Glycogen degrading activities of catalytic domains of α-amylase and α-amylase-pullulanase

enzymes conserved in *Gardnerella* spp. from the vaginal microbiome

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Abstract

     Gardnerella spp. are associated with bacterial vaginosis, in which normally dominant lactobacilli are replaced with facultative and anaerobic bacteria including *Gardnerella* spp. Co-occurrence of multiple species of *Gardnerella* is common in the vagina and competition for nutrients such as glycogen likely contributes to the differential abundances of *Gardnerella* spp. Glycogen must be digested into smaller components for uptake; a process that depends on the combined action of enzymes collectively known as amylases. In this study, the ability of culture supernatants of 15 isolates of *Gardnerella* spp. to produce glucose, maltose, maltotriose and maltotetraose from glycogen was demonstrated. Carbohydrate active enzymes were identified bioinformatically in *Gardnerella* proteomes using dbCAN2. Identified proteins included a single domain α-amylase (encoded by all 15 isolates) and an α-amylase-pullulanase containing amylase, carbohydrate binding modules and pullulanase domains (14/15 isolates). To verify the sequence-based functional predictions, the amylase and pullulanase domains of the α-amylase-pullulanase, and the single domain α-amylase were each produced in *E. coli*. The α-amylase domain from the α-amylase-pullulanase released maltose, maltotriose and maltotetraose from glycogen, and the pullulanase domain released maltotriose from pullulan, demonstrating that the *Gardnerella* α-amylase-pullulanase is capable of hydrolyzing α-1,4 and α-1,6 glycosidic bonds. Similarly, the single domain α-amylase protein also produced maltose, maltotriose and maltotetraose from glycogen. Our findings show that *Gardnerella* spp. produce extracellular amylase enzymes as 'public goods' that can digest glycogen into maltose, maltotriose and maltotetraose that can be used by the vaginal microbiota.

Importance

Increased abundance of *Gardnerella* spp. is a diagnostic characteristic of bacterial vaginosis, an

imbalance in the human vaginal microbiome associated with troubling symptoms, and negative

reproductive health outcomes, including increased transmission of sexually transmitted infections

and preterm birth. Competition for nutrients is likely an important factor in causing dramatic shifts

in the vaginal microbial community but little is known about the contribution of bacterial enzymes

to the metabolism of glycogen, a major food source available to vaginal bacteria. The significance

of our research is characterizing the activity of enzymes conserved in *Gardnerella* species that

contribute to the ability of these bacteria to utilize glycogen.

Introduction

Gardnerella spp. are associated with bacterial vaginosis (BV), a condition characterized

by the replacement of the usually dominant *Lactobacillus* community with a mixture of facultative

and anaerobic bacteria including *Gardnerella* spp. (1). BV is characterized by thin, white to

greyish discharge and unpleased 'fishy' vaginal odor, however a large majority of women

diagnosed with BV do not have symptoms (2). Phenotypic diversity among *Gardnerella* spp. may

explain why they are found in women presenting clinical signs of bacterial vaginosis and in

asymptomatic or BV negative women (3). The genus *Gardnerella* has been classified into four

different species and at least 13 "genome species" (4). Co-occurrence of multiple *Gardnerella*

species in the vaginal environment is common, and different species are dominant in different

women (5). Given the potentially different roles of *Gardnerella* species in the vaginal microbiome,

understanding the factors contributing to their population structure is important. Previous work

has shown that interactions in co-cultures of *Gardnerella* spp. are typical of a "scramble"

competition (6), suggesting that competition for nutrients is an important factor contributing to the

differential abundances of *Gardnerella* spp. in the vaginal microbiome.

Glycogen is an abundant carbon and energy source available to the vaginal microbiota

including *Gardnerella*. Glycogen is a glucose homopolysaccharide comprising linear α-1,4 linked

glucose with α-1,6 branch points occurring approximately at every 8-13 residues to from a highly

branched and complex structure. The sizes of glycogen molecules and branching patterns can vary

based on the glycogen source (7). In the vagina, glycogen accumulates inside vaginal epithelial

cells under the influence of estrogen (8) and is released into the vaginal lumen through the activity

of bacterial cytolysins and/or lactic acid mediated acidosis (9). The amount of free glycogen in

vaginal fluid can range from undetectable to 32 µg/ml (10).

Glycogen must be digested into smaller products for uptake into bacterial cells. This

complex and multistep process requires the combined action of enzymes collectively known as

amylases. The majority of Glycogen degrading bacterial amylases belong to the glycosyl hydrolase

(GH) class within family 13 in the classification of carbohydrate active enzymes. GH13 enzymes

are further classified into more than 40 subfamilies based on their structure and substrate

specificity (11). Previous studies have shown the presence and activity of human and/or bacterial

amylases in vaginal fluid (12, 13) but the specific contribution of *Gardnerella* spp. to glycogen

digestion is not clear.

This study aimed to assess the glycogen digestion ability of *Gardnerella* spp. isolated from

the vaginal microbiome and to determine the distribution of extracellular glycogen degrading

enzymes among different species. In addition, we aimed to biochemically characterize the

activities of the predicted functional domains of extracellular glycogen degrading amylase

enzymes identified. Our findings showed that *Gardnerella* spp. have α-amylase and α-amylase-

pullulanase enzymes which can digest glycogen into maltose and other oligosaccharides.

Methods

***Gardnerella* isolates**

Isolates of *Gardnerella* used in this study were from a previously described culture

collection (14) and included a total of 15 *Gardnerella* spp. isolates [three representative strains

each from *G. leopoldii* (GH005, VN003 & NR017), *G. piotii* (VN002, GH007 & GH020), *G.*

vaginalis (NR038, NR001 & NR039) and *G. swidsinskii* (NR016, NR021 & NR020), two isolates

from *Gardnerella* genome sp. 3 (NR026 & N170) and one from unknown genome species (NR047,

subgroup D based on cpn60 classification system). Whole genome sequence data for all isolates

were retrieved from NCBI BioProject Accession PRJNA394757.

Amylase activity assay

Amylase activity of *Gardnerella* isolates was assessed using a glycogen iodine test (15).

Isolates were revived from -80°C storage on Columbia blood agar plates containing 5% sheep

blood, and incubated anaerobically using the GasPak system (BD, USA) at 37°C for 48 hours.

Isolated colonies were transferred into modified NYCIII broth (obtained by replacing horse serum

with bovine serum and omitting glucose in NYCIII media) and incubated anaerobically for 24

hours at 37°C. Overnight broth cultures were centrifuged at $10,000 \times g$ for 10 mins and the cell-

free supernatant was passed through a 0.45 µm filter. Filtered supernatant (10 µL) was spotted on

to a 1% (w/v) glycogen (Bovine liver glycogen, Sigma) agar plate and incubated anaerobically at

37°C for 24 hours. Filtered supernatant was also streaked on Columbia sheep blood agar to confirm

sterility. Plates were flooded with 1% (w/v) Lugol's iodine solution to detect evidence of amylase

activity. α-amylase from *Bacillus licheniformis* (0.05 mg/ml) (Sigma-Aldrich, Oakville, ON, CAT

No. A455) and modified NYCIII broth were used as positive and negative controls respectively.

Activity of cell culture supernatants on glycogen

Activity of cell culture supernatants on glycogen was assessed by incubating culture

supernatants with glycogen and examining the products. Briefly, 20 µl of culture supernatant was

added to 180 µl of 0.1% bovine liver glycogen in 50 mM sodium phosphate buffer, pH 7.0 and

incubated at 37ºC. Aliquots (50 µl) of the reaction mixture were collected at 24 h and were frozen

immediately until analysis by thin layer chromatography (TLC) and high-performance anion

exchange chromatography with pulsed amperometric detection (HPAEC-PAD). TLC was

performed on silica plates in a 1-butanol, acetic acid and distilled water (2:1:1 [vol:vol:vol]) mobile

phase and stained using 0.3% of N-napthyl ethylenediamine dihydrochloaride (Sigma) as

described previously (16). HPAEC-PAD samples were first precipitated with 80% ethanol to

remove large polysaccharides and diluted (to 1:20 for G5 and maltodextrin or 1:10 for glycogen)

and resolved on a Dionex PA20 column in a mobile phase of 30 mM NaOH and gradient of 10

mM to 120 mM sodium acetate over 40 min at a flow rate of 0.5 ml min^{-1}. Data were analyzed

using Chromeleon v6.80 chromatography data system software.

Identification of the carbohydrate active enzymes (CAZyme)

The *Gardnerella* proteomes, predicted from the RAST annotation, were uploaded into the

dbCAN2 webserver (22). All three available domain prediction tools (HMMER, eCAMI and

DIAMOND) were used to annotate the carbohydrate active domain(s) in protein sequences. The

dbCAN2 uses SignalP to predict whether a signal peptide is present or absent in the protein in

which each carbohydrate active domain is located. To identify secreted glycogen degrading

glycosyl hydrolases, dbCAN2 output was filtered to include only GH13 domain(s) associated with

signal peptide. TMHMM 2.0 (23) and LocateP (24) were used to predict transmembrane and cell-

wall anchored domains respectively.

129   Phylogenetic analysis of GH13_32 amylase domains

Domains belonging to subfamily 32 within the family 13 of glycosyl hydrolases class are

referred to as GH13_32 amylase domains. Amino acid sequences corresponding to the GH13_32

amylase domain were extracted from predicted extracellular glycosyl hydrolases of all study

isolates and four *Gardnerella* reference strains [(*G. leopoldii*, (CP029984)), *G. piotii*

(QJUV00000000), *G. vaginalis* (QJUZ00000000) and *G. swidsinskii* (QJVB00000000)](4).

Multiple-sequence alignments were performed using CLUSTALw and a neighbour joining

consensus tree was built in Geneious prime version 2022.1.1 (https://www.geneious.com). The

final tree was visualized using Figtree (v1.4.4).

To identify the conserved catalytic residues in GH13_32 domains, amino acid sequences

of representative GH13_32 domains of *G. leopoldii* NR017 were combined with GH13_32 domain

sequences from functionally characterized α-amylases [*Pseudoalteromonas haloplanktis* A23

(CAA41481.1) and *Streptomyces venezuelae* ATCC 15068 (AAB36561.1)] and amylopullulanase

[*Bifidobacterium breve* UCC2003 (AAY89038.1)] deposited in the CAZy database. Sequences

were aligned using CLUSTALw and alignments were visualized in ESPript (25).

144   Expression and purification of α-amylase and pullulanase domains from α-amylase-

145   pullulanase

To characterize activities of the amylase and pullulanase domains of the α-amylase-

pullulanase, *G. leopoldii* (NR017) was chosen as a representative isolate. Genomic DNA was

extracted from *G. leopoldii* NR017 using a modified salting out procedure. Primers

(Supplementary Table 1) were designed to amplify the nucleotide sequences encoding the

predicted α-amylase (corresponding to amino acids 74-350 of Genbank Accession RFT33565) and

pullulanase (corresponding to amino acids 1141-1462 of Genbank Accession RFT33565) domains

of the NR017 α-amylase-pullulanase gene along with 30 additional flanking nucleotides each on

the 5' and 3' ends. PCR was carried out in PCR buffer (0.2 M Tris-HCl [pH 8.4], 0.5 M KCl), a

200 mM concentration of each deoxynucleoside triphosphate (dNTP), 2.5 mM $MgCl_2$, a 400 nM

concentration of each primer (α-amylase: JH0810-F & JH0811-R, or pullulanase: JH0812-F &

JH0813-R), 1 U/reaction of Platinum Taq DNA polymerase high-fidelity (5 U/ml in 50% glycerol,

20 mM Tris-HCl, 40 mM NaCl, 0.1 mM EDTA, and stabilizers) (Life Technologies), and 2 µl of

template DNA, in a final volume of 50 µl. PCR was performed with the following parameters:

initial denaturation at 94°C for 3 min, 40 cycles of denaturation at 94°C for 15 s, annealing at 60°C

for 15 s, and extension at 72°C for 1 min (for α-amylase domain) or 1.5 min (for pullulanase

domain), and final extension at 72°C for 3 min. Purified PCR products were digested with *Bam*HI

and *Kpn*I and ligated into expression vector pQE-80L treated with the same restriction

endonucleases. The pQE-80L+amylase domain plasmid (henceforth referred to as pQE80L-AMY)

was used to transform chemically competent *E. coli* Rosetta DE3 cells (Novagen, Sigma-Aldrich),

and the pQE-80L+pullulanase domain plasmid (henceforth referred to as pQE80L-PULL) was

used to transform One Shot TOP10 chemically competent *E. coli* cells (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA).

Insertion of amylase and pullulanase domain encoding sequences in frame with the N-terminal

His-tag was confirmed by sequencing of the purified plasmid.

E. coli Rosetta cells containing pQE80L-AMY were grown in 800 ml of LB broth

containing ampicillin (100 µg/ml) and chloramphenicol (25 µg/ml) whereas *E. coli* Top10 cells

containing pQE80L-PULL were grown in same volume of LB broth with ampicillin (100 µg/ml)

only. Once the culture reached an optical density at 600 nm (OD_{600}) of 0.4 - 0.6, protein expression

was induced with 0.5 mM IPTG. After 4 h of incubation at 37°C with shaking at 200 rpm, cells

were harvested by centrifugation at 8500 × g for 20 min at 4°C and pellets were stored at -20°C

until further processing. Proteins were solubilized using anionic detergent as described previously

(26) with a slight modification during sonication (6 min total run time, 2 min on, 1 min off at 4°C).

Eluted proteins were dialyzed against 1 × PBS (pH 7.4) at 4°C using a semipermeable membrane

with cut-off size 12 kDa for 24 - 48 hours. The diluted proteins were concentrated using a 30 kDa

molecular weight cut-off protein concentrator (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Final protein

concentration was measured using a Nanodrop spectrophotometer before storing at -20°C.

Expression and purification of single amylase domain containing α-amylase

A codon-optimized DNA construct corresponding to the full-length open reading frame of

single domain α-amylase from *G. leopoldii* NR017 was synthesized and a region encoding amino

acids 58-519 (excluding N-terminal signal peptide and C-terminal transmembrane domain) was

amplified using JH0857 and JH0858 primers (Supplementary Table 1). The 1463 bp product was

ligated into *Mfe*I *and Hind*III digested pET41a+ vector to express as a N-terminal GST-His tag

fusion protein (79.9 kDa). The recombinant plasmid (pET41a+CO-AMY) was used to transform

chemically competent *E. coli* DH5α cells. Presence of the insert in frame with the N-terminal

GST-His-tag was confirmed by Sanger sequencing of the purified plasmid.

Purified recombinant plasmid (pET41a+CO-AMY) was used to transform *E. coli*

BL21DE3 cells for protein production. *E. coli* BL21DE3 cells containing recombinant plasmid

were grown in 1.8 L of LB broth containing kanamycin (30 μg/ml). When culture reached to

optical density OD_{600} 0.4 - 0.6, IPTG was added to a final concentration of 0.5 mM to induce

protein expression at 37ºC for 4 hours with shaking at 200 rpm. Cells were harvested by

centrifugation at 8500 × g for 20 min. Expressed protein was solubilized using anionic detergent

as described previously (26) with slight modification of the sonication protocol (80% duty cycle,

8 minutes total run time, 10 secs on, 5 secs off). The recombinant amylase protein was purified

using a nickel column. Eluted proteins were dialyzed against 1× PBS (pH 7.4) at 4°C overnight

using a semipermeable membrane of cut-off size 12 kDa, and dialyzed protein was concentrated

using a 30 kDa molecular weight cut-off protein concentrator (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Final

protein concentration was measured using a Nanodrop spectrophotometer before storing at -20°C.

The region encoding the GST and 6xHis tags was expressed from empty pET41a vector in

E. coli BL21DE3 cells and was purified using Ni-affinity chromatography for use as a negative

control in activity experiments.

Enzyme activity on different substrates

The activity of purified enzymes was tested by incubating purified enzymes with different

substrates. Briefly, 250 µl of the purified amylase domain (22.3 µM) or α-amylase (13.0 µM) was

incubated with 1% glycogen, maltodextrin (dextrose equivalent 13-17) or maltopentose while

purified pullulanase (25.3 µM) was incubated with 1% pullulan. All substrates were prepared in

50 mM sodium phosphate buffer at pH 6.0. Enzyme substrate reaction mixtures were incubated at

37ºC for 24 h and stored at -20°C until further analysis by TLC or HPAEC-PAD as described

above.

Results

Amylase activity of *Gardnerella* culture supernatants

No growth was observed from filtered culture supernatants, confirming their sterility.

Supernatants of all 15 isolates showed amylase activity in the agar plate assay (Figure 1). Cell-free

culture supernatants of 14 isolates produced glucose, maltose, maltotriose from glycogen while

glucose was the only product detected from N170 supernatant (*Gardnerella* genome sp. 3, GS3-

2) (Figure 2).

Figure 1: Amylase activity of cell free culture supernatants on glycogen agar. Each spot represents
one isolate and a total of 15 different isolates, three each from GL: *G. leopoldii*, GP: *G. piotii*,
GV: *G. vaginalis*, GS: *G. swidsinskii* and others [two isolates from *Gardnerella* genome sp. 3 (top
& middle) and one isolate from unknown genome species (bottom) (corresponds to the subgroup
D based on cpn60 classification system)] are shown. NC: mNYC, PC: *B. licheniformis* amylase
(0.05 mg/ml).
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Figure 2: Identification of glycogen breakdown products produced after 24 h by culture supernatants of 15 *Gardnerella* isolates by HPAEC-PAD (A-E) and TLC (F). GL: *G. leopoldii*, GV: *G. vaginalis*, GS: *G. swidsinskii*, GP, *G. piotii*, and others [two isolates from *Gardnerella* genome sp. 3 (top & middle) and one isolate from unknown genome species (bottom) (corresponds to the subgroup D based on cpn60 classification system)], MC: media control, G-M8: glucose to maltooctaose standards.

Identification of genes encoding carbohydrate active enzymes in *Gardnerella* genomes

Out of 20,017 predicted protein sequences from 15 isolates uploaded into the dbCAN2

webserver, 886 sequences had at least one carbohydrate active domain. Results were filtered to

include only glycosyl hydrolase (GH) domains associated with a signal peptide. Only 52/836

sequences identified as belonging to the GH class had an associated signal peptide. Results were

further filtered to identify predicted extracellular glycogen degrading enzymes (protein containing

at least one GH13 domain associated with signal peptide), resulting in identification of 29

sequences.

A multidomain enzyme containing an N-terminal α-amylase domain (GH13_32), followed

by 2 - 4 carbohydrate binding modules (CBM, of types CBM25, CBM41 or CBM48) and a C-

terminal pullulanase domain (GH13_14) was identified in all isolates except N170. This enzyme

also included an N-terminal signal peptide domain, C-terminal transmembrane domain and a cell

wall anchor LPxTG domain (Figure 3A). This multidomain enzyme is traditionally referred to as

Type II amylopullulanase, however, recently it has been suggested that these enzymes are more

appropriately classified as Type II α-amylase-pullulanase (27) and so the term 'α-amylase-

pullulanase' is used throughout this paper. The domain organization of *G. leopoldii* NR017 α-

amylase-pullulanase (RFT33565.1) is shown in Figure 3A. Similarly, a single α-amylase

(GH13_32) domain containing α-amylase enzyme with an N-terminal signal peptide and a C-

terminal transmembrane domain was identified in all 15 isolates (NR017 accession number

RFT33564.1) (Figure 3B).

Figure 3: Predicted domains of *G. leopoldii* NR017 α-amylase-pullulanase (1977 amino acids) (A) and α-amylase (545 amino acids) (B). Amylase and pullulanase domains belonging to GH13 subfamilies 32 and 14 are indicated in red while three carbohydrate binding modules (CBM) are in blue. SP, Signal peptide; LPxTG, Cell-wall anchoring LPxTG domain, TMHelix, transmembrane helix domain respectively. Numbering indicates amino acid positions. The regions used for recombinant protein expression are indicated with black broken line with arrows. Predicted extracellular and intracellular regions are indicated with green lines.

Phylogenetic analysis of GH13_32 amylase domains and relationship with other amylases

GH13_32 amylase domain sequences from the single domain α-amylase and α-amylase-pullulanase from all study isolates formed two distinct clusters (Figure 4A). Intra-cluster amino acid sequence identity of amylase domains within single domain α-amylase and α-amylase-pullulanase enzymes was 75-100% and 66-100%, respectively, whereas inter-cluster identity was 64-74%.

GH13 enzymes have a conserved catalytic triad of two aspartate residues (acts as a nucleophile and to stabilize the transition state) and a glutamate residue (general acid base) (28). *In silico* analysis of GH13_32 amylase domains of *G. leopoldii* NR017 with GH13_32 amylase domains of functionally characterized α-amylase and α-amylase-pullulanase revealed conserved

catalytic residues (Figure 4B). The catalytic triad was conserved across all GH13_32 amylase domains from 15 *Gardnerella* isolates. (Supplementary Figure 1).

Figure 4: (A) Phylogenetic tree of all α-amylase domains from 15 *Gardnerella* isolates and 4 reference strains (indicated with T after the strain name). The tree is rooted with *Streptomyces venezuelae* ATCC15068. Trees are consensus trees of 100 bootstrap iterations and constructed

using Neighbour joining method using Tamura-Nei distance model. The number at major branch

points represents the percentage bootstrap support. (B) Sequence alignment of GH13_32 catalytic

domains of *G leopoldii* NR017 α-amylase (NR017_A) and α-amylase-pullulanase (NR017_AP)

with other functionally characterized GH13_32 members ((α-amylases from *Psuedoalternomonas*

haloplanktis A23 (CAA41481.4) and *S. venezuelae* ATCC15068) and 'amylopullulanase' from

Bifidobacterium breve UCC2003). Black triangles indicate conserved catalytic residues.

Protein expression and purification

The entire open reading frame of *G. leopoldii* NR017 α-amylase-pullulanase (GH13_32

and GH13_14) comprises 5,933 bp encoding a 1,977 amino acid protein with a predicted mass of

215.3 kDa (Figure 3A). The gene segments encoding the α-amylase (amino acids 64-360) and

pullulanase domains (amino acids 1131-1472) were each PCR amplified and ligated into pQE-

80L vector to express as N-terminal 6His-tagged proteins in *E. coli* (Figure 5A, left panel).

Expressed proteins were solubilized using 1% SDS and purified using nickel-nitriloacetic acid

(Ni-NTA) columns (Supplementary Figure 2). Apparent molecular weights of the 6His-tagged

amylase and pullulanase domains were 35.7 and 40.5 kDa, respectively (Figure 5B, left and

middle).

Figure 5: (A) Protein profiles of uninduced (UN) and induced (IN) *E. coli* cells containing pQE80L-AMY & pQE80L-PULL (top left) and pET41a+CO-AMY (top right) recombinant plasmids. (B) Purified 6His-tagged amylase (Amy) (bottom left) and pullulanase (Pull) (bottom middle) and GST-6His-tag α-amylase (bottom right). M molecular weight markers.

The *G. leopoldii* NR017 α-amylase enzyme (1635 bp encoding a 545 amino acid protein with a predicted mass of 60.5 kDa) has a predicted N-terminal signal peptide (amino acids 1-57) and C-terminal transmembrane domain (amino acids 520-545) (Figure 3B). A codon-optimized version of the truncated α-amylase gene sequence encoding amino acids 58-519 was expressed as a GST fusion protein with an apparent molecular weight of 79.9 kDa in *E. coli* BL21 DE3 cells (Figure 5A, right). The recombinant protein was solubilized using 1% SDS. Attempts to purify this GST fusion protein using glutathione beads resulted in a very low recovery of target protein due to poor binding to the beads (Supplementary Figure 3). The pET41a+amylase construct

includes an N-terminal hexa-histidine tag between the GST tag and the amylase sequence.

Purification of the fusion protein using a Ni-NTA column resulted in partial protein purification

(Figure 5B, right). Additional lower molecular weight peptides observed in the column eluate were

identified as degraded peptide fragments of the fusion protein by western blot with anti-His

antibodies (Supplementary Figure 4).

Activity of the purified proteins

The α-amylase domain from the α-amylase-pullulanase released maltose and maltotriose

from maltopentose while maltose, maltotriose and maltotetraose were identified as the major

products from maltodextrin (13-17) and glycogen (Figure 6A). The pullulanase domain produced

maltotriose as the only product from pullulan (Figure 6B). A small peak corresponding to

isomaltose was observed in the HPAEC-PAD results from 24 and 48 h digests of glycogen with

amylase domain (Figure 6A- middle right). Overall, our results show that amylase and pullulanase

domains from α-amylase-pullulanase can hydrolyse α-1,4 and α-1,6 glycosidic bonds,

respectively.

Figure 6: (A) Identification of products released by α-amylase domain (GH13_32) of α-amylase-
pullulanase from maltopentose (M5) and maltodextrin (MD) and glycogen (Gly) after 24 and
48h of incubation using TLC (top) and HPAEC-PAD (middle and bottom). (B) Products released
from pullulan by the pullulanase domain (GH13_14) after 24 and 48 h incubation were identified
using TLC (top) and HPAEC-PAD (bottom). Standards in Lane M of each panel: G: glucose, M2:
maltose, M3: maltotriose, M4: maltotetraose and M5: maltopentose.
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Since the α-amylase domain from the single-domain α-amylase enzyme was expressed as

a GST-6xHis fusion, we initially confirmed that no amylase activity was detected from the GST-

6xHis tag (Supplementary Figure 5). Maltose and maltotriose were produced when maltopentose

was incubated with single domain α-amylase (Figure 7A, top and middle). Similarly, maltose,

maltotriose and maltotetraose were identified as the major products in the reaction mixture of

glycogen with single domain α-amylase (Figure 7B). As expected, the maltodextrin substrate

included maltose, maltotriose and maltotetraose, however, an increase in intensity of maltose,

maltotriose and maltotetraose spots was observed in TLC results in the reaction mixture of single

Figure 7: (A) Identification of products released by the purified single domain α-amylase enzyme
from maltopentose (M5) and maltodextrin (MD) using TLC (top) and HPAEC-PAD (bottom) after
24h incubation. (B) Products released from glycogen by the purified single domain α-amylase
enzyme after 24 h incubation were identified using TLC (top) and HPAEC-PAD (bottom).
Standards in Lane M of each panel: G: glucose, M2: maltose, M3: maltotriose, M4: maltotetraose
and M5: maltopentose.

Discussion

Dysbiosis in the vaginal microbiome has significant consequences that can affect the quality of life and reproductive health of women. There are several hypotheses about how dysbiosis is initiated and maintained (29, 30) but the ecological factors determining microbial population dynamics in the vaginal microbiome are not well understood. In addition to direct antagonistic (31) or synergistic (32) interactions among microbiota, changes in environmental conditions due to pregnancy status, hormone levels, infection, sexual behaviour and hygiene practices certainly play a role in determining the fitness of vaginal microbiota and thus microbial community composition. *Gardnerella* spp. have been implicated in the initial stages of transition to bacterial vaginosis (30) and so factors affecting their fitness, including their interaction with vaginal glycogen, are of particular interest.

Glycogen breakdown is a complex and multistep process that requires the action of several enzymes collectively known as amylases. Vaginal secretions contain host derived pancreatic α-amylase and α-glucosidases that can digest glycogen into smaller sugars (12). Until recently, the contribution of bacterial amylases in this process was unclear. Recently, van der Veer *et al.* showed that vaginal isolates of *Lactobacillus crispatus* are capable of growing in glycogen supplemented medium and encode type I pullulanase in their genomes (33). This study further reported that strains showing less efficient or no growth on glycogen have an N-terminal deletion mutation in their putative type I pullulanase gene suggesting its role in extracellular glycogen digestion. Forney *et al.* identified eight putative amylases from vaginal metagenomes of *Bifidobacterium vaginale*, *B. lacrimalis*, *L. gasseri*, *L. crispatu*s, *L. iners* and *L. jensenni* and further reported that multiple microbial amylases are present in vaginal fluid (13). Similarly, Woolston *et al.* identified putative glycogen degrading enzymes in genomes of vaginal bacteria including *Gardnerella* spp. and

biochemically characterized the glycogen degradation ability of six GH13 hydrolase enzymes

(34) identified in those species. Together these findings suggest that bacterial enzymes contribute

to the breakdown of vaginal glycogen.

The genus *Gardnerella* was a mono-specific genus until recently when it was classified

into four species and additional "genome species" that have not yet been named due to insufficient

evidence (4). The role of *Gardnerella* spp. in extracellular glycogen digestion and whether the

species in this genus differ in digesting glycogen is not clear. Although earlier studies reported that

Gardnerella isolates can utilize glycogen (35–37), it is not clear if all newly defined species are

capable of digesting extracellular glycogen. In this study, we used cell free culture supernatants

from genetically characterized isolates to test extracellular glycogen breakdown ability of different

Gardnerella spp.

Selection of an appropriate culture medium to make culture supernatants is a challenge. As

our main interest was to identify the sugars released from glycogen, differentiating the background

sugars that are already present in medium from those obtained from glycogen hydrolysis is crucial.

Gardnerella is typically cultured in BHI broth or NYCIII and both media contain glucose. In

addition, the complement inactivated horse serum (obtained by heat treatment at 56ºC for 20

minutes) added to NYCIII can itself digest glycogen. It is reported that heat treatment at 70ºC for

20 minutes inhibits the maltase and amylase activity of fetal bovine serum but not horse serum

(38). For this reason, in our experiments a modified NYCIII media supplemented with heat

inactivated (70ºC for 20 minutes) fetal bovine serum instead of horse serum and no added glucose

was used to prepare culture supernatants. Cell free culture supernatants of all isolates tested

showed amylase activity in a glycogen agar plate assay, suggesting that glycogen degradation is a

conserved property in the genus *Gardnerella*. Glucose, maltose, maltotriose and maltotetraose

were identified as the major products released from glycogen by culture supernatants of all

Gardnerella isolates except N170 isolate which produced only glucose. Consistent with this

observation α-amylase-pullulanase genes were detected in all isolates except N170. Overall, no

species-specific patterns of glycogen breakdown products were found in *Gardnerella* spp.

405   Of the two predicted extracellular glycosyl hydrolases identified by dbCAN2, the α-

406   amylase-pullulanase contained separate amylase and pullulanase catalytic domains; a

407   conformation historically referred to as Type II amylopullulanase (39). With the availability of

408   more sequence data, these enzymes are now classified as Type II α-amylase-pullulanase and they

409   differ from amylopullulanases which have only one catalytic domain capable of hydrolyzing both

410   α-1,4 and α-1,6 glycosidic bonds (27).

411   The amylase and pullulanase domains of the α-amylase-pullulanase flanked 2 - 4 CBMs.

CBMs appended to GH13 enzymes are important for binding to different α-glucans, such as

amylose, amylopectin, glycogen, pullulan and oligosaccharides derived from these

polysaccharides (40, 41). CBMs increase the concentration of substrate on the enzyme surface and

their removal can significantly reduce enzyme activity. It is reported that removal of CBMs

reduced the activity of *Eubacterium rectale* α-amylase on starch by ~40 fold compared to the

wildtype protein (42). Similarly, compared to a full-length enzyme, removal of CBM domains

reduced the activity of *B. adolescentis* P2P3 Type II pullulanase on glycogen (43). We did not

investigate the roles of the CBMs in the α-amylase-pullulanase characterized in this study since

our attempts to express full-length α-amylase-pullulanase were unsuccessful.

421   Recently, Wollston *et al.* (34) characterized a full length 'amylopullulanase' (2013 amino

acids) from a vaginal isolate of *G. vaginalis* and reported maltose and maltotriose as the major

products from glycogen. In this report, the authors described the enzyme as containing two 'α-

amylase domains' rather than amylase and pullulanase catalytic domains as we describe here. By

expressing the two catalytic domains separately we have demonstrated that they have distinct

activities, hydrolysing α-1,4, and α-1,6 bonds, respectively.

Both α-amylase and α-amylase-pullulanase enzymes are active against oligosaccharides

and glycogen. Although the overall sequence identity between the two amylase domains

characterized in this study was only 64-74%, predicted catalytic residues were perfectly conserved

(Figure 4B). Either domain would thus be capable of acting on the malto-oligosaccharides

produced by the debranching activity of the pullulanase domain to generate glucose, maltose, and

other small oligosaccharides. This type of functional redundancy where two enzymes have similar

biochemical activities is common in bacteria (44).

Although *Gardnerella* α-amylase and α-amylase-pullulanase are predicted to be

extracellular, both enzymes have C-terminal transmembrane helices followed by a short

intracellular domain. A cell wall anchoring LPxTG domain was also identified in the α-amylase-

pullulanase sequence, immediately N-terminal to the transmembrane helix (Figure 3A). The

presence of these features suggests that both enzymes are tethered to the cell wall. Cell wall

anchored proteins can be released into the extracellular environment during bacterial growth as a

by-product of cell wall turnover or cell death or proteolytic cleavage (45), which is consistent with

our detection of amylase activity in sterile culture supernatants. Some *Gardnerella* species also

produce cell wall anchored sialidases, NanH2 and NanH3, that are also released into the

supernatant after cell death or by proteolytic cleavage (46).

Although glucose was identified as one of the major products in glycogen digests of

Gardnerella culture supernatants, the purified α-amylase domain and single domain α-amylase

proteins did not produce glucose from glycogen. TLC and HPAEC-PAD analysis showed that

glucose was neither produced by the activity of culture media itself nor present in glycogen

substrate (Figure 2F& 2G). Another possibility is that the activity of a full-length α-amylase-

pullulanase protein on glycogen might generate different product profiles than the isolated

domains. A full-length type II pullulanase enzyme (containing two separate α-amylase and

pullulanase domains) from *Bifidobacterium adolescentis* P2P3 was reported to produce maltose

only from glycogen, while the purified amylase domain protein from the same enzyme produced

a mixture of glucose, maltose and maltotriose (43). Glucose may also be produced by the activity

of intracellular α-glucosidase on malto-oligosaccharides generated from glycogen hydrolysis that

are released by dead/lysed bacteria in the culture. We have previously shown that *Gardnerella* spp.

have conserved intracellular α-glucosidase that can release glucose from smaller oligosaccharides

(47).

Our findings show that all *Gardnerella* species produce extracellular α-amylase and α-

amylase-pullulanase enzymes that are 'public goods' in the vaginal microbiome, breaking down

glycogen to produce similar fingerprints of glycogen derived products and contributing to the

nutrient pool available to the vaginal microbiota (Figure 8). Determining if these *Gardnerella* spp.

differentially utilize and compete for these breakdown products will provide insights into whether

competition for malto-oligosaccharides plays a role in determining *Gardnerella* community

structure in the vaginal microbiome.

Figure 8: Proposed mechanisms of extracellular glycogen utilization in *Gardnerella* spp. Glycogen is digested into malto-oligosaccharides by α-amylase-pullulanase and α-amylase and these breakdown products are transported inside and can be further digested to glucose by other glycosyl hydrolases including a previously characterized α-glucosidase enzyme (47). Extracellular glycogen breakdown products can also be utilized by other resident microbiota.

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Supplementary Figure 1: Sequence alignment of all GH13_32 domains from 15 *Gardnerella* isolates with GH13_32 domain of functionally characterized α-amylase from *P. haloplanktis* A23 (CAA41481.1). An alignment including amino acids from 120 to 250 positions only is shown. Conserved catalytic residues are indicated with red triangles and invariant sequences are highlighted in dark background.

Supplementary Figure 2: Ni-NTA purification of 6His-tagged amylase (A) and pullulanase (B) domain proteins. M: molecular weight marker, FT1 &FT2: flow through fractions, W1&W2: wash fractions, E1-E3: elution fractions.

Supplementary Figure 3: Analysis of fractions obtained during protein purification using glutathione beads. M: molecular weight markers, BS: mixture of glutathione beads and solubilized protein, FT: flowthroughs, B1-B3: Protein bound glutathione beads obtained after first, second and third wash, E1-E2: elution fractions

Supplementary Figure 4: SDS-PAGE (A) and Western blot (B) analysis of fractions obtained during recombinant α-amylase protein purification using Nickel affinity chromatography (A). Immunoblot membrane was first incubated with primary antibody (Anti-6x His tag monoclonal antibody, 1:2,000 dilutions) followed by washing and further incubation with secondary antibody conjugates (Alexa fluor 680 goat anti-mouse IgG, 1: 20,000 dilutions). Finally, membrane was scanned at 700 nm using Li-COR scanner after secondary antibody wash. M- molecular weight markers, W1 & W2: wash fractions, E1-E3: elution fractions.

Supplementary Figure 5: (A) Expression and Ni-NTA purification of GST-His fusion tag. M: molecular weight markers, IN: IPTG induced culture, UN: uninduced culture, LY: lysate, PT: pellet, FT: flowthrough, W1 and W2: wash fractions, E1 and E2: elution fractions. Identification of products obtained from purified GST-His tag with maltopentose (M5), maltodextrin (MD) and Glycogen (Gly) using TLC (B) and HPAEC-PAD (C). M: sugar standards: G: glucose, M2: maltose, M3: maltotriose, M4: maltotetraose.

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Supplementary Table 1: Primers used in this study. Restriction endonuclease recognition sites are underlined.

Primer ID	Sequence (5'-3')	RE sites
JH0729	CGC CAG GGT TTT CCC AGT CAC GAC GAI III GCI GGI GAY GGI ACI ACI AC	
JH0730	AGC GGA TAA CAA TTT CAC ACA GGA YKI YKI TCI CCR AAI CCI GGI GCY TT	
JH0810	AAT <u>GGA TCC</u> GAG TGC ACT AAA ACT TAC GGT CAT	*Bam*HI
JH0811	AT<u>G GTA CC</u>G TAC CCT GAA TAA ATG TTT GGG	*Kpn*I
JH0812	CAG <u>GGA TCC</u> ACT AAG AAT GGA AGC AAG CCA ACT GGT	*Bam*HI
JH0813	AT<u>G GTA CC</u>A TTC TTA TTG CCG TTC TTG CTT CGT AAG	*Kpn*I
JH0857	GAT <u>CAA TTG</u> CTT CCA CAA AAT CCA CTG	*Mfe*I
JH0858	ACT <u>AAG CTT</u> TTA CGA AGT CGA TCC GAA	*Hind*III