Barcoded overexpression screens in gut Bacteroidales identify genes with new roles in carbon utilization and stress resistance

Yolanda Y. Huang[1*], Morgan N. Price[1], Allison Hung[2], Omree Gal-Oz[1], Davian Ho[3], Héloïse Carion[3], Adam M. Deutschbauer[1,4], Adam P. Arkin[1,3*]

[1]Environmental Genomics and Systems Biology Division, Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, Berkeley, CA 94720, USA
[2]Department of Molecular and Cell Biology, University of California-Berkeley, Berkeley, CA 94720, USA
[3]Department of Bioengineering, University of California-Berkeley, Berkeley, CA 94720, USA
[4]Department of Plant and Microbial Biology, University of California-Berkeley, Berkeley, CA 94720, USA

*Correspondence should be addressed to Y.Y.H. (yolandahuang@lbl.gov) and A.P.A. (aparkin@lbl.gov)

Abstract

A mechanistic understanding of host-microbe interactions in the gut microbiome is hindered by poorly annotated bacterial genomes. While functional genomics can generate large gene-to-phenotype datasets to accelerate functional discovery, their applications to study gut anaerobes have been limited. For instance, most gain-of-function screens of gut-derived genes have been performed in *Escherichia coli* and assayed in a small number of conditions. To address these challenges, we developed Barcoded Overexpression BActerial shotgun library sequencing (Boba-seq). We demonstrate the power of this approach by assaying genes from diverse gut Bacteroidales overexpressed in *Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron*. From hundreds of experiments, we identified new functions and novel phenotypes for 29 genes involved in carbohydrate metabolism or tolerance to antibiotics or bile salts. Highlights include the discovery of a D-glucosamine kinase, a raffinose transporter, and several routes that increase tolerance to bile salts through lipid biosynthesis. This approach can be readily applied to develop screens in other strains and additional phenotypic assay types.

Introduction

The past decade has seen massive sequencing initiatives and -omics studies on the human gut microbiome.[1–4] We now appreciate that there is tremendous complexity in the network of interactions between host and microbes, and among microbes in this ecosystem. Despite their importance for human health, we lack a detailed mechanistic understanding of microbial functions in the gut.[5,6] The vast majority of bacterial genes have not been experimentally characterized, which in combination with their high functional diversity, has led to a knowledge gap in the field.[7,8] Accurately predicting gene functions often requires both a mechanistic understanding of the protein family and supporting phenotypic data, which can be difficult to obtain.

Functional genomic libraries can rapidly connect genotypes to phenotypes. Moreover, DNA barcoding of individual strains allows for parallel analysis of strain fitness in genome-wide libraries through barcode sequencing (BarSeq).[9] In recent years, randomly barcoded transposon sequencing (RB-TnSeq) mutant libraries have enabled high-throughput genetic screens across hundreds of conditions in a cost-effective manner and have accelerated functional assignments of genes in diverse bacteria, including the human gut anaerobe *Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron* (*B. theta*).[10–12] Gain-of-function screens are complementary to loss-of-function screens and have the advantage of capturing genes from bacteria that have yet to be cultivated or genetically modified. However, most libraries expressing gut-derived DNA have relied on *E. coli* as the overexpression strain, which is phylogenetically divergent from members of the abundant gut phyla Bacteroidota (formerly Bacteroidetes) and Bacillota (formerly Firmicutes).[13–18] In particular, promoter recognition of *Bacteroides* genes in *E. coli* can be limiting and *Bacteroides* encode unique ribosomal binding sites (RBSs), which can present barriers for protein expression in *E. coli*.[19–21] Therefore, Bacteroidales serve as more suitable overexpression platforms to study functions in the gut, yet few genetic screens have been performed in them.[22,23]

Another challenge in gain-of-function screens is the reliance on deep sequencing or isolation of individual strains to identify beneficial genes.[13–18,22] This is time-consuming and laborious to perform for hundreds of assays, which has limited these approaches to a small number of conditions. Random DNA barcoding of libraries can drastically increase the scale of overexpression screens. For example, dual barcoding of vectors (Dub-seq) has been used to construct libraries expressed in *E. coli*, but these are currently limited to ~250,000 strains and are restricted to DNA sources with sequence assemblies, which are required for mapping.[24–27]

Here, we exploit advances in long-read sequencing to develop a new workflow termed Boba-seq, or Barcoded Overexpression BActerial shotgun library sequencing, to perform large-scale gain-of-function screens using DNA barcoded vector libraries. We demonstrate this with overexpression in *B. theta*, although this approach is readily applicable to alternative expression strains and is agnostic to the source of DNA being assayed. Bacteroidales are major constituents of the gut microbiota that establish stable, long-term associations with the human host. They play crucial ecological roles in the gut, including metabolism of diverse, host-recalcitrant carbohydrates and modulation of the human immune system.[28]

We constructed Boba-seq libraries from seven Bacteroidales and first validated our method in a
complementation screen. We then assayed a pool of six libraries in competitive fitness assays
and identified genes involved in the metabolism of 15 carbon substrates and tolerance to seven
inhibitory compounds (antibiotics or bile salts). Genes with novel functions or phenotypes
included enzymes, transporters, and regulators. In addition to gene function discovery, our work
enables large-scale gain-of-function screens in a clade of gut bacteria important for human
health.

Results

Overview of workflow to build and assay barcoded overexpression libraries

The Boba-seq workflow utilizes a single DNA barcode per plasmid to increase the throughput of
phenotypic assays. This approach consists of five general steps (Fig. 1). First, we construct
replicative vectors to encode an inducible promoter, an insertion site for DNA of interest, a
terminator, a DNA barcoding site, and an origin of replication for the overexpression host. Empty
vectors are barcoded by cloning in random 20 nucleotide barcodes.[29] In the second step,
randomly sheared and size-selected DNA fragments from the organism(s) of interest are cloned
into the barcoded vectors. Here, fragment sizes can be optimized to capture single genes or
larger gene clusters that might encode the target phenotypes. Next, fragments are linked to
unique barcodes using long-read sequencing. This simplifies the mapping step to a single PCR
amplification step instead of the complex TnSeq-like protocol that was used previously to map
dual-barcoded vectors.[24] In step four, libraries are conjugated into the overexpression strain. In
the final step, libraries are screened across a panel of conditions where the inoculum (Time0)
and samples grown in selective media are harvested for BarSeq. Inserts that lead to increased
strain fitness are identified by calculating fitness scores for each barcode, which represents the
log2 change in the relative abundance of the strain. Fitness scores are then filtered to identify
potential causative genes for the observed fitness gain.

Figure 1. The Boba-seq workflow for high-throughput functional screens. A) Clone DNA barcodes into replicative vectors for the overexpression host. B) Extract DNA, shear, size-select, and clone into barcoded vectors. C) Quantify library diversity using BarSeq. Map barcodes to inserts using long-read sequencing technology and generate a barcode-to-insert mapping table. D) Conjugate mapped libraries into the overexpression strain for fitness screens. Libraries can be pooled to increase the genetic diversity assayed. A range of selective conditions can be used to determine fitness differences across strains, such as carbon utilization and stress tolerance. E) Quantify library composition before and after growth on selective conditions using BarSeq. A fitness score is calculated for each barcode or strain. Significantly high fitness scores in both replicates point to putative beneficial genes in the condition.

Construction of DNA barcoded overexpression libraries from Bacteroidales genomic DNA

We generated and characterized new shuttle vectors for *B. theta* VPI-5482 (see Methods).[30–33] This led to three replicative vectors: pNBU2_repA1, pNBU2_repA2, and pNBU2_repA3 (Fig. 2a,

Extended Data Table 1). Our vectors contain an anhydrotetracycline (aTc) inducible promoter, a
ribosomal binding site (RBS), and a terminator.[33–35] Inducible gene expression by aTc was
verified using NanoLuc reporter protein (Extended Data Fig. 1a). The plasmid copy number for
these vectors in *B. theta* was determined to be around 3, 7, and 8, respectively, using droplet
digital PCR (Extended Data Fig. 1c). Collectively, these vectors are replicative in 10 of the 13
Bacteroidales tested, including *B. theta* (Extended Data Fig. 1d). The vector pNBU2_repA1 was
then barcoded to contain approximately 14 million unique barcodes (see Methods). Insert
lengths of ~3 kb were selected to capture at least one gene on most fragments. In total, seven
libraries were generated using gDNA from *B. theta*, *B. caccae*, *B. fragilis*, *B. salyersiae*, *B.*
uniformis, *Parabacteroides johnsonii*, and *Parabacteroides merdae*, which share a maximum of
92% average nucleotide identity. Phylogenetic relationships between these seven strains are
shown in Fig. 2b. 81% of all protein-coding genes in these genomes have at least one protein
homolog (≥40% a.a. identity, ≥75% coverage), either in the same genome or in another
genome.

Figure 2. Boba-seq libraries were constructed from gDNA of *Bacteroides* and *Parabacteroides*
isolates with high genomic coverage. A) Three replicative vectors were constructed by
modifying an integrative vector (pNBU2-ErmG).[33] B) 24 universal bacterial marker genes from
the Genome Taxonomy Database (GTDB) were used to generate this phylogenetic tree to show
phylogenetic relatedness of the seven isolates used to build Boba-seq libraries.[36] Protein
sequences of marker genes were aligned with HMMer 3.3.1 (hmmer.org) and then a tree was
inferred with FastTree 2.1.11[37] and midpoint rooted. Coverage of the *B. theta* genomic library:
C) fragment coverage per base across the genome (NC_004663.1) plotted in 20 kb windows, D)
histogram of fragment lengths, E) cumulative gene coverage plot, and F) histogram of number
of full-length genes encoded per fragment.

Next, we developed a pipeline to link barcodes to fragments on each vector (Extended Data Fig.
2). We performed PacBio amplicon sequencing the insert-barcode region to obtain 10–24-fold
sequencing depths (Extended Data Table 2). 77–91% of barcodes detected by BarSeq were
mapped, hence only a small fraction of each library is not analyzed. On a per genome basis,
fragments cover 87–98% of protein-coding genes with 76–477 protein-coding genes unmapped
(Extended Data Table 2, Fig. 2c). In all libraries, the missing proteins are generally longer than
mapped proteins (median 1,758 vs. 927 bp) and 5% have a nearly-identical copy (≥95% a.a.
identity) elsewhere in the genome. Overall, 50% of the missing proteins are over 2 kb in length
or are duplicated, which reflects limitations imposed by fragment sizes and difficulties in
mapping highly similar regions. After excluding genes of over 1.5 kb or with duplicates, 31% of
the remaining genes have a homolog in the same or another library that is also missing
(Extended Data Table 3). Conserved missing genes suggest possible toxicity in *E. coli* and
include proteins that are resistant to horizontal gene transfer such as ribosomal subunits,
although the majority cannot be readily explained based on the annotation.[38]

Libraries consist of barcode diversities ranging from 40,911–97,471 and median fragment
lengths of 2.7–3.7 kb (Fig. 2d, Extended Data Fig. 3a, Extended Data Table 2). The majority of
fragments encode 1–2 complete genes and the median fragment coverage per gene is 12–24
(Fig. 2e,f, Extended Data Fig. 3b,c, Extended Data Table 2). Overall, 50,000 fragments of ~3.1
kb are sufficient to cover a bacterial genome of approximately 5–6.5 Mbp with a median
fragment coverage of >10. A sequencing depth of >10✕ with long reads can map a majority of
barcodes. In summary, we constructed seven libraries with high genome-wide coverages.

Complementation assays as a proof-of-concept

To validate our workflow in a phenotypic screen, we complemented *B. theta* ΔBT2158 and
ΔBT3703 with *B. theta, B. fragilis, B. uniformis*, and *P. johnsonii* libraries.[11] BT2158
(BT_RS10925) encodes a periplasmic glycoside 3-dehydrogenase required for disaccharide
and glucosinolate metabolism.[11,39] ΔBT2158 does not grow on trehalose (glucose-α-1,1-
glucose), leucrose (glucose-α-1,5-fructose), or palatinose (glucose-α-1,6-fructose) (Extended
Data Fig. 4). The second mutant lacks the α-glucosidase SusB (BT3703/BT_RS18670) part of
the starch utilization system and has reduced growth on α-cyclodextrin compared to wild-type.[11]
We then inoculated each library in a defined minimal medium (Varel-Bryant or VB) containing a
single carbon substrate in the presence of the inducer aTc (Extended Data Table 4).[40] Among
these four source genomes, three encode BT2158 or a homolog, and three encode BT3703 or a
homolog, which are expected to provide fitness gain in the conditions tested.

We computed fitness scores for each fragment using the log2 fold-change of each barcode's
relative abundance between the selective condition and the Time0. We focus on high positive
scores because Boba-seq is a gain-of-function assay and we established filters to identify
biologically consistent hits. First, fragments with a fitness score ≥5 and a z score ≥4 in both
replicates are considered statistically significant. Using these thresholds, no significant scores
were found in a control comparison of Time0 samples (see Methods). Second, we consider
each hit to be biologically consistent if it is confirmed by overlap or by protein similarity.
Specifically, a hit is biologically consistent if 1) there is an overlapping fragment with significant

high scores or 2) there is a protein homolog (≥40% identity) from a different genomic region
(from within the same library or a different library) with a significant fitness score. Finally, we
inspect the gene(s) covered by these fragments to identify the causative gene. This led to 16
biologically consistent region by condition pairs encoding 15 unique proteins that conferred a
fitness gain in leucrose, palatinose, or α-cyclodextrin (Extended Data Table 5).

For libraries expressed in ΔBT2158, growth in leucrose or palatinose led to the expected hits
encoding BT2158, its nearly-identical paralog BT4448 (BT_RS22435), or a homolog
(BACUNI_RS05440) from *B. uniformis* (Fig. 3a). In trehalose, we observed extremely high
fitness scores (>12) for strains encoding each of these genes, but each strain had high fitness in
just one replicate, so they did not meet our criteria for statistical significance. These strains likely
grew quickly early on in one replicate, but were outcompeted by other fit strains in the second
replicate. To verify our results, we isolated clones encoding either BT2158, BT4448, or
BACUNI_RS05440 and observed improved growth on trehalose (Fig. 3b). Of note, three of six
fragments encode genes oriented opposite to the inducible promoter with <50 bp upstream and
were likely transcribed from a weak, unexpected promoter located downstream of the vector
insert site (Extended Data Table 6, Extended Data Fig. 1b).

Previously, it was observed that the ΔBT2158 mutant cannot grow on these disaccharides,
suggesting that BT2158 is essential for metabolism and BT4448 cannot rescue its activity.[11] In
contrast, our data show that BT4448 can functionally complement ΔBT2158 when expressed
from a vector. BT4448 is likely not expressed to sufficient levels in these conditions to rescue
growth in ΔBT2158 and that overexpression from our vector led to higher activity.

Complemented ΔBT3703 libraries in α-cyclodextrin led to a cysteine desulfidase (CdsB) and a
cysteine β-lyase as beneficial hits (Fig. 3c, Extended Data Table 5). Here, the selection for
cysteine degrading enzymes appears to be stronger than for BT3703 and its homologs since
ΔBT3703 is capable of growth on α-cyclodextrin.[11] Cysteine degradation is likely beneficial due
to toxicity of the 8.25 mM cysteine in the minimal medium (Extended Data Fig. 5).[41,42] This is
also supported by RB-TnSeq data for *B. theta*, where disruption of CdsB
(BT2080/BT_RS10540) led to reduced fitness across all conditions in the same minimal medium
(Fig. 3d).[11] Similarly, cysteine β-lyase mutants of *B. theta* exhibited mild fitness defects in many
conditions.[11] Of note, the rich medium used for *B. theta* RB-TnSeq fitness assays also contains
8.25 mM cysteine, and thus this effect is specific to minimal media conditions (Fig. 3d).[11]
Cysteine is commonly added to Bacteroidales growth media as a reductant, but our result
cautions against its use at a high concentration in minimal media.

In summary, we established a set of stringent filters to identify beneficial hits. In particular,
complementation worked well for conditions with strong selective pressure where the host strain
exhibits little or no growth.

218
Figure 3. Fitness data from complementation assays. BT2158, its homologs, and cysteine
degrading enzymes were enriched in complementation assays. The average fitness score from
both replicates is plotted for each fragment. Fragments that cover the complete gene are
indicated in green. A) BT2158 and BT4448 in *B. theta*, and a homolog (BACUNI_RS05440),
were beneficial for the ΔBT2158 mutant during growth in leucrose and palatinose. B) Growth
curves of ΔBT2158 mutant complemented with either BT2158 or a homologous hit.
Complemented isolates, the Δ*tdk* parental strain, and the Δ*tdk*ΔBT2158 mutant were cultured in
the VB medium with 20 mM trehalose. Strains 1–2 encode BT2158, strains 3–4 encode
BT4448, and strains 5–6 encode BACUNI_RS05440. See Extended Data Table 6 for the
precise genomic boundaries of cloned fragments. Each strain was grown in replicates of 4.
OD600 values are pathlength-corrected and blank-normalized. C) CdsB was enriched in the
ΔBT3703 mutant in α-cyclodextrin. D) RB-TnSeq fitness scores for CdsB
(BT2080/BT_RS10540) are averages across all 37 CdsB transposon mutants in the *B. theta*
library and are log2 fold-changes that were previously reported (x-axis).[11] Scores are highlighted
in red for assays in the VB minimal medium and in black for the BHIS rich medium. The y-axis is
random scatter for visualization.

Fitness profiling of pooled libraries using BarSeq

After establishing a pipeline for fitness data analysis, we sought to map genotypes to
phenotypes in conditions relevant for the gut habitat using wild-type *B. theta* as an expression
host. In total, we performed 222 assays consisting of 42 single carbon sources in a defined
minimal medium and 16 inhibitory compounds at 2–5 concentrations in a rich medium
(Extended Data Table 4). The vast majority of assays were carried out in the presence of the
inducer aTc. Carbon sources included dietary and host-derived complex polysaccharides,
gelatin, mucins, and simple carbohydrates. Inhibitory compounds consisted of antibiotics and

bile salts. Six libraries (excluding the *B. theta* library) were pooled into a single inoculum (or
Time0). Growth was observed in 29 carbon substrates and all stress conditions. 192 samples
were processed for BarSeq and included two replicates per condition and two Time0 samples
per fitness screen.

Of the 305,382 uniquely-mapped barcodes present in the six libraries in the conjugation donor
strain, we detected 283,816 barcodes in our fitness assays (having at least 2 reads across all
assays and controls). Across all libraries, 21,042 protein-coding genes were assayed. We
identified 1,172 barcodes with statistically significant scores using the same criteria as
previously detailed for the complementation screen (Fig. 4a). We identified biologically
consistent fragments for 120 unique regions across 22 compounds. The majority of beneficial
regions were curated to assign a putative causative protein or proteins by inspecting fitness
score vs. fragment coverage plots (Extended Data Fig. 6). Experimental evidence from any
characterized homolog was assessed using PaperBLAST and taken into consideration as
well.[43] Overall, hits across all conditions consist of 76 protein clusters with 30 clusters containing
multiple homologs at ≥40% amino acid identity (Extended Data Table 5).

Figure 4. Competitive fitness assays in wild-type *B. theta* uncovered novel functions in carbon
utilization. A) Consistency of strain fitness values between two replicates across 93 pairs of
experiments with 6 pooled libraries. Grey points represent fitness scores <5. Dashed lines
separate fitness scores of ≥5. Barcodes with fitness scores ≥5 whose regions overlap with other
high-scoring barcodes are highlighted in green. B) D-Glucosamine and GlcNAc share a
metabolic pathway in Bacteroidales. ROK kinase and hexokinase hits from our screen are
displayed based on biochemical evidence. C) A hexokinase conferred a growth advantage on D-
glucosamine when overexpressed in *B. theta*. D) *In vitro* end-point enzyme assays coupled to
NADH depletion were performed for hexokinase to reveal a substrate preference for D-

glucosamine (GlcN), glucose, and mannose. E) *B. theta* expressing RafT is more fit growing on raffinose and FOS as the sole carbon source. F) An AraC regulator provides a fitness gain on heparin. G) A genomic region containing a ssDNA-binding protein (HMPREF1071_RS19060) is beneficial on L-fucose. For all growth curves, individual strains were cloned to identify the causative region and constructs with "+ upstream" indicate the inclusion of the upstream 200 bp. The VB minimal medium was used for each condition except for heparin where a different defined minimal medium (MM)[44] was used (Extended Data Table 4). See Extended Data Table 6 for the genomic boundaries of library fragments verified by growth assays of individual strains.

Consistent with the complementation screen, we detected high fitness scores for CdsB and cysteine β-lyase across 9 conditions containing cysteine (Extended Data Table 5). In addition, 21 carbon substrates were tested using an alternative reductant, dithiothreitol (DTT). While most of these assays led to similar hits, after excluding Cys-degrading enzymes, assays with DTT generally led to more hits compared to assays with cysteine.

We noticed that a large number of strains did not show a benefit even though they encode a curated causative gene or genes (Extended Data Table 5). Specifically, 31% of strains that contain the putative causative gene(s) show a significant benefit (fitness score ≥5 and z ≥4 in ≥1 replicate). This is likely partly due to differences in gene expression caused by variations in fragment boundaries: for strains with the exact same insert sequence where at least one strain has a statistically significant score, 70% have a significant score in at least one replicate. This is much higher than the 31% rate for all strains with causative genes. Our vector's inducible promoter was designed to ameliorate expression issues, but many genes are likely transcribed from their native promoters, which are not always included in fragments. Moreover, most protein-coding genes in Bacteroidales do not use a Shine-Dalgarno sequence for translation initiation, therefore the vector's promoter or RBS could interfere with translation.[21,45]

High-confidence hits uncover metabolic enzymes in carbohydrate utilization

Here, we focus on metabolic enzymes beneficial on single carbon sources. Three substrates led to expected hits based on known functions or annotations (Extended Data Table 5). These include the L-fucose catabolic operon from L-fucose and a β-glucosidase from D-cellobiose and D-salicin (Extended Data Fig. 6).[11,46] We verified that the β-glucosidase confers a growth benefit when expressed in *B. theta* on D-cellobiose and D-salicin (Extended Data Fig. 7a).

Additionally, an α-glucosidase (INE72_RS06280) in the glycosyl hydrolase family 31 was beneficial in palatinose in both the pooled library assays and when overexpressed in individual strains (Extended Data Fig. 6, 7b). Since palatinose contains an α-1,6-glycosidic bond, we annotate this enzyme as an α-1,6-glucosidase.

An ROK family (repressor, open reading frame, kinase) protein and a hexokinase were both important for growth on D-glucosamine. We first show that strains encoding the ROK kinase or the hexokinase have a growth advantage in D-glucosamine (Fig. 4c, Extended Data Fig. 7c). In support of our data, a ROK kinase homolog in *B. theta* (31% identity) can phosphorylate D-glucosamine and N-acetyl- D-glucosamine (GlcNAc) *in vitro*.[47]

In *B. theta*, D-glucosamine and GlcNAc share a metabolic pathway where D-glucosamine can be
acetylated to form GlcNAc (Fig. 4b).[48] GlcNAc is then phosphorylated and deacetylated to form
D-glucosamine-6-phosphate.[49] While two kinases were beneficial for growth on D-glucosamine,
no hits were observed in GlcNAc, which may be a result of lower selective pressure since *B.*
theta grows better on GlcNAc than D-glucosamine in the VB medium. The hexokinase is
important for glucose and mannose metabolism as previously reported using a *B. fragilis*
deletion mutant (AY664812, 79% identity).[50] While our fitness data support D-glucosamine as an
additional substrate, we cannot exclude the possibility of GlcNAc phosphorylation by this
hexokinase since it is an intermediate of the metabolic pathway (Fig. 4b). Therefore, we purified
the hexokinase (INE72_RS21610) to establish its activity in a coupled enzyme assay. The
hexokinase has a strong substrate preference for glucose, mannose, and D-glucosamine, with
little or no activity toward GlcNAc (Fig. 4d). Here, we use both genetics and biochemical
approaches to identify a new D-glucosamine kinase and demonstrate its importance in D-
glucosamine metabolism in Bacteroidales.

TonB-dependent transporters mediate raffinose uptake

The TonB-dependent transporter (TBDT) family can carry out active transport of vitamins,
siderophores, peptides, and glycans across the outer membrane, and are prevalent in the
phylum Bacteroidota, with 121 putative TBDTs in *B. theta* alone.[51] Two TBDTs were uncovered
to be beneficial for growth in raffinose and fructooligosaccharides (FOS) (Extended Data Table
5, Extended Data Fig. 6). To our knowledge, this is the first report of raffinose transporters in
Bacteroidales. Raffinose is a trisaccharide part of the raffinose family of oligosaccharides
(RFOs) that is widespread in dietary plants and abundant in the standard mouse chow used in
microbiome studies.[52,53] A distantly-related TBDT from *B. theta* (BT1763/BT_RS08935, ≤28%
identity) is involved in the uptake of FOS with β-2,6 linkages, but the FOS substrate used in our
study contains predominantly β-2,1-linkages (Extended Data Table 4).[54]

We name these transporters RafT as they share similarity at 49% identity
(HMPREF1077_RS18310, HMPREF1079_RS07310), but have distinct gene neighborhoods. An
α-galactosidase is present downstream of *Pj*-RafT (from *P. johnsonii*) and can likely release
galactose from raffinose.[55] A β-D-fructofuranosidase is genomically adjacent to *Bf*-RafT (from *B.*
fragilis) and can hydrolyze raffinose.[56] Both nearby enzymes are predicted to be periplasmic,
which supports a direct uptake of raffinose by the RafTs. This is also supported by RB-TnSeq
data for a RafT homolog in *Phocaeicola vulgatus* (HMPREF1058_RS00615, >47% identity) that
is important for raffinose utilization (unpublished data). In addition to raffinose, *Bf*-RafT was also
a hit in FOS and in the complementation screen for leucrose. Leucrose, raffinose, and FOS all
contain D-fructose as a terminal residue, which might mediate substrate recognition by *Bf*-RafT.
We confirmed that *Bf*-RafT is beneficial for *B. theta* grown on raffinose and FOS (Fig. 4e).
Collectively, the combination of data from Boba-seq libraries, RB-TnSeq libraries, gene
neighborhoods, and growth experiments, support raffinose uptake as a function of these
TBDTs.

A regulator confers fitness in growth on heparin

In addition to genes involved in metabolic and transport pathways, our results point to regulatory mechanisms as well. An AraC family transcriptional regulator (HMPREF1079_RS07695) conferred a fitness benefit on heparin in both pooled fitness assays and individual strain growth assays (Fig. 4f, Extended Data Fig. 6). This protein has been associated with resistance to DNA damaging agents, but a role in heparin utilization or more broadly, carbohydrate metabolism, had not been reported.[57,58]

A mobile genetic element contributes to competitive growth on L-fucose

L-Fucose is a key nutrient for Bacteroidales in the gut with sources including dietary polysaccharides and host glycoproteins such as mucins. In addition to being a carbon source, L-fucose is a component of bacterial capsular polysaccharides and fucosylated glycoproteins.[59] During nutrient-limiting conditions, *B. theta* can induce fucosylation of host glycans to increase nutrient availability for resident microbes, thus altering gut microbiota composition.[60,61] Given the importance of this molecule for host-microbe interactions, we sought to identify genes that provide a competitive growth advantage on L-fucose.

Here, L-fucose catabolic genes were beneficial across all L-fucose conditions (Extended Data Table 5). Unexpectedly, a genomic region encoding a ssDNA-binding protein (SSB) was also detected among all L-fucose conditions (Extended Data Fig. 8a). Additionally, there are three hypothetical proteins upstream of *ssb* in this conserved region, which is part of a ~50 kb putative mobile genetic element (MGE) present in Bacteroidales (Extended Data Fig. 8b). In support of this, a conserved recombinase and resolvase are encoded nearby. First, we verified our fitness data using three high-scoring fragments and observed growth benefits on L-fucose (Fig. 4g). Then, by using truncated fragments, *ssb* and the upstream intergenic region appears sufficient for a partial fitness gain (Fig. 4g).

SSB proteins play important roles in DNA replication, recombination, and repair, and have multiple protein binding partners.[62] Additionally, they are present on plasmids and play anti-defense roles by inhibiting SOS response and by protecting transferred ssDNA from nuclease-catalyzed degradation.[63] Based on known functions of SSB, we could not readily propose a mechanism to account for the observed growth advantage on L-fucose. We also cannot exclude the possibility that the upstream intergenic region might contribute to the phenotype. Therefore, in an attempt to gain molecular insights, we performed an RNA-seq experiment using the most fit strain encoding a library fragment and a strain with an empty vector (Extended Data Fig. 8c, Extended Data Table 7, *p*-value <0.05, Wald test). Transcripts for L-fucose catabolic genes are not differentially abundant between these two strains, which rules out a direct regulatory mechanism by which this region is conferring a benefit.

A partial restriction endonuclease subunit S (BT4522/BT_RS22805) was strongly upregulated in the strain expressing the *ssb* fragment (log2 fold-change or log2FC of 5.5). This is caused by phase-variation in the Type I restriction modification system and is likely catalyzed by the adjacent recombinase. Based on transcript read alignments, the partial S subunit gene recombined with an upstream S subunit gene such that it became expressed as part of the new

S subunit (Extended Data Fig. 8d). We also observed expression differences in capsular
polysaccharide (CPS) biosynthesis, with the CPS3 locus upregulated (average log2FC of 1.46)
and the CPS5 locus repressed (average log2FC of -4.6). Both CPS loci are regulated by
invertible promoters in addition to the upxY transcriptional anti-terminator and upxZ *trans* locus
inhibitor system.[64] Consistent with its known role, we speculate that the SSB affects
recombination events and altered phase-variation at these loci. However, we cannot pinpoint a
direct mechanism by which these transcriptional changes might impart a benefit on L-fucose.
Despite this, we uncovered a novel link between this conserved region within a MGE and a
growth advantage on L-fucose.

Multiple strategies confer resistance to antibiotics

396 The gut microbiota is under dynamic selection pressure from host-secreted factors, dietary
397 compounds, and xenobiotics. Therefore, we examined genes important for fitness in the
398 presence of different classes of antibiotics, bile salts, and an antioxidant (Extended Data Table
399 4). Seven inhibitory compounds led to significant hits with greater fitness gains typically in the
400 highest concentrations (Extended Data Table 5).

401
Figure 5. Selected gene hits that conferred benefit on antibiotics and bile salts. Fragments
encoding these gene hits with significant high fitness scores from all Boba-seq libraries are
displayed as fitness values. Replicates are plotted separately for each compound at either one
or two concentrations. For compounds with hits at two concentrations, the lower concentration is
plotted above the higher concentration. See Extended Data Table 5 for assay conditions, locus
tags, and proposed mechanism of tolerance. Causative gene(s) across multiple libraries are
plotted within their respective protein clusters.

First, we identified three known genes (*cepA*, *bexA*, *folA*) important for antibiotic resistance
through antibiotic inactivation, drug efflux, or increased target expression (Fig. 5). Additionally, a
pentapeptide repeat-containing protein hit on ciprofloxacin is similar to a quinolone-resistance
protein (~30% identity, EF0905) that inhibits quinolone binding to DNA gyrase and
topoisomerase.[65]

Our data also associated five genes involved in the biosynthesis of branched-chain or
unsaturated lipids with ceftriaxone tolerance, a third-generation cephalosporin in clinical use
(Fig. 5, Extended Data Fig. 6). Collectively, a branched-chain amino acid aminotransferase
(BCAT) and a 2-ketoisovalerate oxidoreductase (VOR) catalyze the conversion of branched-
chain amino acids to α-ketocarboxylic acids, which are oxidatively decarboxylated to form
branched-chain acyl-CoAs. These can then be converted to acyl-ACPs and undergo elongation.
In support of this, the BCAT homolog in *B. fragilis* (BF9343_3671, ~88% identity) is involved in
the biosynthesis of branched-chain α-galactosylceramides, a type of immunomodulatory
sphingolipids.[66] We identified an acyl-CoA synthetase and a long-chain fatty acid-CoA ligase
(FadD) in this condition as well (Extended Data Fig. 6, Fig. 6a). Specifically, biochemical
characterization of a homolog of the acyl-CoA synthetase (Q8TLW1, ~58% identity) revealed
activity as a 2-methylbutyryl-CoA synthetase.[67] Finally, a beneficial nitronate monooxygenase
flavoprotein was identified to be FabX as it is similar to HP0773 (~40% identity) from
Helicobacter pylori.[68,69] FabX is essential for unsaturated fatty acyl biosynthesis and requires
molecular oxygen as the electron acceptor *in vitro*.[68,69] However, a homolog in *Neisseria*
gonorrhoeae (NGO1024, ~36% identity) is essential for anaerobic unsaturated fatty acyl
biosynthesis and relies on an unknown electron acceptor.[70] We cloned out BCAT, VOR, and
FabX and confirmed they are beneficial in individual growth assays (Fig. 6b, Extended Data Fig.
7d). Our results indicate that upregulating steps in branched-chain or unsaturated fatty acyl
biosynthesis increases tolerance to ceftriaxone. Changes in the outer membrane lipid
composition, including sphingolipids, is a potential strategy to reduce antibiotic concentrations in
the periplasm where β-lactams act. However, the precise mechanism by which this is achieved
warrants further work to decipher.

Figure 6. Genes involved in lipid biosynthesis, membrane protein translocation, and capsular
polysaccharide biosynthesis increase tolerance to ceftriaxone, taurocholate, or cholate.
Fragment plots for A) *fadD* (HMPREF1079_RS19625) in 0.5 mM ceftriaxone, C)
phosphoethanolamine biosynthesis genes (HMPREF1079_RS14395, HMPREF1079_RS14390)
in 10 mM taurocholate, and E) *yajC* (BACUNI_RS18600) in 10 mM taurocholate. Growth curves
of individual hits expressed in *B. theta*: B) 2-ketoisovalerate oxidoreductase
(HMPREF1077_RS19335, _RS17900, _RS17905, _RS17910) and *fabX*
(HMPREF1077_RS10180) in 1 mM ceftriaxone; D, F) a gene cluster for alternative lipid
biosynthesis (HMPREF1077_RS03620 to HMPREF1077_RS03635) in 5 mM cholate or 5 mM
taurocholate; and D) a NDP-sugar epimerase *capD* (BACUNI_RS12910) in 5 mM taurocholate.
All inserts include 200 bp upstream of the gene(s).

Genes in lipid and surface polysaccharide biosynthesis contribute to bile salt tolerance

Bile salts are host-secreted factors that have antibacterial activities and can modulate host
signaling pathways to drive dynamic changes in the gut microbiome. These molecules act as
detergents to disrupt and destabilize membrane integrity. In the colon, bacteria may encounter
bile salts up to 1 mM and encode various strategies to counter their toxicity.[71] Here, we sought
to identify factors that reduce susceptibility to bile stress in these microbes and thus may be
important for colonization and competition in the human gut.

In both taurocholate and cholate, two beneficial loci are involved in lipid biosynthesis (Fig. 5).
First, a two-gene cluster encoding phosphatidylserine synthase (Pss) and phosphatidylserine
decarboxylase (Psd) catalyze the formation of phosphatidylserine and
phosphatidylethanolamine (Fig. 6c, Extended Data Fig. 6). These genes are essential and
cannot be studied using loss-of-function approaches, highlighting an advantage of using Boba-
seq. Second, a conserved cluster of four genes (adenylyltransferase/cytidyltransferase, short-
chain alcohol dehydrogenase/reductase, CDP-alcohol phosphatidyltransferase,
lysophospholipid acyltransferase) is absent in *B. theta* and likely involved in the biosynthesis of
an alternative lipid (Extended Data Fig. 6). This operon was enriched from the two
Parabacteroides libraries and is prevalent among *Parabacteroides*, but not *Bacteroides*. We
further confirmed its benefit for growth in taurocholate and cholate (Fig. 6d,f).

On the bile salt taurocholate, overexpression of RIP metallopeptidase RseP led to high fitness
(Fig. 5). This is likely mediated through sigmaE factor activation by RseP in response to
extracytoplasmic stress to induce transcriptional changes in cell surface proteins.[72] Additional
hits on taurocholate include the preprotein translocase subunit YajC and a NDP-sugar
epimerase CapD (Fig. 5, 6e, Extended Data Fig. 6). YajC is a small inner membrane protein
part of the translocase protein complex with SecDF, but it is not essential and its role is not well
understood.[73] In support of a role in responding to bile salts, protein levels of YajC in
Campylobacter jejuni were elevated during exposure to chenodeoxycholate, a bile salt.[74] NDP-
sugar epimerase is often part of CPS loci in *B. theta*.[75] The *cps1* locus in *B. theta* was induced
in a rich medium by taurocholate but not by cholate[76] and encodes a NDP-sugar epimerase
(BT0381, >60% identity) similar to hits in our screen. Here, we further demonstrate that
overexpressing the epimerase alone in *B. theta* is sufficient to increase tolerance to bile stress
(Fig. 6d). Overall, both hits are supported by published gene expression data and might induce
changes in membrane proteins or surface polysaccharides as a strategy to alleviate
taurocholate toxicity.

In summary, our results connect genes involved in lipid biosynthesis, a regulatory pathway,
membrane protein translocation, and surface polysaccharide biosynthesis to bile salt tolerance.
While a few hits have supporting gene expression data from other studies, most genes are
newly associated with this phenotype. Additionally, most studies quantify differentially abundant
transcripts or proteins to uncover pathways involved in response to bile stress.[74,76,77] Here, we
leveraged high-throughput genetics to directly demonstrate that additional gene copies or the
gain of a new gene cluster is sufficient to confer protection against bile salts.

Discussion

Boba-seq is a new platform for constructing barcoded overexpression libraries for scalable and
quantitative phenotypic screens. Here, we generated seven libraries using genomic DNA from
Bacteroides and *Parabacteroides* species, an important clade of human gut bacteria. First, we
validated our method in a complementation screen. Next, using wild-type *B. theta* as the
expression host, we identified novel phenotypes in carbon utilization and stress tolerance
across 120 unique regions and 22 compounds (Extended Data Table 5). By assaying DNA from

multiple bacteria, we identified 30 hits supported by multiple protein homologs, which provided
further confidence in our results.

Overall, we improved annotations and/or obtained new phenotypes for 29 protein clusters. In
particular, we identified an outer membrane transporter for the uptake of raffinose, a plant-
derived carbohydrate that is non-digestible by humans. This marks the first report of raffinose
transporters in Bacteroidales. Using biochemistry and genetics, we identified a hexokinase
critical for D-glucosamine metabolism. A region encoding a ssDNA-binding protein within a MGE
led to a genomic recombination event and to a growth advantage on L-fucose, a key nutrient in
the gut, although the exact mechanism remains unclear. Furthermore, we discovered genes that
enhance tolerance toward antibiotics and bile salts, prevalent stressors encountered in the gut.
Among these, genes involved in lipid biosynthesis, including a gene cluster absent in *B. theta*,
increased tolerance to a cephalosporin and to bile salts. An epimerase that may alter surface
polysaccharides was also beneficial in bile salts.

The selection of a physiologically related genetic background is critical for phenotypic assays.
For instance, the kinase hits likely would not have been identified in an *E. coli* overexpression
strain. *E. coli* uses the phosphotransferase system for D-glucosamine uptake where the
substrate is phosphorylated during uptake, thus rendering the kinase activities redundant.[78]

We demonstrate the benefit of combining overexpression data with loss-of-function data to
strengthen gene-to-phenotype mappings. 10 protein clusters have RB-TnSeq fitness data that
are consistent with our Boba-seq data (Extended Data Table 5).[10,11] The scalability of both loss-
of-function and gain-of-function libraries using barcoding techniques for Bacteroidales is an
exciting development. By constructing RB-TnSeq and Boba-seq libraries for a large number of
isolates and screening across identical conditions, we can rapidly generate specific functional
hypotheses for novel genes.

A few variables can be adjusted in our workflow. Current libraries have fragment lengths of ~3
kb and may not capture pathways with several proteins, therefore insert size can be increased
to cover larger gene clusters. Additionally, the nature of competitive growth assays can lead to
"jackpot" effects where the most fit strains outcompete other strains with a beneficial fragment
and reduce the number of hits. This effect can be reduced by increasing the number of
replicates, as BarSeq only costs a few dollars per sample, or by growing libraries on agar plates
or in microfluidic droplets to spatially separate strains and prevent competition.[79,80]

Boba-seq can be readily scaled to a larger number of libraries and assays. Our empty vector
library has ~14 million barcodes and although we multiplexed six libraries with ~300,000 total
strains, this can be increased. Libraries can be built using DNA from complex samples to
access greater genetic diversity and uncultivated taxa. Moreover, our vectors replicate in at
least nine additional Bacteroidales besides *B. theta*, which expands the diversity of functions
that can be screened. Additionally, loss-of-function mutant strains can be used for high-
throughput complementation screens. Finally, Boba-seq libraries can be tested in additional
assay formats, including host colonization, phage infections, suppressors of toxic genes, and
adhesion.[12,25,26,53,81,82]

Online Methods

Strains and cultivation conditions

Strains, plasmids, and primers used in this study are listed in Extended Data Table 1. *E. coli*
strains were routinely cultured in Luria-Bertani Lennox (LB) with the appropriate selection using
50 µg/mL carbenicillin (Carb50) or 50 µg/mL kanamycin (Kan50) at 37 °C with shaking at 200
rpm. *E. coli* WM3064 was grown with 300 µM diaminopimelic acid (DAP) supplement. Species
within the order Bacteroidales were grown at 37 °C in an anaerobic chamber (Coy) maintained
with a gas mix of 10% H_2, 5% CO_2, 85% N_2. Media recipes and commercial sources of
substrates are provided in Extended Data Table 4. Routine culturing was carried out in
supplemented Brain Heart Infusion (BHIS) where BD Bacto Brain Heart Infusion was freshly
supplemented with 0.5 mg/L hemin and 2.5 µL/L vitamin K_1. The Varel-Bryant (VB) defined
minimal medium was used for the majority of complementation and fitness assays as well as
validation growth curves.[40] B12 vitamin was excluded and instead, methionine was used in our
medium. Cysteine was substituted with dithiothreitol (DTT) as the reducing agent for certain
carbon conditions. An exception to this was the heparin validation growth curves, which were
obtained in another defined minimal medium (MM).[44] Media were made anaerobic by pre-
reducing in the anaerobic chamber at least one day prior to use. Conjugation mixes were
selected on 200 µg/mL gentamicin (Gm200) and 5 µg/mL erythromycin (Erm5) to obtain the
correct mutant.

Construction of replicative vectors for *B. theta*

The pNBU2_erm-TetR-P1T_DP-GH023 integrative vector was modified to generate replicative
vectors. This vector contains a previously reported anhydrotetracycline (aTc) inducible promoter
and RBS (P1T_DP-GH023).[33] A PmlI restriction site, the synthetic terminator L3S2P21, and
BsmBI sites used for barcoding were inserted downstream of the inducible promoter-RBS
cassette.[29,34,35] First, a BsmBI restriction site was removed from the pNBU2_erm-TetR-P1T_DP-
GH023 vector using site-directed mutagenesis. The pNBU2 vector with no BsmBI site was
linearized by PCR to exclude the attachment sites. Fragments containing replicative machinery
and origin of replication from pTIO-1, pKSH24, and pFD340 were PCR amplified and purified
using GFX DNA and Gel Band Purification kit.[31,32,83] The third gene block consisted of an
insertion site, a terminator, and a barcoding site.[10,34,35] Three-part Gibson Assembly reactions
were performed to generate pNBU2_repA1, pNBU2_repA2, and pNBU2_repA3 containing
portions from pTIO-1, pKSH24, and pFD340, respectively. Gibson reactions were carried out
according to manufacturer's recommendations (NEB, Gibson Assembly master mix). This was
transformed into electrocompetent *E. coli* EC100D *pir*+ and plated onto LB-Carb50 to obtain the
correct construct. All vectors were confirmed by Sanger sequencing.

Detection of inducible expression using Luciferase assays

To quantify gene expression on the three pNBU2_repA vectors, luciferase assays were
performed as previously reported, using Promega's Nano-Glo Luciferase Assay System Kit.[33]
Briefly, the NanoLuc gene was inserted downstream of the aTc-inducible promoter via Gibson
assembly. Sequence-verified vectors were conjugated into *B. theta*. These *B. theta* strains were

inoculated into BHIS-Erm5 and grown anaerobically at 37 °C for 16–18 h. Starter cultures were
subcultured into BHIS-Erm5 and varying concentrations of aTc at a 1:100 dilution to mid-
exponential phase (OD of 0.4-0.6, 3–5 hours). 500 µL of each culture were then pelleted by
centrifugation at 5,000 × g, and cells were lysed with 50 µL of 1× BugBuster Protein Extraction
Reagent (Sigma). Lysates clarified at 21,130 × g for 5 minutes, and 10 µL of the supernatant
was mixed with an equal volume of the NanoLuc reaction buffer containing the NanoLuc
substrate. Luminescence was immediately measured using a BioTek Synergy H1 microplate
reader (Agilent), and normalized to OD600 (optical density at 600 nm) of the culture at time of
lysis.

Determination of plasmid copy number using droplet digital PCR

Droplet digital PCR (ddPCR) was performed following a previously reported procedure to
estimate the plasmid copy number of the pNBU2_repA vectors in *B. theta*.[84] Briefly, *B. theta*
containing each vector was grown in BHIS-Erm5 for 16–18 h at 37 °C, followed by a 1:100
dilution and subculture to mid-exponential phase (OD of 0.7–0.9, 3–5 h). 500 µL of each culture
were then harvested for DNA extraction using Qiagen's DNeasy blood & tissue kit, after which 1
µg of DNA was digested using NdeI (NEB). ddPCR was performed using approximately 0.01,
0.1, or 1 ng of the digested DNA as template for each 40 µL reaction. PCR was performed using
the Evagreen supermix and primers p-AH204-p-AH207 (Extended Data Table 1), following
BioRad's protocols for multiplexing with Evagreen and using an annealing temperature of 60 °C.
Samples were analyzed using Bio-Rad's QX200 droplet digital PCR system. The resulting data
points were manually gated, and reported concentrations for each amplicon were used in
determining the plasmid copy number.

Barcoding of the pNBU2_repA1 vector

Barcodes were amplified from synthesized DNA using Phusion polymerase (NEB) at an
annealing temperature of 58 °C, elongation time of 60 s, and 6 cycles.[9] pNBU2_repA1 vector
was barcoded with random 20 nucleotides using Golden Gate Assembly. Each 20 µL reaction
consisted of 1 µg of plasmid, 35 ng of barcode amplicons, 2 µL of T4 DNA ligase buffer, 1 µL of
T4 DNA ligase (NEB), and 1 µL of BsmBI/Esp3I enzyme (Thermo). This resulted in a 2:1 molar
ratio of insert to vector. Six reactions were incubated at 37 °C for 5 min and 16 °C for 10 min,
which were repeated 10 cycles, followed by 37 °C for 30 min. All reactions were pooled, cleaned
across two columns from the DNA clean and concentrator kit (Zymo), and eluted twice with 10
µL H$_2$O. Uncut vectors were removed with additional incubations with BsmBI/Esp3I in 25 µL
reactions according to the manufacturer's protocol. Reactions were incubated at 37 °C for 2 h,
after which 1 µL of BsmBI/Esp3I was added for incubation at 37 °C for 16 h. Each reaction was
cleaned using DNA clean and concentrator kit (Zymo) and eluted twice with 8 µL H$_2$O. 7 µL of
cleaned reaction was transformed into 50 µL of electrocompetent *E. coli* WM3064 for a total of 4
transformations. All aliquots were recovered in 7 mL S.O.C. medium with 300 µM DAP for 1.5 h.
An aliquot was removed for CFU counting and confirmed high transformation efficiency of 10$^{6-7}$
CFUs per mL. Recovered cells were inoculated into 1 L of LB (50 µg/mL Carb, 300 µM DAP) for
selection. Each vector library was purified for BarSeq to determine barcode diversity.

Construction and quantification of barcoded genomic libraries

gDNA was purified from Bacteroidales using a DNeasy UltraClean Microbial Kit or DNeasy
Blood & Tissue Kit (Qiagen). Up to 2 µg in 200 µL TE buffer was sheared by ultrasonication to
an average of 3–5 kb with a Covaris S220 focused ultrasonicator using red miniTUBEs.
Sheared gDNA was then gel-purified and size-selected by cutting out the 3–6 kb range. 4 µg of
barcoded pNBU2_repA1 was digested in 50 µL reactions with 4.5 µL of PmlI. This was
incubated at 37 °C for 30 minutes. Linearized vectors were dephosphorylated with 1 µL of rSAP
(NEB) at 37 °C for 10 min and then deactivated at 65 °C for 5 min. Digested vectors were gel-
purified using the Monarch DNA Gel extraction kit.

The *B. theta* library was constructed using blunt-end ligation, however vector rearrangement
issues were observed by Sanger sequencing of individual *E. coli* clones. Cloning steps taken
are similar to the previously reported Dub-seq library.[24] Briefly, sheared and size-selected gDNA
from *B. theta* was end-repaired using End-IT DNA End-Repair kit (Lucigen) in a 50 µL reaction
consisting of 2 µL End-It Enz mix, 5 µL dNTP mix, 5 µL 10 mM ATP, 5 µL buffer, and 4 µg
gDNA. This was incubated at room temperature for 45 min and deactivated at 70 °C for 20 min.
This was gel-purified and size-selected for 3–6 kb fragments. The end-repaired, sheared DNA
fragments were then ligated to linearized and dephosphorylated barcoded vectors. A 20 µL
ligation reaction was performed with 10 µL Blunt/TA ligase master mix (NEB), 100 ng of vector
backbone, and 4-fold molar excess of end-repaired DNA fragments, and incubated at room
temperature for 20 min. Reaction was purified using Monarch PCR & DNA cleanup kit and
eluted twice with 10 µL H_2O. 20 ng of cleaned ligation reaction was transformed into 50 µL
aliquots of commercial *E.coli* EC100D that was diluted 4-fold with 10% glycerol. A total of 8
transformations were performed and each recovered in 1 mL of S.O.C. medium at 37 °C for 1.5
h with shaking at 200 rpm. An aliquot was removed for CFU counting to estimate library
diversity. Recovered cultures were combined and inoculated into 500 mL of LB-Carb50 for
selection. The final library was purified for BarSeq to obtain an estimated diversity. The initial *B.*
theta library consists of ~440,000 barcodes and was diluted to obtain the final library with
~70,000 barcodes.

An alternative strategy was applied to the remaining six libraries, which did not lead to any
observable vector rearrangement. They were constructed by cloning DNA fragments into the
pCR™Blunt II-TOPO™ vector using Zero Blunt™ TOPO™ PCR Cloning Kit (Invitrogen),
followed by PCR amplification of the inserts and Gibson assembly into barcoded pNBU2_repA1.
In this protocol, sheared gDNA is first end-repaired in 20 µL reactions using Quick CIP (NEB)
and following the manufacturer's protocol. End-repaired inserts are column-purified. Ligations
were carried out in 6 µL TOPO reactions that contained 0.5 or 1 µL of pCR II-Blunt-TOPO
vector, 1 µL of salt solution, and 20 ng of end-repaired inserts. Reactions were incubated at
room temperature for 30 min and cleaned using SPRI beads (Beckman Coulter). Briefly, 0.9
equivalent volume of bead solution was mixed with each TOPO reaction and incubated for 15
min. Beads were washed three times with 80% EtOH and allowed to dry briefly. DNA was eluted
with 5 µL of H_2O heated to 50 °C and transformed into 50 µL of electrocompetent 3-fold diluted
E. coli EPI300 (Lucigen). An aliquot was taken out for CFU counting on LB-Kan50. Recovered
cultures were stored as glycerol stocks at −80 °C. Multiple TOPO reactions and transformations

were carried out until an estimate of ~40,000 to 100,000 CFUs was obtained for each library.
Glycerol stocks of recovered cells from the same library were combined and inoculated into 200
mL of LB-Kan50 for selection. Inserts were PCR amplified from 150 ng of purified TOPO vectors
using Q5 polymerase with an annealing temperature of 67 °C, 2 minute extension, and 8 cycles.
Template vectors were digested using DpnI and the 3–6 kb size range was gel-purified. Insert
amplicons were ligated into barcoded pNBU2_repA1 in 20 µL of Gibson reactions using the
manufacturer's protocol. 20 ng of cleaned reaction was transformed into 50 µL of 4-fold diluted
electrocompetent *E. coli* EC100D. Cells were recovered and stored as glycerol stocks before
selection. Aliquots of the recovered cells were plated onto LB-Carb50 to estimate CFUs.
Libraries were serially diluted to <100,000 CFUs and selected in liquid LB-Carb50 to make final
glycerol stocks and perform BarSeq. All libraries were transformed into *E. coli* WM3064 for
conjugation into *B. theta*.

Differences between libraries constructed using each cloning workflow were observed. The
ligated *B. theta* library has the highest percentage of genes covered (98%) and the lowest
strand bias. The PCR required for Gibson Assembly, though with a low cycling number,
introduced biases that likely led to lower genome coverage values (Table 1). Gibson-assembled
libraries exhibited a slight strand bias toward fragments oriented opposite to the promoter (ratio
of genes oriented opposite over genes oriented the same direction as vector promoter: 1.43–
1.88). In contrast, the number of genes on either strand is very similar in the *B. theta* library,
with a ratio of 0.98. This is likely a result of gene toxicity in *E. coli* caused by the lac promoter on
the TOPO vector. This strand bias did not increase upon library conjugation into *B. theta*, which
is consistent with the low basal expression of the aTc inducible promoter.

PacBio sequencing to map libraries

Barcoded libraries purified from EC100D were used as templates for amplicon sequencing.
Each sample was dual indexed using 5'-phosphorylated PCR primers containing 16 nt
barcodes.[85] Barcode and insert regions were amplified in 50 µL PCRs with Q5 polymerase, 150
ng of vector template, 57 °C annealing temperature, 2 min extension time, and 6 or 8 cycles. 8–
10 reactions per library were pooled, digested with DpnI twice (NEB), and column-concentrated.
Amplicons were size-selected for >800 bp lengths using 0.55 equivalent volume of AMPure PB
beads (PacBio). 200–600 ng of this was used as sample input for the manufacturer's protocol:
Preparing SMRTbell libraries using PacBio Barcoded Overhang Adapters for Multiplexing
Amplicons. The universal adapter was used during the ligation step instead of a barcoded
adapter since amplicons are dual indexed. Adapter-ligated amplicons were digested with
exonuclease using SMRTbell Enzyme Clean Up Kit 2.0 and purified using 0.55 equivalent
volume of AMPure PB beads. Final amplicon solutions were quantified using Qubit BR Assay
and sizes were confirmed on the Bioanalyzer HS DNA chip (Agilent). Samples were sequenced
on the PacBio Sequel II instrument using SMRT cell 8M (QB3 Genomics, UC Berkeley). See
Extended Data Table 2 for the number of demultiplexed CCS reads used to map each library. In
general, a good run on one PacBio SMRT cell 8M was sufficient to map 3–4 libraries.

Computational pipeline used to map barcodes to genes

The Boba-seq script used to map barcodes to genes and detailed explanations can be found at https://github.com/OGalOz/Boba-seq and as a part of the deposited data. A summary is provided as Extended Data Figure 4. Input data files are required and consist of: a reference assembly file (.fasta), a genome annotation file (.gff/.gff3), and long reads data (.fastq). The user also needs to provide a fasta file containing 4 short oligo sequences that flank the barcode and the insert fragment on each amplicon. A configuration .JSON file is used to set parameters for each step. Briefly, reads were first demultiplexed using PacBio's lima tool. Barcode and insert sequences are extracted using 15bp flanking oligos using usearch (www.drive5.com/usearch/). Filters are applied to exclude reads with concatemers and incorrect barcode lengths. Inserts with an expected error of >10 are excluded using vsearch (https://github.com/torognes/vsearch). Inserts are mapped to the reference genome using minimap2 and results are kept for hits with high percent coverage and percent match values.[86] The majority of barcodes mapped to a single genomic location. For barcodes that are mapped to multiple locations, most are due to sequencing errors and are within a few nt of each other. For barcodes mapping to overlapping locations, the location with the top read count is kept. Barcodes mapped to distant genomic locations are kept in the mapping tables, but are excluded from our fitness analysis. Finally, genomic positions are mapped to protein-coding genes to generate mapping tables, which are used to calculate library statistics.

Conjugation into *B. theta* and other Bacteroidales

Single vectors were first transformed into conjugation donor strains *E. coli* S17-1 or WM3064. 40 mL of Bacteroidales recipient at OD ~0.1 was mixed with 4 mL of *E. coli* donor at OD ~1 outside of the anaerobic chamber. Mixed cultures were pelleted by centrifugation and resuspended in 250 μL BHIS. Each cell mixture was then pooled onto BHIS or BHIS-DAP (for WM3064) plates and incubated at 37 °C overnight aerobically for >16 h. The entire cell mass was then scraped and resuspended in 1 mL of BHIS, from which 20–100 μL was plated onto BHIS-Gm200-Erm5 agar. Antibiotic plates were incubated at 37 °C anaerobically for 48 h or longer until distinct colonies formed. Single colonies were restreaked onto BHIS-Gm200-Erm5 once, from which a single colony was then inoculated into BHIS-Gm200-Erm5. Bacteroidales cultures were inoculated into LB and incubated aerobically at 37 °C to ensure a lack of *E. coli* contamination. Glycerol stocks were checked by Sanger sequencing of plasmids and 16S rRNA. Using this protocol, pKSH24 and pTIO-1 were conjugated into *B. theta* to test replication in a new host. pNBU2_repA1, pNBU2_repA2, and pNBU2_repA3 with NanoLuc were conjugated into 13 different *Bacteroides*, *Parabacteroides*, and *Phocaeicola* species.

Complementation libraries and assays

B. theta, B. uniformis, B. fragilis, and *P. johnsonii* libraries were conjugated into *B. theta* Δ*tdk*ΔBT2158 or Δ*tdk*ΔBT3703 using *E. coli* WM3064 as the conjugation strain. 200 μL of conjugation mix in 1 mL BHIS was inoculated into 100 mL of pre-reduced BHIS-Gm200-Erm5 in the anaerobic chamber. An aliquot of the conjugation mix was serially diluted for CFU counting to ensure that ~10^6 transconjugants were inoculated for selection. Cultures at OD >1 were pelleted and resuspended in BHIS with 0.15% Cys and 15% glycerol to make glycerol stocks.

For complementation assays, the starter culture of each library was diluted to an OD of 0.5 in
BHIS-Gm200-Erm5 with 40 ng/mL aTc and incubated at 37 °C for 3.5 h to induce gene
expression. Cells were pelleted and washed with VB minimal medium twice; these served as
Time0 samples. Each library was inoculated at a starting OD of 0.02 in 1 mL VB-Erm5-aTc40
and 20 mM of either leucrose, palatinose, trehalose, or α-cyclodextrin. Cultures were incubated
at 37 °C and harvested when turbid. Each assay was also streaked onto BHIS-Gm200-Erm5
agar plates. Colony PCR and Sanger sequencing were used to identify clones containing
BT2158, BT4448, or BACUNI_RS05440.

Growth assays of complemented mutants

Mutants complemented with BT2158, BT4448, or BACUNI_RS05440 (Extended Data Table 6),
B. theta Δ*tdk*ΔBT2158, and *B. theta* Δ*tdk* parental strain were inoculated into BHIS-Erm5 or
BHIS and grew overnight at 37 °C. Cells were pelleted and washed once with VB minimal
medium. Each mutant was inoculated at a starting OD of 0.05 in 200 µL VB-Erm5 and 20 mM
trehalose. *B. theta* Δ*tdk* and *B. theta* Δ*tdk*ΔBT2158 were inoculated in the same manner, except
without Erm. Growth measurements were obtained in a 96-well plate using an Epoch 2
Microplate Spectrophotometer (Agilent) inside of an anaerobic chamber. OD600 values shown
on plots are pathlength-corrected and blank-normalized.

Fitness screen of pooled libraries in wild-type *B. theta*

B. caccae, B. fragilis, *B. salyersiae, B. uniformis, P. johnsonii,* and *P. merdae* libraries were
conjugated into wild-type *B. theta* as described for complementation libraries. For fitness
assays, 1 mL of glycerol stock was pelleted and resuspended in 10 mL of BHIS-Erm5 with 40
ng/mL of aTc as starter cultures to grow for 16–18 h. These were then pelleted and washed with
VB-Erm5 twice. Libraries were pooled equally based on OD to a final OD of 5, which served as
Time0 samples. For carbon utilization assays, pooled libraries were inoculated at a starting OD
of 0.04 in 1 mL of VB-Erm5 with 40 ng/mL aTc, and a single carbon substrate at the
concentration listed in Extended Data Table 4. For stress tolerance assays, pooled libraries
were inoculated at a starting OD of 0.1 or 0.04 in 0.5 mL of BHIS-Erm5, 40 ng/mL aTc, and an
inhibitory compound at a range of concentrations listed on Extended Data Table 4. Assays were
carried out in 48-well plates and incubated at 37 °C. Each condition was set up in replicates of
two on the same day. A few conditions were repeated on a second day of experimentation
where new conditions were tested as well. Cultures were harvested when turbid for BarSeq.

DNA barcode sequencing (BarSeq) and analysis

Vector libraries were purified from *E. coli* using E.Z.N.A. Plasmid DNA Mini Kit (Omega Bio-tek)
or Monarch Plasmid Miniprep kit (NEB). However, this led to low yields and high levels of
contaminants when extracting from Bacteroidales. DNA purified from the same set of
Bacteroidales samples using plasmid purification kits and genomic DNA purification kits were
tested for barcode PCR amplification. BarSeq results from both purified plasmids and gDNA
were comparable and therefore, DNeasy Blood & Tissue Kit or QiaAmp DNA QIAcube HT Kit
(Qiagen) for 96-well sample plates were used to extract DNA from *B. theta* cultures for BarSeq
for all fitness assays.

Barcodes were amplified using the previous-published "BarSeq_V3" primers or using new
"BarSeq_V4" primers (Extended Data Table 1).[9,87] The BarSeq version 4 primers are similar to
the BarSeq version 3 primers but use a 10-bp index sequence for P7 primers and a 8-bp index
for P5 (instead of 6 bp for both in version 3) and allow multiplexing up to 768 samples (instead
of 96). Briefly, BarSeq PCRs were performed as 50 µL reactions with Q5 polymerase (NEB) and
200 ng of template DNA: 98 °C for 4 min, 25 cycles of 98 °C for 30 s, 55 °C for 30 s, and 72 °C
for 30 s, and 72 °C for 5 min. For both BarSeq3 and BarSeq4 designs, the P7 (or P2) BarSeq
primers allowed demultiplexing by Illumina software,[9] and the P5 (or P1) BarSeq primers
contained an additional index checked by the MultiCodes.pl script.[87] All PCRs were pooled
equally in volume and column-cleaned. Up to 96 samples (BarSeq3) or 152 samples (BarSeq4)
were multiplexed for sequencing on full lanes of Illumina HiSeq400 SE50 (QB3 Genomics, UC
Berkeley), partial lanes of NovaSeq6000 PE150 (Novogene), or full lanes of MiSeq (v2 reagent
kit). 11,000–94,000 reads per sample were obtained for complementation assays sequenced on
the MiSeq and 0.3–5.3 million reads were obtained for samples sequenced on the HiSeq or
NovaSeq.

BarSeq reads were converted to counts per barcode using the MultiCodes.pl script in the feba
code base (https://bitbucket.org/berkeleylab/feba/), with the -minQuality 0 option and either -bs3
or -bs4 for each version of BarSeq primers. To estimate the diversity of barcoded libraries, only
reads that had a quality score of ≥30 at each position (the -minQuality 30 option) were used,
which corresponds to an error rate for barcodes of at most 0.001 * 20 nt = 2%. Furthermore, any
barcodes that were off-by-1 errors from a more common barcode were eliminated. Barcodes
observed in the PacBio dataset are compared to barcode sequences from the BarSeq data to
determine the percentage of barcodes mapped.

For the highly diverse empty library, the Chao1 estimator was used to estimate the barcode
diversity from 2.99 million high-quality reads,[88] The Chao1 estimator uses the number of
barcodes seen just once, but some may be due to sequencing errors. To correct for this,
barcodes that were off-by-1 nucleotide from a more abundant barcode were ignored, and the
number of singletons was reduced by an assumed error rate ranging from 0% to 2%. This
yielded estimates ranging from 13.5–14.1 million barcodes for the empty pNBU2_repA1 library.

Calculation of fitness scores for each fragment

Only barcodes that mapped to a single location in one library and that were present in the
conjugation donor (*E. coli* WM3064) libraries were considered. 2% of barcodes mapped to more
than one library and another 5% of mapped barcodes were not detected in the BarSeq data for
the conjugation donor libraries. For complementation assays, we computed fitness scores for all
of these fragments. For fitness assays in the wild-type *B. theta* background with six pooled
libraries, 280,036 of the 305,382 barcodes (that were present in WM3064) were detected in the
Time0 samples. Also, barcodes that were not detected in Time0 samples occasionally had
statistically significant benefits. This is likely due to positive selection that led mutants to gain in
abundance in the assay condition despite their low initial abundance. Therefore, fitness scores
were computed for all mapped barcodes that were present in WM3064. The script used to
calculate fitness scores can be found at https://github.com/morgannprice/BobaseqFitness.

The fitness of each strain was defined as:

$\log_2\{ (n + \psi)/N \} - \log_2\{ (n_0 + 1/\psi)/N_0 \}$

$\psi = \mathrm{sqrt}(N/N_0)$

where n is the number of reads for this barcode in the experimental sample, n_0 is the number of
reads for this barcode across the Time0 samples, and N and N_0 are the total number of reads
for all considered barcodes in the experimental or Time0 samples, respectively. The
pseudocount ψ is added to the counts to ensure that the log ratio is not undefined if either count
is zero. This value of ψ also ensures that if both counts (n and n_0) are 0, then the fitness will be
zero (corresponding to no evidence of a change in relative abundance). If the experimental and
Time0 samples have the same total number of reads, then $\psi = 1$.

Determination of statistically significant hits

The minimum fitness value threshold for statistical significance was selected based on a control
comparison between the two Time0 samples collected on the same day for the large fitness
screen. Each sample contained a mixture of six genomic libraries and had 2.9 million or 3.0
million total reads. Of the 305,382 barcodes considered, the fitness values ranged from -3.9 to
+4.1. Therefore, a minimum fitness value of +5 was selected for a statistically-significant hit or
barcode.

Because a few complementation assays were sequenced at much lower coverage, a z score
cutoff was also applied. The standard error of the fitness value was estimated as the square
root of the variance given Poisson noise in counts[9], or

$\sigma = \mathrm{sqrt}\{ 1/(n + \psi) + 1/(n_0 + 1/\psi) \} / \ln(2)$

The z score is then fitness / σ and z ≥ 4 is selected as the cutoff. For the standard normal
distribution and 305,382 barcodes, 10 values would be expected above this threshold.

Selection of biologically consistent hits and the likely causative protein for each region

We focused on barcodes and inserts that had significantly high fitness scores in both replicate
experiments conducted in the same condition and on the same day. We considered these
barcodes to have a biologically consistent phenotype if either an overlapping fragment or a
fragment encoding a similar protein had statistically significant benefits. Specifically, an insert
was confirmed by overlap if another insert from the same region of the genome was significant
in both replicates. An insert was confirmed by similarity if the likely causative protein for the
region (see below) was similar (at least 40% identity and 75% coverage) to a protein that was
found within another insert that had significantly high fitness in two replicates for the same
condition. For experiments in the wild-type *B. theta* background where libraries were pooled, the
confirmation would occur in the same experiments. For complementation assays where libraries
were assayed separately, the criterion might be fulfilled from different assays in the same
condition.

For each region with inserts that were statistically significant in both replicates, the insert with
the highest fitness score (after averaging replicates) was selected first. For each protein
encoded within this insert, we computed several scores. First, we counted the number of
significantly-beneficial inserts that contain this protein (with each replicate counted separately).
Second, we counted the number of similar proteins that were in high-scoring regions. Third, we
computed the average fitness score for all inserts containing this gene. To select the likely
causative protein for each region, we chose the one with the highest number of beneficial
inserts, or the highest number of similar proteins, or the highest average fitness. We used the
additional scores to break ties.

For each of the putative causative proteins, we visually inspected the plot of fitness scores
versus insert fragments. When available, we also considered the plots for similar experiments
(such as the same carbon source with a different base medium, or a different concentration of
the stress, or the same condition conducted on a different day) with similar protein hits. In 20
cases, we determined that more than one protein is necessary to confer a strong benefit. In 6
cases, we identified a different protein as conferring the benefit. In 28 cases, we were not sure
which protein(s) conferred the benefit and we left these hits uncurated in Extended Data Table
5. For the remaining 162 cases, the automatically-selected protein was deemed correct.

Validation of gene hits using individual strains

Selected gene hits from the fitness screens were PCR amplified from the corresponding gDNA,
cloned into the pNBU2_repA1 backbone via Gibson Assembly, and transformed into *E. coli*
S17-1 to generate validation vectors. Mutants with high fitness scores were selected for
validations and the exact fragment boundaries for these were extracted from library mapping
tables to design primers (Extended Data Table 6). Additionally, amplicons of the precise gene or
genes were obtained. Validation vectors were conjugated into *B. theta*, and each strain was
grown in the same condition as carried out for the fitness assay with AraC hits being an
exception. Here, we switched to a different defined minimal medium (MM) where *B. theta* grew
more quickly in heparin (see Extended Data Table 4 for composition).[44] Each strain was
cultured in 200 μL on a 96-well plate in replicates of 3. In a few cases, the empty vector control
was grown up in replicates of 2. Growth measurements were obtained using an Epoch 2
Microplate Spectrophotometer (Agilent). OD values are pathlength-corrected and blank-
normalized.

Overexpression and purification of hexokinase

Hexokinase (INE72_RS21610) was amplified from *B. caccae* CL03T12C61 and cloned into
pET29b vector for protein overexpression and purification. 500 mL of *E. coli* BL21(DE3)
transformed with pET29b-hexokinase was induced with 0.5 mM IPTG at OD ~0.6. Pellet was
harvested and then resuspended in lysis buffer (50 mM Tris HCl pH 7, 100 mM NaCl, 1 mM
PMSF, 0.2 mg/ml lysozyme, 1X SIGMAFAST protease inhibitor, 1% streptomycin sulfate, 5 mM
BME). Resuspended cells were lysed using a sonicator probe. The clarified supernatant was
loaded onto equilibrated Ni Sepharose 6 Fast Flow resin (Cytiva) and washed with a buffer
containing 50 mM Tris HCl pH 7, 100 mM NaCl, and 5 mM BME. Protein was eluted using the
wash buffer with 10, 20, 50, 100, or 200 mM imidazole and fractions were collected at each

concentration. All fractions were visualized on SDS-PAGE and the appropriate fractions were
pooled and concentrated down using 30K MWCO concentrators. Concentrated protein eluate
was desalted using a PD-10 column loaded with Sephadex G-25 resin (Cytiva). Protein
concentrations were calculated using Abs280 measurements from Nanodrop and a molar
extinction coefficient of 44,350 M^{-1} cm^{-1}. In total, 4.2 mg of protein was purified to a
concentration of 105 μM. Protein aliquots were stored at –80°C.

Hexokinase enzyme assays

In vitro coupled enzyme assays were performed to test substrate preference of hexokinase.
Assay components include 50 mM Tris-Cl pH 7, 50 mM NaCl, 2 mM $MgSO_4$, 1 mM NADH, 2
mM phospho(enol)pyruvic acid tri(cyclohexylammonium) salt (PEP), 1 mM ATP, and 1 mM
substrate. Glucose, mannose, D-glucosamine, and N-acetyl- D-glucosamine were tested as
substrates. Enzymes were added to concentrations of 10 U/mL lactate dehydrogenase from
rabbit muscle (L2500-10KU, Sigma), 10 U/mL pyruvate kinase from rabbit muscle (P1506-1KU,
Sigma), and 5 μM purified hexokinase. Lactate dehydrogenase and pyruvate kinase
concentrations were also tested at a 2-fold increase to ensure they were in excess and not the
rate limiting step. Assays were initiated by adding hexokinase and incubated for 5 minutes at
room temperature. Assays were performed in volumes of 40 uL in triplicates in a 384-well plate.
NADH consumption was observed through pathlength-corrected absorbance at 340 nm
measured using a BioTek Synergy HTX plate reader.

RNA-seq analysis of *ssb* region in L-fucose

For RNA-seq experiments, a *B. theta* strain expressing the *ssb* fragment 2 (Extended Data
Table 6) and a strain containing the empty vector were grown in replicates of 3 in BHIS-Erm5-
aTc40 to mid-exponential phase (OD600 = 0.4–0.8) and harvested using RNAprotect bacterial
agent (Qiagen) and the RNeasy Mini kit (Qiagen) combined with on-column DNA depletion
using the RNase-free DNase set (Qiagen). ~500 ng of total RNA from each sample was
submitted to Novogene for further processing; this included rRNA depletion followed by library
preparation with the NEBNext Ultra II Directional RNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina (NEB).
Library quality was checked using a 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent).

Sequencing reads were trimmed and aligned to the *B. theta* VPI-5482 genome
(GCF_000011065.1) using HISAT2 (2.2.1) with the strand-specific option for paired-end reads,
and default parameters otherwise.[89] Mapped reads were then assigned to genome features
using featureCounts with the strand specific setting.[90] Due to concern over repeat regions,
counts were generated with and without multimapping using featureCounts, which led to similar
results. Final counts were generated with multimapping. These counts were normalized and
analyzed using the DESeq2 package in R, resulting in log2 fold-changes along with test
statistics and adjusted *p*-values generated using the Wald test (Extended Data Table 7).[91]

Materials and data availability

933 The script for mapping Boba-seq libraries is available at https://github.com/OGalOz/Boba-seq.
934 The script for calculating fitness scores is available at

Acknowledgements

We thank Dr. Naoya Ohara (Okayama University) for pTIO-1, Dr. Andrei Shkoporov (University of College Cork) for pKSH24, and Dr. Laurie Comstock (University of Chicago) for pFD340. pNBU2_erm-TetR-P1T_DP-GH023 and pNBU2_erm-TetR-P1T_DP-GH023-NanoLuc were gifts from Dr. Andrew Goodman at Yale University (Addgene plasmids #90324 and #117728). We thank Surya Tripathi for access to unpublished RB-TnSeq fitness data, and Bradley Biggs, Shekhar Mishra, Vivek Mutalik, and Valentine Trotter for helpful feedback on the manuscript. Y.Y.H. is an Astellas Pharmaceuticals Awardee of the Life Sciences Research Foundation, which funded part of this work. A.H. is an awardee of NSF GRFP grant DGE-2146752. We are grateful for the support of the Dean A. Richard Newton Memorial Professor Chair Funds. This work was supported in part by ENIGMA – Ecosystems and Networks Integrated with Genes and Molecular Assemblies (http://enigma.lbl.gov), a Science Focus Area Program at Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, supported by the U.S. Department of Energy, Office of Science, Office of Biological & Environmental Research under contract number DE-AC02-05CH11231. This work was partly supported by the NIH grant RM1 GM135102 (to A.M.D.). We acknowledge QB3 Genomics, UC Berkeley, Berkeley, CA for sequencing support through RRID:SCR_022170. This work was supported by NIH S10 OD018174 Instrumentation Grant. Several Bacteroidales used in this study were obtained through BEI Resources, NIAID, NIH as part of the Human Microbiome Project.

Author contributions

Y.Y.H., M.N.P., A.M.D., and A.P.A. conceived the project. Y.Y.H., A.H., A.M.D., D.H., and H.C. carried out experimental work and collected data. Y.Y.H., M.N.P., A.H., and O.G. performed computational analyses. Y.Y.H. and M.N.P. wrote the original draft. Y.Y.H., M.N.P., A.H., A.M.D., and A.P.A. revised and edited the paper.

Competing interests

The authors have no competing interests to declare.

References

1. Human Microbiome Project Consortium. Structure, function and diversity of the healthy human microbiome. *Nature* **486**, 207–214 (2012).
2. Lloyd-Price, J. *et al.* Strains, functions and dynamics in the expanded Human Microbiome Project. *Nature* **550**, 61–66 (2017).
3. Wu, G. D. *et al.* Comparative metabolomics in vegans and omnivores reveal constraints on

diet-dependent gut microbiota metabolite production. *Gut* **65**, 63–72 (2016).

4. Franzosa, E. A. *et al.* Relating the metatranscriptome and metagenome of the human gut.
Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. **111**, E2329–E2338 (2014).

5. Vujkovic-Cvijin, I. *et al.* Host variables confound gut microbiota studies of human disease.
Nature **587**, 448–454 (2020).

6. Ni, J., Wu, G. D., Albenberg, L. & Tomov, V. T. Gut microbiota and IBD: causation or
correlation? *Nat. Rev. Gastroenterol. Hepatol.* **14**, 573–584 (2017).

7. Lobb, B., Tremblay, B. J.-M., Moreno-Hagelsieb, G. & Doxey, A. C. An assessment of
genome annotation coverage across the bacterial tree of life. *Microb. Genomics* **6**, e000341
(2020).

8. Vanni, C. *et al.* Unifying the known and unknown microbial coding sequence space. *eLife*
11, e67667 (2022).

9. Wetmore, K. M. *et al.* Rapid Quantification of Mutant Fitness in Diverse Bacteria by
Sequencing Randomly Bar-Coded Transposons. *mBio* **6**, e00306-15 (2015).

10. Price, M. N. *et al.* Mutant phenotypes for thousands of bacterial genes of unknown function.
Nature **557**, 503–509 (2018).

11. Liu, H. *et al.* Functional genetics of human gut commensal Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron
reveals metabolic requirements for growth across environments. *Cell Rep.* **34**, 108789
(2021).

12. Adler, B. A. *et al.* The genetic basis of phage susceptibility, cross-resistance and host-range
in Salmonella. *Microbiology* **167**, 001126 (2021).

13. Yaung, S. J. *et al.* Improving microbial fitness in the mammalian gut by in vivo temporal
functional metagenomics. *Mol. Syst. Biol.* **11**, 788 (2015).

14. Joglekar, P. *et al.* Intestinal IgA Regulates Expression of a Fructan Polysaccharide
Utilization Locus in Colonizing Gut Commensal Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron. *mBio* **10**,
e02324-19 (2019).

15. Tasse, L. *et al.* Functional metagenomics to mine the human gut microbiome for dietary
fiber catabolic enzymes. *Genome Res.* **20**, 1605–1612 (2010).

16. Yoon, M. Y. *et al.* Functional screening of a metagenomic library reveals operons
responsible for enhanced intestinal colonization by gut commensal microbes. *Appl. Environ.*
Microbiol. **79**, 3829–3838 (2013).

17. Crofts, T. S., Mcfarland, A. G. & Hartmann, E. M. Mosaic Ends Tagmentation (METa)
assembly for extremely efficient 1 construction of functional metagenomic libraries.
mSystems **6**, e00524-21 (2021).

18. Forsberg, K. J. *et al.* Functional metagenomics-guided discovery of potent Cas9 inhibitors in
the human microbiome. *eLife* **8**, e46540 (2019).

19. Mastropaolo, M. D., Thorson, M. L. & Stevens, A. M. Comparison of Bacteroides
thetaiotaomicron and Escherichia coli 16S rRNA gene expression signals. *Microbiology* **155**,
2683–2693 (2009).

20. Vingadassalom, D. *et al.* An unusual primary sigma factor in the Bacteroidetes phylum. *Mol.*
Microbiol. **56**, 888–902 (2005).

21. Wegmann, U., Horn, N. & Carding, S. R. Defining the Bacteroides ribosomal binding site.
Appl. Environ. Microbiol. **79**, 1980–1989 (2013).

22. Lee, S. M. *et al.* Bacterial colonization factors control specificity and stability of the gut
microbiota. *Nature* **501**, 426–429 (2013).

23. Lam, K. N., Martens, E. C. & Charles, T. C. Developing a Bacteroides System for Function-
Based Screening of DNA from the Human Gut Microbiome. *mSystems* **3**, e00195-17 (2018).

24. Mutalik, V. K. *et al.* Dual-barcoded shotgun expression library sequencing for high-
throughput characterization of functional traits in bacteria. *Nat. Commun.* **10**, 1–14 (2019).

25. Mutalik, V. *et al.* High-throughput mapping of the phage resistance landscape in E. coli |
PLOS Biology. *PLoS Biol* **18**, e3000877 (2020).

26. Adler, B. A. *et al.* Multicopy suppressor screens reveal convergent evolution of single-gene
lysis proteins. *Nat. Chem. Biol.* **19**, 759–766 (2023).
27. Apjok, G. *et al.* Characterization of antibiotic resistomes by reprogrammed bacteriophage-
enabled functional metagenomics in clinical strains. *Nat. Microbiol.* **8**, 410–423 (2023).
28. Wexler, A. G., Goodman, A. L., Voigt, C. A., Lu, T. K. & Hennet, T. An insider's perspective:
Bacteroides as a window into the microbiome. *Nat. Microbiol.* **2**, 17026 (2017).
29. Liu, H. *et al.* Magic Pools: Parallel Assessment of Transposon Delivery Vectors in Bacteria.
mSystems **3**, e00143-17 (2018).
30. Tagawa, J. *et al.* Development of a novel plasmid vector pTIO-1 adapted for
electrotransformation of Porphyromonas gingivalis. *J. Microbiol. Methods* **105**, 174–179
(2014).
31. Shkoporov, A. N. *et al.* Plasmid Analysis of a novel 8.9 kb cryptic plasmid from Bacteroides
uniformis , its long-term stability and spread within human microbiota. *Plasmid* **69**, 146–159
(2013).
32. Smith, C. J., Rogers, M. B. & Mckee, M. L. Heterologous Gene Expression in Bacteroides
fragilis. *Plasmid* **27**, 141–154 (1992).
33. Lim, B., Zimmermann, M., Barry, N. A. & Goodman, A. L. Engineered Regulatory Systems
Modulate Gene Expression of Human Commensals in the Gut. *Cell* **169**, 547-558.e15
(2017).
34. Chen, Y. J. *et al.* Characterization of 582 natural and synthetic terminators and
quantification of their design constraints. *Nat. Methods* **10**, 659–664 (2013).
35. Taketani, M. *et al.* Genetic circuit design automation for the gut resident species
Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron. *Nat. Biotechnol.* **38**, 962–969 (2020).
36. Parks, D. H. *et al.* A standardized bacterial taxonomy based on genome phylogeny
substantially revises the tree of life. *Nat. Biotechnol.* **36**, 996–1004 (2018).
37. Price, M. N., Dehal, P. S. & Arkin, A. P. FastTree 2 – Approximately Maximum-Likelihood
Trees for Large Alignments. *PLOS ONE* **5**, e9490 (2010).
38. Sorek, R. *et al.* Genome-Wide Experimental Determination of Barriers to Horizontal Gene
Transfer. *Science* **318**, 1449–1452 (2007).
39. Liou, C. S. *et al.* A Metabolic Pathway for Activation of Dietary Glucosinolates by a Human
Gut Symbiont. *Cell* **180**, 717-728.e19 (2020).
40. Varel, V. H. & Bryant, M. P. Nutritional Features of Bacteroides fragilis subsp. fragilis. *Appl.*
Microbiol. **28**, 251–257 (1974).
41. Auger, S., Gomez, M. P., Danchin, A. & Martin-Verstraete, I. The PatB protein of Bacillus
subtilis is a C-S-lyase. *Biochimie* **87**, 231–238 (2005).
42. Méndez, J. *et al.* A Novel cdsAB Operon Is Involved in the Uptake of l-Cysteine and
Participates in the Pathogenesis of Yersinia ruckeri. *J. Bacteriol.* **193**, 944–951 (2011).
43. Price, M. N. & Arkin, A. P. PaperBLAST: Text Mining Papers for Information about
Homologs. *mSystems* **2**, 10.1128/msystems.00039-17 (2017).
44. Martens, E. C., Chiang, H. C. & Gordon, J. I. Mucosal Glycan Foraging Enhances Fitness
and Transmission of a Saccharolytic Human Gut Bacterial Symbiont. *Cell Host Microbe* **4**,
447–457 (2008).
45. Accetto, T. & Avguštin, G. Inability of Prevotella bryantii to Form a Functional Shine-
Dalgarno Interaction Reflects Unique Evolution of Ribosome Binding Sites in Bacteroidetes.
PLoS ONE **6**, (2011).
46. Larsbrink, J. *et al.* A discrete genetic locus confers xyloglucan metabolism in select human
gut Bacteroidetes. *Nature* **506**, 498–502 (2014).
47. Cartmell, A. *et al.* How members of the human gut microbiota overcome the sulfation
problem posed by glycosaminoglycans. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* **114**, 7037–7042 (2017).
48. Price, M. N., Deutschbauer, A. M. & Arkin, A. P. Filling gaps in bacterial catabolic pathways
with computation and high-throughput genetics. *PLOS Genet.* **18**, e1010156 (2022).

49. Nihira, T. *et al.* Discovery of β-1,4-d-Mannosyl-N-acetyl-d-glucosamine Phosphorylase
Involved in the Metabolism of N-Glycans. *J. Biol. Chem.* **288**, 27366–27374 (2013).
50. Brigham, C. J. & Malamy, M. H. Characterization of the RokA and HexA broad-substrate-
specificity hexokinases from Bacteroides fragilis and their role in hexose and N-
acetylglucosamine utilization. *J. Bacteriol.* **187**, 890–901 (2005).
51. Pollet, R., Marin, L. & Koropatkin, N. TonB-dependent transporters in the Bacteroidetes:
Unique domain structures and potential functions. *Mol. Microbiol.* **115**, 490–501 (2021).
52. Elango, D. *et al.* Raffinose Family Oligosaccharides: Friend or Foe for Human and Plant
Health? *Front. Plant Sci.* **13**, 829118 (2022).
53. Kennedy, M. S. *et al.* Dynamic genetic adaptation of Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron during
murine gut colonization. *Cell Rep.* **42**, 113009 (2023).
54. Gray, D. A. *et al.* Insights into SusCD-mediated glycan import by a prominent gut symbiont.
Nat. Commun. **12**, 44 (2021).
55. Zhou, J. *et al.* A new α-galactosidase from symbiotic Flavobacterium sp. TN17 reveals four
residues essential for α-galactosidase activity of gastrointestinal bacteria. *Appl. Microbiol.*
Biotechnol. **88**, 1297–1309 (2010).
56. Blatch, G. L. & Woods, D. R. Molecular characterization of a fructanase produced by
Bacteroides fragilis BF-1. *J. Bacteriol.* **175**, 3058–3066 (1993).
57. Casanueva, A. I., Paul, L., Patrick, S. & Abratt, V. R. An AraC/XylS family transcriptional
regulator homologue from Bacteroides fragilis is associated with cell survival following DNA
damage. *FEMS Microbiol. Lett.* **278**, 249–256 (2008).
58. de Freitas, M. C. R. *et al.* Exploratory Investigation of Bacteroides fragilis Transcriptional
Response during In vitro Exposure to Subinhibitory Concentration of Metronidazole. *Front.*
Microbiol. **7**, 1465 (2016).
59. Tian, X. *et al.* Comparative Proteomic Analysis of Fucosylated Glycoproteins Produced by
Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron Under Different Polysaccharide Nutrition Conditions. *Front.*
Microbiol. **13**, 826942 (2022).
60. Hooper, L. V., Xu, J., Falk, P. G., Midtvedt, T. & Gordon, J. I. A molecular sensor that allows
a gut commensal to control its nutrient foundation in a competitive ecosystem. *Proc. Natl.*
Acad. Sci. U. S. A. **96**, 9833–9838 (1999).
61. Pickard, J. M. *et al.* Rapid fucosylation of intestinal epithelium sustains host-commensal
symbiosis in sickness. *Nature* **514**, 638–641 (2014).
62. Shereda, R. D., Kozlov, A. G., Lohman, T. M., Cox, M. M. & Keck, J. L. SSB as an
organizer/mobilizer of genome maintenance complexes. *Crit. Rev. Biochem. Mol. Biol.* **43**,
289–318 (2008).
63. Samuel, B. & Burstein, D. A diverse repertoire of anti-defense systems is encoded in the
leading region of plasmids. 2023.02.15.528439 Preprint at
https://doi.org/10.1101/2023.02.15.528439 (2023).
64. Chatzidaki-Livanis, M., Coyne, M. J. & Comstock, L. E. A Family of Transcriptional
Antitermination Factors Necessary for Synthesis of the Capsular Polysaccharides of
Bacteroides fragilis. *J. Bacteriol.* **191**, 7288–7295 (2009).
65. Arsène, S. & Leclercq, R. Role of a qnr-Like Gene in the Intrinsic Resistance of
Enterococcus faecalis to Fluoroquinolones. *Antimicrob. Agents Chemother.* **51**, 3254–3258
(2007).
66. Oh, S. F. *et al.* Host immunomodulatory lipids created by symbionts from dietary amino
acids. *Nature* **600**, 302–307 (2021).
67. Meng, Y., Ingram-Smith, C., Cooper, L. L. & Smith, K. S. Characterization of an Archaeal
Medium-Chain Acyl Coenzyme A Synthetase from Methanosarcina acetivorans. *J. Bacteriol.*
192, 5982–5990 (2010).
68. Bi, H., Zhu, L., Jia, J., Zeng, L. & Cronan, J. E. Unsaturated fatty acid synthesis in the
gastric pathogen Helicobacter pylori proceeds via a backtracking mechanism. *Cell Chem.*

Biol. **23**, 1480–1489 (2016).

69. Zhou, J. *et al.* Helicobacter pylori FabX contains a [4Fe-4S] cluster essential for unsaturated
fatty acid synthesis. *Nat. Commun.* **12**, 6932 (2021).

70. Isabella, V. M. & Clark, V. L. Identification of a conserved protein involved in anaerobic
unsaturated fatty acid synthesis in Neiserria gonorrhoeae: implications for facultative and
obligate anaerobes that lack FabA. *Mol. Microbiol.* **82**, 489–501 (2011).

71. Hamilton, J. P. *et al.* Human cecal bile acids: concentration and spectrum. *Am. J. Physiol.-*
Gastrointest. Liver Physiol. **293**, G256–G263 (2007).

72. Akiyama, Y., Kanehara, K. & Ito, K. RseP (YaeL), an Escherichia coli RIP protease, cleaves
transmembrane sequences. *EMBO J.* **23**, 4434–4442 (2004).

73. Lycklama a Nijeholt, J. A. & Driessen, A. J. M. The bacterial Sec-translocase: structure and
mechanism. *Philos. Trans. R. Soc. B Biol. Sci.* **367**, 1016–1028 (2012).

74. Masanta, W. O. *et al.* Proteome Profiling by Label-Free Mass Spectrometry Reveals
Differentiated Response of Campylobacter jejuni to Sublethal Concentrations of Bile Acids.
Proteomics Clin. Appl. **13**, 1800083 (2019).

75. Xu, J. *et al.* A Genomic View of the Human-Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron Symbiosis.
Science **299**, 2074–2076 (2003).

76. McMillan, A. S., Foley, M. H., Perkins, C. E. & Theriot, C. M. Loss of Bacteroides
thetaiotaomicron bile acid altering enzymes impact bacterial fitness and the global metabolic
transcriptome. 2023.06.27.546749 Preprint at https://doi.org/10.1101/2023.06.27.546749
(2023).

77. Sun, Z., Wang, Y., Su, X., Yang, X. & Luo, Q. Proteomic Characterization of Human Gut
Habitual *Bacteroides intestinalis* against Common Intestinal Bile Acid Stress. *Adv. Gut*
Microbiome Res. **2023**, e8395946 (2023).

78. Álvarez-Añorve, L. I., Calcagno, M. L. & Plumbridge, J. Why Does Escherichia coli Grow
More Slowly on Glucosamine than on N-Acetylglucosamine? Effects of Enzyme Levels and
Allosteric Activation of GlcN6P Deaminase (NagB) on Growth Rates. *J. Bacteriol.* **187**,
2974–2982 (2005).

79. Thibault, D. *et al.* Droplet Tn-Seq combines microfluidics with Tn-Seq for identifying complex
single-cell phenotypes. *Nat. Commun.* **10**, 5729 (2019).

80. Tauzin, A. S. *et al.* Investigating host-microbiome interactions by droplet based
microfluidics. *Microbiome* **8**, 1–20 (2020).

81. Helmann, T. C., Deutschbauer, A. M. & Lindow, S. E. Genome-wide identification of
Pseudomonas syringae genes required for fitness during colonization of the leaf surface
and apoplast. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* **116**, 18900–18910 (2019).

82. Vassallo, C. N., Doering, C. R., Littlehale, M. L., Teodoro, G. I. C. & Laub, M. T. A functional
selection reveals previously undetected anti-phage defence systems in the E. coli
pangenome. *Nat. Microbiol.* **7**, 1568–1579 (2022).

83. Tagawa, J. *et al.* Development of a novel plasmid vector pTIO-1 adapted for
electrotransformation of Porphyromonas gingivalis. *J. Microbiol. Methods* **105**, 174–179
(2014).

84. Plotka, M., Wozniak, M. & Kaczorowski, T. Quantification of Plasmid Copy Number with
Single Colour Droplet Digital PCR. *PLoS ONE* **12**, e0169846 (2017).

85. Callahan, B. J. *et al.* High-throughput amplicon sequencing of the full-length 16S rRNA gene
with single-nucleotide resolution. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **47**, e103 (2019).

86. Li, H. Minimap2: pairwise alignment for nucleotide sequences. *Bioinforma. Oxf. Engl.* **34**,
3094–3100 (2018).

87. Morgan N. Price, a Jayashree Ray, a Anthony T. Iavarone, B., Hans K. Carlson, a Elizabeth
M. Ryan, c Rex R. Malmstrom, C., Adam P. Arkin, a, D. & Deutschbauer, A. M. Oxidative
Pathways of Deoxyribose and Deoxyribonate Catabolism. *mSystems* **4**, e00297-18 (2019).

88. Chao, A. Nonparametric Estimation of the Number of Classes in a Population. *Scand. J.*

Stat. **11**, 265–270 (1984).

89. Kim, D., Paggi, J. M., Park, C., Bennett, C. & Salzberg, S. L. Graph-based genome
alignment and genotyping with HISAT2 and HISAT-genotype. *Nat. Biotechnol.* **37**, 907–915
(2019).

90. Liao, Y., Smyth, G. K. & Shi, W. featureCounts: an efficient general purpose program for
assigning sequence reads to genomic features. *Bioinformatics* **30**, 923–930 (2014).

91. Love, M. I., Huber, W. & Anders, S. Moderated estimation of fold change and dispersion for
RNA-seq data with DESeq2. *Genome Biol.* **15**, 1–21 (2014).

92. Olm, M. R., Brown, C. T., Brooks, B. & Banfield, J. F. dRep: a tool for fast and accurate
genomic comparisons that enables improved genome recovery from metagenomes through
de-replication. *ISME J.* **11**, 2864–2868 (2017).

93. Gilchrist, C. L. M. & Chooi, Y.-H. clinker & clustermap.js: automatic generation of gene
cluster comparison figures. *Bioinformatics* **37**, 2473–2475 (2021).

1190

Extended Data Figures

Extended Data Figure 1. Anhydrotetracycline (aTc) induces expression of NanoLuc on pNBU2 replicative vectors in B. theta. A) A range of aTc concentrations (0, 25, 50, 100 ng/mL) was tested for three vectors with NanoLuc inserted downstream of the inducible promoter and an RBS. A total of two or four experiments were performed per vector with each experiment consisting of four replicates. B) NanoLuc was inserted into the pNBU2_repA1 vector in the opposite orientation to the aTc inducible promoter to test for constitutive promoter activity downstream of the insert site. NanoLuc gene with and without the upstream RBS (GH023) were tested in the absence of aTc. Two experiments were carried out with each experiment consisting of four replicates. Luminescence values were normalized by OD600 for all assays. Standard deviation is shown as error bars for both plots. C) Plasmid copy numbers in B. theta determined using droplet digital PCR (ddPCR). Cultures in the late exponential phase were harvested for this assay. Replicates from two dilutions were used to calculate plasmid copy numbers. D) Host range of pNBU2-based vectors across 13 Bacteroidales. Genome distance estimation and visualization were performed using dRep.[92]

1208
Extended Data Figure 2. Overview of the Boba-seq mapping script. Input files, tools, and all
steps are listed. Additional details for step 5 are listed for barcodes that map to multiple,
genomic regions. Although the empty vector library has a high barcode diversity, it is possible to
clone multiple inserts into vectors sharing the same barcode. We observed this in a very small
fraction of barcodes and later removed them from our fitness score analysis, but they are
reported by the mapping script. Two parameters are used to compute the best genomic location
for barcodes that map to very similar positions. First, the ratio of highest read count to the
second highest read count (min_BC_support_ratio value) is set at a threshold of 3 to identify the
position supported by more reads. Second, the max_frag_diff_to_len value is the fraction of the
maximum distance between start and end positions of 5' of mapped locations plus the maximum
distance between start and end positions of 3' of mapped locations within each region, over the
average insert length. This is set to a threshold of 0.25 in our current pipeline. All filters and
parameters can be readily adjusted in the configuration .JSON input file.

1227

1228 **Extended Data Figure 3.** Summary plots for six Boba-seq genomic libraries. Plots are
1229 generated as part of the mapping script. A) Histograms of fragment sizes. B) Cumulative gene
1230 coverage plots. C) Histograms of the number of full-length genes encoded per fragment.

1231

1232

1233

1234 **Extended Data Figure 4.** Growth curves of *B. theta* Δ*tdk* parental strain and Δ*tdk*ΔBT2158
1235 mutant on 20 mM glucose, leucrose, palatinose, or trehalose in the VB minimal medium. Each
1236 strain was grown in replicates of 4 per condition.

1237

1238

1239 **Extended Data Figure 5.** Growth of wild-type *B. theta* is inhibited by the high cysteine
1240 concentration (8.25 mM) in the VB minimal medium. Examples are shown for 20 mM L-fucose
1241 and 10 mg/mL heparin in replicates of 4. A lower cysteine concentration (2 mM) resulted in
1242 improved growth.

1243

1244
1245 **Extended Data Figure 6.** Fitness versus fragment plots of gene hits across carbon utilization
1246 and stress assays. Each arrow represents a mapped fragment in the corresponding Boba-seq
1247 library. The beneficial gene(s) and all inserts covering the full-length gene(s) are highlighted in
1248 green. The genomic positions of the inserts within the source genome are displayed on the x-
1249 axis. The average fitness score of each fragment from two experiments are shown.

Extended Data Figure 7. Growth benefits conferred by gene hits in individual *B. theta* strains. Each strain is conjugated with either a vector encoding the causative gene, the causative gene and the upstream 200 bp (or 100 bp for BCAT), a complete insert fragment from the library, or an empty vector. See Extended Data Table 6 for precise genomic boundaries, orientations, and fitness scores for each library fragment. Strains were constructed to confirm hits from A) D-cellobiose and D-salicin, B) palatinose, and C) D-glucosamine carbon substrates (20 mM) in the VB defined minimal medium. D) A branched-chain amino acid aminotransferase gene was confirmed to provide a benefit in BHIS with 1 mM ceftriaxone in two experiments. OD values are pathlength-corrected and blank-normalized. Each strain was grown in replicates of 3.

Extended Data Figure 8. A genomic region in two different isolates (*B. salyersiae* and *P.*
johnsonii) encoding an SSB protein conferred a strong benefit for growth on 20 mM L-fucose. A)
The fitness versus fragment plots for both regions. The fitness scores displayed are averages
across 8 experiments, including assays with different reductants (Cys or DTT) and in the
presence or absence of aTc. B) Gene neighborhoods of the *ssb* region among Bacteroidales
suggest this region is part of a mobile genetic element inserted at different genomic locations.
Insertions and rearrangements are observed downstream of the *ssb* gene along with a
conserved plasmid recombination protein and a recombinase. Genomic comparisons were
visualized using Clinker with an amino acid identity cutoff of 40%.[93] C) Log2 ratios of fold-
change and adjusted *p*-values (Wald test) from the RNA-seq experiment of *B. theta* encoding
the ssb fragment 2 compared to an empty vector. Selected hits are labeled by color. D)
Coverage plots of sense strand reads from RNA-seq data point to a genomic rearrangement
that led to the upregulation of a subunit S (BT_RS22805/BT4522) part of a type I R-M system.
Alignments were made using HISAT2 with default splice parameters on the strand-specific
setting. Representative plots were generated using sense strand reads from empty_1 and
ssb_1 samples. Sense strand reads from ssb_1 sample (*B. theta* encoding the *ssb* fragment 2)
map across the subunit S gene formed after recombination.