in most cases the carbohydrate phenotypes of these strains were very
505 similar to other members of the *B. uniformis* group.

506 All strains were routinely grown in an anaerobic chamber (Coy Lab Products, Grass
507 Lake, MI) at 37°C under an atmosphere of 5% H₂, 5% CO₂, and 90% N₂ on brain-heart infusion
508 (BHI, Beckton Dickinson) agar that included 10% defibrinated horse blood (Colorado Serum
509 Co.) and gentamicin (200 µg/ml). A single colony was picked into either tryptone-yeast extract-
510 glucose (TYG) media (48) or modified chopped-meat carbohydrate broth (**Table S8**) and then
511 sub-cultured into a minimal medium (MM) formulation that contained a mixture of
512 monosaccharides, vitamins, nucleotides, amino acids and trace minerals (**Table S2** provides
513 components and a complete recipe).

514

515 **Carbohydrate growth array setup and data collection**

516 Two different minimal medium formulations were used in the carbohydrate growth
517 arrays (**Table S1** lists the formulation used for each isolate). The simpler of the two formulations
518 (medium 1) was identical to the above MM, except that no carbohydrates were included and the
519 medium was prepared at 2X concentration. The second minimal medium formulation (medium
520 2) was identical to medium 1, but included beef extract (0.5% w/v final concentration) as an
521 additional supplement. We initially attempted to cultivate all of the species tested using only

522 medium 1, but determined that beef extract was specifically required to allow growth of some
523 species, especially *Parabacteroides* spp., *Barnesiella intestinihominis*, *Odoribacter splanchnicus*
524 and the branch of *Bacteroides* that includes *B. plebeius* and *B. massiliensis*. Growth in the
525 absence of an added carbohydrate source was generally not observed or very low, except with
526 *Parabacteroides* that may be able to grow to a low level on the added 0.5% beef extract. The
527 corresponding negative control wells for each strain assayed were averaged and this value
528 subtracted from the total growth calculation of the corresponding to strain on other carbohydrates
529 tested. Despite several attempts to supplement minimal media with different components or
530 employ more stringent anaerobic methods, we were unable to cultivate several common
531 Bacteroidetes genera/species (*Prevotella* spp., *Paraprevotella* spp., *Alistipes* spp., and
532 *Bacteroides coprocola* and *Bacteroides coprophilus*) in these two MM formulations and
533 therefore did not include them in this study. All of these isolates readily grew in rich medium,
534 suggesting that they have specific nutritional requirements that were not met in the MM
535 formulations used.

536 Carbohydrate growth arrays were run as described previously (23) using a list of 45
537 carbohydrates (**Table S9**) that were present in duplicate, non-adjacent wells of a 96-well plate;
538 two additional wells contained no carbohydrate and served as negative controls. Each MM was
539 prepared as a 2X concentrated stock without carbohydrates (MM-no carb). An aliquot of each
540 strain was taken from a MM-monosaccharides culture (grown for 16-20 h) and was centrifuged
541 to pellet cells. Bacteria were resuspended in the same volume of 2X MM-no carb and then
542 centrifuged again prior to suspension in a volume of 2X MM-no carb that was equal to the
543 original volume. These washed bacterial cells were then inoculated at a 1:50 ratio into 2X MM-
544 no carb and the suspension was added in equal volume (100 μ l/well) to the 96 wells of the

545 carbohydrate growth array. Each well of the carbohydrate growth array contained 100 μ l of 2X
546 carbohydrate stock (10-20mg/ml); thus, when diluted 2-fold resulted in 1X MM containing a
547 unique carbohydrate and a bacterial inoculum that was identical to other wells. Growth arrays
548 were monitored at kinetic intervals of 10-20 minutes using a microplate stacking device and
549 coupled absorbance reader (Biotek Instruments; Winooski, VT) and data recorded for 4 d
550 (variable kinetic interval times reflect variations in the number of microtiter plates present in a
551 given batch).

552

553 **Carbohydrate growth array data processing**

554 Growth data were processed according to the following workflow: 1. data for each strain
555 were exported from Gen5 software (Biotek Instruments; Winooski, VT) into Microsoft Excel
556 and a previously described automated script was employed to call the points at which growth
557 began (min) and ended (max) (23); 2. Each file was manually checked to validate that
558 appropriate calls were made and the min and max values edited if needed (generally, only due to
559 obvious baselining artifacts or erroneously high calls caused by temporary bubbles or
560 precipitation); 3. “total growth” ($A_{600 \text{ max}} - A_{600 \text{ min}}$) and “growth rate” [$(A_{600 \text{ max}} - A_{600 \text{ min}}) /$
561 $(t_{\text{max}} - t_{\text{min}})$] were calculated for each strain on each substrate (A_{600} is the absorbance value at
562 600 nm that corresponds to each min and max point; t is the corresponding time values in
563 minutes); 4. Individual cultures in which total growth was ≤ 0.1 were scored as “no growth” and
564 their A_{600} values converted to 0. Only assays in which both replicates showed an increase in A_{600}
565 ≥ 0.1 were considered as growth; if the two replicate assays were discordant (one positive, one
566 negative), then both values were converted to zero.

567 To normalize the results for each strain, the substrate(s) that provided maximum total
568 growth and growth rate values were determined and these were set to 1.0. All other growth
569 values for a given strain were normalized to this maximum value, providing a range of values
570 between 0 and 1.0. We next normalized growth ability across individual substrates using the
571 previously normalized values for each individual strain: the strain with the maximum total
572 growth and growth rate values were identified (many of these were already set to 1.0). Then, the
573 corresponding values for each other species on that particular substrate were calculated as a
574 fraction of the maximum value for that substrate, yielding a range of values between 0 and 1.0
575 for each substrate. These values were used to create the heat map shown in **Figs. 2** and **S3** and all
576 raw and normalized values are provided in **Table S1**.

577

578 **Data clustering and statistics**

579 Heatmaps and corresponding dendrograms were generated using the “heatmap” function
580 in the “stats” package of R (version 3.4.0) which employs unsupervised hierarchical clustering
581 (complete linkage method) to group similar carbohydrate growth profiles. Pearson Correlation
582 was used to calculate co-occurrence of the ability to grow on each pair of different substrates.
583 The normalized growth value for each substrate was compared to the corresponding growth
584 values on all other substrates using the Pearson correlation test in R and these values are
585 displayed in the Pearson correlation plot in **Figure S5**.

586

587 **Pangenome reconstruction for *B. ovatus* and *B. xylanisolvens* strains**

588 Since one of the seven strains used for pangenome reconstruction (*B. xylanisolvens*
589 XB1A) was assembled into a single circular chromosome, we used this genome as a scaffold for

590 the contigs representing the remaining six strains. Contigs from the six unfinished strains were
591 aligned against the XB1A genome using a combination of Mauve (50), to align and orient larger
592 contigs, and reciprocal best Blast-hit analysis using $\geq 90\%$ amino acid identity to identify likely
593 homologs, to provide finer resolution. Contigs from draft genome assemblies or *Bx* XB1A were
594 broken as needed to accommodate the inclusion of unique accessory genes, but only in
595 circumstances where genes on both sides of the break could be aligned to homologs in one or
596 more genomes with a contig that spanned that break point. After constructing a preliminary
597 assembly, we analyzed the size distribution of putative homologous ORFs as a measure of
598 assembly accuracy and to identify variations in genetic organization that might be attributable to
599 real genetic differences such as frame shifts, which would result in two homologous gene calls of
600 smaller size in the genome containing the frameshift. Any variation $>50\%$ of homologous ORF
601 size was inspected manually using the “orthologous neighborhood viewer, by best Blast hit”
602 function in the U. S. Dept. of Energy Integrated Microbial Genomes (IMG) website. Introduced
603 contig breaks are documented in **Table S2** and **Fig. S6**. GenVision software (DNASTar, Madison,
604 WI) was used to visualize and label selected functions in the pan-genome assembly and also
605 display RNAseq data as a function of shared and unique PULs.

606

607 **RNAseq analysis**

608 For RNAseq, *B. xylanisolvans* and *B. ovatus* cells were grown to mid-exponential phase
609 on either purified mucin *O*-linked glycans (purified in house from Sigma Type III porcine gastric
610 mucin) or glucose as a reference as previously described (22). Total RNA was extracted using an
611 RNeasy kit (Qiagen), treated with Turbo DNase I (Ambion), and mRNA was enriched using the
612 Bacterial Ribo-Zero rRNA removal kit (Epicentre). Residual mRNA was converted to

613 sequencing libraries using TruSeq barcoded adaptors (Illumina) and sequenced at the University
614 of Michigan Sequencing Core in an Illumina HiSeq instrument with 24 samples multiplexed per
615 lane. Bar-coded data were demultiplexed and analyzed using the Arraystar software package
616 with Qseq (DNASTar). All RNAseq data are publicly available from the National Institutes of
617 Health Gene Expression Omnibus Database under accession numbers GSM4714867-
618 GSM4714890.

619

620 **Core gene determination and detection of LGT events between *Bo* and *Bx* strains**

621 The core gene alignment was generated with cognac (51). The alignment was then
622 partitioned into the individual component genes and approximate maximum likelihood gene trees
623 were generated with fastTree (52). Co-phylogenetic distances were calculated with APE (53). A
624 distance threshold of greater than 0.1 to the same species and less than 0.1 to the opposite species
625 was used to identify alleles bearing signatures of HGT. All analyses were performed in R
626 (version 3.6.3) (54). All code developed for this project are available at
627 https://github.com/rdcrawford/bacteroides_hgt.

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640 **Competing Interests:** The authors declare no competing interests.

641

642 **Figure legends**

643 **Figure 1. Glycan degradation abilities among gut Bacteroidetes.** (A.) The number of species
644 out of 29 tested that degrade each polysaccharide is listed in order of decreasing degradation
645 frequency from left to right. Since not all strains within a given species necessarily have the
646 metabolic potential to utilize each polysaccharide, colors illustrate the percentage of strains
647 within each degrading species that possess the indicated ability. (B.) The number of
648 polysaccharides that a given species degrades in decreasing order. The number of strains tested
649 for each species is listed in parentheses and colors represent the percentage of strains in each
650 indicated species that degrade each glycan counted towards the total.

651

652 **Figure 2. Heat map of individual polysaccharide utilization traits.** Species are clustered by
653 glycan utilization phenotype based on normalized total growth level (**Fig. S4B**). The magnitude
654 of growth is indicated by the heatmap scale at the bottom right. Columns at the left indicate the
655 source (human, animal) and time period of isolation. The cladogram at the far left shows the
656 results of unsupervised clustering of the data based the normalized growth data shown. The

657 species designations at the right are the results of 16S rRNA gene sequencing (>98% identity to
658 the species type strain was used to assign species). All raw and normalized growth and rate data
659 for individual strains may be found in **Table S1** see **Fig. S3** for an expanded heatmap with
660 monosaccharide data and individual strain names labels.

661
662 **Figure 3. Host mucin O-glycan metabolism within the *Bacteroides*.** (A.) A phylogenetic tree
663 based on housekeeping genes that compares mucin O-glycan utilization across species. The
664 diameter of the black circles represents the number of strains tested within each species (sample
665 depth), whereas the size of the overlaid red circle corresponds to the number of strains exhibiting
666 O-glycan metabolism. Note that some species have either full or no penetrance of this
667 phenotypic trait yet others like *B. ovatus*/*B. xylanisolvans* have more extensive variability among
668 strains. (B.) Strains of *B. ovatus* (blue) and *B. xylanisolvans* (green) that show variable growth
669 abilities on mucin O-glycan (n=2 growth assays per bar, error bars are range between values).
670 Gray histogram bars are total growth controls on an aggregate of the monosaccharides that all
671 strains of these two species grow on (**Table S1**) and are provided as a reference for overall
672 growth ability on a non O-glycan substrate. Data from two established O-glycan degraders, *B.*
673 *massiliensis* and *B. thetaiotaomicron*, are also shown for reference. Species with black arrows
674 were used for pangenome analyses to compare genetic traits associated with mucin O-glycan
675 metabolism. We performed RNA-seq on three strains included in this pangenome analyses
676 (black boxes) positive for O-glycan utilization and an additional strain, *B. ovatus* NLAE-zl-H59
677 (red arrow, box), to see if there were unique genes/PULs present in strains that have the ability to
678 grow on mucin O-glycans.

679

680 **Figure 4. Distribution of all genes as well as core polysaccharide utilization functions in the**
681 ***Bo/Bx* pangenome. (A.)** The left panel shows the number of core genes (*i.e.*, those present in all
682 seven strains used for pangenome construction) compared to genes present in 2-7 of the
683 individual strains. The right panel shows the same distribution of genes assigned to PULs or
684 particular degradative CAZyme families (GH, PL, CE, see **Tables S2** and **S3** for more detailed
685 assignments. **(B.)** The distribution of genes between mucin-degrading (n=3) and non-degrading
686 (n=4) strains used to construct the pangenome. Top numbers indicate total genes, while numbers
687 in parentheses indicate the number of PULs (not individual PUL genes) in each category. **(C.)**
688 Distribution of the genes that are unique to the three mucin-degrading strains within each
689 genome. Genes/PULs are numbered as described for B. Note that no PULs are shared by all three
690 strains.

691 **Figure 5. (A.)** A higher-resolution view of a region of the *Bo/Bx* pangenome shows the variable
692 presence of at least six different PULs occurring between three genomic nodes (nodes 33-35 in
693 this quarter of the total pangenome. Segment 2 of the physical pangenome map was selected
694 because the first segment initiated with numerous small contigs and this segment contained
695 previously validated genes for xyloglucan metabolism (49). Node genes are colored red, while
696 *susC*-like and *susD*-like genes are colored purple and orange, respectively, and glycoside
697 hydrolase genes in light blue. GH family numbers are given below select PULs starting from the
698 top to indicate potential specificity and new numbers are only added going down the schematic if
699 the family assignments are different, indicating a different PUL. A well-studied *B. ovatus* PUL
700 for xyloglucan degradation (49) is shown in the center and occurs variably between two nodes
701 and also has variable gene content. The two bottom genomes are from different species,
702 *Bacteroides finegoldii* (*Bfin*) and *Bacteroides fragilis* (*Bfra*) and show less complex genome

703 architecture with the *Bfra* region possessing no PULs. **(B.)** A broader view of the genome region
704 shown in A. showing that the same mosaic pattern is common across the pangenome. Only PULs
705 are illustrated, although many other genes were also variable in these regions. The numbers at
706 the bottom delineate the presence of 35 different core gene nodes (as in A. some nodes contain
707 multiple core genes) in this section of the genome and the presence of homologous or unique
708 PULs is illustrated according to the color code at right (see **Fig. S6** for high resolution physical
709 maps of the pan-genome with PUL annotations). Note that in some cases up to five different
710 PULs were located at one location **(C.)** A schematic showing the proposed mechanism of
711 genome exchange based on previous studies (42-44) and observations presented here. Genomic
712 ICEs that are either partially active (excision deficient, but capable of initiating DNA strand
713 breakage and conjugation) or activated *in trans* by the presence of an exogenous conjugative
714 transposon, initiate genome mobilization from a donor into a recipient. If sufficient homology
715 between node genes exists in the recipient, homologous recombination between two nodes can
716 replace a section of the recipient with a segment from the donor. Note that genomic regions are
717 shown as linear fragments for simplicity, but would be circular.

718 **Figure 6. (A.)** Schematic of the workflow to identify putative LGT core genes: align genes and
719 build corresponding trees for each core gene, determine the median substitution distances
720 distances for each allele of a core gene in a given strain to both species, and identify loci with
721 an identical conserved structure between isolates of opposite species. **(B.)** Plot of median
722 distances for all core genes identified in the 33 genomes analyzed. The boxes show the regions
723 containing genes for which the median distance was ≥ 0.1 to the assigned species for a given
724 strain and ≤ 0.1 for the opposite species to which a strain is assigned. These genes were
725 determined to be high-confidence examples of core/node genes that had been replaced by an

726 allele from the other species. (C.) A region of the *Bo/Bx* pangenome that contains a PUL
727 involved in galactomannan (GalM) and glucomannan (GluM) degradation. This PUL is present
728 in six strains of *Bx* and two strains of *Bo* and in the latter cases flanking node genes exhibit
729 signatures of being derived from LGT with a *Bx* donor (the yellow box highlights potential
730 recombination region). The columns at the left indicate the growth of each strain on GalM or
731 GluM. The ability to grow on GalM is fully correlated with the presence of one of two different
732 PULs, or both, that are transcriptionally activated during growth on this substrate (**Fig. S9**) (23).
733 Notably, some strains (red “+”) are able to grow weakly on GluM but do not possess either of the
734 identified PULs, suggesting that additional, partially orthologous PULs exist that confer the
735 ability to use only GluM.

736

737 **Supplementary Figure and Table Legends**

738 **Figure S1.** Schematics of the polysaccharides used in this study with sugar composition and
739 linkages schematized according to the “Symbol nomenclature for glycans” standard format and
740 based on the symbol key provided at the right. Linkages are labeled as α or β and the number
741 provided represents the carbon position in the recipient sugar. The carbon in the donor sugar is
742 carbon-1 in all cases except N-acetyl neuraminic acid and is not shown. Note that pectic galactan
743 (potato and lupin), xylan (oat spelt and wheat arabinoxylan) and amylopectin (potato and maize)
744 can have variable structures based on plant source. Abbreviations for several polysaccharides are
745 provided in parentheses and used throughout the text and figures.

746 **Figure S2. Correlation of replicate growth and rate measurements.** Two replicate
747 measurements were made for each of the two parameters recorded, total growth (**A.**) and growth
748 rate (**B.**) for each species on each carbohydrate substrate. Data points are color-coded based on
749 whether the two replicates exhibited variation between 0-5% (black), 5-10% (blue), 10-20%
750 (green), >20% (orange) or growth in one assay and no growth in the other (red). (**C.**) A linear
751 function was fitted (with red points omitted) to calculate an r^2 value for the data set associated
752 with utilization of each individual substrate. Measurements on some substrates were more
753 variable than on others due, at least in part, to the tendency of these substrates to partially
754 precipitate or retrograde during growth, which yielded variable levels of background absorbance.

755 **Figure S3.** A heatmap identical to the one shown in **Fig. 2** main text, except that
756 monosaccharide growth data is included. Strain names are also noted at the far right (best viewed
757 in electronic PDF form with magnification) and animal strains are labeled in red font.

758 **Figure S4. (A.)** A scheme for evaluating which aspects of growth phenotype data are most
759 influential for clustering strains that belong to the same species using hypothetical *B. theta* data
760 as an illustrative example. A quantitative index was used in which the number of strains tested is
761 divided by the minimum number of branches needed to encompass all of the strains for that
762 species, with a perfect score being “1” (e.g., eight *B. theta* strains divided by the minimum of
763 eight branches needed to encompass all strains in the top example). (**B.**) Actual clustering index
764 data for the raw and normalized growth and rate data gathered for 354 different Bacteroidetes
765 strains. M and P stand for “monosaccharide” and “polysaccharide” growth, respectively. One of
766 the two most optimal conditions, which incorporates normalized growth data on polysaccharides
767 only, was used to construct **Figs. 2** and **S3**.

768 **Figure S5.** A Pearson correlation plot to determine if individual growth abilities co-occur in the
769 same strains. Positive or negative correlations that are ≥ 0.40 are shown in the colors indicated.

770 **Figure S6.** High-resolution maps of the entire reconstructed pangenome. These maps are
771 provided in four separate parts due to their large size (labeled as **Fig. S6a, b, c, d**) and
772 correspond to the data table provided in **Table S2**. Note that a 5th file is provided with
773 information about the gene, locus and strand breaking legend data.

774 **Figure S7.** Circular pangenome and corresponding mucin *O*-glycan transcriptomics from *Bx*
775 D22, *Bo* 3_1_23 and *Bo* D2 .

776 **Figure S8.** Individual maps of high-confidence inter-genomic exchange events between *Bo* and
777 *Bx* strains.

778 **Figure S9. (A.)** Schematics of PUL-A and PUL-B associated with GalM and GlcM utilization.
779 In *Bo* ATCC8384, elimination of PUL-A eliminates both of these growth abilities. **(B.)**
780 Expression analysis by qPCR of two sentinel genes from PUL-B in *Bo* strain D2 that lacks PUL-
781 A but still exhibits robust growth on GalM.

782 **Table S1.** Strain designations, growth levels, growth rates, host species, isolation periods,
783 growth media, 16S rRNA similarities and, if applicable, public genome sequence references for
784 all Bacteroidetes strains used in this study.

785

786 **Table S2.** Data table of the reconstructed pangenome of seven *Bo/Bx* strains. Additional notes
787 are provided directly on the table.

788

789 **Table S3.** PULs that were delineated in the seven strain pangenome with annotations based on
790 whether they were unique to mucin non-degrading strains, unique to mucin-degraders or shared
791 between strains in both categories. Additional notes are provided directly on the table.

792

793 **Table S4.** Gene expression changes detected using whole-genome transcriptional profiling by
794 RNA-seq of *B. xylanisolvens* D22 grown on mucin *O*-glycan as a sole carbon source compared
795 to glucose reference. Additional notes are provided directly on the table.

796

797 **Table S5.** Gene expression changes detected using whole-genome transcriptional profiling by
798 RNA-seq of *B. ovatus* 3-1-23 grown on mucin *O*-glycan as a sole carbon source compared to
799 glucose reference. Additional notes are provided directly on the table.

800

801 **Table S6.** Gene expression changes detected using whole-genome transcriptional profiling by
802 RNA-seq of *B. ovatus* D2 grown on mucin *O*-glycan as a sole carbon source compared to
803 glucose reference. Additional notes are provided directly on the table.

804

805 **Table S7.** Gene expression changes detected using whole-genome transcriptional profiling by
806 RNA-seq of *B. ovatus* NLAE-zl-H59 grown on mucin *O*-glycan as a sole carbon source
807 compared to glucose reference. Additional notes are provided directly on the table.

808

809 **Table S8.** Liquid media recipes (sheet **A**) and components (sheet **B**) for growing the
810 Bacteroidetes used in this study.

811

812 **Table S9.** Mono- and polysaccharides used in the phenotypic growth arrays and corresponding
813 supplier or purification details.

814

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Figure 1

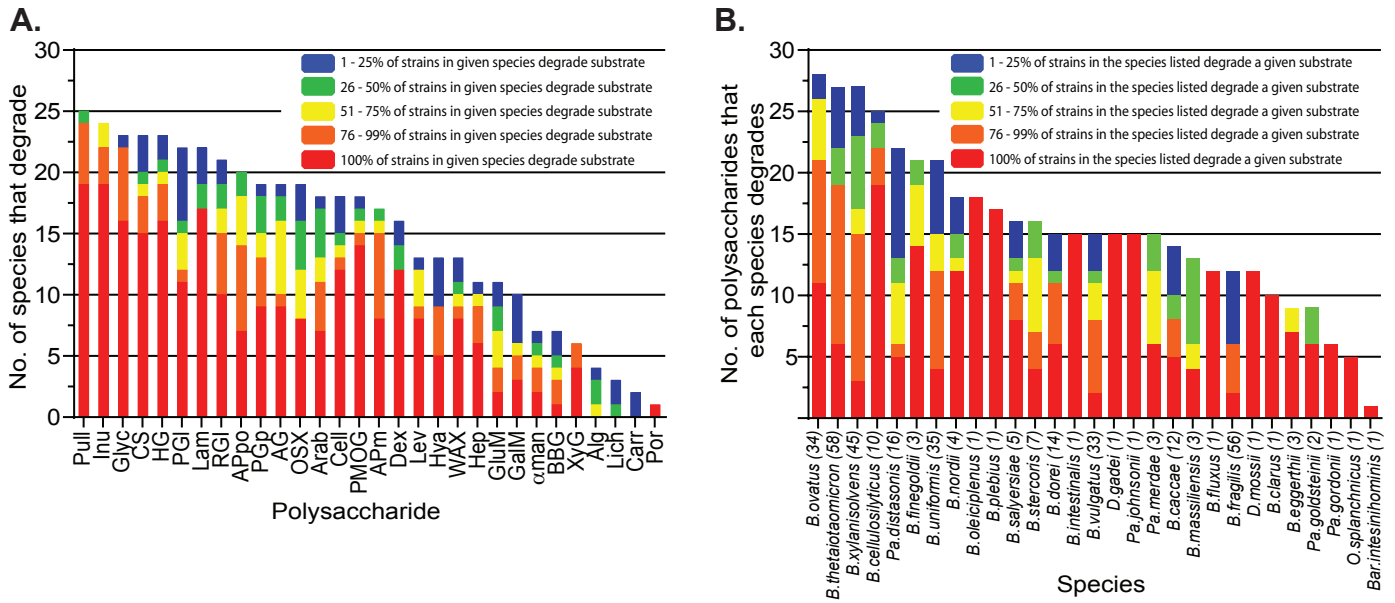


Figure 2

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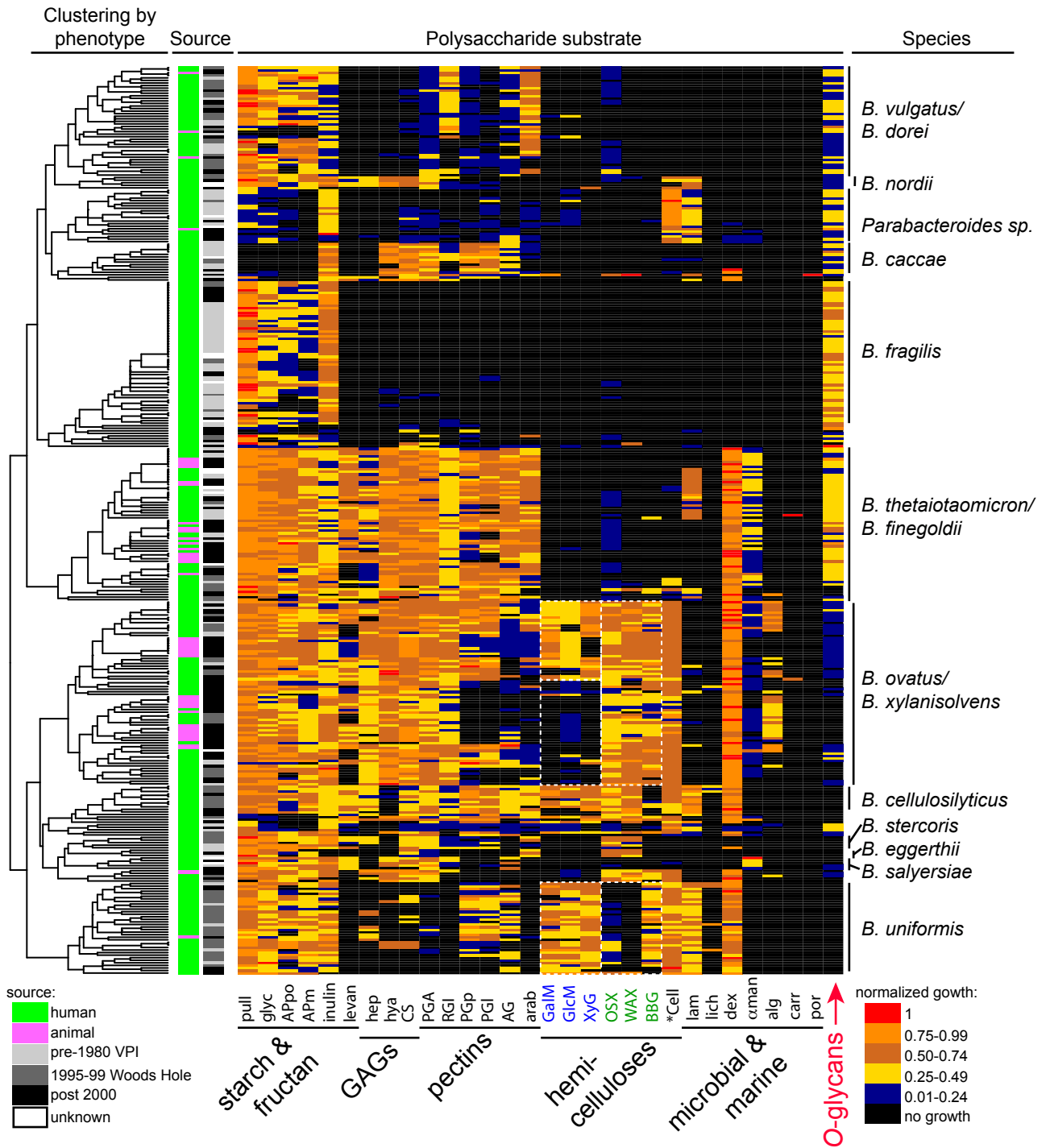


Figure 3

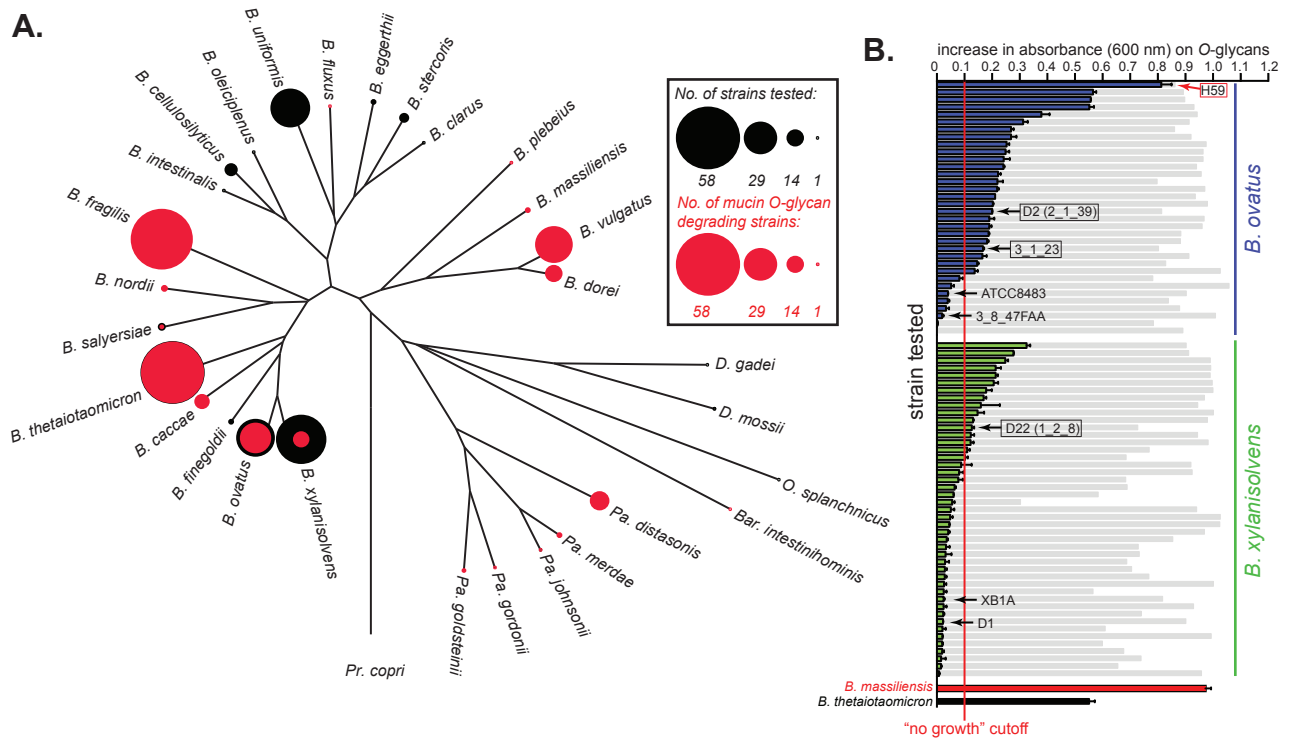


Figure 4

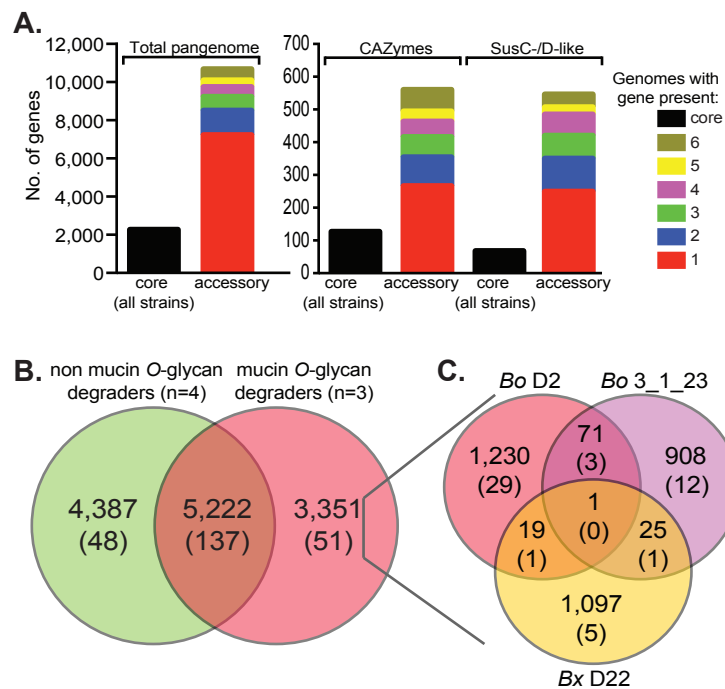
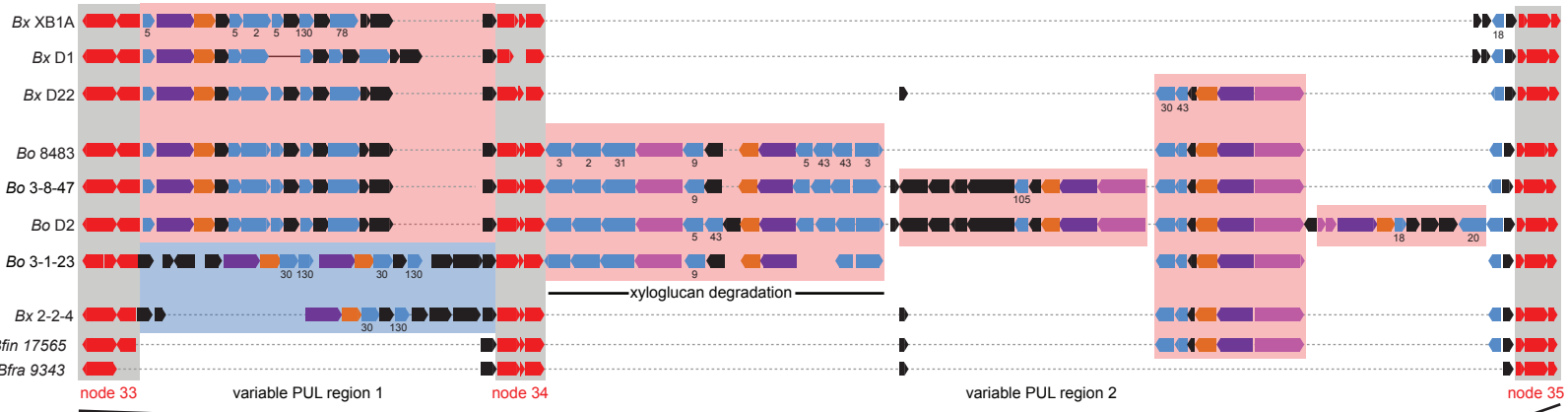
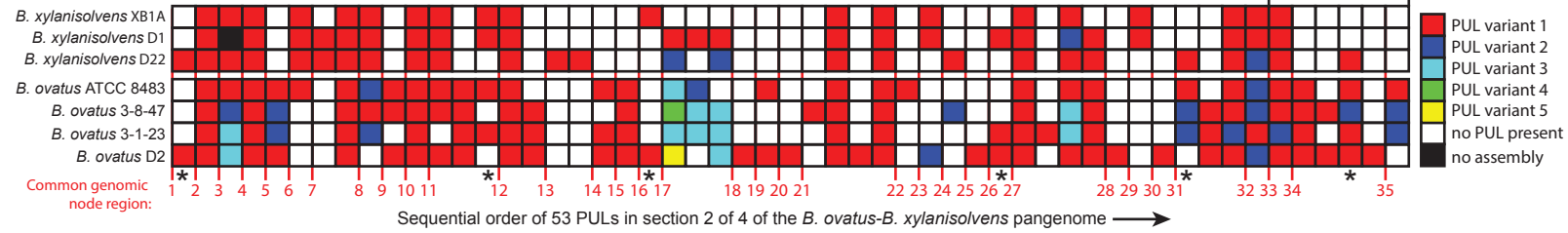


Figure 5

A.



B.



C.

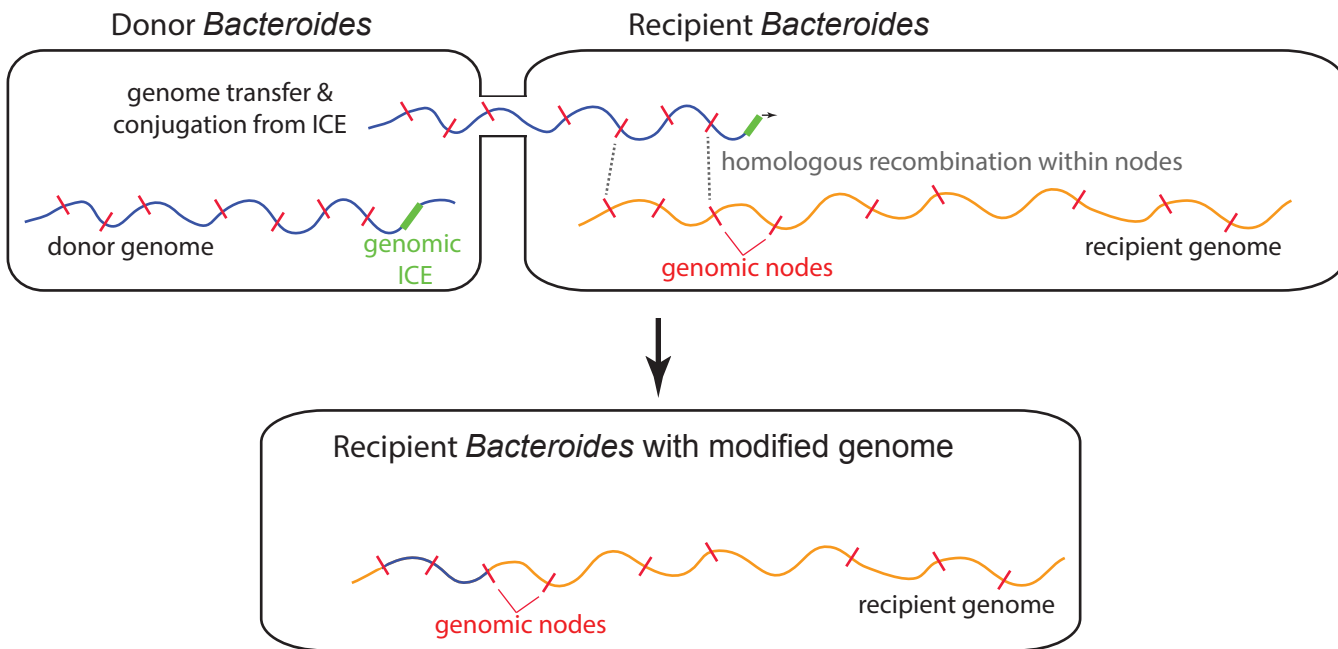


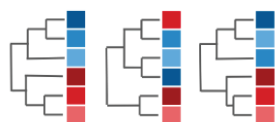
Figure 6

A.

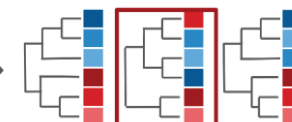
1) Identify core genes and create alignments



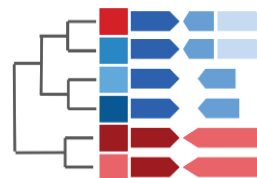
2) Create individual gene trees



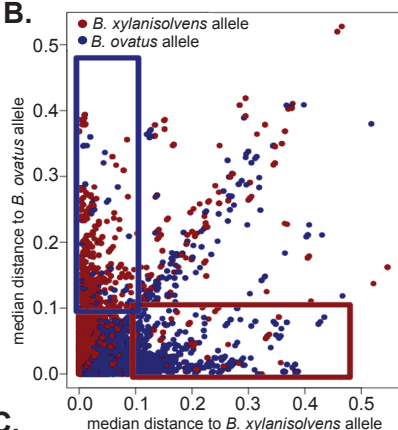
3) Identify gene trees that demonstrate patterns of LGT



4) Identify shared accessory genes that occur at LGT loci



B.



Key for panel C:

■ *Bo* allele

■ *Bx* allele

■ LGT accessory gene

■ present gene

■ absent gene

□ likely exchanged segment

■ Allele more like *B. ovatus*

■ Allele more like *B. xylanisolvans*

C.

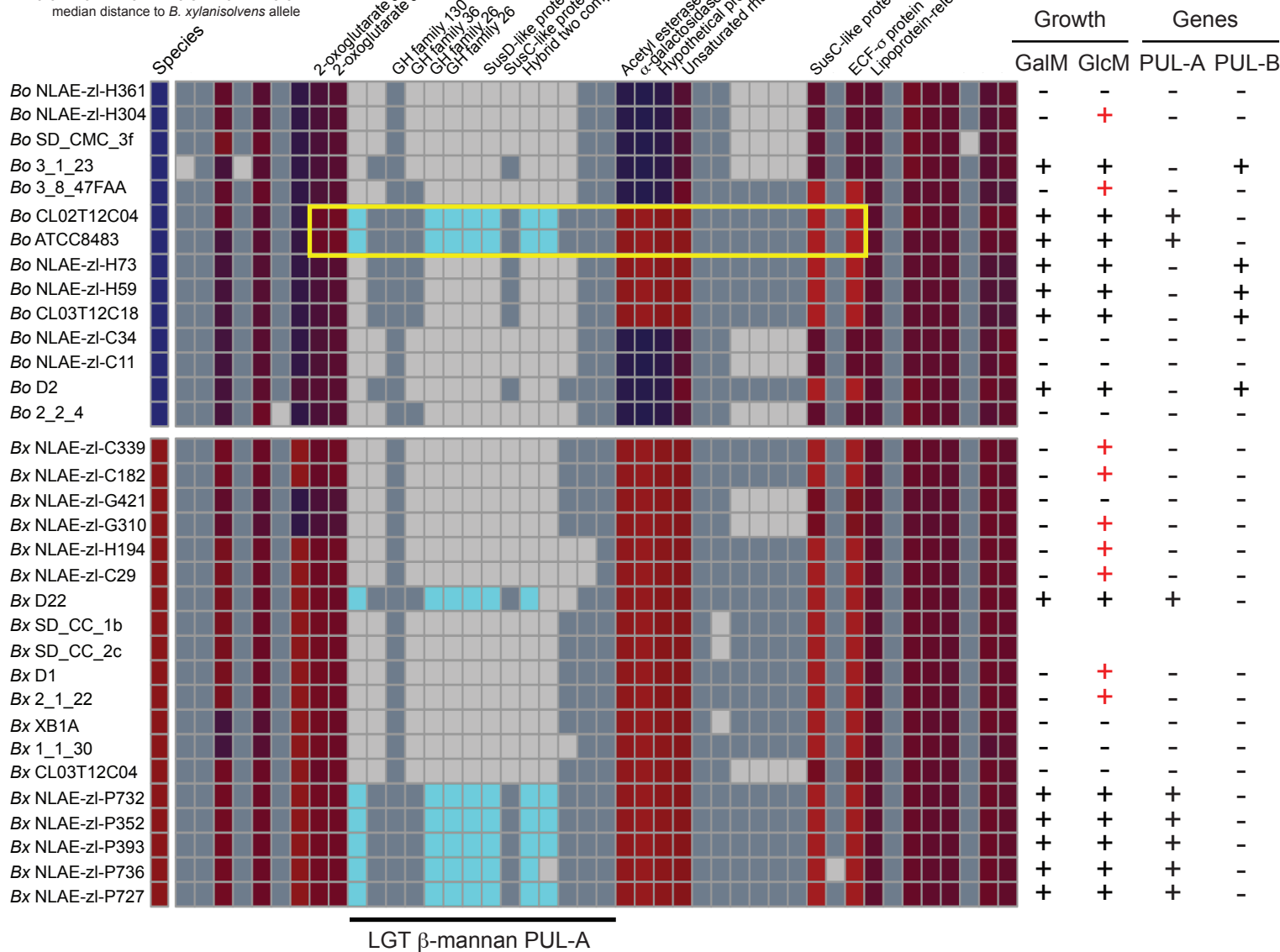


Figure S1

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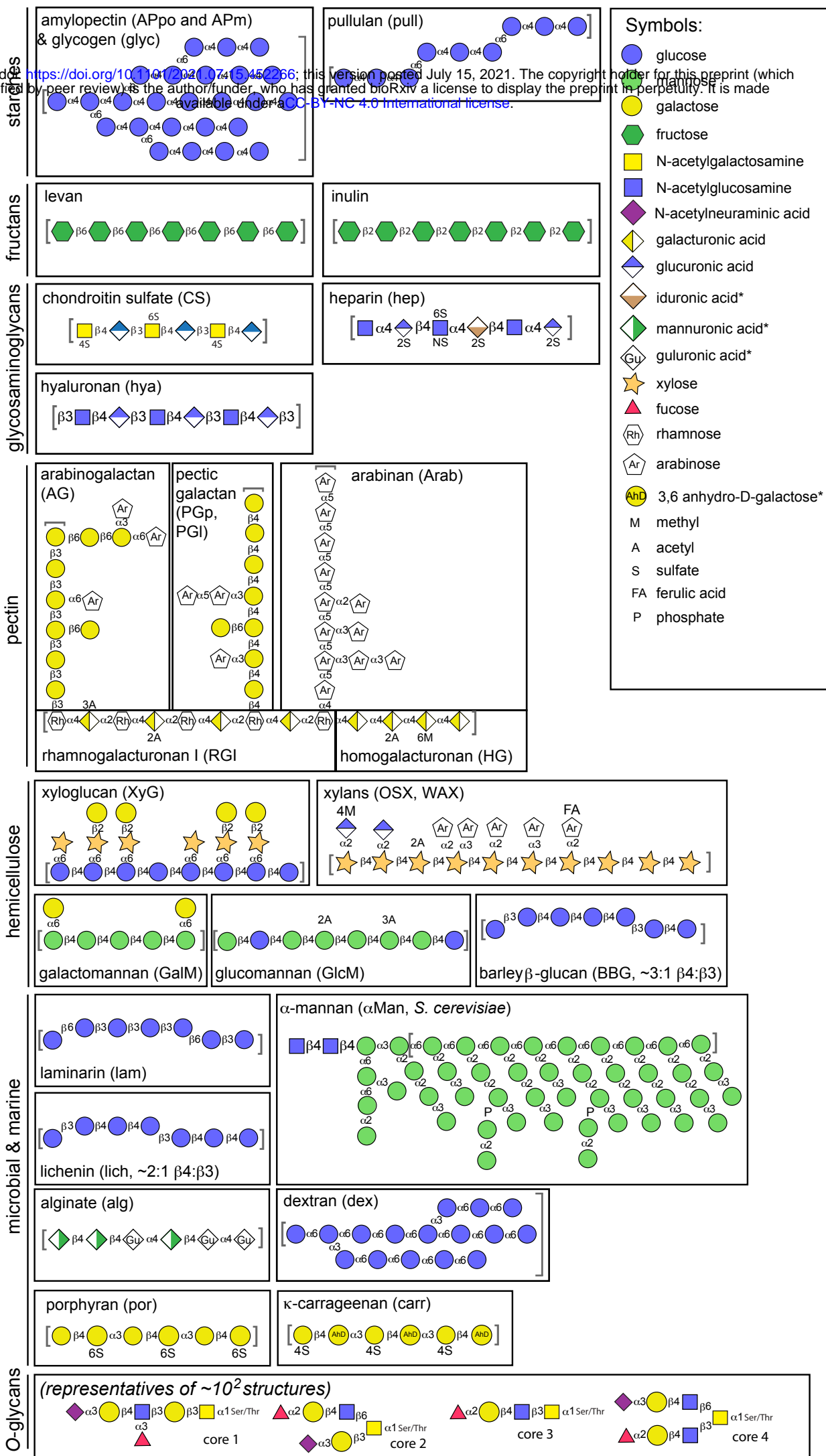
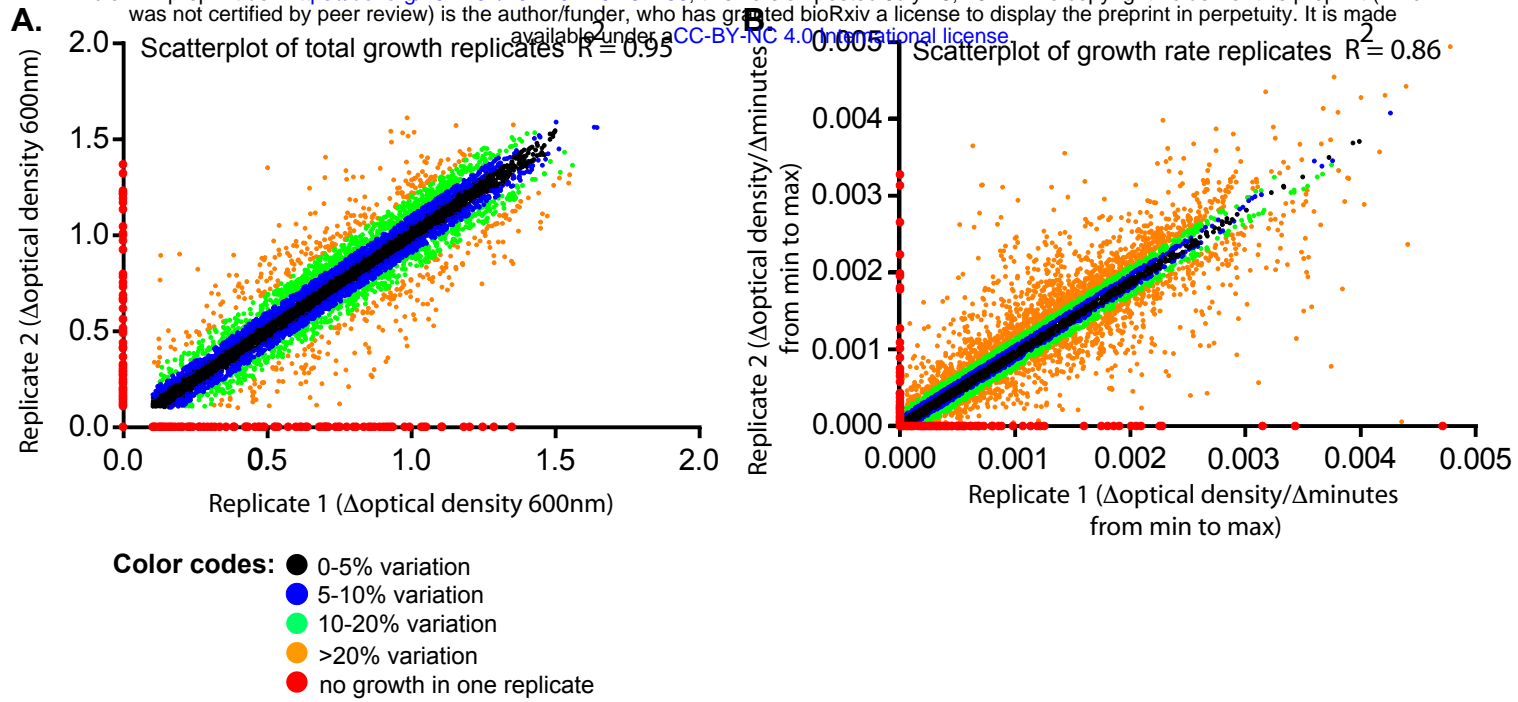


Figure S2

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C.

Polysaccharides:

Substrate	R^2 between growth values	R^2 between rate values
AG	0.99	0.89
alg	0.96	0.96
α -mann	0.93	0.76
APm	0.94	0.92
APpo	0.96	0.91
arab	0.98	0.96
BBG	0.95	0.70
carr	0.93	0.96
Cell	0.96	0.81
CS	0.96	0.91
dex	0.96	0.87
GalM	0.96	0.98
GlcM	0.93	0.85
glyc	0.96	0.94
hep	0.96	0.85
hya	0.91	0.88
inulin	0.92	0.89
lam	0.96	0.96
levan	0.96	0.88
lich	0.80	0.45
MOG	0.98	0.97
OSX	0.93	0.83
PGA	0.97	0.89
PGI	0.95	0.96
PGp	0.92	0.92
por	0.85	0.85
pull	0.84	0.78
RGI	0.96	0.98
WAX	0.97	0.42
XyG	0.92	0.72

Monosaccharides:

Substrate	R^2 between growth values
Ara	0.90
Fru	0.90
Fuc	0.93
Gal	0.60
GalA	0.86
GalNAc	0.93
Glc	0.69
GlcA	0.87
GlcNAc	0.72
GlcNH3	0.93
Man	0.88
NeuNAc	0.86
Rha	0.96
Rib	0.94
Xyl	0.85

Figure S3

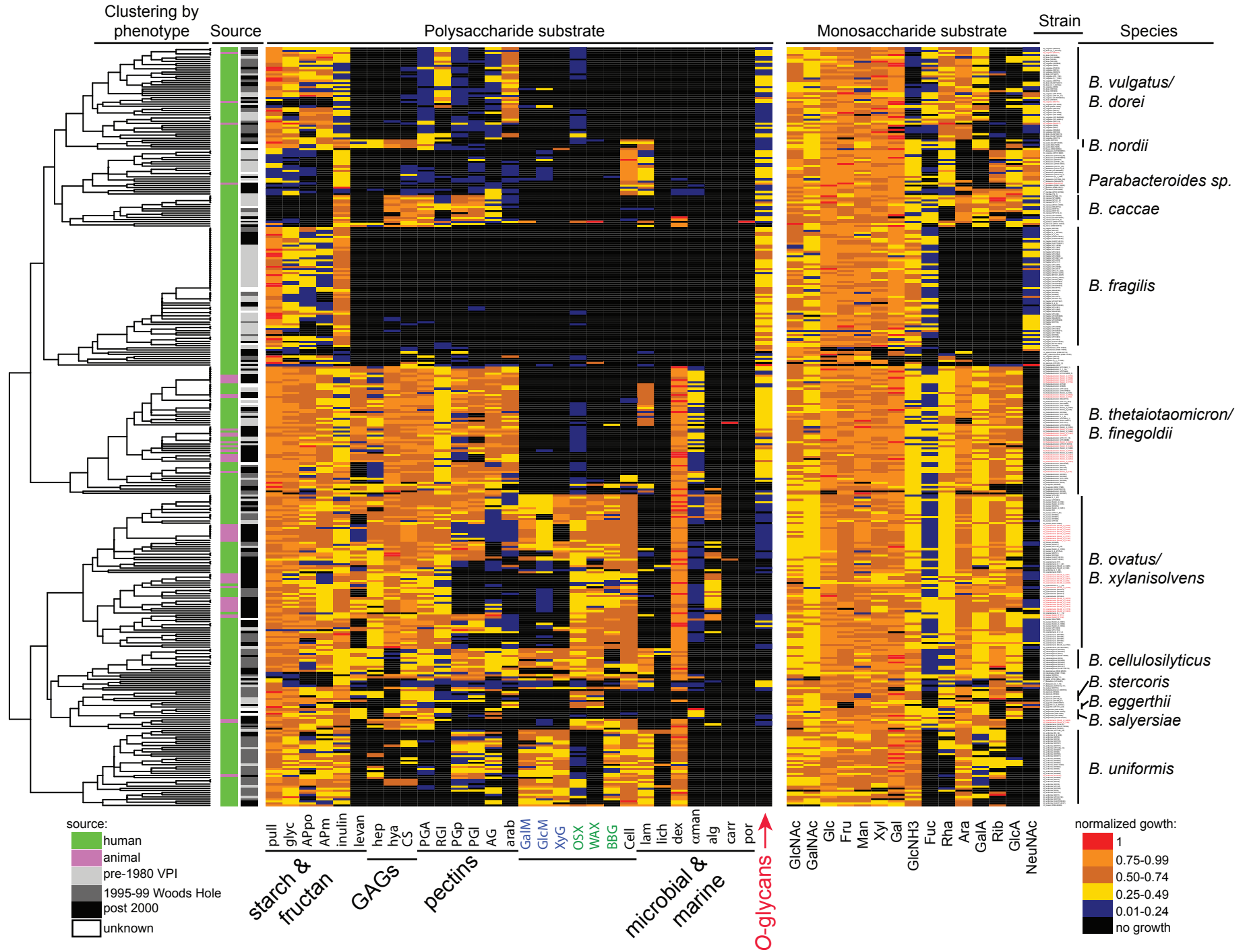
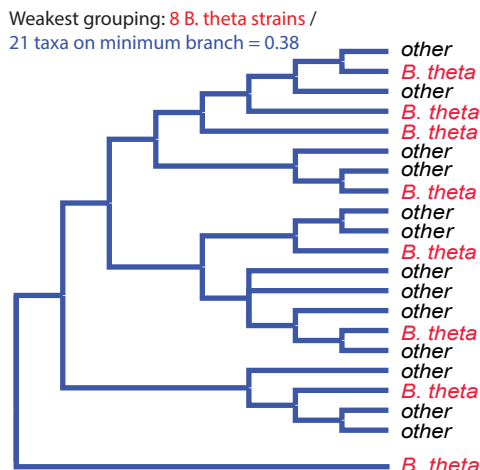
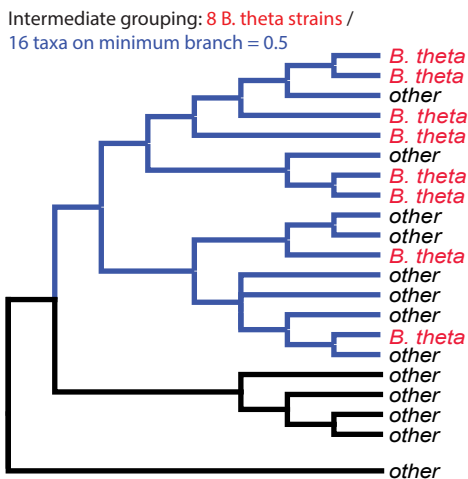
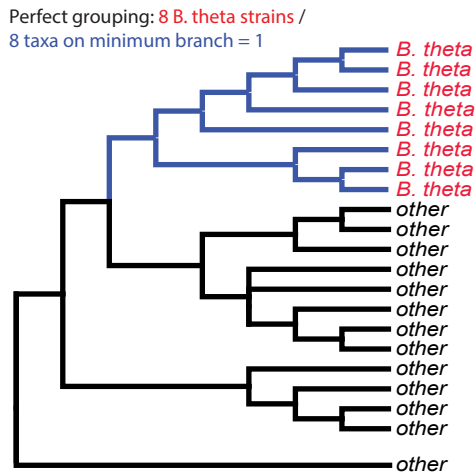


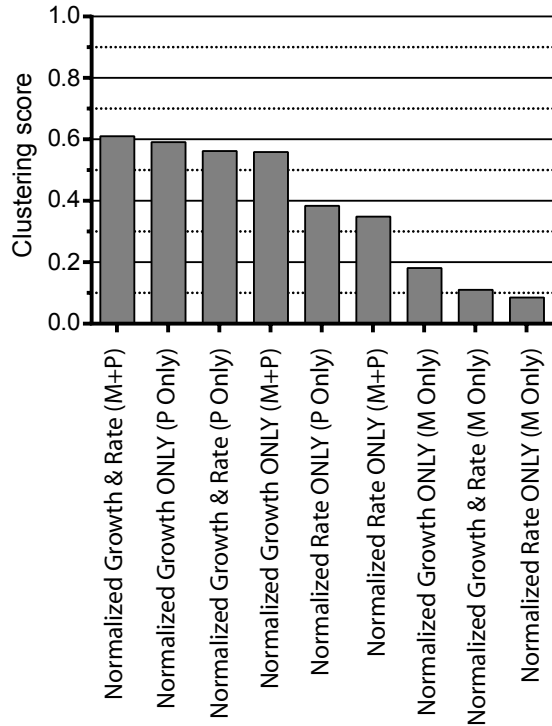
Figure S4

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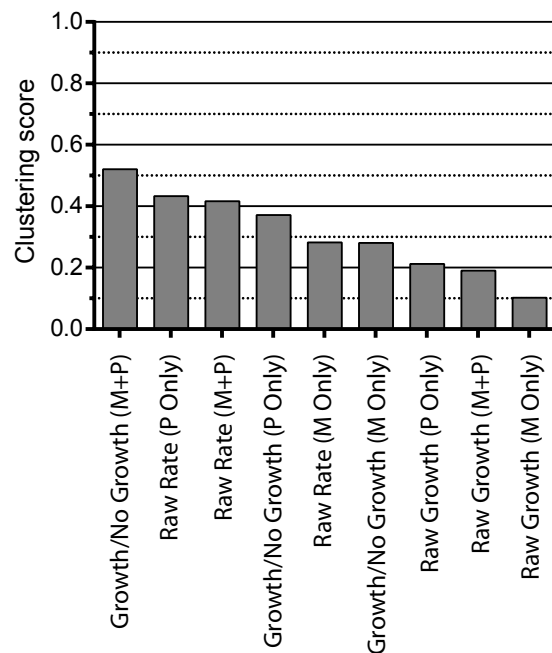
A. Example of Cluster scoring scheme



B. Normalized data



C. Unnormalized (raw) or binary (growth/no growth) data



P= polysaccharide data
M = monosaccharide data

starches

fructans

GAGs

pectins

hemi-celluloses

microbial & marine

O-glycans

	Pull	Glyc	APp	APm	Inulin	Levan	Hep	Hya	CS	PGA	RGI	PGp	PGI	AG	Arab	GalM	GlcM	XyG	OSX	WAX	BBG	Cell	Lam	Lich	Dex	αmann	Alg	Carr	Porph	MOG
Pull	1.00	0.60	0.43	0.51	0.10	0.11	0.14	-0.03	-0.06	-0.04	0.10	-0.07	-0.12	0.03	0.07	0.05	0.04	0.04	0.07	0.02	0.10	-0.12	-0.14	0.02	0.12	0.08	0.09	0.02	-0.12	-0.05
Glyc	0.60	1.00	0.52	0.68	0.04	0.39	0.47	0.35	0.38	0.37	0.41	0.26	0.23	0.33	0.25	0.21	0.22	0.23	0.38	0.31	0.32	0.14	0.04	0.14	0.50	0.32	0.18	0.03	-0.09	-0.16
App	0.43	0.52	1.00	0.72	0.02	0.35	0.30	0.30	0.37	0.30	0.37	0.17	0.14	0.28	0.27	0.07	0.06	0.03	0.23	0.17	0.28	0.01	-0.13	0.01	0.36	0.28	0.19	0.05	-0.07	-0.05
Apm	0.51	0.68	0.72	1.00	-0.04	0.25	0.41	0.31	0.33	0.37	0.39	0.25	0.20	0.32	0.30	0.21	0.16	0.17	0.30	0.21	0.32	0.07	-0.05	0.11	0.43	0.29	0.13	0.01	-0.08	-0.22
Inulin	0.10	0.04	0.02	-0.04	1.00	-0.03	0.09	0.16	0.08	0.08	0.00	-0.07	-0.01	-0.02	-0.23	-0.01	0.00	-0.02	0.06	0.09	0.08	0.10	0.00	0.08	0.05	0.03	0.09	0.03	0.07	0.05
Levan	0.11	0.39	0.35	0.25	-0.03	1.00	0.62	0.55	0.63	0.64	0.58	0.44	0.43	0.53	0.37	0.08	0.09	0.14	0.31	0.29	0.20	0.09	0.12	-0.04	0.55	0.47	0.33	0.10	-0.04	-0.07
Hep	0.14	0.47	0.30	0.41	0.09	0.62	1.00	0.65	0.69	0.66	0.66	0.38	0.36	0.35	0.26	0.18	0.17	0.16	0.54	0.52	0.47	0.35	0.04	0.00	0.70	0.37	0.34	0.06	-0.04	-0.22
Hya	-0.03	0.35	0.30	0.31	0.16	0.55	0.65	1.00	0.83	0.77	0.69	0.44	0.45	0.44	0.26	0.05	0.02	0.04	0.40	0.38	0.40	0.23	-0.09	-0.08	0.64	0.56	0.37	0.07	0.05	-0.10
CS	-0.06	0.38	0.37	0.33	0.08	0.63	0.69	0.83	1.00	0.83	0.68	0.50	0.51	0.48	0.32	0.08	0.06	0.04	0.46	0.45	0.38	0.23	-0.02	-0.06	0.67	0.54	0.30	0.10	0.03	-0.13
PGA	-0.04	0.37	0.30	0.37	0.08	0.64	0.66	0.77	0.83	1.00	0.72	0.55	0.55	0.55	0.46	0.03	-0.01	0.02	0.44	0.44	0.24	0.14	-0.07	-0.06	0.62	0.56	0.28	0.10	0.06	-0.10
RGI	0.10	0.41	0.37	0.39	0.00	0.58	0.66	0.69	0.68	0.72	1.00	0.43	0.39	0.39	0.46	0.12	0.07	0.07	0.57	0.52	0.44	0.25	-0.19	-0.06	0.56	0.45	0.41	0.04	0.10	-0.14
PGp	-0.07	0.26	0.17	0.25	-0.07	0.44	0.38	0.44	0.50	0.55	0.43	1.00	0.92	0.53	0.40	0.30	0.23	0.44	0.24	0.23	0.23	0.17	0.22	0.05	0.57	0.41	0.19	0.11	-0.01	-0.07
PGI	-0.12	0.23	0.14	0.20	-0.01	0.43	0.36	0.45	0.51	0.55	0.39	0.92	1.00	0.53	0.36	0.29	0.22	0.42	0.22	0.21	0.22	0.19	0.22	0.06	0.56	0.43	0.21	0.11	-0.01	-0.02
AG	0.03	0.33	0.28	0.32	-0.02	0.53	0.35	0.44	0.48	0.55	0.39	0.53	0.53	1.00	0.54	-0.03	-0.07	-0.02	-0.05	-0.08	-0.06	-0.13	0.15	-0.03	0.48	0.66	0.04	0.05	0.02	0.22
Arab	0.07	0.25	0.27	0.30	-0.23	0.37	0.26	0.26	0.32	0.46	0.46	0.40	0.36	0.54	1.00	-0.03	-0.14	-0.04	0.05	0.02	-0.22	-0.25	0.04	-0.02	0.24	0.45	-0.02	0.03	0.05	0.20
GalM	0.05	0.21	0.07	0.21	-0.01	0.08	0.18	0.05	0.08	0.03	0.12	0.30	0.29	-0.03	-0.03	1.00	0.81	0.74	0.42	0.41	0.52	0.51	0.30	0.24	0.38	-0.13	0.18	0.05	0.16	-0.42
GlcM	0.04	0.22	0.06	0.16	0.00	0.09	0.17	0.02	0.06	-0.01	0.07	0.23	0.22	-0.07	-0.14	0.81	1.00	0.71	0.42	0.39	0.58	0.62	0.35	0.30	0.41	-0.17	0.22	0.02	-0.03	-0.49
XyG	0.04	0.23	0.03	0.17	-0.02	0.14	0.16	0.04	0.04	0.02	0.07	0.44	0.42	-0.02	-0.04	0.74	0.71	1.00	0.42	0.38	0.50	0.53	0.34	0.21	0.41	-0.04	0.29	0.02	-0.03	-0.44
OSX	0.07	0.38	0.23	0.30	0.06	0.31	0.54	0.40	0.46	0.44	0.57	0.24	0.22	-0.05	0.05	0.42	0.42	0.42	1.00	0.92	0.69	0.63	-0.08	0.07	0.51	0.01	0.51	0.03	0.14	-0.53
WAX	0.02	0.31	0.17	0.21	0.09	0.29	0.52	0.38	0.45	0.44	0.52	0.23	0.21	-0.08	0.02	0.41	0.39	0.38	0.92	1.00	0.62	0.62	-0.07	0.04	0.47	-0.01	0.50	-0.01	0.13	-0.50
BBG	0.10	0.32	0.28	0.32	0.08	0.20	0.47	0.40	0.38	0.24	0.44	0.23	0.22	-0.06	-0.22	0.52	0.58	0.50	0.69	0.62	1.00	0.70	-0.03	0.13	0.57	-0.01	0.48	0.02	-0.03	-0.55
Cell	-0.12	0.14	0.01	0.07	0.10	0.09	0.35	0.23	0.23	0.14	0.25	0.17	0.19	-0.13	-0.25	0.51	0.62	0.53	0.63	0.62	0.70	1.00	0.27	0.14	0.47	-0.09	0.39	-0.01	-0.05	-0.55
Lam	-0.14	0.04	-0.13	-0.05	0.00	0.12	0.04	-0.09	-0.02	-0.07	-0.19	0.22	0.22	0.15	0.04	0.30	0.35	0.34	-0.08	-0.07	-0.03	0.27	1.00	0.17	0.21	0.01	-0.19	0.07	0.13	-0.20
Lich	0.02	0.14	0.01	0.11	0.08	-0.04	0.00	-0.08	-0.06	-0.06	-0.06	0.05	0.06	-0.03	-0.02	0.24	0.30	0.21	0.07	0.04	0.13	0.14	0.17	1.00	0.10	-0.07	-0.05	-0.01	-0.01	-0.16
Dex	0.12	0.50	0.36	0.43	0.05	0.55	0.70	0.64	0.67	0.62	0.56	0.57	0.56	0.48	0.24	0.38	0.41	0.41	0.51	0.47	0.57	0.47	0.21	0.10	1.00	0.42	0.32	0.08	-0.06	-0.36
αmann	0.08	0.32	0.28	0.29	0.03	0.47	0.37	0.56	0.54	0.56	0.45	0.41	0.43	0.66	0.45	-0.13	-0.17	-0.04	0.01	-0.01	-0.01	-0.09	0.01	-0.07	0.42	1.00	0.11	0.13	-0.03	0.19
Alg	0.09	0.18	0.19	0.13	0.09	0.33	0.34	0.37	0.30	0.28	0.41	0.19	0.21	0.04	-0.02	0.18	0.22	0.29	0.51	0.50	0.48	0.39	-0.19	-0.05	0.32	0.11	1.00	-0.03	-0.02	-0.24
Carr	0.02	0.03	0.05	0.01	0.03	0.10	0.06	0.07	0.10	0.10	0.04	0.11	0.11	0.05	0.03	0.05	0.02	0.02	0.03	-0.01	0.02	-0.01	0.07	-0.01	0.08	0.13	-0.03	1.00	0.00	-0.01
Porph	-0.12	-0.09	-0.07	-0.08	0.07	-0.04	-0.04	0.05	0.03	0.06	0.10	-0.01	-0.01	0.02	0.05	0.16	-0.03	-0.03	0.14	0.13	-0.03	-0.05	0.13	-0.01	-0.06	-0.03	-0.02	0.00	1.00	0.00
MOG	-0.05	-0.16	-0.05	-0.22	0.05	-0.07	-0.22	-0.10	-0.13	-0.10	-0.14	-0.07	-0.02	0.22	0.20	-0.42	-0.49	-0.44	-0.53	-0.50	-0.55	-0.55	-0.20	-0.16	-0.36	0.19	-0.24	-0.01	0.00	1.00

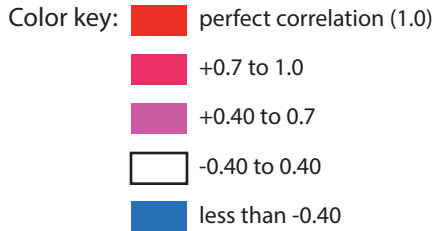


Figure S6

Please note that Figure S6 is provided as a zipped folder containing 4 separate quarters of the pangenome assembly along with a corresponding legend that explains the color coding scheme. The four maps correspond to **Table S2**.

Each map contains 5 vertically stacked panes of pangenome map starting in the upper left. Each horizontal pane has 8 rows with the top row representing the pangenome and the corresponding 7 individual genome regions shown below.

The example below shows a small region of pangenome section 2 in which *Bo* 3-1-23 is missing an ECF- σ regulated PUL. The small text above genes in individual genomes correspond to the contig and the green dashed line represents a region that was broken to accommodate accessory genes.

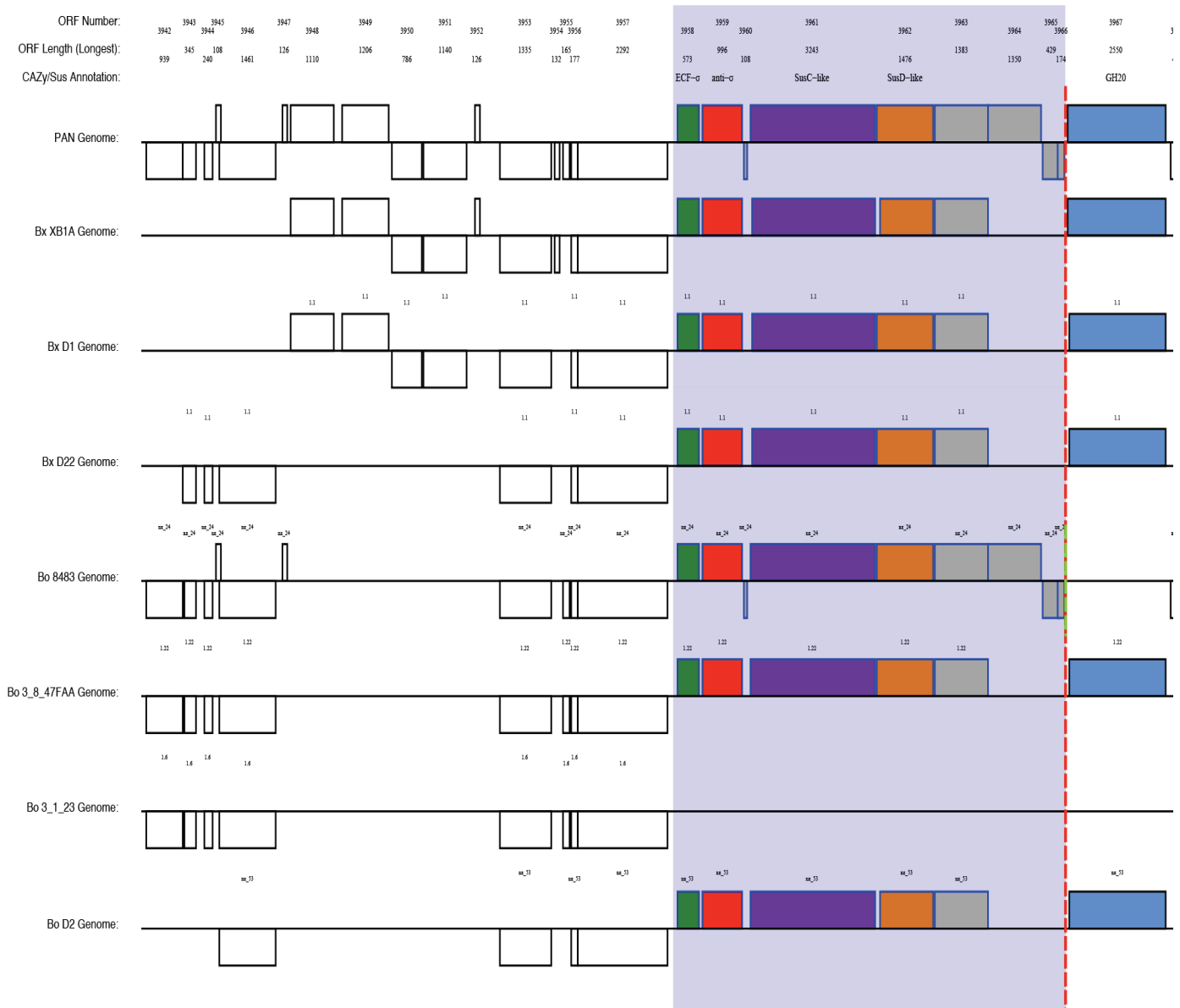


Figure S7

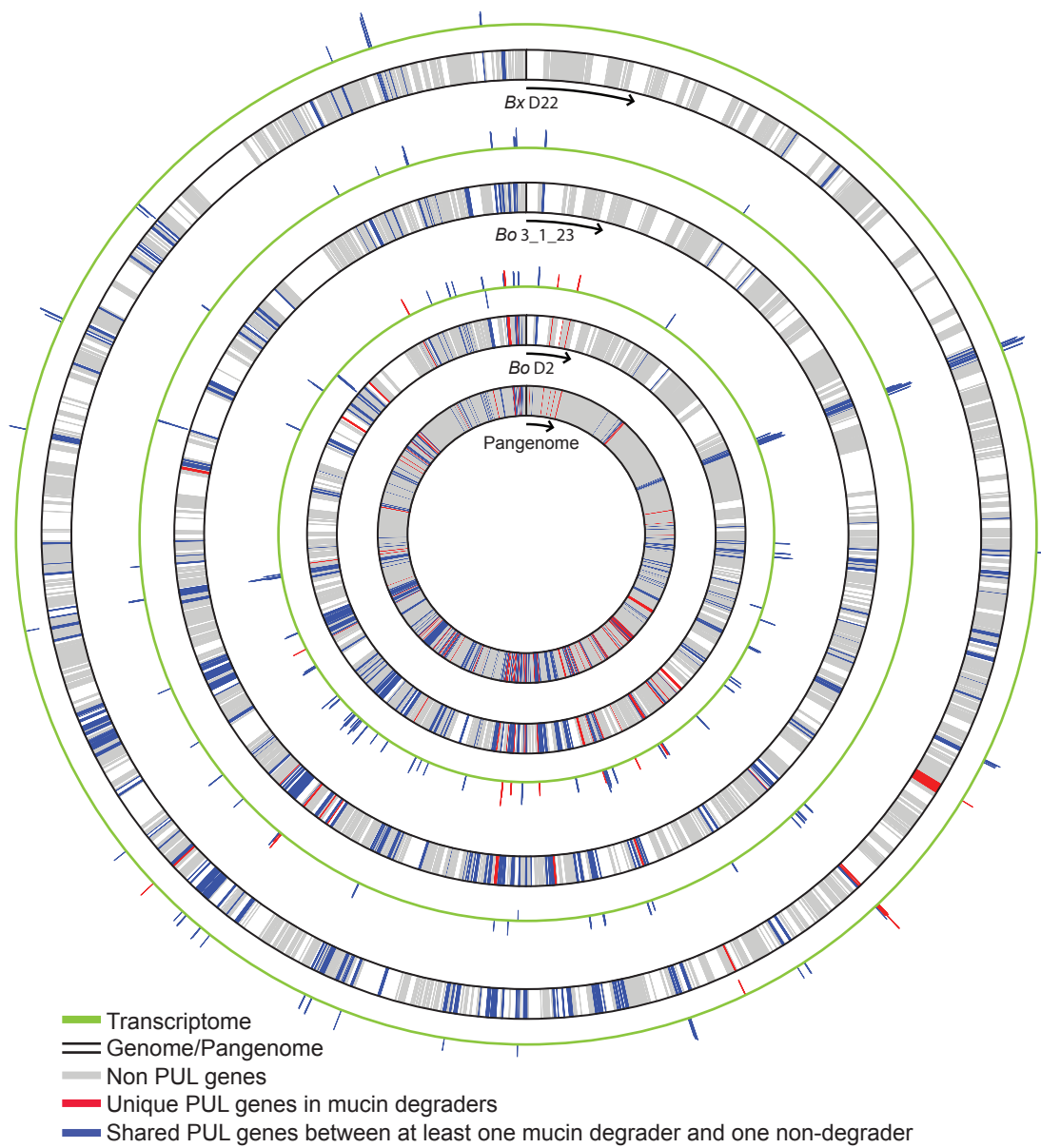
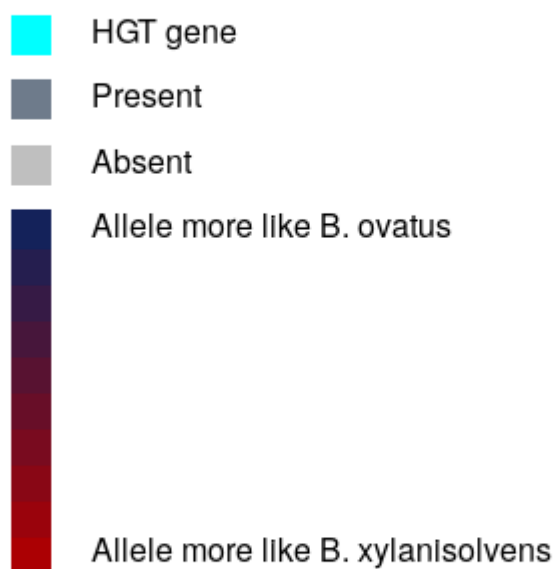
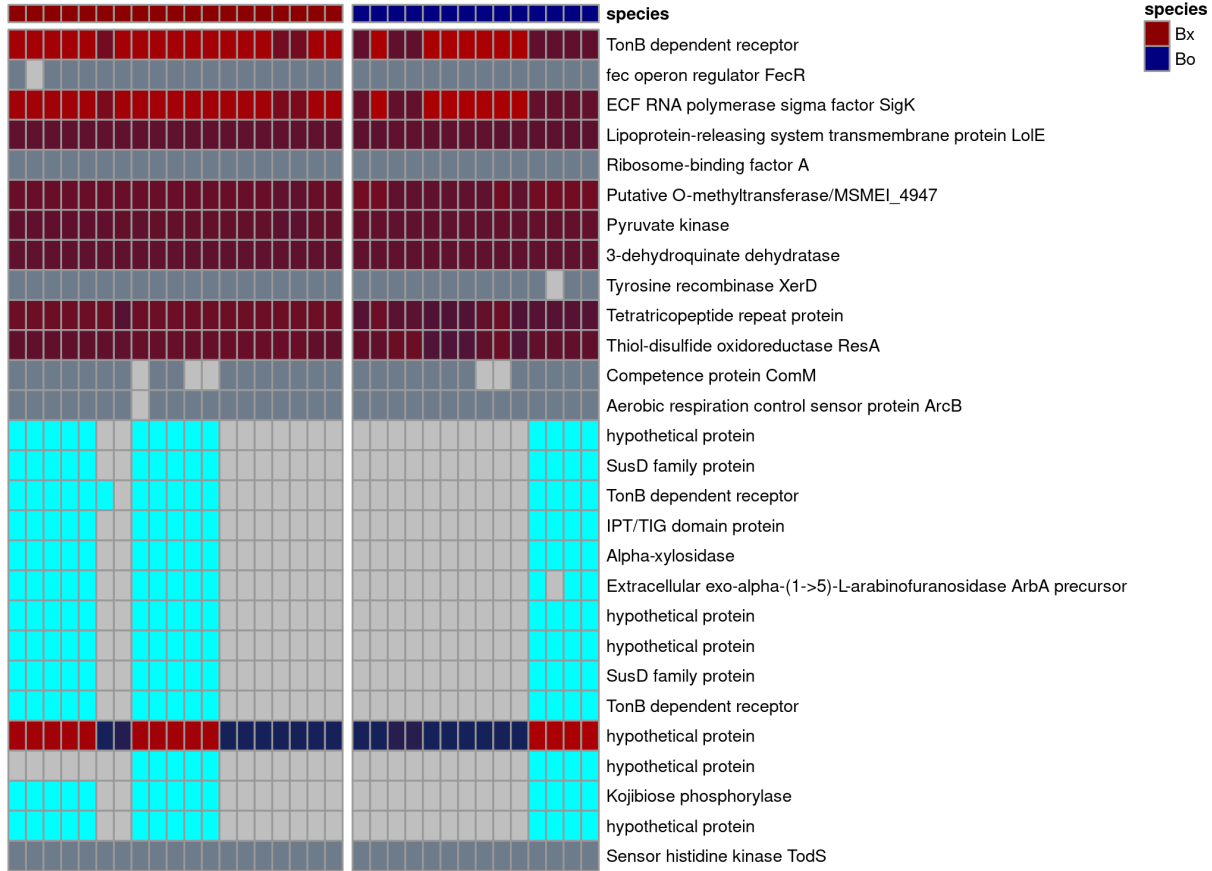


Figure S8. Bacteroides LGT Loci



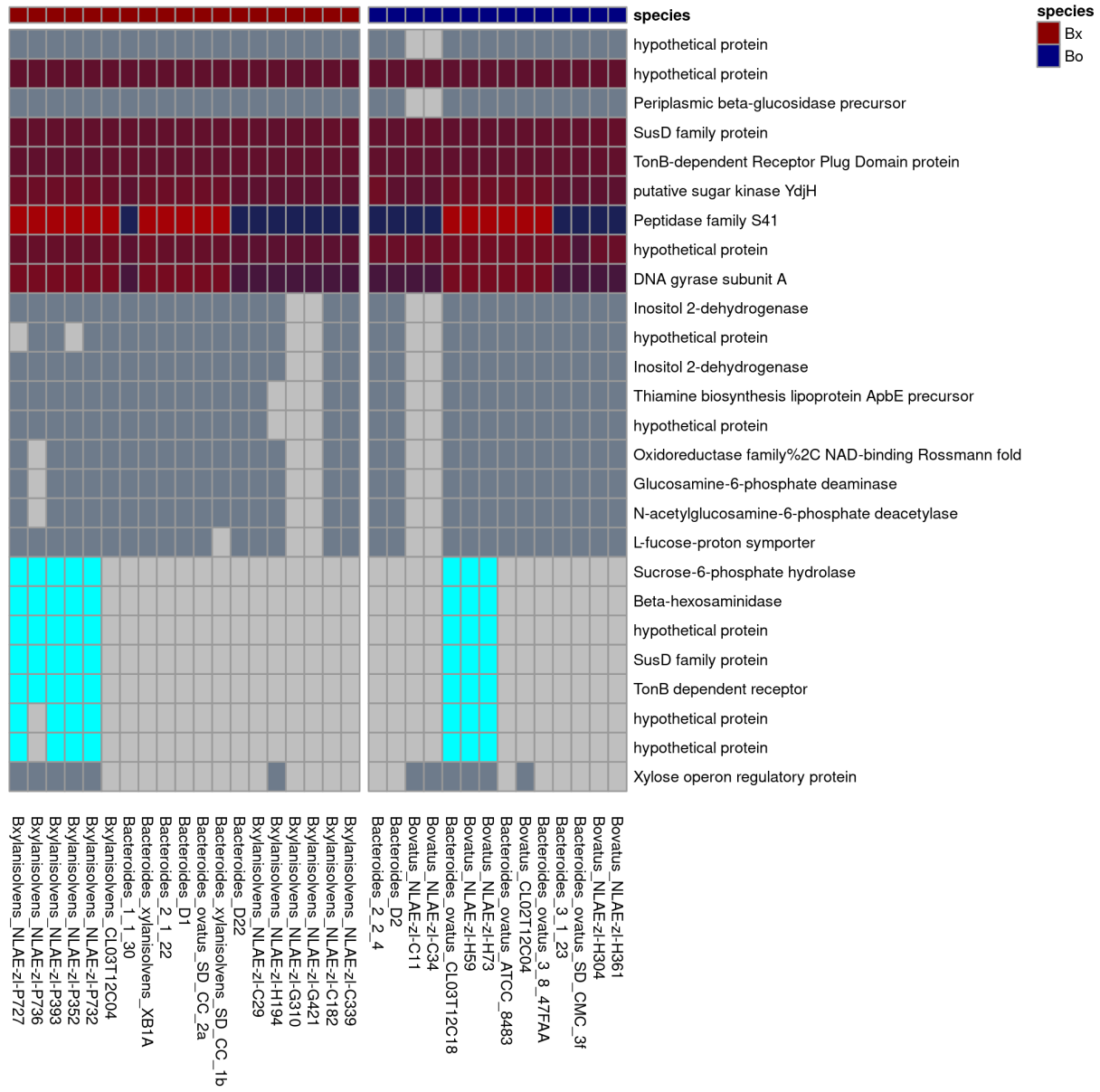
PUL LGT Events

B. ovatus PUL LGT Event 1

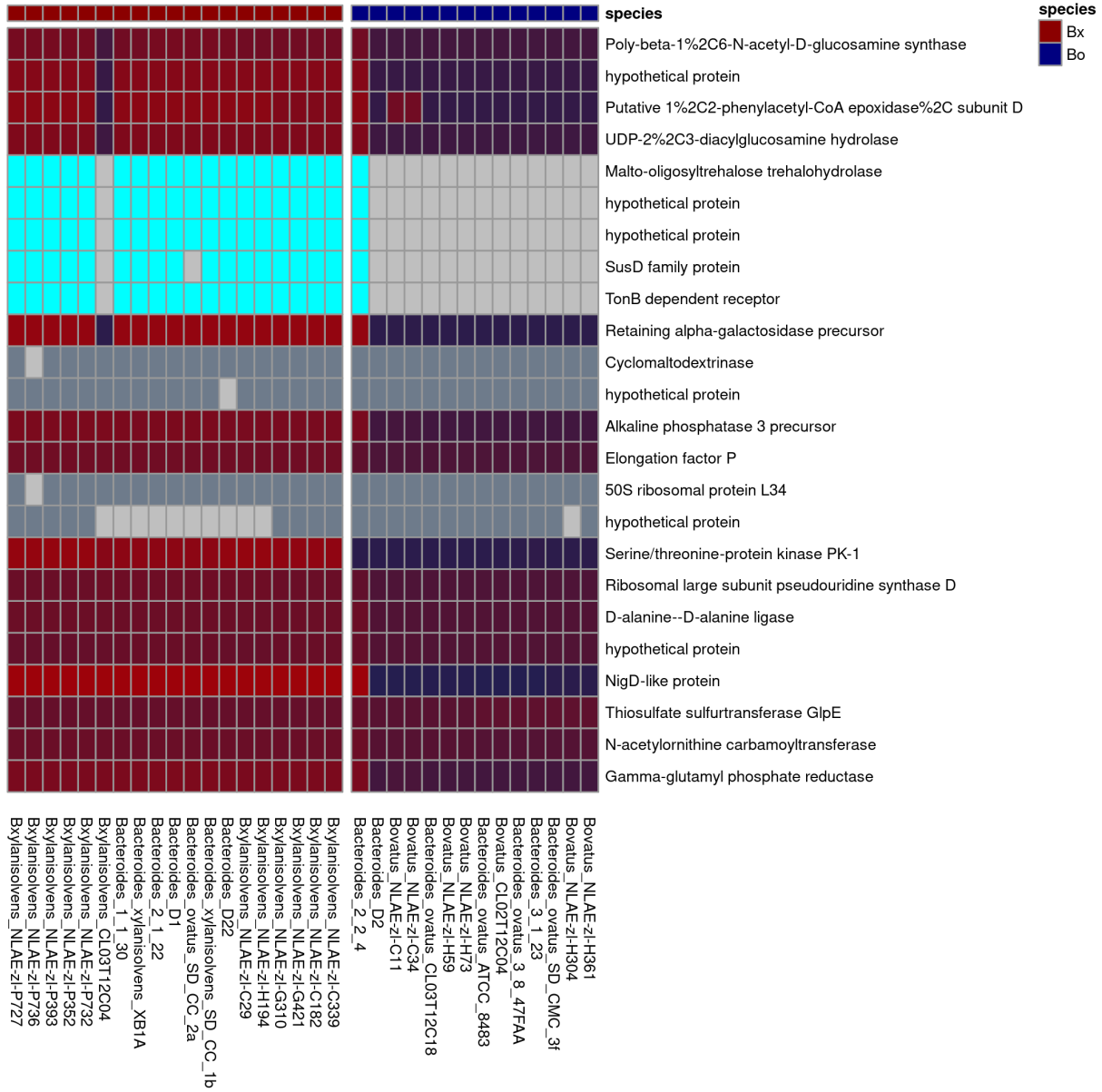


Bovatus_NLAE-zl-H361
 Bovatus_NLAE-zl-H304
 Bacteroides_ovatus_SD_CMC_3f
 Bacteroides_3_1_23
 Bacteroides_ovatus_3_8_47FAA
 Bovatus_CL02T12C04
 Bacteroides_ovatus_ATOC_8483
 Bovatus_NLAE-zl-H73
 Bovatus_NLAE-zl-H59
 Bacteroides_ovatus_CL03T12C18
 Bovatus_NLAE-zl-C34
 Bovatus_NLAE-zl-C11
 Bacteroides_2_2_4
 Bacteroides_D2
 Bxiansolvans_NLAE-zl-C339
 Bxiansolvans_NLAE-zl-C182
 Bxiansolvans_NLAE-zl-G421
 Bxiansolvans_NLAE-zl-G310
 Bxiansolvans_NLAE-zl-H194
 Bxiansolvans_NLAE-zl-C29
 Bacteroides_D22
 Bacteroides_xyiansolvans_SD_CC_1b
 Bacteroides_ovatus_SD_CC_2a
 Bacteroides_D1
 Bacteroides_2_1_22
 Bacteroides_xyiansolvans_XB1A
 Bacteroides_1_1_30
 Bxiansolvans_CL03T12C04
 Bxiansolvans_NLAE-zl-P732
 Bxiansolvans_NLAE-zl-P352
 Bxiansolvans_NLAE-zl-P393
 Bxiansolvans_NLAE-zl-P736
 Bxiansolvans_NLAE-zl-P727

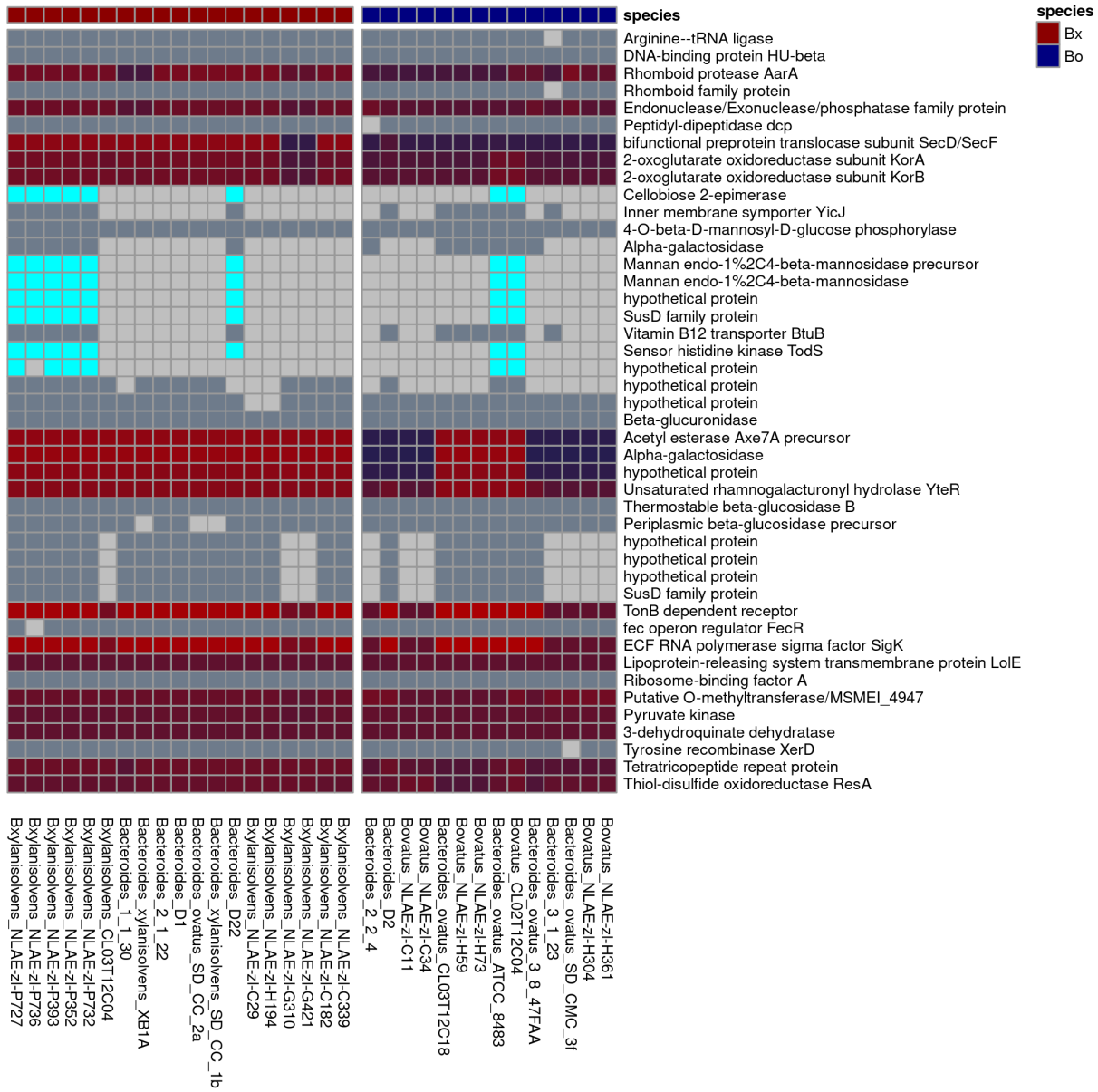
B. ovatus PUL LGT Event 2



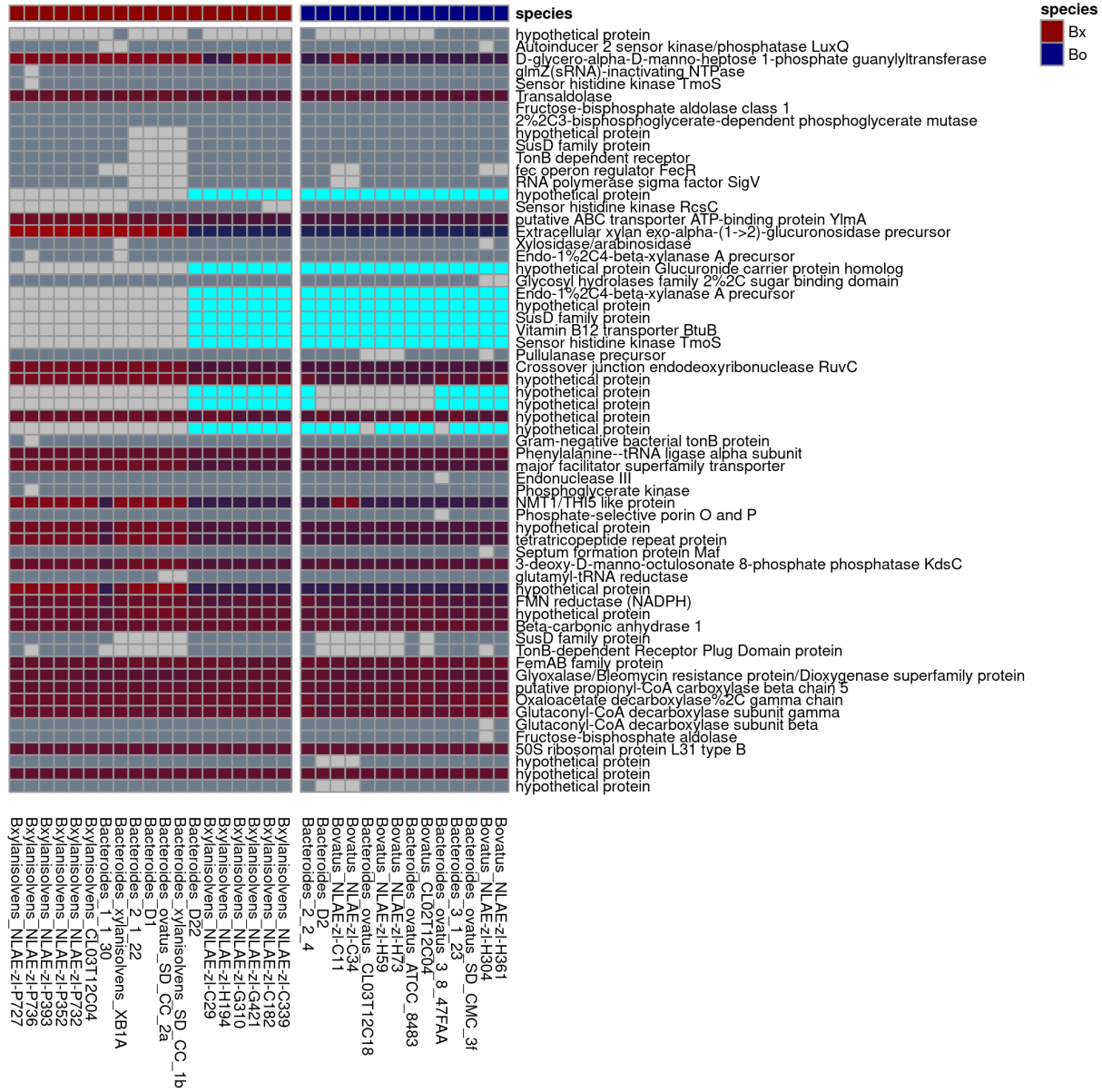
B. ovatus PUL LGT Event 3



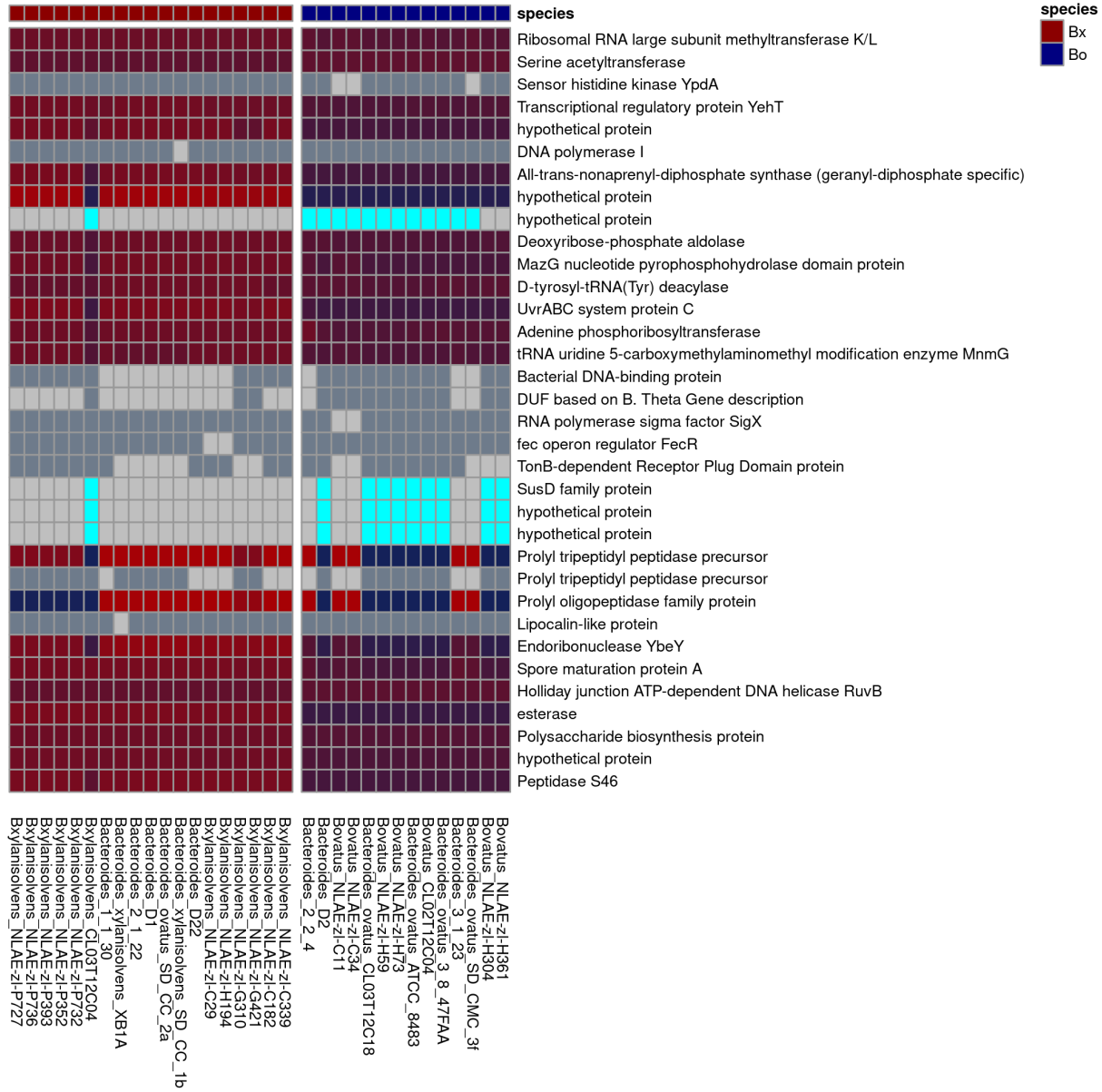
B. ovatus PUL LGT Event 4



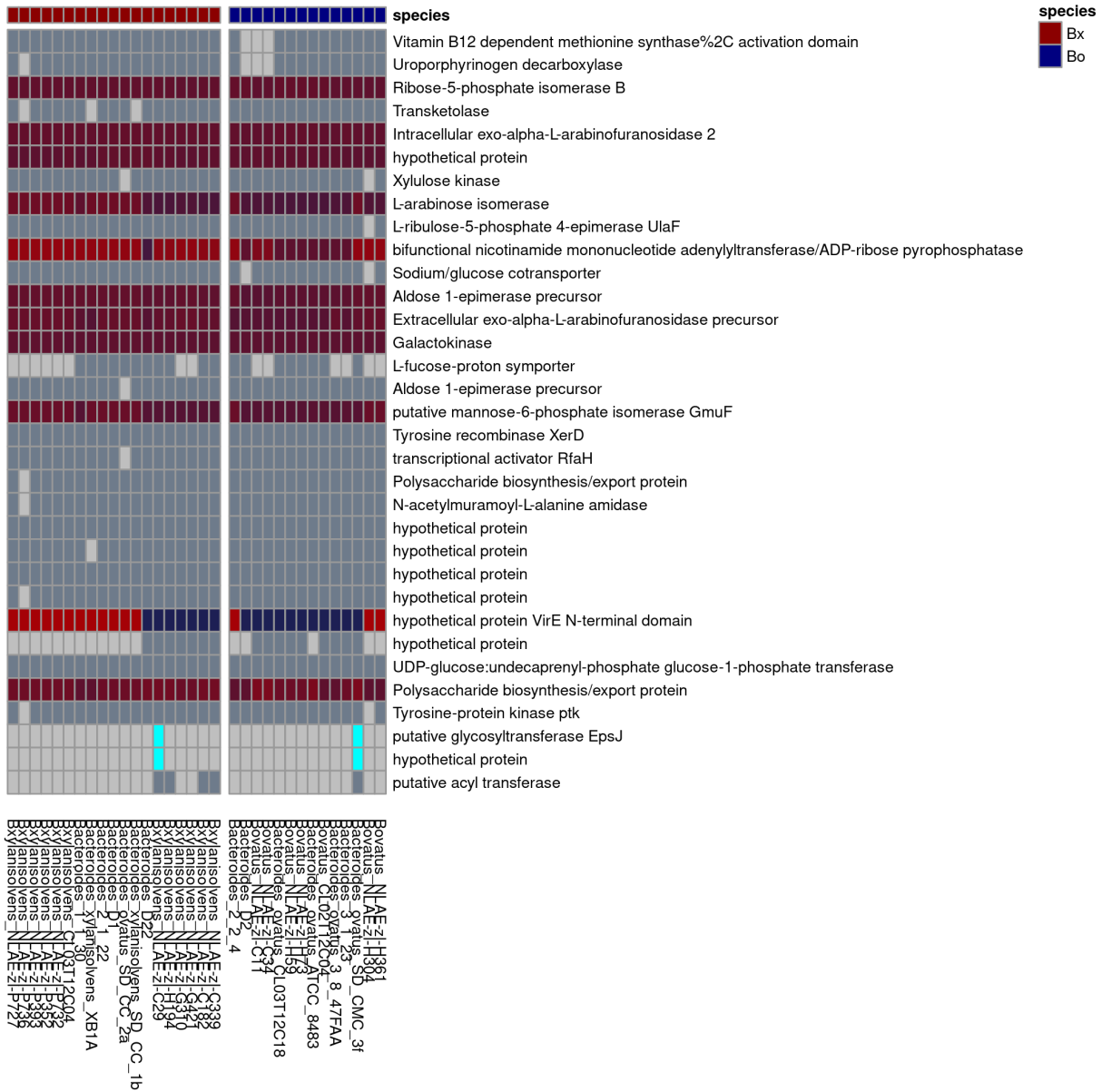
B. xylanisolvans PUL LGT Event 1



B. xylanisolvans PUL LGT Event 2

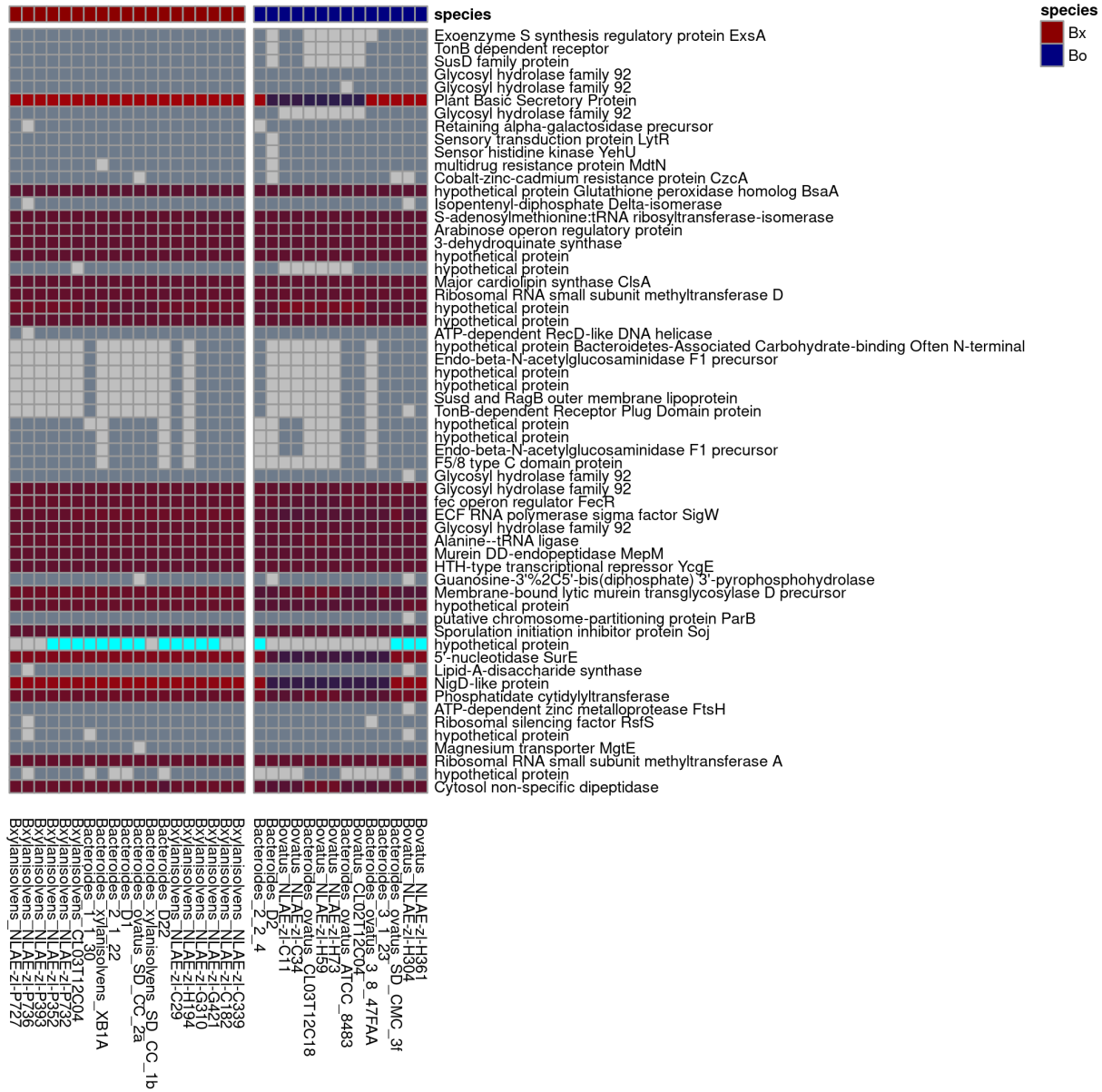


B. xylanisolvens PUL LGT Event 3

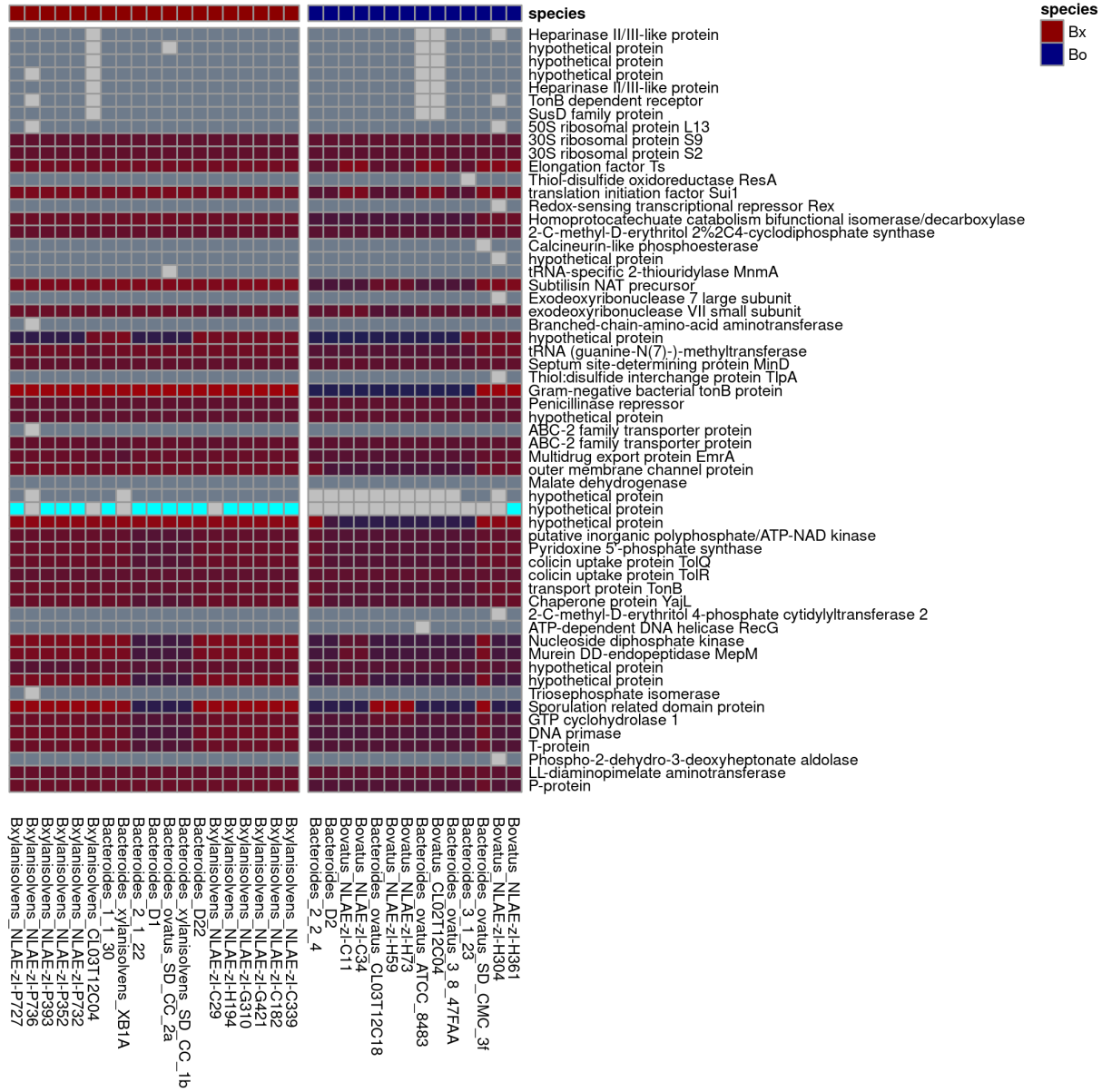


non-PUL LGT Events

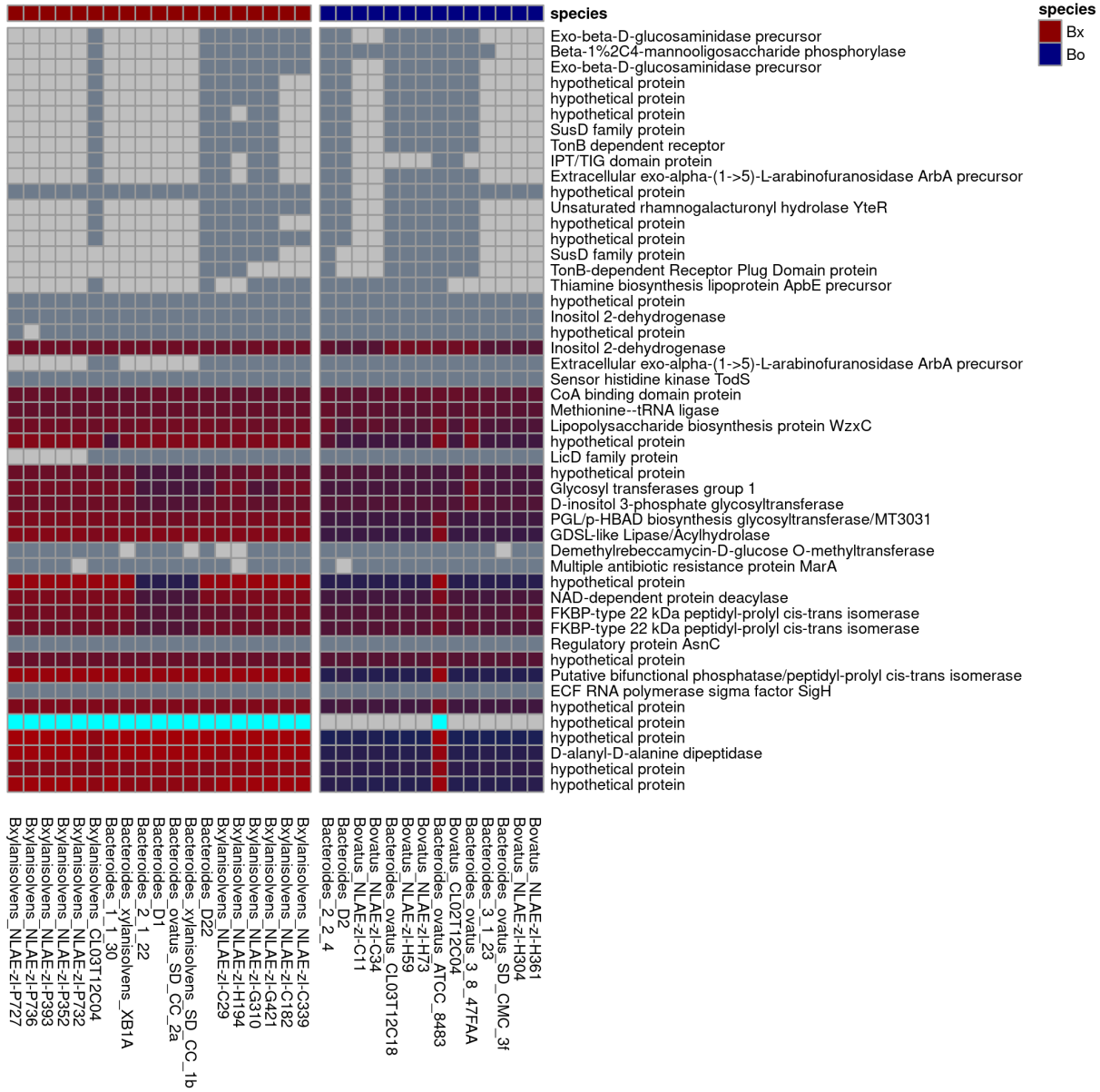
B. ovatus non-PUL LGT Event 1



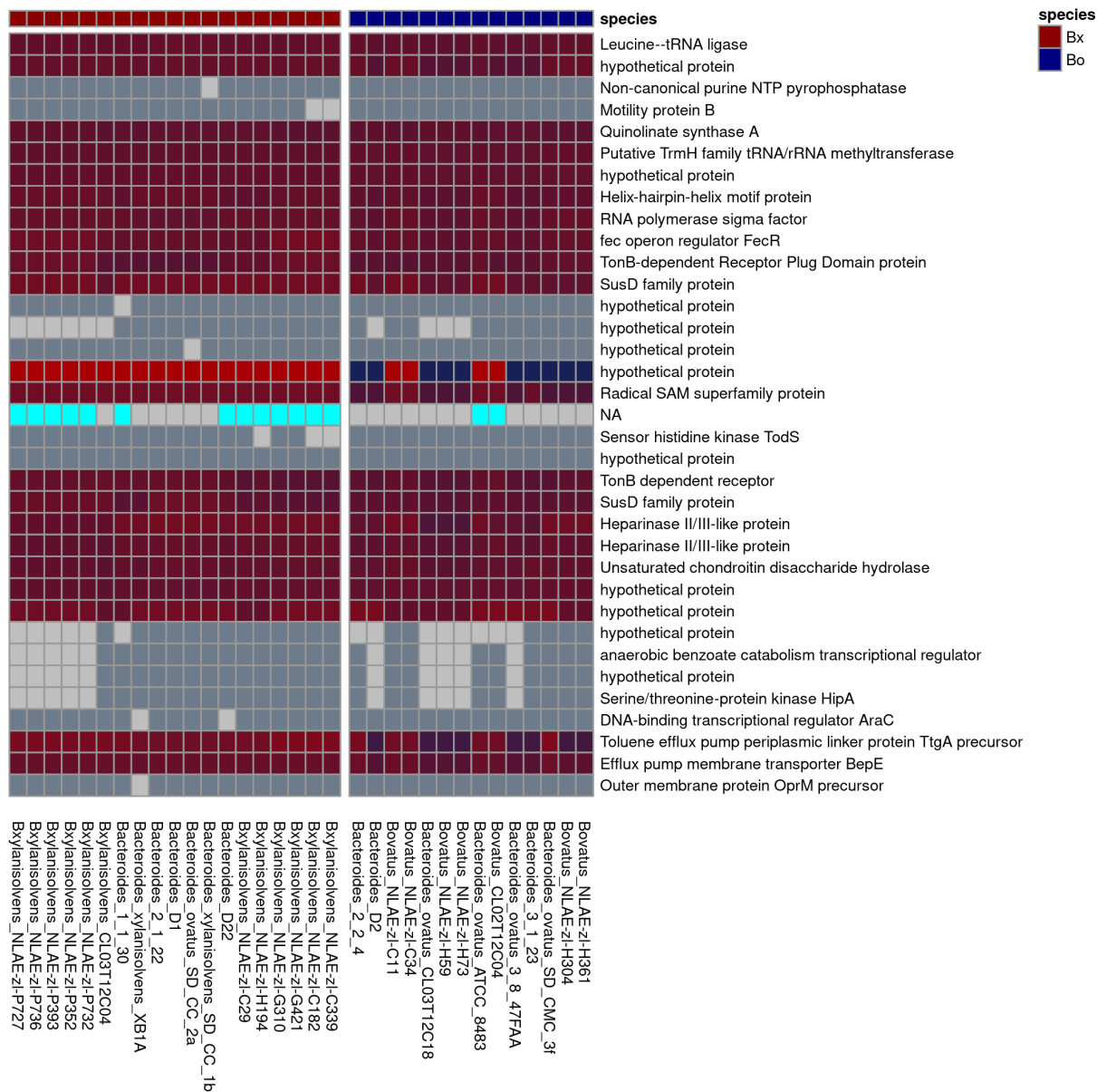
B. ovatus non-PUL LGT Event 2



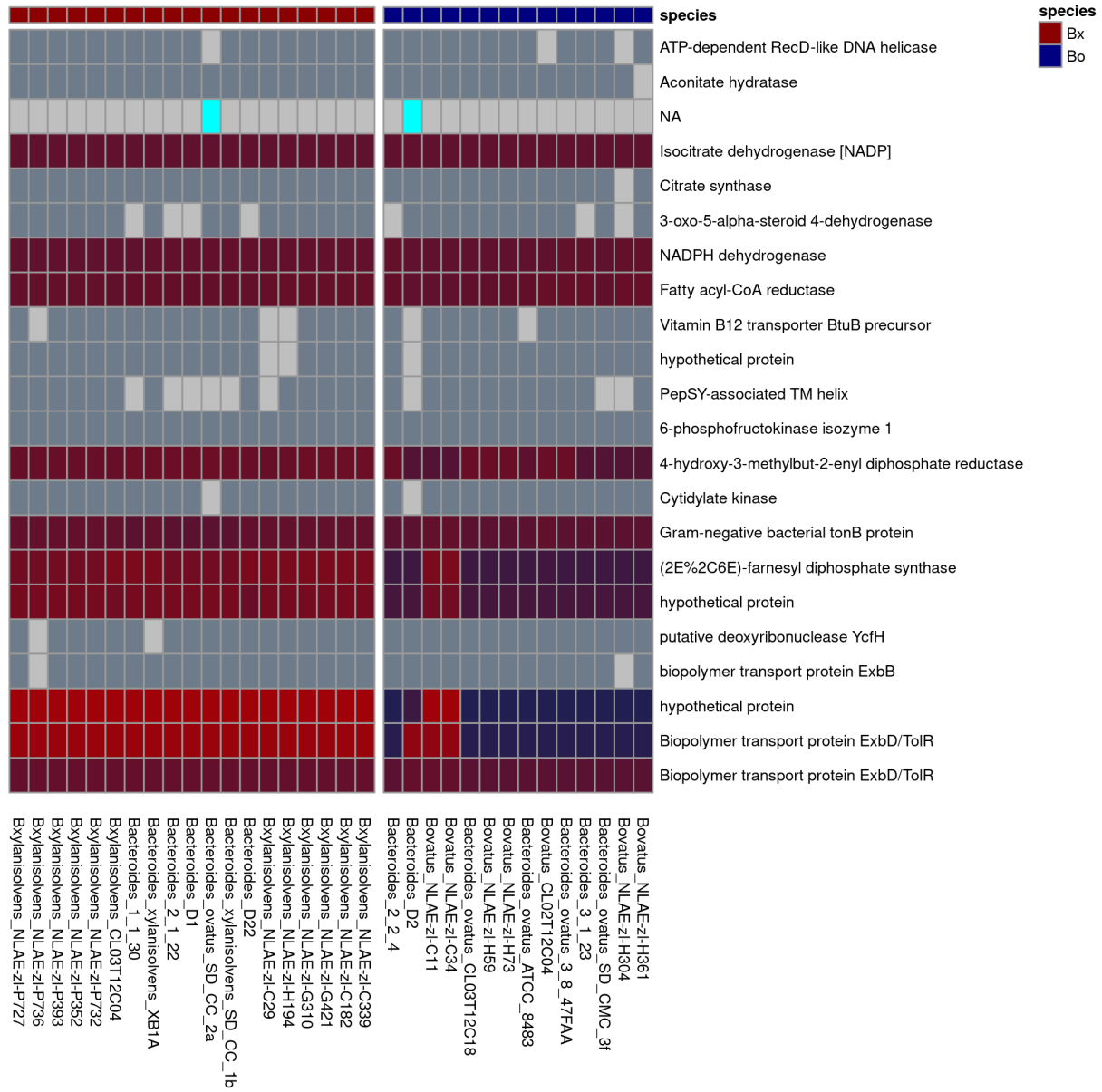
B. ovatus non-PUL LGT Event 4



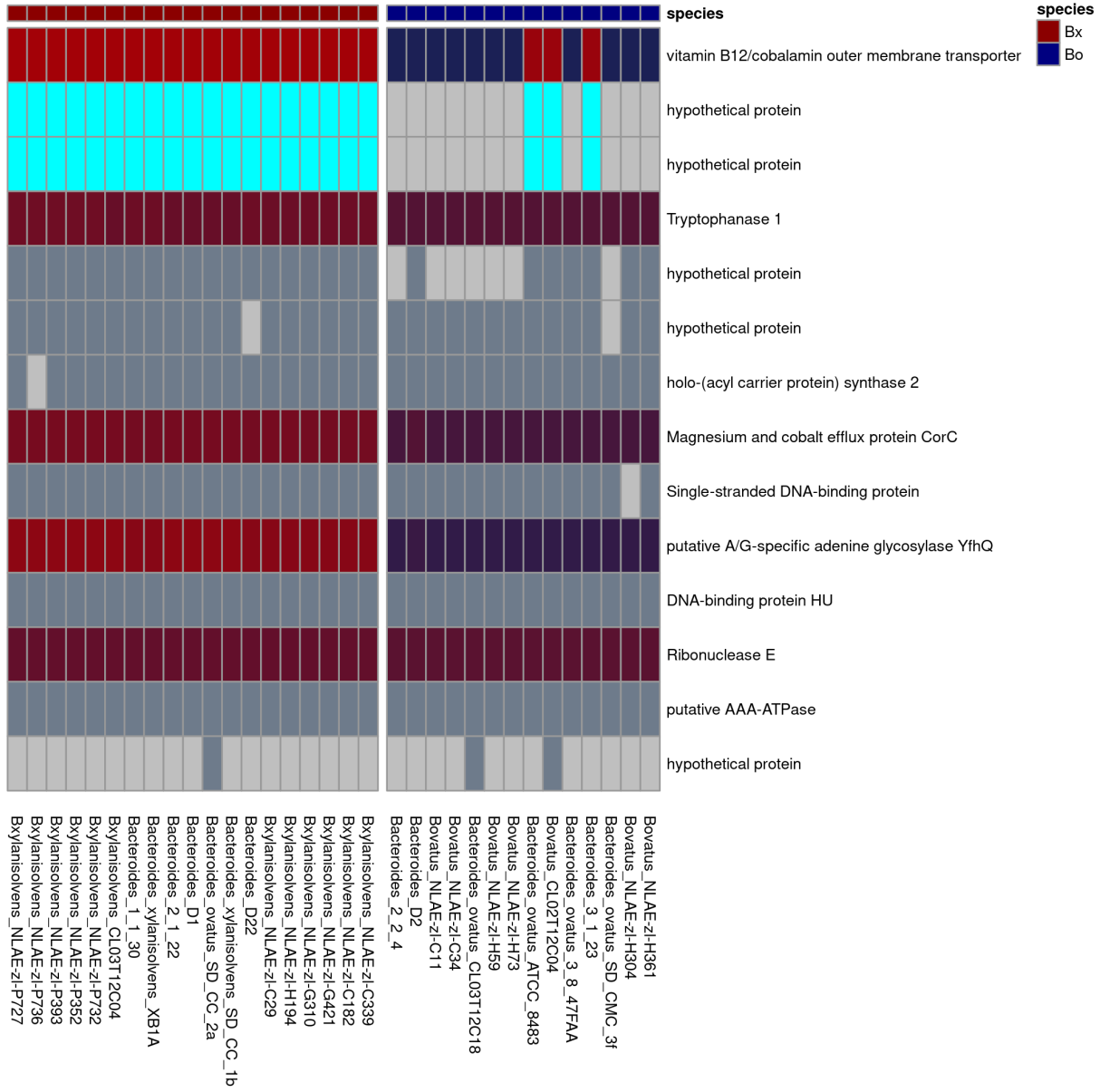
B. ovatus non-PUL LGT Event 5



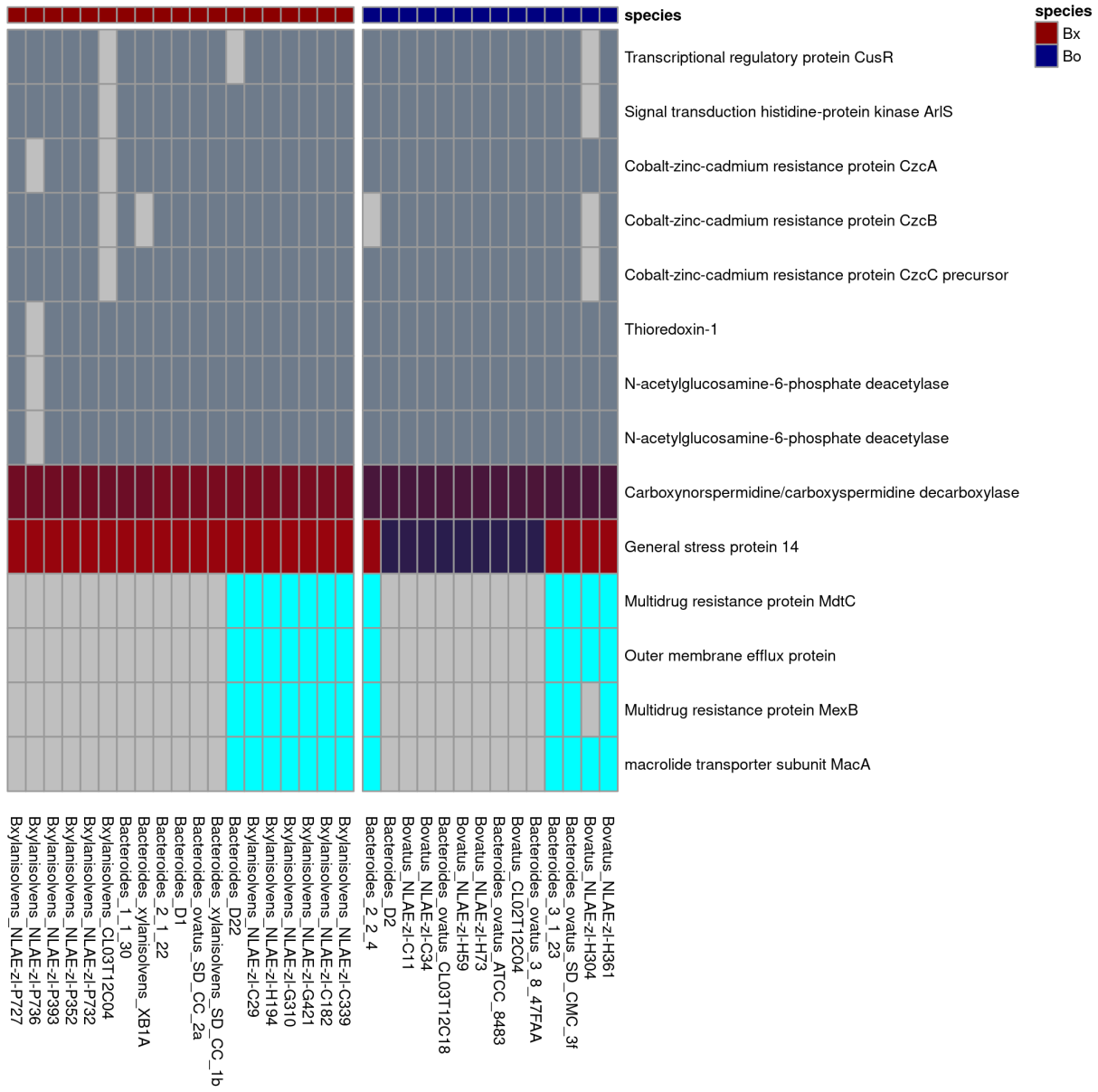
B. ovatus non-PUL LGT Event 6

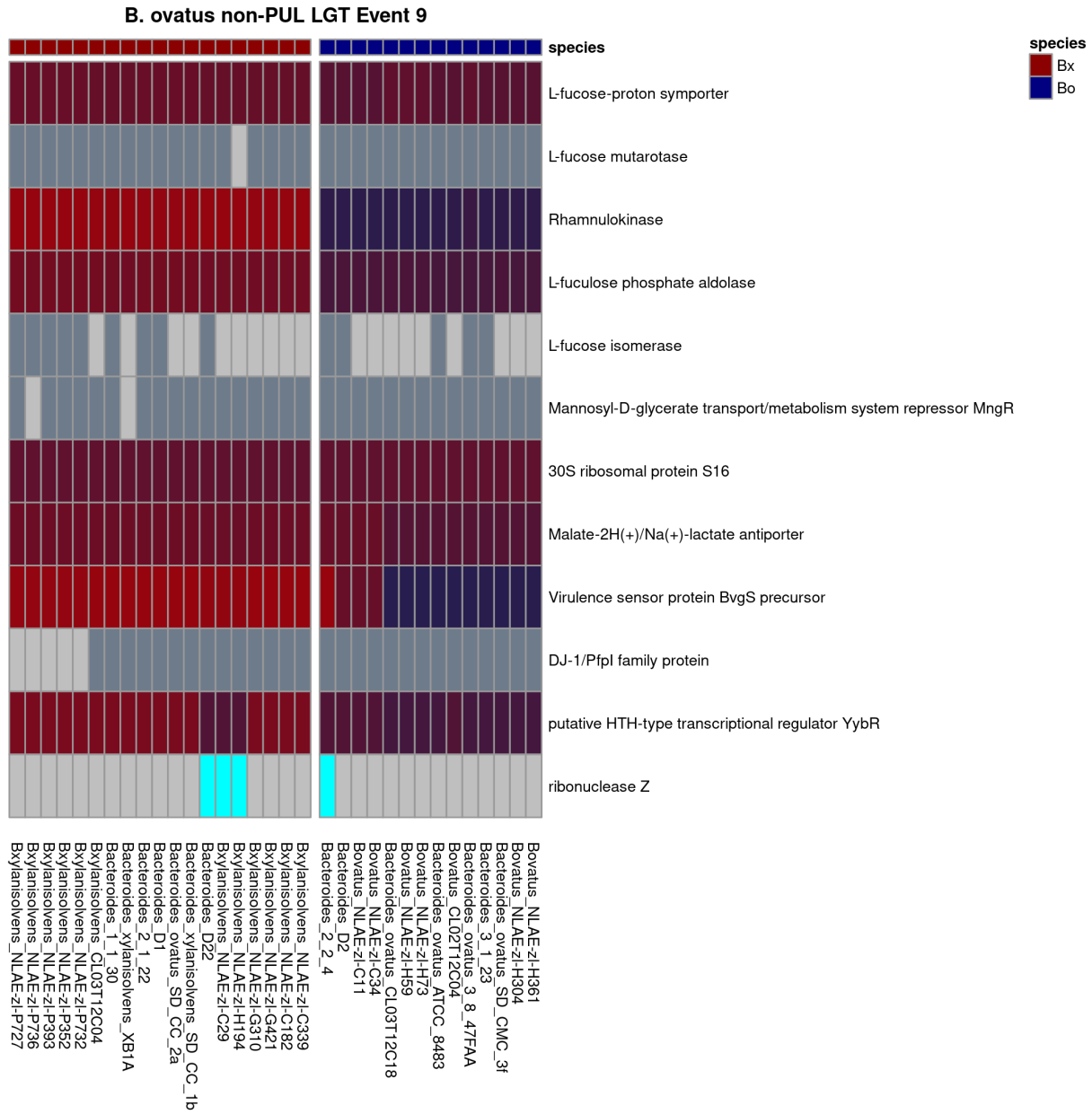


B. ovatus non-PUL LGT Event 7

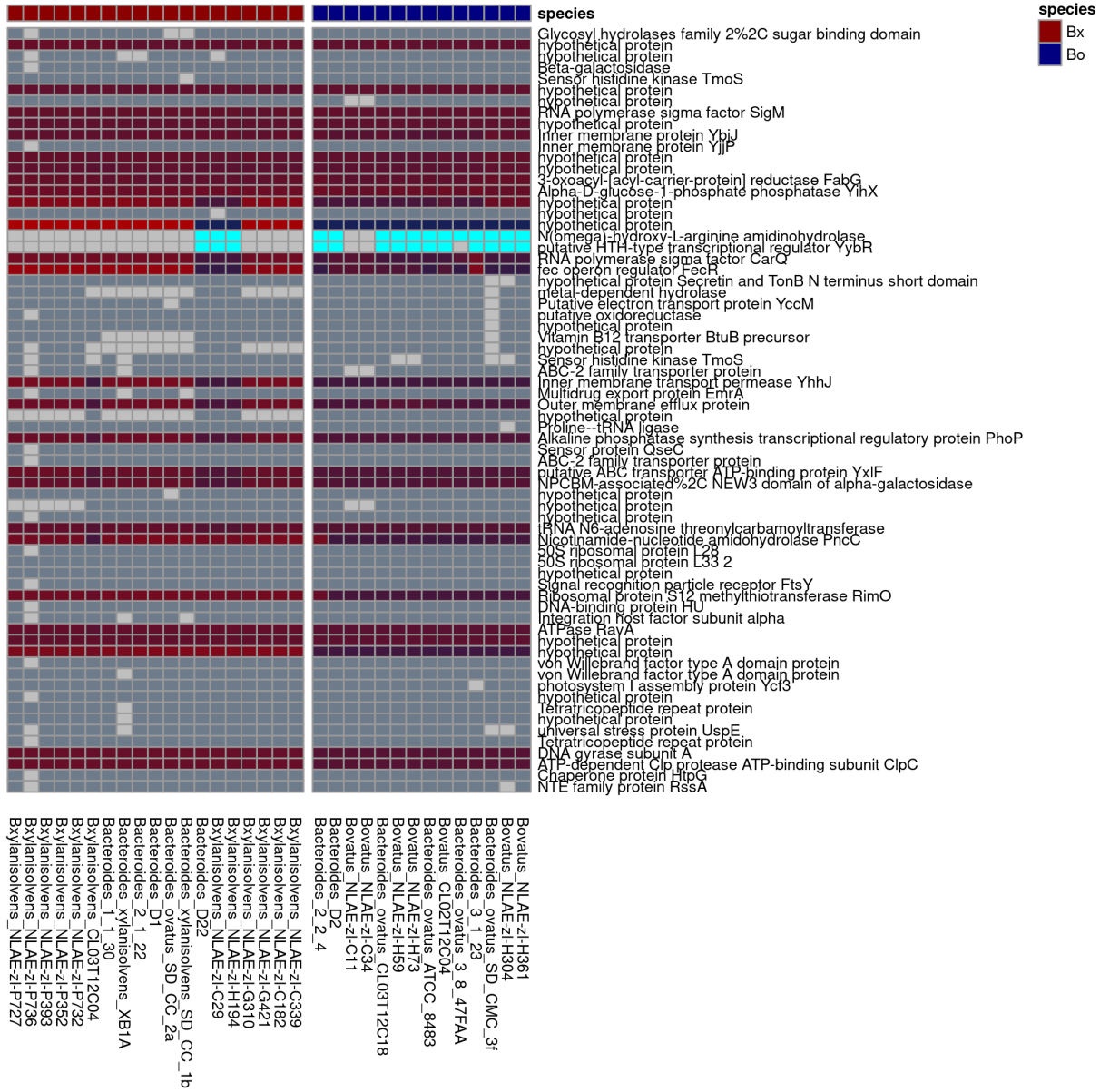


B. ovatus non-PUL LGT Event 8

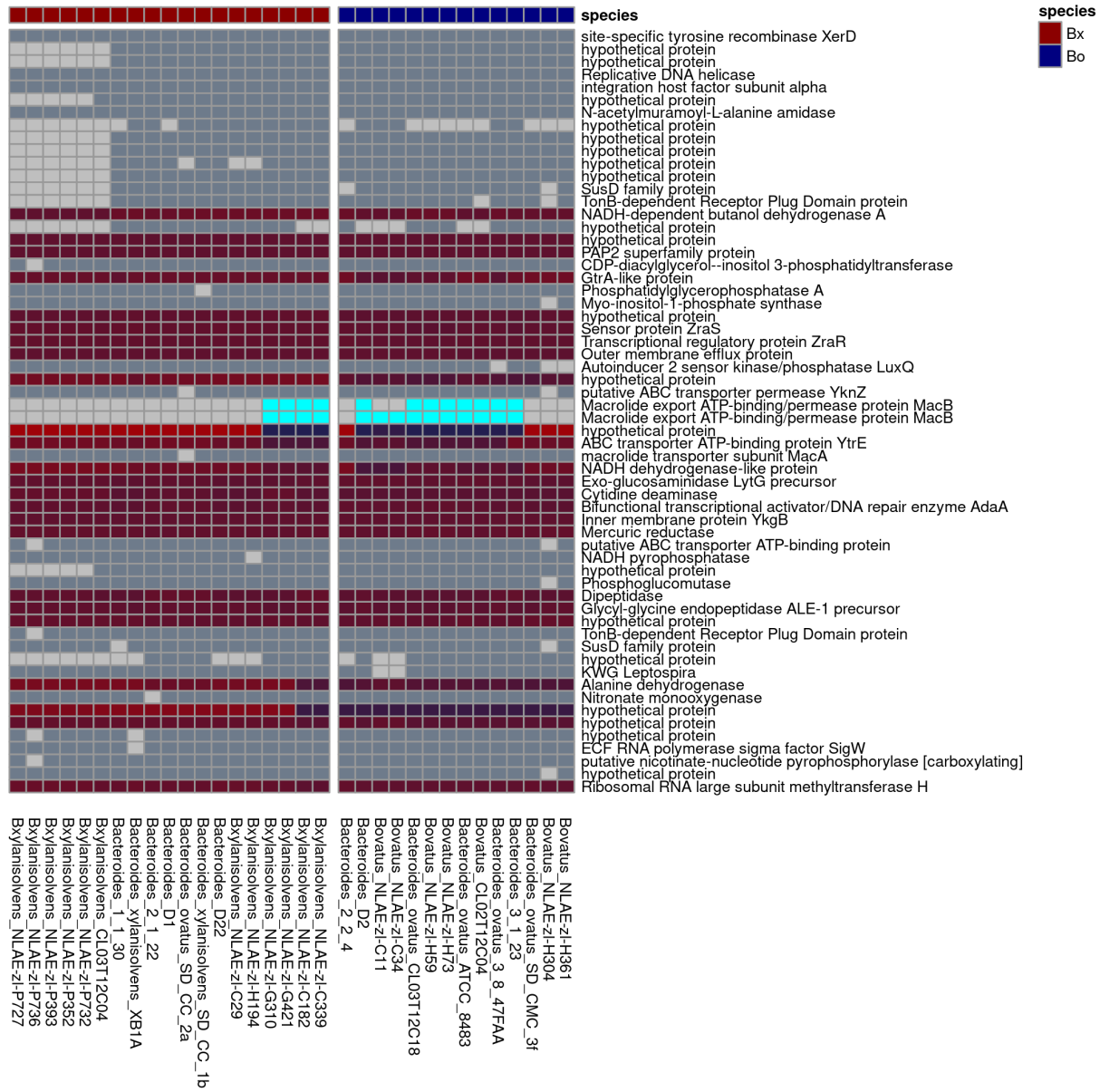




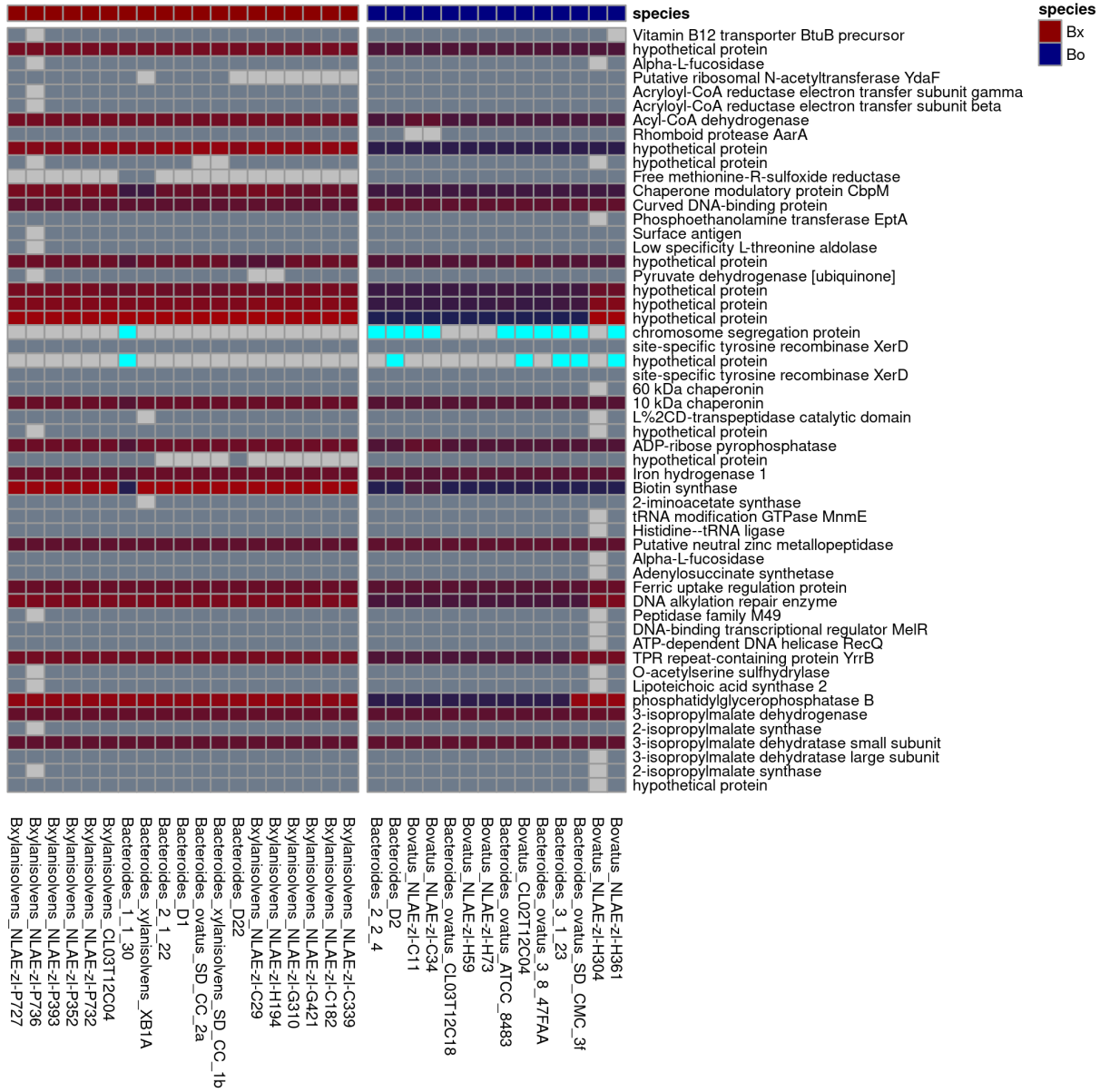
B. xylanisolvans non-PUL LGT Event 1



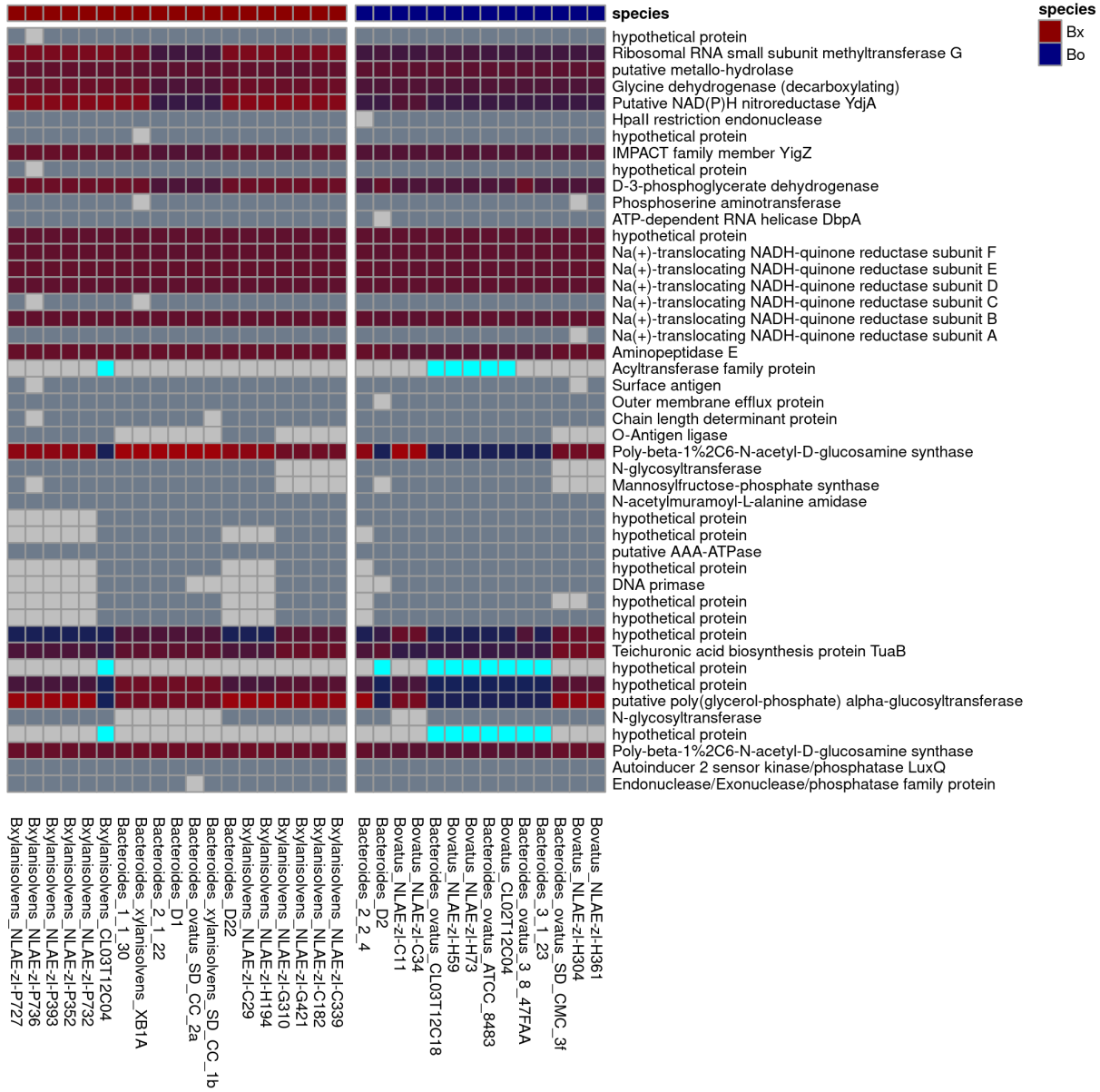
B. xylanisolvans non-PUL LGT Event 2



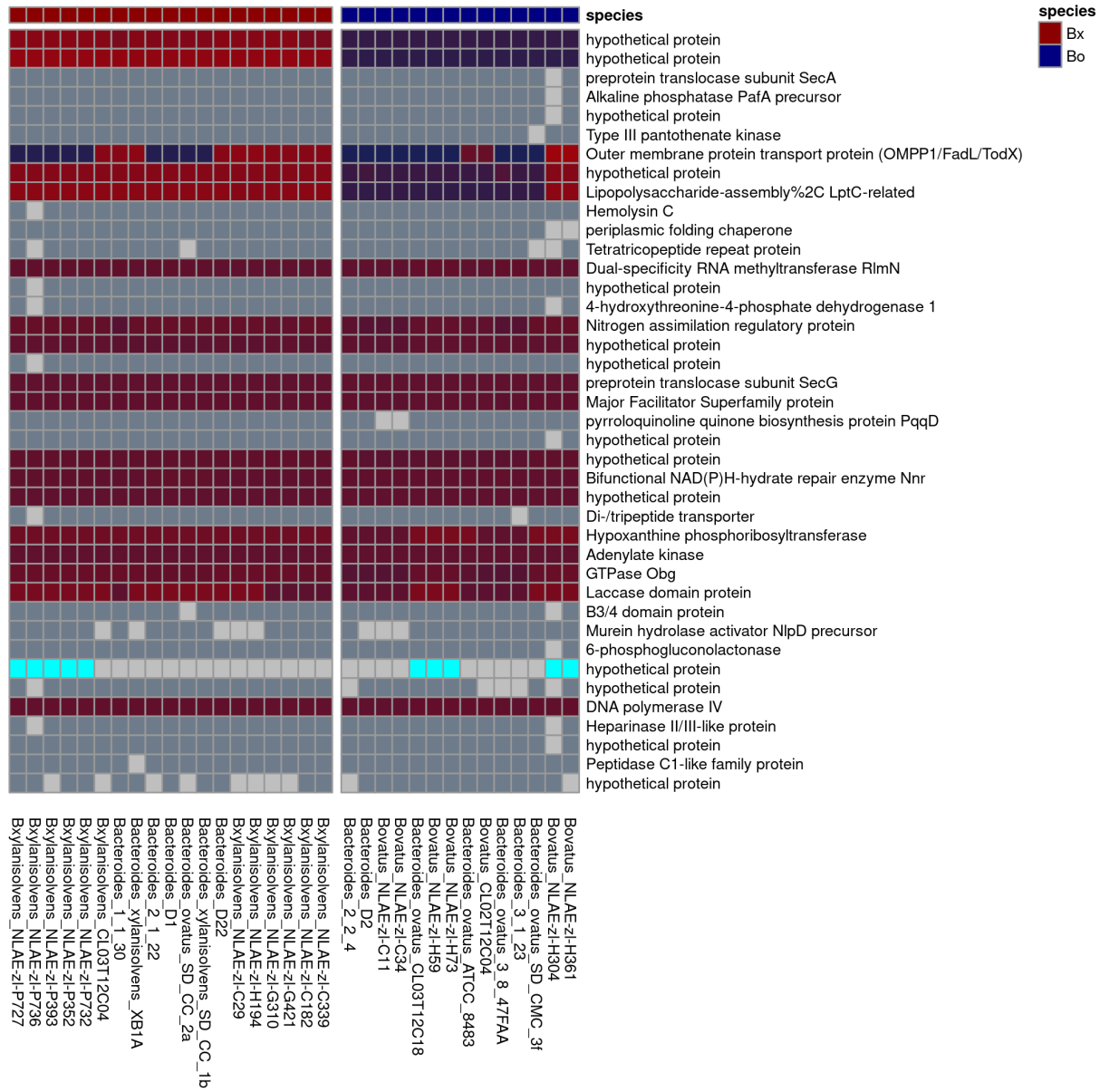
B. xylanisolvans non-PUL LGT Event 3



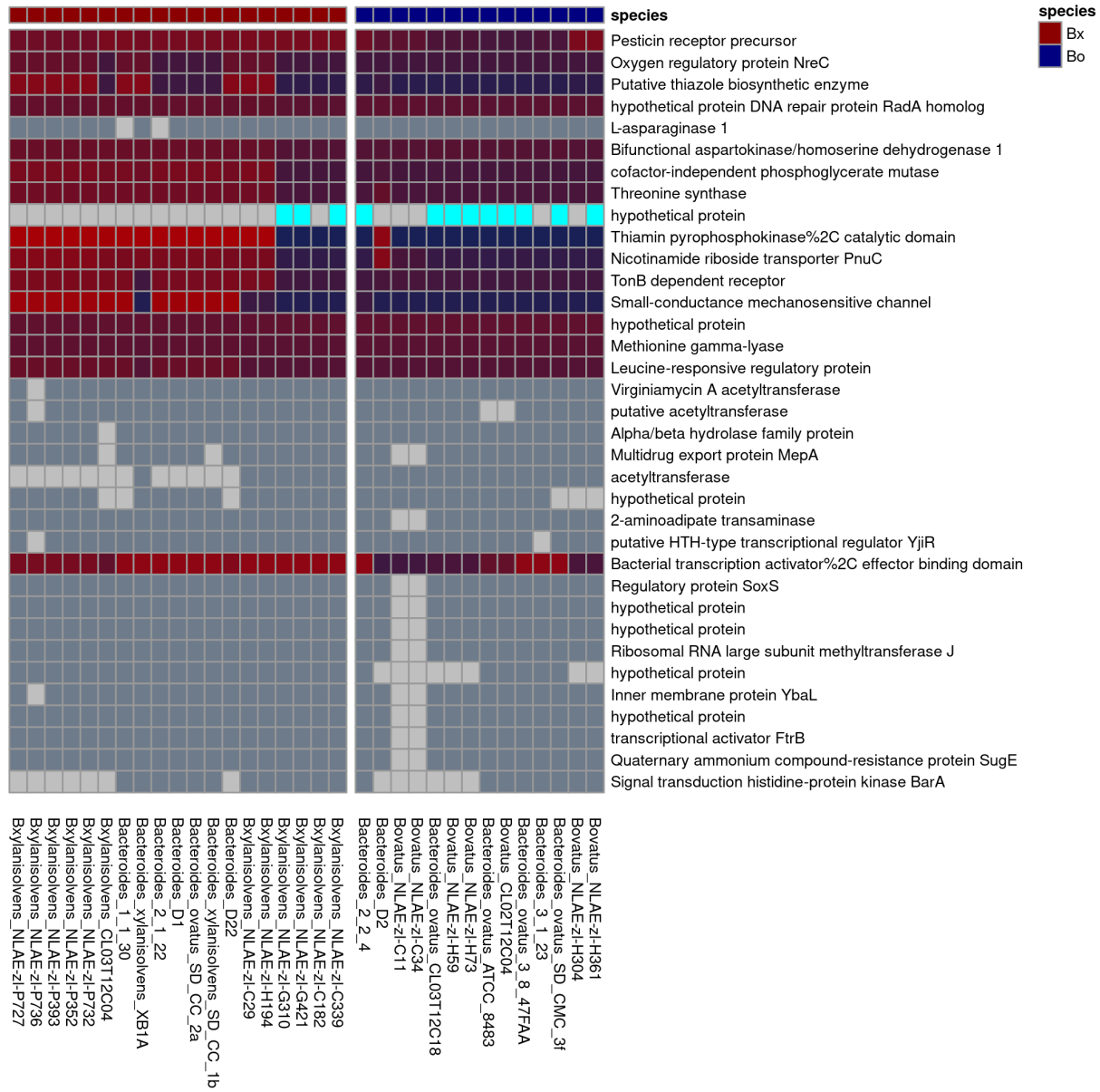
B. xylanisolvans non-PUL LGT Event 4



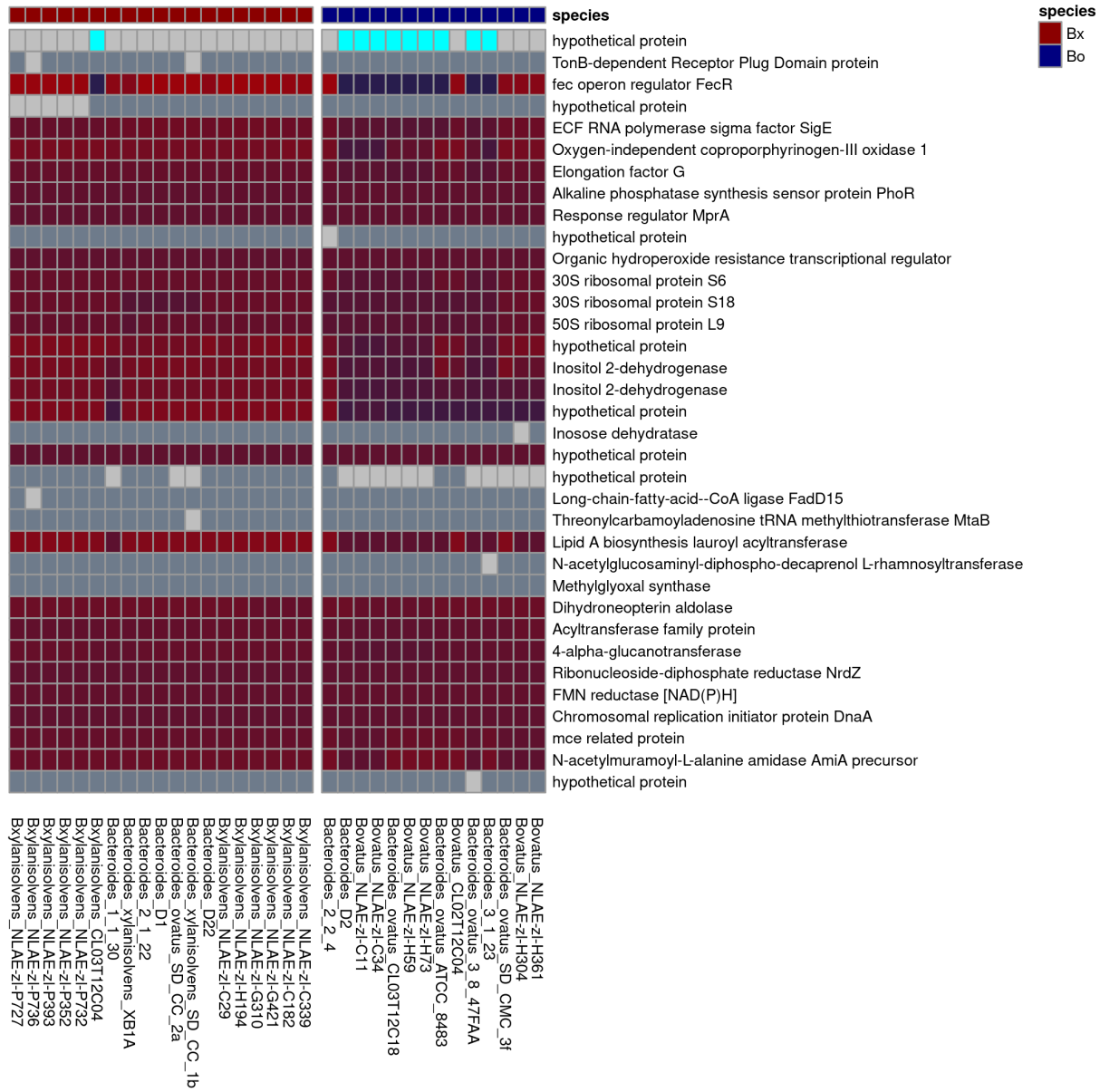
B. xylanisolvans non-PUL LGT Event 5



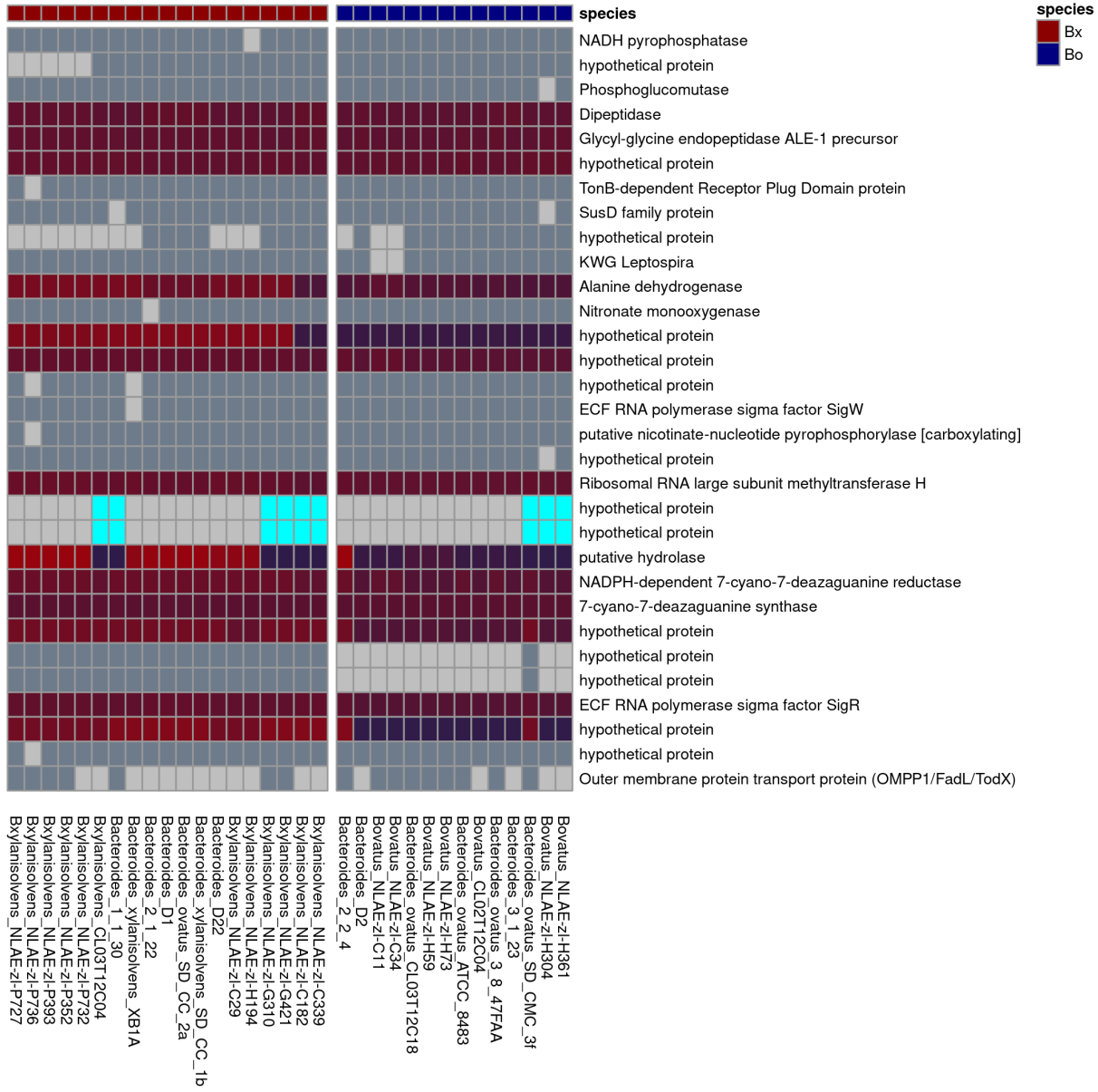
B. xylanisolvans non-PUL LGT Event 6



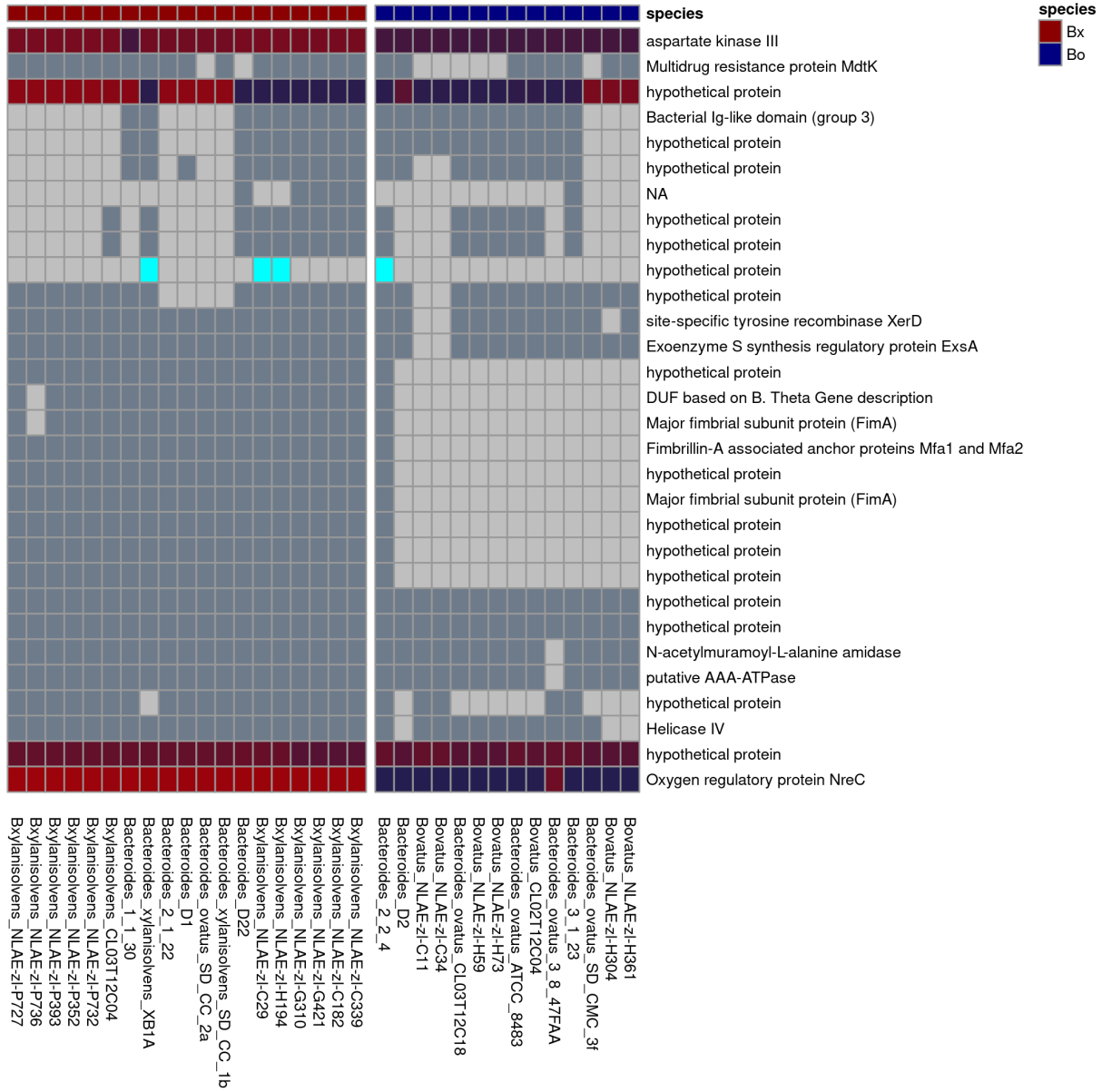
B. xylanisolvans non-PUL LGT Event 7



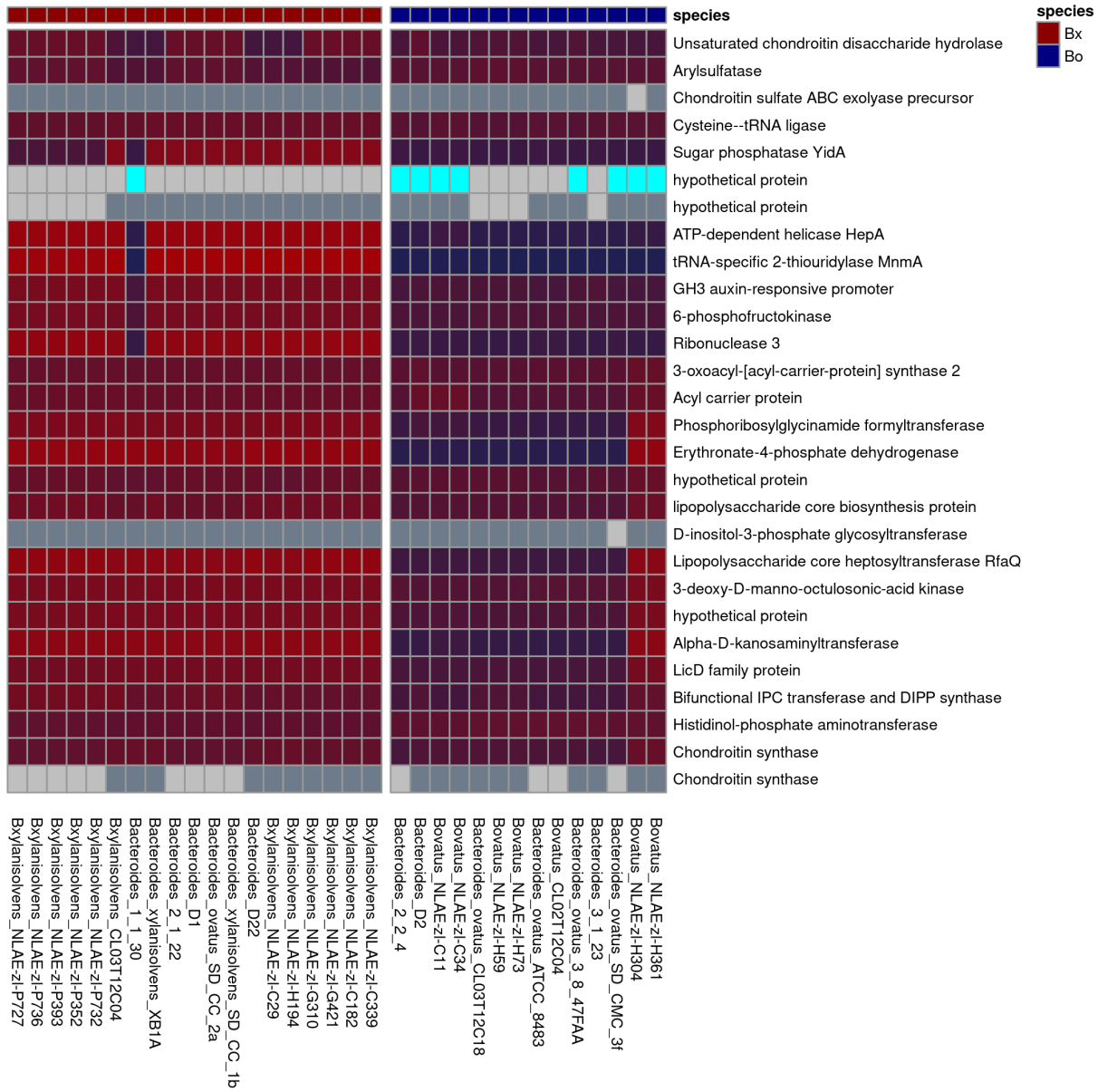
B. xylanisolvans non-PUL LGT Event 8



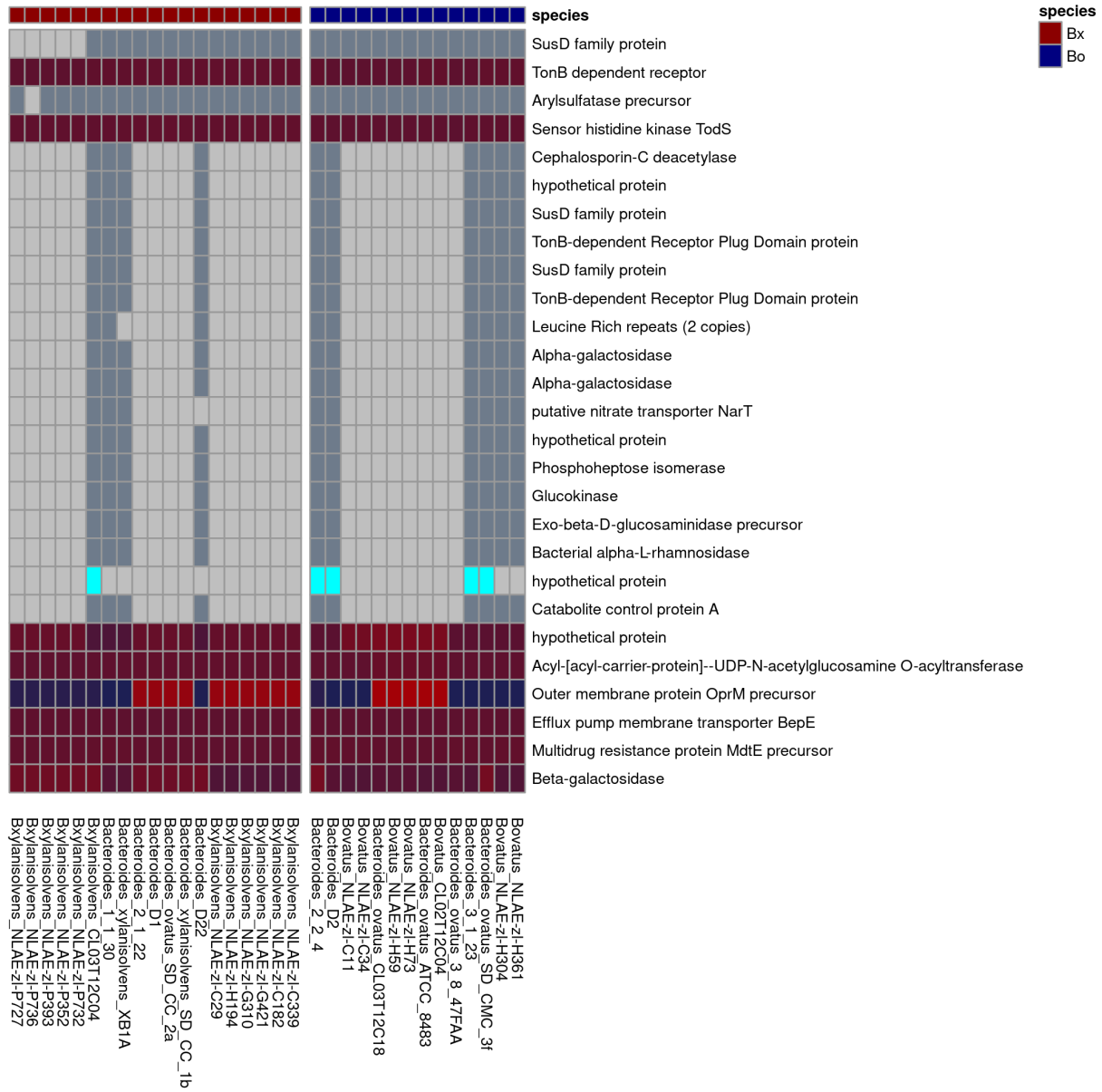
B. xylanisolvans non-PUL LGT Event 9



B. xylanisolvans non-PUL LGT Event 10



B. xylanisolvans non-PUL LGT Event 11



B. xylanisolvans non-PUL LGT Event 13

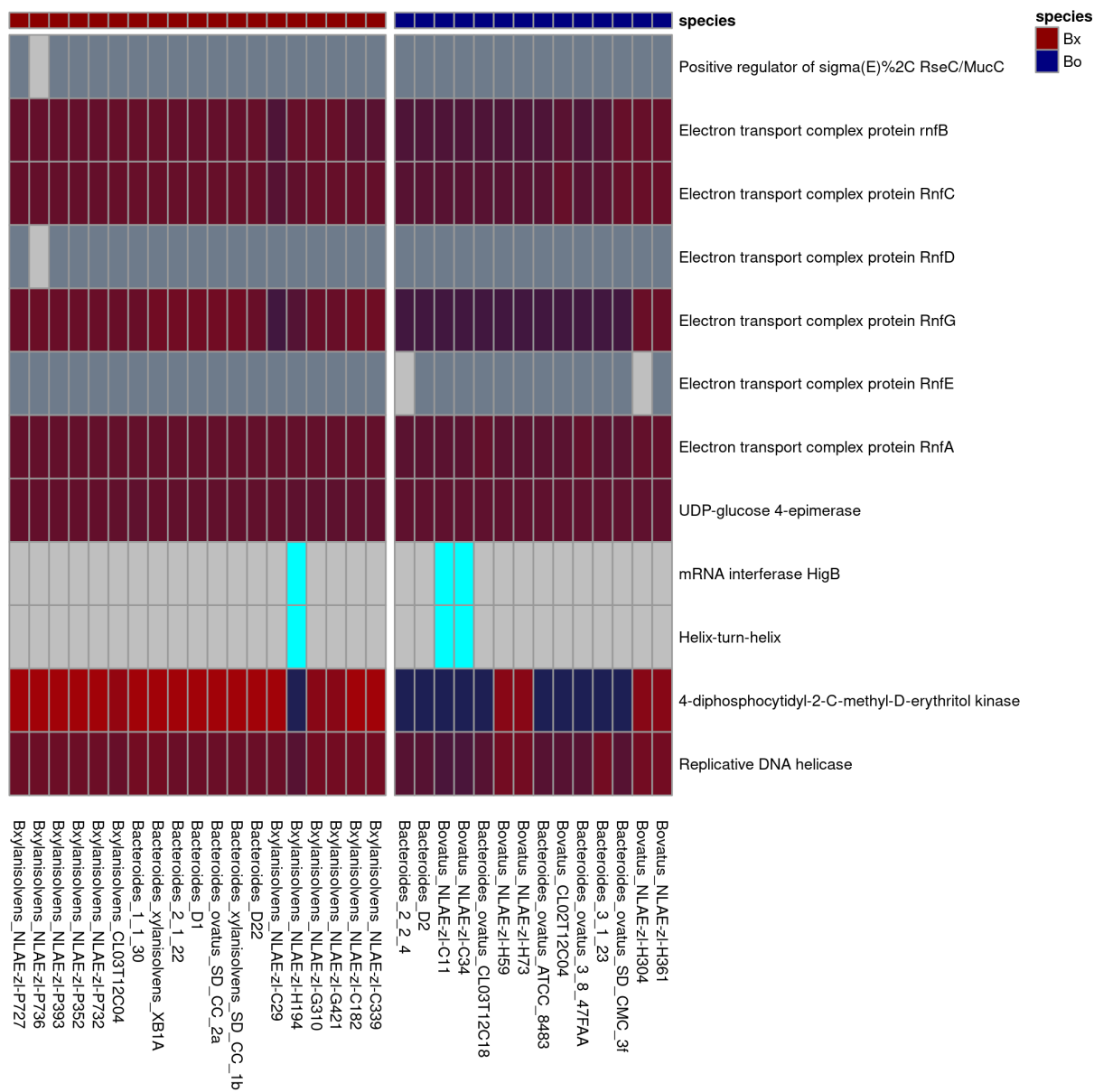
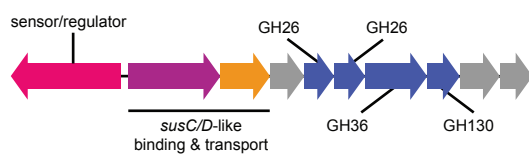
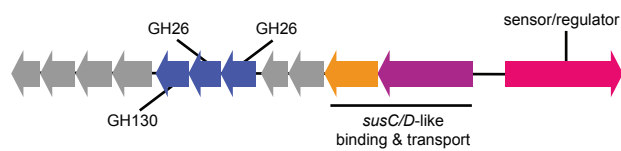


Figure S9

A. GalM, GluM PUL-A



GalM, GluM PUL-B



B. PUL-B expression during GalM growth

