**Human Milk Oligosaccharide Utilization in Intestinal Bifidobacteria is Governed by**

**a Global Transcriptional Regulator NagR**

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Running Head: Regulation of HMO utilization in B. infantis

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Word count for the abstract:

Word count for the text:

**Keywords**

bifidobacteria, HMO, regulon, comparative genomics, evolution, prebiotics, transcription

factor, carbohydrate metabolism

**Abstract**

*Bifidobacterium longum* subsp. *infantis* (*B. infantis*) is a prevalent beneficial bacterium that

colonizes the human neonatal gut and is uniquely adapted to efficiently use human milk

oligosaccharides (HMOs) as a carbon and energy source. Multiple studies have focused on

characterizing the elements of HMO utilization machinery in *B. infantis*; however, the regulatory

mechanisms governing the expression of these catabolic pathways remain poorly understood. A

bioinformatic regulon reconstruction approach used in this study implicated NagR, a transcription

factor from the ROK family, as a negative global regulator of genomic loci encoding lacto-*N*-

biose/galacto-*N*-biose (LNB/GNB), lacto-*N*-tetraose (LNT), and lacto-*N*-neotetraose (LNnT)

utilization pathways in *B. infantis.* This conjecture was corroborated by transcriptome profiling

upon *nagR* genetic inactivation and experimental assessment of binding of recombinant NagR to

predicted DNA operators. The latter approach also implicated *N*-acetylglucosamine (GlcNAc), a

universal intermediate of LNT and LNnT catabolism, and its phosphorylated derivatives as

plausible NagR transcriptional effectors. Reconstruction of NagR regulons in various

*Bifidobacterium* lineages revealed multiple regulon expansion events, suggesting evolution from

a local regulator of GlcNAc catabolism in ancestral bifidobacteria to a global regulator controlling

foraging of mixtures of GlcNAc-containing host-derived glycans in mammalian gut-colonizing *B.*

*infantis* and *Bifidobacterium bifidum.*

**Importance**

The predominance of bifidobacteria in the gut of breastfed infants is attributed to the ability

of these bacteria to utilize human milk oligosaccharides (HMOs). Thus, individual HMOs such as

lacto-*N*-tetraose (LNT) and lacto-*N*-neotetraose (LNnT) are considered promising prebiotics that

would stimulate the growth of bifidobacteria and confer multiple health benefits to preterm and

malnourished children suffering from impaired (stunted) gut microbiota development. However,

the rational selection of HMO-based prebiotics is hampered by the incomplete knowledge of

regulatory mechanisms governing HMO utilization in target bifidobacteria. This study describes

NagR-mediated transcriptional regulation of LNT and LNnT utilization in *Bifidobacterium*

*longum* subsp. *infantis*. The elucidated regulatory network appears optimally adapted to

simultaneous utilization of multiple HMOs, providing a rationale to add HMO mixtures (rather

than individual components) into infant formulas. The study also provides insights into the

evolutionary trajectories of complex regulatory networks controlling carbohydrate metabolism in
bifidobacteria.
55
**Introduction**
Bifidobacteria are Gram-positive, anaerobic, saccharolytic microorganisms that colonize
the digestive tracts of humans and various animals (1). Certain *Bifidobacterium* species, namely
*Bifidobacterium longum* subsp. *infantis* (*B. infantis*), *Bifidobacterium bifidum*, and
*Bifidobacterium breve*, often predominate the human neonatal gut microbiota (GM) during
breastfeeding (2–5), and their predominance is directly linked with the healthy development of an
infant (6, 7). Among health-promoting effects attributed to bifidobacteria inhabiting the neonatal
gut are protection from pathogen colonization (8–10) and modulation of the immune system
towards the tolerance to commensal microorganisms (5, 11).
Decreased *Bifidobacterium* abundance is characteristic of stunted GMs observed in
preterm infants (14) and children suffering from severe acute malnutrition (73). Therapeutic
approaches aimed at restoring the bifidobacterial population in these affected groups include
administering exogenous *Bifidobacterium* species (e.g., *B. infantis*) as probiotics or/and food
formulas containing prebiotics that would selectively stimulate the growth of endogenous
bifidobacteria in the gut and thus confer beneficial properties to the infant (14–16, 73). Since the
prevalence of bifidobacteria in the neonatal gut is often attributed to their ability to selectively
utilize dietary human milk oligosaccharides (HMOs) (2, 17–21), these milk glycans are considered
"natural" prebiotics and added to infant formulas.
HMOs are the third most abundant (5 to 20 g/L) component of human milk after lactose
and lipids and are not assimilated by the infant (22–24). HMO building blocks include glucose,
galactose, *N*-acetylglucosamine (GlcNAc), L-fucose, and *N*-acetylneuraminic (sialic) acid; these
units form more than a hundred linear or branched oligosaccharide structures (22, 25, 26). Most
HMOs are composed of a lactose core (Galβ1-4Glc) conjugated to one or multiple lacto-*N*-biose
(LNB, Galβ1-3GlcNAc) or *N*-acetyllactosamine units (Galβ1-4GlcNAc) (22, 23, 26). The
resulting HMO structures are denoted as type I and type II chains, respectively, with lacto-*N*-
tetraose (LNT) and lacto-*N*-neotetraose (LNnT) as archetypes.
Previous studies have revealed substantial variation in HMO utilization strategies and
capabilities within the *Bifidobacterium* genus (19, 27). For example, *B. bifidum* uses a set of

membrane-attached glycoside hydrolases (GHs) that extracellularly degrade HMOs to di- and
monosaccharides (28–32) and then imports and catabolizes liberated LNB and lactose (19). In
contrast, *B. infantis* and *B. breve* import HMOs using ATP-binding cassette (ABC) transporters
and then degrade uptaken oligosaccharides to monosaccharides intracellularly using a repertoire
of exo-acting GHs (17, 20, 27).

*B. infantis*, which is widely used in probiotic and synbiotic formulations (8, 15, 16, 73),
possesses several unique genomic clusters (e.g., HMO cluster I or H1) that encode the most
elaborate HMO uptake (33, 34) and intracellular degradation machinery (35–38) among
bifidobacteria (**Fig. 1A-B**). While the molecular mechanisms of HMO utilization in *B. infantis*
have received considerable attention, the regulatory mechanisms governing this catabolic process
remain poorly understood. Previous studies demonstrated that LNT and LNnT induce a profound
and surprisingly similar transcriptomic response in *B. infantis* ATCC 15697, with multiple
genomic clusters (*nag*, *lnp*, H1; **Fig. 1B**) being upregulated, pointing to a possible global
regulatory mechanism(s) (39, 40). Uncovering this yet unknown mechanism in addition to
fundamental importance has a potential translational value for the rational selection of individual
HMOs for prebiotic and synbiotic formulations.

Comparative genomic analysis across multiple related genomes is a powerful approach for
reconstructing transcriptional regulatory networks (regulons) controlling carbohydrate utilization
(41–43). Our earlier bioinformatic analysis conducted on a limited set of *Bifidobacterium* genomes
implicated NagR, a transcription factor (TF) from the ROK family, as a regulator of *nag* and *lnp*
clusters (**Fig. 1B**) encoding GlcNAc and lacto-*N*-biose/galacto-*N*-biose (LNB/GNB) catabolic
pathways, respectively, in *B. bifidum*, *B. breve*, *B. infantis*, and *Bifidobacterium longum* subsp.
*longum* (*B. longum*) (42). James et al. further experimentally confirmed this prediction in *B. breve*
UCC2003 (44). However, it was unclear whether and how this knowledge translated to the global
regulation of the extensive HMO utilization machinery in *B. infantis.*

Here we reconstructed NagR regulons in a substantially larger collection of
*Bifidobacteriaceae* genomes focusing on HMO-utilizing species. This analysis revealed multiple
putative NagR-binding sites (operators) in the *B. infantis* ATCC 15697 genome, suggesting the
role of NagR as a global negative regulator of LNB/GNB, LNT, and LNnT utilization in this
bacterium. This conjecture was confirmed by transcriptome profiling of the *nagR* knockout mutant
and by direct assessment of the binding of recombinant NagR to its predicted operators. The

inferred NagR regulon structure suggests that at the transcriptional level, *B. infantis* is adapted to

simultaneous utilization of multiple HMOs, providing guidelines for using rationally formulated

mixtures rather than individual oligosaccharides as prebiotics. The reconstructed NagR regulons

also provided insights into the evolution of complex regulatory networks controlling carbohydrate

metabolism in bifidobacteria shaped by the ecological niche of these commensal microorganisms.

**Results**

**Genomic reconstruction reveals the complexity of the NagR regulon in *B. infantis***

We used a Position Weight Matrix (PWM)-based approach to reconstruct the NagR

regulon in *B. infantis* ATCC 15697 and identified 11 potential NagR-binding sites (operators) in

promoter regions of genes/operons encoding components of HMO utilization pathways including

six previously unknown NagR operators within in the HMO cluster I (H1) (**Fig. 1A-B and Table**

**S3**). Among the new putative NagR regulon members were genes encoding (i) LNnT (type II

HMOs) ABC transporters (HmoABC, HmoA2B2C2) (33), (ii) substrate-binding components of

ABC transporters possibly involved in HMO uptake (HmoA3, HmoA4, HmoA5, HmoA6) (33),

(iii) *N*-acetylneuraminate lyase NanA2 and exo-α-sialidase NanH2 (GH33) (35), (iv) lactose

permeases (LacS, LacS2) (**Table 1** and **Fig. 1A**). Overall, the reconstructed regulon contained 29

genes. The inferred NagR-binding motif had a palindrome structure (**Fig. 1C**), a common feature

of transcriptional regulators from the ROK family (45).

ROK-family TFs can function as transcriptional activators or repressors (45). To infer the

possible mode of action of NagR, we analyzed the position of predicted NagR operators relative

to −35 and −10 promoter elements recognized by bacterial RNA polymerase holoenzyme. Ten out

of 11 predicted NagR operators overlapped either with −10 or −35 sequences (**Fig. S1**), suggesting

that NagR was a potential transcriptional repressor. Therefore, based on the genomic

reconstruction, we hypothesized that NagR was a global negative regulator of genomic loci

involved in LNB/GNB, LNT, and LNnT utilization in *B. infantis* ATCC 15697.

**Engineered *nagR* insertional mutant displays comparable yet distinct physiological**

**properties compared to the parental wild-type strain**

To experimentally study the proposed regulatory role of NagR, we generated a *nagR*

knockout mutant of *B. infantis* ATCC 15697 (*nagR*-KO) by insertional mutagenesis and verified

the insertion position using genomic PCR (**Fig. S2A-B**). The *nagR*-KO mutant displayed a growth

rate comparable to the wild-type (WT) strain in the medium supplemented with lactose (MRS-CS-

Lac) but grew significantly slower (linear regression; $P_{adj} < 0.05$) in the medium supplemented

with a mixture of HMOs purified from pooled breastmilk (MRS-CS-HMO) (**Fig. 2**).

Unexpectedly, *nagR*-KO exhibited decreased growth in MRS-CS containing sucrose but not

fructooligosaccharides (FOS) (**Fig. 2**).

HMO consumption profiling of WT and *nagR*-KO strains grown in MRS-CS-HMO

revealed that both strains completely salvaged lactose, LNT, LNnT, 2'- and 3-fucosyllactose (FL),

and difucosyllactose (DFL) present in the HMO mixture (**Fig. S2C**). Notably, the *nagR*-KO mutant

consumed LNT faster compared to WT and displayed significantly delayed consumption (linear

regression; $P_{adj} < 0.05$) of large fucosylated HMOs, namely lacto-*N*-fucopentaoses (LNFP) I/II/III,

and lacto-*N*-difucohexaoses (LNDFH) I/II (**Fig. S2C**). The mutant also expelled less fucose into

the medium (**Fig. S2C**). Organic acid production profiling of supernatants of WT and *nagR*-KO

grown in MRS-CS-HMO showed that both strains released similar quantities of acetic acid;

however, the *nagR*-KO mutant produced significantly more formic and less lactic acid (linear

regression; $P_{adj} < 0.05$) (**Fig. S2D**). These data demonstrated comparable yet distinct physiological

properties of WT and *nagR*-KO strains, prompting a follow-up transcriptome profiling to infer

genes differentially expressed in the mutant.

**Comparative transcriptomics corroborates the role of NagR as a global negative**

**regulator of LNB/GNB, LNT, and LNnT utilization in *B. infantis***

We used RNA-seq to compare transcriptomes of *nagR*-KO and WT strains of *B. infantis*

ATCC 15697 grown in MRS-CS supplemented with lactose or LNnT, yielding four experimental

conditions (**Fig. 3A**). The choice of carbon sources was based on a previous study, where LNnT

had induced many HMO utilization genes, and lactose had been used as a comparator (39).

Principle component analysis (PCA) of TMM-normalized counts revealed that each experimental

condition formed a distinct cluster (**Fig. 3B**). Specifically, PCA separated samples by carbon

source (PC1, 38.8% of the total variance) and strain (PC2, 21.1% of the total variance).

Linear modeling implemented in the *limma* framework (46) revealed significant

upregulation (Fold change (FC) > 2 and $P_{adj} < 0.01$) of multiple *nag*, *lnp*, and H1 cluster genes in

the *nagR*-KO strain grown in MRS-CS-Lac compared to WT grown in MRS-CS-Lac (**Table S2A**

and **Fig. 3C**). Overall, 19 out of 29 genes constituting the predicted NagR regulon were upregulated. These results demonstrated that NagR, in line with the bioinformatic prediction, functioned as a transcriptional repressor of the *nag*, *lnp*, and H1 loci. In addition, we observed: (i) significant upregulation of *malEFG* encoding an ABC transport system for maltose (33) and (ii) significant downregulation (FC < −2 and $P_{adj}$ < 0.01) of *cscA, cscB,* and *cscR* in the *nagR*-KO mutant (**Table S2A** and **Fig. 3C**). The latter genes are involved in sucrose uptake and catabolism (47) and are predicted to be controlled by a local regulator from the LacI family, CscR (42). Notably, downregulation of the *csc* genes was consistent with decreased growth of the *nagR*-KO mutant in the medium supplemented with sucrose (**Fig. 2**). No potential NagR operators were identified in the promoter regions of *malEFG* and *csc* cluster genes, suggesting that the effect of the *nagR* knockout on the expression of these genes was indirect.

RNA-seq of the WT strain revealed that 25 out of 29 genes constituting the predicted NagR regulon were upregulated during growth in MRS-CS-LNnT compared to MRS-CS-Lac (**Table S2B** and **Fig. 3D**). Interestingly, the expression of *nag*, *lnp*, and H1 cluster genes was higher in the WT strain cultured in the presence of LNnT than in the *nagR*-KO mutant cultured in MRS-CS-Lac (**Fig. S3**). These observations point to the presence of additional transcriptional activation mechanism(s) that may contribute to the upregulation of these genomic clusters during the growth of *B. infantis* in the medium containing LNnT. We also observed a significant upregulation of *malK* (**Table S2B** and **Fig. S3**) encoding a shared ATPase component that energizes most carbohydrate-specific ABC transporters in *B. infantis* (42). The upregulation of *malK* was likely tied with the enhanced energetic needs associated with growth in the presence of LNnT, specifically upregulation of genes encoding multiple ABC transport systems (GltFGH*,* GltABC, HmoABC, HmoA2B2C2, HmoA3-A5).

Overall, the obtained transcriptomic data were consistent with our bioinformatic prediction and demonstrated that NagR regulated LNB/GNB, LNT, and LNnT utilization in *B. infantis* by repressing genomic loci encoding (i) transporters of respective glycans, (ii) GlcNAc and LNB/GNB catabolic pathways.

**Interaction of NagR with predicted operators is dependent on GlcNAc and its phosphorylated derivatives**

To test the interaction between NagR and its predicted operator sequences, we cloned the *nagR* gene from *B. infantis* ATCC 15697 and expressed the recombinant protein as a fusion with an N-terminal His-tag in *E. coli* BL21/DE3. Electrophoretic Mobility Shift Assay (EMSA) demonstrated that NagR specifically bound DNA fragments (probes) containing predicted NagR operators located upstream of *nagK*, *nagB*, *gltA*, *hmoA*, *hmoA2*, and *hmoA3* genes (**Fig. 4A-B, Fig. 5**, and **Table S1)**. Titration with increasing concentrations of NagR revealed that probes *nagK*, *nagB_I*, *hmoA*, *hmoA2* had a high affinity for NagR ($EC_{50}$: 13-23 nM), whereas probes *gltA*, *hmoA3* had a moderate one ($EC_{50}$: 140-180 nM) (**Fig. 5**). Reactions with probes *nagB_II* and *hmoA6* did not manifest in robust shifts even at high (> 500 nM) protein concentrations (**Fig. S4A**). These results showed that NagR exhibited different affinities to its various operator sequences. Notably, we also observed a significant negative correlation (Pearson R = −0.84, p < 0.05) between calculated $EC_{50}$ values for probes and expression FCs for respective genes in the RNA-seq experiment (*nagR*-KO vs. WT grown in MRS-CS-Lac) (**Fig. 3C and 4C**), indicating the more tightly NagR bound to an operator, the stronger was the observed upregulation of the respective gene in *nagR*-KO.

To identify potential NagR effector molecules, we used a probe with a high affinity to NagR (*hmoA*) and added various GlcNAc metabolism intermediates (GlcNAc, GlcNAc-6P, GlcN-6P, GlcNAc-1P) to the binding reaction. GlcNAc, GlcNAc-6P, and GlcNAc-1P, but not GlcN-6P disrupted the NagR-DNA complex at saturating (10 mM) concentration (**Fig. 4D**). Titration of the effectors revealed that GlcNAc-6P lost its complex disrupting effect at 1 mM, whereas GlcNAc and GlcNAc-1P lost their effect at 0.1 mM (**Fig. S4B**); the calculated effector $EC_{50}$ values were $0.33 \pm 0.05$ mM for GlcNAc and $0.49 \pm 0.06$ mM for GlcNAc-1P (**Fig. 4E**).

Overall, the EMSA results demonstrated that (i) NagR bound its predicted operator sequences with various affinities and (ii) multiple GlcNAc metabolism intermediates disrupted NagR-DNA interactions *in vitro* and thus served as plausible NagR transcriptional effectors in *B. infantis*.

**NagR regulon was a subject of evolutionary expansion in *Bifidobacteriaceae***

We used the PWM-based approach to identify NagR binding motifs and reconstruct regulons in 25 genomes representing various phylogenetic lineages within the *Bifidobacteriaceae* family to trace the potential evolutionary history of this gene regulatory network. Overall, the size

and composition of the reconstructed NagR regulons markedly varied among the studied genomes
(**Fig. 6A and Table S3**). For instance, early diverged *Bifidobacterium* species isolated from insects
and dairy products possessed concise NagR regulons comprised of a single genomic locus (*nag*)
encoding GlcNAc and predicted *N,N*'-diacetylchitobiose catabolic pathways (see **Supplementary**
**Results**). This observation suggests that in ancestral bifidobacteria, the role of NagR was likely
confined to local regulation of the GlcNAc catabolic pathway.

We observed gradual NagR regulon expansion in multiple *Bifidobacterium* genomes
isolated from mammalian hosts (**Fig. 6A, Table S3**, and **Supplementary Results**). The largest
and most complex NagR regulons were identified in strains isolated from the human neonatal gut,
namely *B. infantis* ATCC 15697 and *B. bifidum* PRL2010. Notably, while in *B. infantis*, the NagR
regulon expanded to include multiple HMO transporters encoded within the H1 cluster (**Fig. 1B**),
in *B. bifidum,* the reconstructed regulon contained genes encoding multiple GHs involved in
extracellular degradation of HMOs and mucin *O*-glycans (see **Supplementary Results**).
Additionally, the NagR regulon expansion was accompanied by minor variations in the NagR-
binding motif (**Fig. 6B** and **Supplementary Results**). Taken together, comparative reconstruction
of the NagR regulons suggests an evolutionary expansion from a local regulation of GlcNAc
catabolism in ancestral bifidobacteria toward a global regulation of various host glycan (e.g.,
HMOs) utilization in bifidobacterial species isolated from the mammalian neonatal gut.

**Discussion**
**Regulation of HMO utilization in *B. infantis***
The predominance of bifidobacteria in the infant gut is linked to their ability to consume
and use HMOs as a carbon source (17–21, 34). *B. infantis* possesses a unique genomic locus (H1)
that encodes multiple catabolic enzymes and components of ABC transporters that endow this
species with the ability to utilize a multitude of HMOs (17, 19, 27). Previous studies demonstrated
that a pooled HMO mixture, as well as individual HMOs (LNT and LNnT), induce expression of
H1 and *nag* cluster genes in *B. infantis* ATCC 15697, suggesting that the H1 cluster acts as an
HMO-inducible unit and is co-regulated with the GlcNAc catabolic pathway (39, 40). However,
the regulatory mechanisms underlying this phenomenon were not elucidated.

In this study, we have established NagR-mediated repression of H1, *lnp*, and *nag* cluster
genes in *B. infantis* ATCC 15697 by combining PWM-based regulon reconstruction with

transcriptome profiling of the *nagR*-KO mutant. The composition of the NagR regulon suggests
that this global TF regulates utilization of LNB/GNB, LNT, LNnT, and potentially other decorated
(e.g., sialylated) type I and II HMOs in *B. infantis*. We have also demonstrated concentration-
dependent binding of recombinant NagR to its predicted operators *in vitro*. The $EC_{50}$ values
inferred from EMSA experiments negatively correlated with fold-change values for upregulated
genes in the *nagR*-KO mutant. Thus, the degree of gene repression by NagR is strongly dependent
on the affinity of this TF to its cognate operator sequences in the promoter regions of corresponding
genes.

We identified GlcNAc and its phosphorylated derivatives, GlcNAc-6P and GlcNAc-1P, as
potential NagR transcriptional effectors in *B. infantis*. This result is somewhat unexpected since
James et al. previously described GlcNAc-6P, but not GlcNAc, as the NagR transcriptional
effector in *B. breve* UCC2003 (44). This discrepancy may reflect a metabolic adaptation to a more
global nature of NagR regulon in *B. infantis*, although, alternatively, it may be due to the
differences in the experimental approach, which in our case was based on the use of purified
recombinant NagR for EMSA experiments versus crude cell lysate as in (44). EMSA data indicated
that the acetyl group of these intermediary metabolites played a crucial role in NagR-effector
interactions, whereas phosphorylation of GlcNAc appeared to be dispensable. While GlcNAc and
GlcNAc-6P have been described as transcriptional effectors of the ROK family TFs (44, 48, 49),
the potential effector role of GlcNAc-1P is novel and unexpected. Although *N*-acetylhexosamine
1-kinase (LnpB) can phosphorylate GlcNAc to GlcNAc-1P (50), no enzymes that convert the latter
to GlcNAc-6P and thus shunt it to the GlcNAc catabolic pathway have been described in
prokaryotes (51). In contrast, GlcNAc-1P can be converted to UDP-GlcNAc by GlcNAc-1P
uridyltransferase (GlmU) and enter the peptidoglycan biosynthesis pathway (52). Therefore,
additional studies are required to assess the biological significance of GlcNAc-1P functioning as
a potential NagR transcriptional effector.

Based on the obtained data, we propose a model (**Fig. 7**) where the release of GlcNAc
during degradation of LNT and LNnT by intracellular GHs results in derepression of *nag*, *lnp*, and
H1 clusters, including genes encoding LNT and LNnT transporters. This model explains the
similarity of transcriptomic responses of *B. infantis* ATCC 15697 during growth in media
supplemented with LNT or LNnT (39, 40) and suggests that utilization of any GlcNAc-containing
glycan by this bacterium will result in upregulation of NagR-controlled genes. Among these

glycans might be particular fucosylated HMOs (e.g., LNFP I) and milk *N*-glycans imported by different ABC transport systems (34, 73). Consistent with this notion, a previous study demonstrated that *B. infantis* upregulates *nag* and H1 cluster genes (53) when utilizing *N*-glycosylated human lactoferrin. Our model, however, does not all explain all transcriptional responses observed during HMO utilization by *B. infantis*. The transcriptomic profile of the WT strain grown in MRS-CS-LNnT suggests that additional mechanisms may co-activate the expression of NagR regulon genes (particularly within the *lnp* cluster) in physiologically inducing conditions.

The structure of the NagR-mediated transcriptional network in *B. infantis* likely reflects the evolutionary adaptation of this bacterium to simultaneous foraging of multiple distinct HMOs and other milk glycans. This notion suggests that using a mixture of LNT and LNnT (and potentially other HMOs) rather than individual oligosaccharides as a prebiotic may be a more efficient solution for selective stimulation of *B. infantis* growth in the neonatal gut since it considers the nuanced regulatory mechanisms and physiology of the target organism.

**Evolution of the NagR regulon in bifidobacteria**

Evolution of *B. infantis* was shaped by its ecological niche, specifically the need to forage dietary milk glycans (e.g., HMOs) abundantly present in the gut of breastfed infants (17). This adaptation led to the emergence of several unique genomic clusters, such as H1, that, as we demonstrated, are transcriptionally controlled by NagR. However, other *Bifidobacterium* species inhabiting the neonatal gut, such as *B. breve* and *B. longum*, do not harbor the H1 cluster (42) and have less complex NagR regulons (42, 44). Thus, to elucidate the evolutionary history of the NagR regulon expansion, we reconstructed it in 25 representative genomes spanning 18 *Bifidobacterium* and one *Alloscardovia* species isolated from various hosts and environments.

The regulon structure in early diverged species (e.g., *B. asteroides* and *B. aquikefiri*) suggests that NagR functioned as a local regulator of a single genomic locus involved GlcNAc and possibly *N*,*N*'-diacetylchitobiose catabolism (**Table 2**). Not surprisingly, the activity of this TF would be modulated by GlcNAc or/and GlcNAc-6P. During colonization of mammalian hosts, bifidobacteria were exposed to various GlcNAc-containing glycans, which resulted in the emergence of genomic loci involved in the metabolism of these carbohydrates. For example, most bifidobacteria isolated from mammals (including humans) harbor the *lnp* cluster encoding the

LNB/GNB utilization pathway. This observation marks the next evolutionary step of NagR-mediated regulation, namely transitioning from a local to a multi-locus (*nag* and *lnp*) controlling TF. An independent alternative regulon expansion scenario presumably occurred in *B. catenulatum* and *B. pseudocatenulatum* lacking *lnp* genes. In these strains, NagR expanded to control the potential LNB/LNT utilization machinery (*gltABC-nagK-hex1-nagB-nagA* and *bga42A* genes) (**Table 2**). Such regulon structure is consistent with a recently published transcriptomic dataset where LNFP I induced the *gltABC-nagK-hex1-nagB-nagA* cluster in *B. pseudocatenulatum* (54). Although LNFP I is imported into the cell by a different ABC transport system (21, 54), the GlcNAc released during the degradation of this oligosaccharide was likely responsible for the derepression of NagR-controlled genes in this species.

Multiple further NagR regulon expansion events occurred in prevalent infant-associated species with the highest HMO utilization potential: *B. infantis* and *B. bifidum*. In *B. infantis*, the regulon included multiple H1 cluster genes predominantly encoding HMO transporters, whereas in *B. bifidum*, it expanded to control extracellular GHs involved in HMO and mucin *O*-glycan degradation. These observations provide a fascinating example of how catabolic machinery corresponding to two distinct (convergent) strategies of HMO utilization (intracellular vs. extracellular) became controlled by the same regulatory system. The structure of the NagR regulon partially explains the upregulation of *nag*, *lnp*, and genes encoding extracellular GHs in *B. bifidum* PRL2010 during growth in a mucin-based medium (18). The predicted NagR operators also coincide with a palindromic motif in promoter regions of these upregulated genes (18).

Regulon expansion has been previously described in various bacterial lineages (55, 56), including bifidobacteria (57, 58); however, the underlying evolutionary rationale of such events was not always clear. Here we propose that the general theme of the NagR regulon evolution in the *Bifidobacterium* genus was an expansion to include genes involved in catabolism of GlcNAc-containing host glycans, given the ability of NagR to sense GlcNAc and/or its phosphorylated derivatives. Interestingly, the evolution of gene regulatory networks governing utilization of GlcNAc-containing glycans in bifidobacteria was not limited to the NagR regulon expansion. Another scenario involved duplication(s) of the *nagR* gene after speciation followed by the functional divergence of emerged paralogs. For example, in *B. breve* UCC2003, while NagR controls LNB/GNB and LNT utilization pathways, its paralogs, NahR and AtsR, repress the gene encoding an LNnT transporter and a genomic locus involved in utilization of GlcNAc-6S (a mucin

*O*-glycan-constituting saccharide released by 6-sulfo-β-*N*-acetylglucosaminidase BbhII),

respectively (44, 59, 60) (**Table 2**). Interestingly, different GlcNAc derivatives serve as effector

molecules of these TFs: GlcNAc for NahR and GlcNAc-6S for AtsR (44, 59). Another NagR

paralog in *B. infantis* 2D9, NglR, potentially controls a genomic locus involved in utilizing

complex *N*-glycans (73) (**Table 2**). Overall, these observations illustrate how bifidobacteria

adapted to regulate the foraging of host glycans during colonization of mammalian hosts and shed

more light on how complex regulatory networks emerge and evolve.

**Methods**

**Reagents and bacterial strains**

Reagents were purchased from Alfa-Aesar (Tewksbury, MA, USA), Ambion (Austin, TX,

USA), Combi-Blocks (San Diego, CA, USA), Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA), and

Invitrogen (Carlsbad, CA, USA) unless indicated otherwise. Synthetic LNnT (>95% purity) was

generously donated by DSM (Heerlen, Netherlands). The HMO mixture was prepared from pooled

human milk (21). The experimental protocol was reviewed and approved by the Ethics Committee

of Kyoto University (R0046); the study was performed per the Declaration of Helsinki, and

informed consent was obtained from all mothers (all subjects). Oligonucleotides were synthesized

by Integrated Genomic Technologies (Coralville, IA, USA). Phusion High-Fidelity DNA

Polymerase, restriction enzymes, and Quick Ligase were purchased from New England BioLabs

(Ipswich, MA, USA).

The type strain of *B. infantis* (ATCC 15697 = JCM 1222) was obtained from Japan

Collection of Microorganisms (RIKEN BioResource Research Center, Tsukuba, Japan).

*Escherichia coli* DH5α and One Shot TOP10 (Invitrogen) were used for genetic manipulations. *E.*

*coli* BL21/DE3 (New England BioLabs) was used for recombinant NagR overexpression.

**Bioinformatic analysis**

A previously established comparative genomic approach was used to identify putative

NagR operator sequences and reconstruct regulons in *B. infantis* ATCC 15697 and other selected

strains (42, 57). For the initial NagR regulon reconstruction, we built a PWM based on data

available in the RegPrecise database (42, 61) using SignalX (62). To improve identification of

NagR operators, we built additional PWMs representing two different NagR-binding motifs

specific for distant bifidobacterial lineages. Constructed PWMs were used to search for new

potential NagR operators using GenomeExplorer (62) with the following parameters: (i) -500 to

+50 bp position relative to the first codon of a gene, (iii) site score threshold of 4.3. Identified sites

were screened using the consistency check and phylogenetic footprinting approaches to filter out

false positives (63). NagR-binding motifs were visualized via WebLogo (64). Positions of the −10

and −35 promoter elements were determined via similar PMW-based searches based on data

available for *B. breve* (65) and *B. longum* (66). Promoter regions were aligned using Pro-Coffee

(67). Details on additional genomic analysis of *Bifidobacterium* strains and phylogenetic inference

are available in Supplementary Methods.

**Targeted *nagR* gene disruption in *B. infantis* ATCC 15697**

A single-crossover recombination event was used to inactivate the *nagR* gene (Blon_0880)

in *B. infantis* ATCC 15697. Briefly, a BamHI-digested, 2.0 kb fragment of pBS423 (68) that carries

the pUC ori and a spectinomycin resistance gene was self-ligated to generate pTK2051, a plasmid

incapable of replicating in bifidobacteria. The internal region of *nagR* was then amplified by PCR

using primers NagR_I/NagR_II (**Table S1**) and genomic DNA as a template. The amplified 0.5

kbp fragment was inserted into the BamHI site of pTK2051 using the In-Fusion Snap Assembly

kit (Takara Bio USA, Mountain View, CA, USA). The resulting suicide plasmid was introduced

into *B. infantis* by electroporation (34). Transformed cells were screened for spectinomycin

resistance, and the clones were subsequently subjected to a genomic PCR analysis at the *nagR*

locus using primers NagR_III/NagR_IV (**Table S1** and **Fig. S2A**). The amplicon was directly

sequenced to ensure that the suicide plasmid was integrated into the intended site.

**Culture conditions**

*B. infantis* was routinely grown in Gifu anaerobic medium (Nissui Pharmaceutical, Tokyo,

Japan) or Lactobacilli MRS Broth w/o Dextrose (MRS-CS; Alpha Biosciences, Baltimore, MD,

USA) with 0.34% (w/v) sodium ascorbate, 0.029% (w/v) L-cysteine-HCl monohydrate

(BeanTown Chemical, Hudson, NH, USA). The MRS-CS medium was supplemented with lactose,

LNnT, or a mixture of neutral HMOs at a final concentration of 1% (w/v). Cultures were incubated

at 37 °C in AnaeroPack system (Mitsubishi Gas Chemical Company, Tokyo, Japan) or an

anaerobic chamber maintained with a gas mix of 10% $H_2$, 10% $CO_2$, and 80% $N_2$ (Coy Laboratory

Products, Grass Lake, MI, USA). Growth was monitored either by measuring culture turbidity in

McFarland units using Densitometer DEN-1B (Grant Instruments, Shepreth, UK) or optical

density at 600 nm ($OD_{600}$) using DU800 Spectrophotometer (Beckman Coulter, Brea, CA, USA).

*E. coli* strains were cultured in Luria-Bertani broth at 37°C with vigorous agitation. Where
appropriate, growth media were supplemented with spectinomycin (15 μg/ml for *B. infantis* ATCC
15697 *nagR*-KO, 75 μg/ml for *E. coli* DH5α) or kanamycin (50-60 μg/ml for all other *E. coli*
strains). Details on measuring HMO consumption and organic acid production are described in
Supplementary Methods.

**Transcriptome analysis (RNA-seq)**

For RNA-seq experiments, *B. infantis* ATCC 15697 WT and *nagR*-KO strains were grown
as described above in MRS-CS (without spectinomycin) supplemented with either 1% lactose or
1% LNnT. Samples (2 ml; biological triplicates) were collected at the early-mid exponential phase
($OD_{600}$=0.35) and immediately pelleted in a prechilled centrifuge at $4,800 \times g$ for 5 min. Cell
pellets were snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at −80 °C until further use. RNA was
extracted as described previously (69) with minor modifications; the detailed protocol can be found
in Supplementary Methods. Ribosomal RNA was depleted with NEBNext rRNA Depletion Kit
for Bacteria (New England Biolabs). Barcoded libraries were made with NEBNext Ultra II
Directional RNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina (New England Biolabs). Libraries were pooled and
sequenced (single-end 75 bp reads) on Illumina NextSeq 500 using High Output V2 Kit (Illumina,
San Diego, CA, USA). Sequencing data were analyzed as described previously (70) with certain
modifications; the detailed pipeline is described in Supplementary Methods.

**Cloning, expression, and purification of recombinant NagR**

Codon-optimized nucleotide sequence of *nagR* (Blon_0880) was synthesized by GeneArt
Gene Synthesis (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA), PCR-amplified using primers
NagR_HisN_F and NagR_HisN_R (**Table S1**), digested by BamHI and SalI, and ligated into a
pre-digested in-house pET-49b(+) vector conferring resistance to kanamycin. The ligation mixture
was introduced into *E. coli* One Shot TOP10 by chemical transformation, and transformants were
then selected based on kanamycin resistance. The recombinant NagR was expressed as fusion with
N-terminal His-tag under control of a T7 promoter in *E. coli* BL21/DE3. Cells were grown in LB
medium (50 mL) at 37 °C to an $OD_{600}$ of ~0.6 and then transferred to 16 °C. Protein expression
was induced by adding 0.2 mM isopropyl-β-D-thiogalactopyranoside. Cells were grown at 16° C
overnight and collected by centrifuging at $4,800 \times g$ for 15 min. Harvested cells were resuspended
in a lysis buffer containing 10 mM HEPES buffer (pH 7.0), 100 mM NaCl, 0.15% Brij-35, and 5
mM β-mercaptoethanol. Cells were lysed by a freeze-thaw cycle, followed by sonication using

Misonix Sonicator 3000 (Misonix Inc, Farmingdale, NY, USA). The cell debris was removed; the

soluble fraction was loaded onto a Ni-NTA agarose mini-column (0.2 mL) (Qiagen, Hilden,

Germany). The column was washed with 10 column volumes of At buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl (pH

8.0), 500 mM NaCl, 20 mM imidazole, 0.3% Brij-35, 5 mM β-mercaptoethanol) and 10 column

volumes of At buffer with 1 M NaCl. Captured proteins were eluted with 0.6 mL of At buffer with

300 mM imidazole. The eluted protein fraction was concentrated and buffer-exchanged into 10

mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0) with 50 mM NaCl using 30 kDa Amicon Ultra 0.5 mL Centrifugal Filters

(MilliporeSigma, Burlington, MA, USA). Protein concentration was determined by Qubit Protein

Assay Kit (Invitrogen).

**Electrophoretic mobility shift assays**

Oligonucleotides containing predicted 21-bp NagR operators and surrounding genomic

regions (14 bp from each end) were synthesized by Integrated DNA Technologies. DNA fragment

sequences, sizes, and labels used for testing are given in **Table S1**. Double-stranded labeled DNA

probes were obtained by annealing IRD700-labelled oligonucleotides with unlabeled

complementary oligonucleotides (ratio 1:5) in 4 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0), 20 mM NaCl, 0.4 mM

EDTA in Mastercycler PRO Thermal Cycler (Eppendorf) overnight. Binding reactions were

carried out with a final volume of 20 µl in binding buffer containing 10 mM Tris–HCl (pH 7.5),

50 mM KCl, 5 mM $MgCl_2$, 2.25 mM DTT, 0.125% Tween 20, and 2.5% glycerol. DNA probes (1

nM) were incubated with increasing concentrations of the purified NagR (0-2000 nM) for 60 min

at room temperature. Reaction mixtures were loaded on a Novex 6% DNA Retardation gel

(Thermo Fisher Scientific) and run in 0.5x Tris-Borate-EDTA buffer (Thermo Fisher Scientific)

at 100 V and room temperature for 45 min in XCell SureLock Mini-Cell Electrophoresis System

(Thermo Fisher Scientific). Gels were visualized using Odyssey CLx (Li-COR Biosciences,

Lincoln, NE, USA). Bands were quantified in Image Studio v5.2 (Li-COR Biosciences). The

resulting data were imported into R and approximated by a 4-parameter logistic (4PL) equation in

the *drc* package (71) to calculate $EC_{50}$ values. In the 4PL model, the lower limit was fixed at 0 and

the upper limit at 1. To identify possible NagR effectors, binding reactions were carried out with

25 nM of NagR and the addition of 0.1-10 mM of GlcNAc or its phosphorylated derivatives

(GlcNAc-6P, GlcN-6P, GlcNAc-1P). $EC_{50}$ values for effectors were calculated using the 4PL

equation with the upper limit fixed at 1.

**Data availability**

The RNA-seq dataset is deposited on Gene Expression Omnibus

(https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/query/acc.cgi?acc=GSE196064). Raw EMSA gel

quantification, growth, HMO consumption, and organic acid production data are available on

GitHub (https://github.com/Arzamasov/NagR_manuscript). Code detailing the data analysis steps

is available via GitHub and in Supplementary Code File 1.

**Abbreviations**

HMOs — human milk oligosaccharides

LNB — lacto-*N*-biose

GNB — galacto-*N*-biose

LNT — lacto-*N*-tetraose

LNnT— lacto-*N*-neotetraose

GlcNAc — *N*-acetylglucosamine

GM — gut microbiota

GH — glycoside hydrolase

ABC — ATP-binding cassette

TF — transcription factor

PWM — position weight matrix

WT — wild-type

PCA — principal component analysis

FC — fold change

EMSA — electrophoretic mobility shift assay

4PL — 4-parameter logistic

**Acknowledgments**

We thank Semen Leyn (SBP) for help with computational analyses; Kazi Ahsan

(Washington University in St. Louis) for guidance in RNA isolation experiments; Kang Liu and

Brian James (SBP Genomics Core) for library preparation and sequencing; Daniel Beiting

(University of Pennsylvania) for the DIY.transcriptomics course; Irina Rodionova (University of

California San Diego) and Oleg Kurnasov (SBP) for guidance in protein expression and

purification experiments; Motomitsu Kitaoka (Niigata University), Junko Hirose (Kyoto Women's

University), Tadasu Urashima (Obihiro University of Agriculture and Veterinary Medicine) for
technical support; RIKEN BRC through the National BioResource Project of the MEXT/AMED,
Japan for providing pBS423, Glycom A/S and DSM for generously providing LNnT.

This work was supported by JSPS KAKENHI (grant 21H02116 to T.K) and NIH (grant
DK30292 to A.L.O).

Conceptualization: A.A.A; data curation: A.A.A; formal analysis: A.A.A, investigation:
A.A.A, A.N., M.S., M.N.O; methodology: A.A.A, A.N., M.S., M.N.O; supervision: T.K., D.A.R,
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& editing: T.K., D.A.R, A.L.O.

A.O. and D.R. are co-founders of Phenobiome Inc., a company pursuing development of
computational tools for predictive phenotype profiling of microbial communities. Employment of
M.S and M.N.O at Kyoto University is supported by Morinaga Milk Industry Co., Ltd. All other
authors declare no conflict of interest.

**Figure legends**

**FIG 1.** Reconstructed NagR regulon in *B. infantis* ATCC 15697. (A) Schematic
representation of LNT, LNnT, and LNB/GNB utilization pathways in *B. infantis* ATCC 15697.
*Step 1*: HMOs and their constituents are transported into the cell by various transport systems. *Step*
*2*: once inside the cell, HMOs are degraded from the non-reducing end by a coordinated action of
exo-acting GHs. Breakdown of glycosidic bonds by specific GHs is indicated in light orange
circles. *Step 3*: released monosaccharides are converted to fructose-6P and enter the bifid shunt.
(B) Genomic loci constituting the reconstructed NagR regulon in *B. infantis* ATCC 15697.
Numbers represent locus tags in the Blon_XXXX format (GenBank accession no. CP001095.1).
(C) NagR-binding motif in *B. infantis* ATCC 15697 based on 11 predicted operator sequences.

**FIG 2.** Growth curves of *B. infantis* ATCC 15697 WT and *nagR*-KO strains in MRS-CS
supplemented with various carbon sources (1% w/v). Growth was monitored by measuring $OD_{600}$
at specific time points. Data points represent the mean of three biological replicates. Error bars
depict 95% confidence intervals for the mean obtained by bootstrapping. Timepoints where the
$OD_{600}$ values for WT and *nagR*-KO strains were significantly different (*, $P_{adj}<0.05$) were
identified using a linear regression. Bonferroni correction was used to adjust for multiple testing.

**FIG 3**. RNA-seq of WT and *nagR*-KO strains grown in MRS-CS supplemented with
lactose and LNnT. (A) Schematic representation of the experimental design. (B) PCA of TMM-
normalized count data. Each data point represents one sample. (C) and (D) Volcano plots depicting
the $\log_2$FC of gene expression versus the $-\log_{10}P_{adj}$. (C) compares *nagR*-KO and WT strains grown
in MRS-CS-Lac, whereas (D) compares the WT strain grown in MRS-CS-LNnT and MRS-CS-
Lac. Criteria for calling differentially expressed genes were the follows: $P_{adj} < 0.01$ and absolute
FC > 2. Genes constituting the predicted NagR and CscR regulons are labeled and colored in
orange and purple, respectively.

**FIG 4.** Interactions of recombinant NagR with predicted operators and screening of NagR
effectors. (A) Predicted NagR operator sequences identified in the promoter regions of listed
genes. Conserved nucleotides are in bold. The full sequences of probes used in EMSA experiments
are given in Table S1. (B) An EMSA gel showing interactions of NagR with DNA probes
containing predicted operators. NagR concentration was 25 nM, and probe concentrations were 1
nM. The *ybdO* probe was used as a control for non-specific binding. (C) Correlation between probe
$EC_{50}$ values determined via EMSA and expression fold-changes of cognate genes in the RNA-seq
experiment (*nagR*-KO vs. WT grown in MRS-CS-Lac). (D) Effect of various GlcNAc metabolism
intermediates (10 mM) on the interaction between NagR (25 nM) and the *hmoA* probe (1 nM). (E)
$EC_{50}$ values of selected NagR effector molecules. The y-axis depicts the ratio $\frac{\%\ shift\ with\ effector}{\%\ shift\ w/o\ effector}$.
Calculated $EC_{50}$ are shown as big circles. 25 nM of NagR and 1 nM of the *hmoA* probe were used.

**FIG 5**. EMSA gels depicting titration of DNA probes (1 nM) containing predicted NagR
operators with recombinant NagR. Gels were quantified, and the results were approximated by the
4PL equation. NagR concentration at which half of the probe is shifted ($EC_{50}$) is shown. Grey
shading depicts 95% confidence intervals. The x-axis is in the Log10 scale.

**FIG 6.** Evolution of the NagR regulon and binding motif within the *Bifidobacteriaceae*
family. (A) NagR regulon composition in 25 *Bifidobacteriaceae* strains mapped on a species tree
built based on the alignment of 247 core genes. Bootstrap values are shown as purple circles. Black
symbols indicate strain isolation sources. Regulon members are colored according to their
function: catabolic enzymes are green, GHs in orange, and transporters in blue. (B) NagR-binding
motifs mapped on a tree of NagR proteins from 25 *Bifidobacteriaceae* strains. Bootstrap values
are shown as purple circles. NagR paralogs in *B. bohemicum* and *B. bifidum* are denoted by
numbers (1 and 2).

**FIG 7**. Model of NagR-mediated regulation of HMO utilization in *B. infantis*. *Step 1*:
GlcNAc-containing milk glycans (e.g., LNT and LNnT) are uptaken into the cell by various ABC
transporters. *Step 2*: once inside the cell, the glycans are degraded by intracellular GHs, and
GlcNAc is released. *Step 3*: released GlcNAc interacts with NagR and disrupts the NagR-operator
complex, leading to derepression of NagR-controlled genes.

**FIG S1.** Multiple sequence alignments of promoter regions of NagR-regulated genes in
*Bifidobacterium* spp. Predicted NagR operators are highlighted in yellow. Predicted promoter
elements (-35 and -10 sequences) and in bold black. Experimentally described transcription start
sites (TSS) in *B. breve* UCC2003 (65) are in bold blue. Predicted Shine-Dalgarno sequences are
in bold red. Coding sequences are highlighted in grey; initiation codons are underlined. Conserved
nucleotides are marked with asterisks.

**FIG S2**. Construction and metabolic profiling of the *B. infantis* ATCC 15697 *nagR*-KO
mutant. (A) Schematic representation of insertional inactivation of *nagR*. The region used for a
single crossover recombination event is in orange. The primers for genomic PCR (green) were
designed to anneal outside the region used for recombination. (B) Results of genomic PCR. The
amplicon sizes were expected to be 679 bp and 3164 bp for WT and *nagR*-KO strains, respectively.
Four clones were analyzed. (C) HMO consumption and (D) organic acid production profiles of *B.*
*infantis* ATCC 15697 WT and *nagR*-KO strains grown in MRS-CS-HMO. Data points represent
the mean of three biological replicates. Error bars depict 95% confidence intervals for the mean.
Timepoints where the metabolite concentrations for WT and *nagR*-KO strains were significantly
different (*, $P_{adj}<0.05$) were identified using a linear regression. Bonferroni correction was used
to adjust for multiple testing.

**FIG S3**. Heatmap depicting the expression of genes from Table S2A-B across four
experimental conditions (WT and *nagR*-KO strains grown in MRS-CS supplemented either with
Lac or LNnT). Genes constituting the predicted NagR regulon are in bold. Genomic clusters from
Fig. 1B are marked by lines.

**FIG S4**. (A) EMSA gels depicting titration of DNA probes (1 nM) containing predicted
NagR operators with recombinant NagR. (B) EMSA gels depicting titration of the NagR-DNA
probe complex with various effector molecules. 25 nM of NagR and 1 nM of the *hmoA* probe were
used in all reactions.

**Table legends**

**TABLE S1**. Oligonucleotides used in this study. IRD oligonucleotides are 5'-labeled with

the IRD700 dye, whereas RC oligonucleotides are unlabeled. Predicted NagR operators are in

bold.

**TABLE S2**. List of differentially expressed genes ($P_{adj} < 0.01$; absolute $log_2FC > 1$)

between selected experimental conditions in the RNA-seq experiment. (A) *nagR*-KO grown in

MRS-CS-Lac vs. WT grown in MRS-CS-Lac. (B) WT grown in MRS-CS-LNnT vs. WT grown

in MRS-CS-Lac.

**TABLE S3**. Reconstructed NagR regulons and predicted NagR operators in 25

*Bifidobacteriaceae* genomes.

**TABLE 1. Composition of the reconstructed NagR regulon in *B. infantis* ATCC 15697**

| Locus tag | Gene | Annotation | Reference |
|---|---|---|---|
| Blon_0879 | *nagK* | Predicted *N*-acetyl-glucosamine kinase, ROK family (EC 2.7.1.59) | - |
| Blon_0880 | *nagR* | Transcriptional regulator of LNB/GNB, LNT, and LNnT utilization, ROK family | This study |
| Blon_0881 | *nagB* | Glucosamine-6-phosphate deaminase (EC 3.5.99.6) | - |
| Blon_0882 | *nagA* | *N*-acetylglucosamine-6-phosphate deacetylase (EC 3.5.1.25) | - |
| Blon_0883 | *gltF* | LNB and GNB ABC transporter, substrate-binding protein | (33) |
| Blon_0884 | *gltG* | LNB and GNB ABC transporter, permease protein 1 | - |
| Blon_0885 | *gltH* | LNB and GNB ABC transporter, permease protein 2 | - |
| Blon_2171 | *lnpD* | UDP-hexose 4-epimerase (EC 5.1.3.2) | (50) |
| Blon_2172 | *lnpC* | UTP-hexose-1-phosphate uridylyltransferase (EC 2.7.7.10) | (50) |
| Blon_2173 | *lnpB* | *N*-acetylhexosamine 1-kinase (EC 2.7.1.162) | (50) |
| Blon_2174 | *lnpA* | 1,3-β-galactosyl-*N*-acetylhexosamine phosphorylase (EC 2.4.1.211) | (72) |
| Blon_2175 | *gltC* | LNT, LNB, and GNB ABC transporter, permease protein 2 | - |
| Blon_2176 | *gltB* | LNT, LNB, and GNB ABC transporter, permease protein 1 | - |
| Blon_2177 | *gltA* | LNT, LNB, and GNB ABC transporter, substrate-binding protein | (33) |
| Blon_2331 | *lacS2* | Lactose permease, GPH translocator family | - |
| Blon_2332 | *lacS* | Lactose permease, GPH translocator family | - |
| Blon_2341 | - | Hypothetical protein | - |
| Blon_2342 | *hmoC2* | Type II HMO ABC transporter, permease protein 2 | - |
| Blon_2343 | *hmoB2* | Type II HMO ABC transporter, permease protein 1 | - |
| Blon_2344 | *hmoA2* | Type II HMO ABC transporter II, substrate-binding protein | (33) |
| Blon_2345 | *hmoC* | Type II HMO ABC transporter, permease protein 2 | - |
| Blon_2346 | *hmoB* | Type II HMO ABC transporter, permease protein 1 | - |
| Blon_2347 | *hmoA* | Type II HMO ABC transporter I, substrate-binding protein | (33) |
| Blon_2348 | *nanH2* | H1 cluster exo-α-2,3/6-sialidase (GH33) | (35) |
| Blon_2349 | *nanA2* | *N*-acetylneuraminate lyase (EC 4.1.3.3) | - |
| Blon_2350 | *hmoA3* | Predicted HMO ABC transporter, substrate-binding protein | (33) |
| Blon_2351 | *hmoA4* | Predicted HMO ABC transporter, substrate-binding protein | (33) |
| Blon_2352 | *hmoA5* | Predicted HMO ABC transporter, substrate-binding protein | (33) |
| Blon_2354 | *hmoA6* | Predicted HMO ABC transporter, substrate-binding protein | (33) |

622     **TABLE 2. Characteristics of NagR orthologs and paralogs from various**

623     *Bifidobacterium* species

| TF | Species | % identity* | Effector | Regulated pathway | Ref. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| NagR | *B. infantis* ATCC 15697 | 100 | GlcNAc, GlcNAc-1P, GlcNAc-6P | LNB/GNB, LNT, and LNnT utilization | This study |
| NagR | *B. breve* UCC2003 | 84 | GlcNAc-6P | LNB/GNB, LNT utilization | (44) |
| NagR | *B. bifidum* PRL2010 | 60/53** | Unknown | LNB/GNB, HMO, and mucin *O*-glycan utilization[#] | This study |
| NagR | *B. pseudocatenulatum* JCM 1200 | 40 | Unknown | LNB and LNT utilization[#] | This study |
| NagR | *B. asteroides* PRL2011 | 40 | Unknown | GlcNAc catabolism[#] | This study |
| NahR | *B. breve* UCC2003 | 45 | GlcNAc | LNnT utilization | (44) |
| AtsR | *B. breve* UCC2003 | 40 | GlcNAc-6S | GlcNAc-6S utilization | (59) |
| NglR | *B. infantis* Bg_2D9 | 40 | Unknown | Complex *N*-glycan utilization[#] | (73) |

624     * Sequence identity with NagR from *B. infantis* ATCC 15697

625     ** Percentages for two NagR copies in *B. bifidum* PRL2010

626     # Prediction based on regulon reconstruction

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**FIG 1**. Reconstructed NagR regulon in *B. infantis* ATCC 15697. (A) Schematic representation of LNT, LNnT, and LNB/GNB utilization pathways in *B. infantis* ATCC 15697. *Step 1*: HMOs and their constituents are transported into the cell by various transport systems. *Step 2*: once inside the cell, HMOs are degraded from the non-reducing end by a coordinated action of exo-acting GHs. Breakdown of glycosidic bonds by specific GHs is indicated in light orange circles. *Step 3*: released monosaccharides are converted to fructose-6P and enter the bifid shunt. (B) Genomic loci constituting the reconstructed NagR regulon in *B. infantis* ATCC 15697. Numbers represent locus tags in the Blon_XXXX format (GenBank accession no. CP001095.1). (C) NagR-binding motif in *B. infantis* ATCC 15697 based on 11 predicted operator sequences.

**FIG 2**. Growth curves of *B. infantis* ATCC 15697 WT and *nagR*-KO strains in MRS-CS supplemented with various carbon sources (1% w/v). Growth was monitored by measuring $OD_{600}$ at specific time points. Data points represent the mean of three biological replicates. Error bars depict 95% confidence intervals for the mean obtained by bootstrapping. Timepoints where the $OD_{600}$ values for WT and *nagR*-KO strains were significantly different (*, Padj<0.05) were identified using a linear regression. Bonferroni correction was used to adjust for multiple testing.

**FIG 3**. RNA-seq of WT and *nagR*-KO strains grown in MRS-CS supplemented with lactose and LNnT. (A) Schematic representation of the experimental design. (B) PCA of TMM-normalized count data. Each data point represents one sample. (C) and (D) Volcano plots depicting the log$_2$FC of gene expression versus the −log$_{10}$Padj. (C) compares *nagR*-KO and WT strains grown in MRS-CS-Lac, whereas (D) compares the WT strain grown in MRS-CS-LNnT and MRS-CS-Lac. Criteria for calling differentially expressed genes were the follows: Padj < 0.01 and absolute FC > 2. Genes constituting the predicted NagR and CscR regulons are labeled and colored in orange and purple, respectively.

**FIG 4**. Interactions of recombinant NagR with predicted operators and screening of NagR effectors. (A) Predicted NagR operator sequences identified in the promoter regions of listed genes. Conserved nucleotides are in bold. The full sequences of probes used in EMSA experiments are given in Table S1. (B) An EMSA gel showing interactions of NagR with DNA probes containing predicted operators. NagR concentration was 25 nM, and probe concentrations were 1 nM. The *ybdO* probe was used as a control for non-specific binding. (C) Correlation between probe $EC_{50}$ values determined via EMSA and expression fold-changes of cognate genes in the RNA-seq experiment (*nagR*-KO vs. WT grown in MRS-CS-Lac). (D) Effect of various GlcNAc metabolism intermediates (10 mM) on the interaction between NagR (25 nM) and the *hmoA* probe (1 nM). (E) $EC_{50}$ values of selected NagR effector molecules. The y-axis depicts the ratio (% shift with effector )/(% shift w/o effector). Calculated $EC_{50}$ are shown as big circles. 25 nM of NagR and 1 nM of the *hmoA* probe were used.

**FIG 5**. EMSA gels depicteing titration of DNA probes (1 nM) containing predicted NagR operators with recombinant NagR. Gels were quantified, and the results were approximated by the 4PL equation. Protein concentration when half of the probe is shifted ($EC_{50}$) is shown. Grey shading depicts the 95% confidence interval. The x-axis is in the Log10 scale.

**FIG 6**. Evolution of the NagR regulon and binding motif within the *Bifidobacteriaceae* family. (A) NagR regulon composition in 25 *Bifidobacteriaceae* strains mapped on a species tree built based on the alignment of 247 core genes. Bootstrap values are shown as purple circles. Black symbols indicate strain isolation sources. Regulon members are colored according to their function: catabolic enzymes are green, GHs in orange, and transporters in blue. (B) NagR-binding motifs mapped on a tree of NagR proteins from 25 *Bifidobacteriaceae* strains. Bootstrap values are shown as purple circles. NagR paralogs in *B. bohemicum* and *B. bifidum* are denoted by numbers (1 and 2).

**FIG 7**. Model of NagR-mediated regulation of HMO utilization in *B. infantis*. *Step 1*: GlcNAc-containing milk glycans (e.g., LNT and LNnT) are uptaken into the cell by various ABC transporters. *Step 2*: once inside the cell, the glycans are degraded by intracellular GHs, and GlcNAc is released. *Step 3*: released GlcNAc interacts with NagR and disrupts the NagR-operator complex, leading to derepression of NagR-controlled genes.