Degradation of resistant α-1,4-glucan by vaginal

Gardnerella species is associated with bacterial vaginosis

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Abstract

This study investigates the degradation of resistant α-1,4-glucan by vaginal bacterial species, with a focus on *Gardnerella* spp., to elucidate its role in bacterial vaginosis (BV). The ability of *Gardnerella vaginalis*, *Gardnerella swidsinskii*, *Gardnerella leopoldii*, *Gardnerella piotii*, *Lactobacillus iners*, and *Lactobacillus crispatus* was assessed to metabolize an ungelatinized, labeled form of raw amylose, a degradation-resistant α-1,4-glucan. The enzymatic activity of these species was evaluated *in vitro*, and its association with BV was examined in vaginal swabs. *Gardnerella vaginalis, G. swidsinskii*, and *G. leopoldii* demonstrated the best ability to degrade resistant α-1,4-glucan *in vitro*. Unlike the cell-bound, S-layer-associated glycogen-degrading activity in *L. crispatus*, this α-glucosidase activity in *Gardnerella* was also extracellular, but not cell-bound and not repressed by glucose. Vaginal swabs showing high rates of resistant α-1,4-glucan degradation activity were associated with BV, particularly in the concurrent presence of *G. leopoldii, G. swidsinskii*, and *G. vaginalis*. These findings suggest a role of α-1,4-glucan degradation in BV pathogenesis mediated by *Gardnerella* species. The results indicate the potential of targeting bacterial amylase activity as therapeutic strategy for BV prevention and treatment.

Introduction

The vaginal mucosa of reproductive aged women is rich in glycogen (Cruickshank, 1934; Mirmonsef et al., 2016). Through shedding and lysis of the superficial vaginal epithelial cells, glycogen is released in the vaginal lumen where it can serve as a carbohydrate source for bacteria colonizing the vagina, including *Lactobacillus crispatus* (Hertzberger et al., 2022; van der Veer et al., 2019). Glycogen levels were found to be associated with the vaginal microbiota composition (Mirmonsef et al., 2014). The more *Lactobacillus*-dominated vaginal microbiota is associated with higher levels of glycogen compared to the more diverse *Lactobacillus*-deprived microbiota with higher levels of fastidious anaerobes such as *Gardnerella*, *Fannyhessea* and *Prevotella* (Dols et al., 2016). The latter microbial dysbiotic state is also referred to as bacterial vaginosis (BV), and is a general risk factor for adverse reproductive and sexual health outcomes, such as HIV infection (Gosmann et al., 2017), HPV infection (Lin et al., 2020), subfertility (Vergaro et al., 2019), endometritis (Haggerty et al., 2004), pregnancy loss (R. G. Brown et al., 2018) and preterm birth (Gudnadottir et al., 2022).

Gardnerella is a hallmark genus in BV (10). The vaginal microbiota in women with BV has a much higher bacterial diversity compared to the healthy, *Lactobacillus*-dominated microbiota. Species within the *Gardnerella* genus can cause many of the clinical manifestations of BV, including exfoliation of the epithelial wall lining the vagina and thinning of the mucus leading to abnormal secretions (Gelber et al., 2008; Gilbert et al., 2013; Lewis et al., 2013). *Gardnerella* spp. differ in their ability to produce sialidase found in *G. piotii, G. pickettii* and in a subset of *G. vaginalis* strains (Robinson et al., 2019; Sousa et al., 2023).

Alpha-glucosidases are enzymes that catalyze the hydrolysis of α1-4 or α1-6 linkages between glucose units of α-glucans. In an environment with glycogen as the prime carbohydrate source, α-glucosidases of vaginal bacteria could play a central role in carbon and energy metabolism by extracellular degradation of host-associated glycogen, thereby releasing smaller maltodextrins for utilization in the surrounding environment. Previously, we

have suggested a genetic locus for one of these α-glucosidases: the *L. crispatus*

amylopullulanase (Dols et al., 2016; Hertzberger et al., 2022; van der Veer et al., 2019).

Strikingly, we found a large number of *L. crispatus* laboratory strains (23%) to be deficient for

this amylopullulanase and identified frequently occurring mutations in the genes of these

strains as well as in databases of vaginal metagenomes (Hertzberger et al., 2022; Sycuro et

al., 2023). This suggests that carbohydrate availability for some strains may depend on

glycogen cleavage by other bacteria or host amylase as well.

Most studies characterizing the α-glucosidases of vaginal bacteria have used soluble starch

or glycogen (Bhandari et al., 2023; Nunn et al., 2020; Spear et al., 2014). However, for the

gut microbiome it was shown that more resistant structures of α-glucan allow to discriminate

between carbohydrate-degrading enzymes of different bacterial taxa: Animals fed with

degradation-resistant α-glucan (resulting from a denser structure and a lower degree of

branching), show an increase of amylolytic species such as *Bifidobacterium* spp. (I. Brown et

al., 1997; Sybille et al., 2013). These bacteria produce a type II amylase-pullulanase fusion

protein capable of hydrolyzing resistant starch (Jung et al., 2020; Maier et al., 2017). A

homologue of this enzyme was identified in *Gardnerella vaginalis*, expressed in *Escherichia*

coli, and found to degrade amylose, pullulan, glycogen and starch (Jenkins et al., 2023).

More recent research showed that 14 out of 15 tested *Gardnerella* strains harbor a full copy

of this gene (Bhandari et al., 2023) and that isolates of four different *Gardnerella* species can

transport and metabolize the small maltodextrins derived from glycogen breakdown

(Bhandari & Hill, 2023).

Here we aimed to use resistant α-1,4-glucan to distinguish between bacterial glycosidases,

thereby increasing our understanding of their contribution to glycogen breakdown in various

microbial contexts. We show that *Gardnerella* species can be distinguished from vaginal

lactobacilli by their ability to break down resistant α-1,4-glucan. The degradation of resistant

α-1,4-glucan appears to be associated with vaginal dysbiosis.

Methods

Bacterial cultivation

For this study, we selected various strains isolated from vaginal samples. The isolation and characterization of the *Lactobacillus crispatus* amylopullulanase-sufficient strain RL10 and amylopullulanase-deficient strain RL09 were previously described (Dols et al., 2016; Hertzberger et al., 2022; van der Veer et al., 2019). Various *Gardnerella* strains were included as well as other members of the vaginal microbiota as described in Table S1. Cultivation of bacteria was carried out in laboratories of Ghent University and Vrije Universiteit Amsterdam – see below. The results from cultivation at the VU Amsterdam laboratory are depicted in Figure 1, 2, 3, 5, S1 and S2. The results from cultivation experiments at Ghent University are depicted in Figure 4 and S3. All strains were anaerobically cultivated from -80°C glycerol stocks (VU Amsterdam: NYCIII medium + 20% glycerol, Ghent: TSB + 15% glycerol) on agar plates under conditions indicated in Table S1. From these plates, colonies were picked to inoculate liquid New York City (NYC)-III broth with 10% horse serum as described previously (Hertzberger et al., 2022) or YEPG broth for *Candida albicans*. All cultures were handled under anaerobic conditions (VU Amsterdam: N_2 + 10% CO_2, Ghent University: 10% H_2, 10% CO_2, 80% N_2) in an anaerobic chamber (VU Amsterdam: PLAS Labs 855 NB; Ghent university: Bugbox Plus).

For three common vaginal bacterial species -*Gardnerella vaginalis, Lactobacillus iners* and *Lactobacillus crispatus*- we studied growth on glycogen by preparing a 1.1x New York City (NYC)-III broth with 10% horse serum to which we added a stock solution of 50 g/L oyster glycogen (Alva Aesar, Haver Hill, MA, USA) or 55 g/L glucose-monohydrate (Sigma-Aldrich) to obtain a final concentration of 5 g/L glucose-equivalents. We compared optical density after anaerobic incubation in NYCIII medium on these media. To verify whether any other medium components resulted in growth we inoculated these species also in NYCIII medium without glucose or glycogen supplemented. In Amsterdam, the optical density of cultures after 48 hours of growth was determined by diluting in saline and measuring the turbidity at

600 nm with a 1 mL cuvette using a Varian Cary 50 Bio UV-Vis Spectrophotometer (Spectra

Lab Scientific Inc, ON, Canada), subtracting the cell-free medium control. In Ghent, the

optical density was measured by diluting the culture in phosphate-buffered saline in a 96-well

microtiter plate and measuring the turbidity at 600 nm in a GloMax® Explorer Multimode

microplate reader (Promega, Madison, WI, USA).

The AZCL-amylose assay

High purity dyed and crosslinked insoluble AZCL-Amylose (product code O-AZAMYF;

Megazyme Inc., Bray, Ireland) was used as substrate for the assay of α-amylase. The AZCL-

Amylose was used in a raw un-gelatinized form and suspended in an amylase buffer with

xanthan gum to disperse the granules (Figure S1). After mixing with the sample (either

vaginal sample of bacterial culture, spent medium or resuspended cell pellet) the increase in

optical density in a microtiter plate was measured at 600 nm at 37°C. The lack of heating or

other pretreatment results in the substrate retaining a coarse, granular, undissolved

structure. Pelleting was prevented in this assay by suspension in a viscous buffer containing

xanthan gum. Xanthan gum (Sigma-Aldrich Life Corporation, Saint Louis, MI, USA) was

dissolved at 5 mg/mL in amylase buffer (100 mM sodium acetate buffer containing 5 mM

$CaCl_2$, pH adjusted with HCl to 5,3). This solution was autoclaved at 121°C for 20 minutes

and kept at room temperature. AZCL-amylose is commercially available in two forms: regular

and fine. The granules in the 'fine' product are small enough to pipet with regular pipet tips to

dose and mix with the sample. This solution was stable without sedimentation of the raw

amylose granules for up to 48 hours. AZCL-amylose was dispersed in the xanthan

gum/amylase buffer prior to each experiment by shortly vortexing. The assay was carried out

in a 96-well plate covered with adhesive film. A total of 190 µL reagent solution was added to

10 µL sample and mixed by carefully pipetting up and down. The microplate was incubated

at 37 °C for 24 hours and absorption was measured at 600 nm every 10 minutes. Maximum

rate was taken as the maximum slope of a three-hour time frame (including 19 data points).

This rate was divided by the optical density at 600 nm of the culture. The enzyme assay was

validated using *Aspergillus oryzae* amylase (Sigma-Aldrich) solution in amylase buffer with

150 units/µL where one unit corresponds to the amount of enzyme needed to cleave 1 µmol

of maltose per minute at pH 6.0 and 25°C.

To study the prevalence of raw amylose degradation activity amongst *Gardnerella* species,

we screened a set of 14 human vaginal *Gardnerella* strains from the species *G. leopoldii, G.*

swidsinskii, G. vaginalis, G. piotii and *G. pickettii.* We compared these to strains of other

common species colonizing the human vagina including *Candida albicans*, *Fannyhessea*

vaginae (previously known as *Atopobium vaginae*), *Prevotella bivia, Bifidobacterium* and

several *Lactobacillus* species. Cultures were either used without centrifugation or centrifuged

for 1 minute at 20,000 rcf at room temperature to separate cells. Spent medium was

aspirated and mixed with the substrate and cell pellets were resuspended in sterile

phosphate-buffered saline and mixed with the substrate. The degradation rate was divided

by the optical density at 600 nm.

163   The AZCL-amylose assay and quantification of bacteria in vaginal swabs

Vaginal swabs were collected from patients visiting the Center for Sexual Health

(Amsterdam, The Netherlands), as described previously (Dols et al., 2016). The swabs were

eluted in Amies buffer and 15% glycerol and cysteine was added for cryoprotection to

preserve live bacteria and enzymes for subsequent isolation and analysis. The samples were

stored at -80°C. Samples for this study were selected on the basis of Nugent scores

choosing one third of samples with scores between 0-3 (healthy), one third with scores

between 4-6 (intermediate) and one third with a Nugent score between 7-10 (bacterial

vaginosis). For the amylose assay, samples were thawed, vortexed and pipetted but not

homogenized or centrifuged, which means that mucus and other solid material was still

present in the sample when pipetted. Of the liquid fraction, 10 µL was transferred to a

microtiter plate to which 190 µL of the AZCL-amylose in the amylase buffer with xanthan gum

was added. The assay and rate calculation was carried out as described above.

The commercially available multiplex PCR for ATRiDA test BV diagnosis (ATRiDa,

Amersfoort, The Netherlands) was performed according to instructions of the manufacturer

((Rumyantseva et al., 2016; Shipitsyna et al., 2020) on isolated DNA from vaginal samples

targeting *Lactobacillus* spp., total *Gardnerella*, total *Fannyhessea* and total bacteria. Both the

DNA extraction as well as the qPCR reaction were performed as described previously (van

der Veer et al., 2018). The same DNA extracts were utilized for species specific *G. vaginalis*,

G. piotii, *G. leopoldii* and *G. swidsinskii* qPCR assays (Latka et al., 2022). To account for

multiple testing, we adjusted the *p*-value threshold by Bonferroni-correction leading to a

required *p*-value of 0.013 (*p*=0.05 divided by four outcomes) for the BV diagnostic PCR and

the *Gardnerella* species-specific qPCR. We used the log transformed data to find

correlations between AZCL-amylose degradation rate and abundance of any of the targets.

All data processing and statistical analysis were performed in Microsoft Excel and GraphPad

Prism 9.5.0.

Results

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Gardnerella and *Lactobacillus iners* can use glycogen as a carbon source for growth

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192 The optical density of *L. crispatus*, *L. iners* and *G. vaginalis* after anaerobic growth in NYCIII

193 medium with glucose or glycogen is shown in Figure 1. As expected, and previously shown

194 (Hertzberger et al., 2022; van der Veer et al., 2019), the amylopullulanase-deficient strain of

195 *L. crispatus* did not grow on glycogen, whereas the amylopullulanase-sufficient strain grew to

196 a comparable optical density on glycogen as on glucose. The *L. iners* strain showed an equal

197 optical density on glycogen compared to glucose, while the *G. vaginalis* strain showed a

198 higher optical density on glycogen compared to glucose. To verify that the increase in

199 turbidity was solely due to growth on the carbohydrate source added (glucose or glycogen)

200 we added a control–the NYC medium without any glucose or glycogen. No increase in

201 optical density was observed in this medium compared to the cell-free control (Figure 1).

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 Figure 1: Optical density at 600 nm after 48 hours of growth in liquid NYCIII medium with 5 g/L glucose (white

204 bars), 5 g/L glycogen (black bars) or no supplemented carbohydrate source (grey bars). All measurements were

205 performed in three biological replicates in separate experiments on separate days. Data represent average and

206 error bars are the standard deviation. Paired t-test was used to compare averages between glycogen and

207 glucose. * = $p < 0,05$; N.S. = not significant

Multi-well assay with undissolved labeled amylose to measure enzymatic rate of α-glucosidases.

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Next, we further characterized α-glucosidase activity of *L. crispatus*, *L. iners* and G. *vaginalis*

using a quantitative amylase assay with raw amylose labelled with a covalently linked azure

cross-linked (AZCL) chromogenic substrate (McCleary, 1980) in a microtiter plate. This

chromogenic substrate is conventionally used to study amylase activity using agarose plates

or in dissolved form but is applied here using undissolved granules in a xanthan gum buffer

to keep the substrate dispersed. The release rate of blue dye is dependent on the enzymatic

digestion rate of the labelled glycan (see calibration curve in Figure S2). No pretreatment,

purification or dialysis of the sample is required, and the assay is suitable for use in multi-well

format in a plate reader as well as for visual detection.

a)

b)

220 **Figure 2:** a) Comparison between amylose and glycogen structure; b) The AZCL-amylose substrate in

221 xanthan gum buffer with buffer (negative control, left) or after mixing with saliva (positive control, right).

Gardnerella vaginalis shows extracellular amylose-degrading activity

In Figure 3, the enzymatic activity in pellets and supernatants as determined by the amylose

degradation assay is shown. The amylose degradation assay showed that the investigated

G. vaginalis strain was capable of degrading the raw amylose substrate, while in *L. crispatus*

and *L. iners* cultures, no labeled amylose digestion was observed. The activity was mostly

found in supernatants of *G. vaginalis* compared to the cell pellet (p=0.005)*.* The activity was

also present in *G. vaginalis* culture grown on medium with glucose, indicating that *G.*

vaginalis α-glucosidase activity is not subject to carbon-catabolite repression, as observed

for the glycogen-degrading activity of *L. crispatus.* Similarly to what was observed in

glycogen growth, also for glucose the supernatant was more active compared to the pellet

(p= 0.002).

Figure 3: AZCL-amylose degradation rate expressed as the increase of optical density at 600 nm per hour in

resuspended cell pellets (white bars) and supernatants (grey bars) corrected for optical density from *Lactobacillus*

crispatus RL10 (*pulA*[+]), *Lactobacillus iners* ACS 049-v-Sch2 and *Gardnerella vaginalis* DSM 4944. Cultures were

grown anaerobically in NYCIII medium with glycogen (panel a) or glucose (panel b) for 48 hours. Bars represent

the mean and error bars represent standard deviation of three independent biological replicates. Pellets and

supernatants were compared using t-test. ** = p < 0.005.

***Gardnerella* species show variation in AZCL-amylose degradation rate**

Figure 4: AZCL-amylose degradation rate by optical density increase at 600 nanometer of cultures (cells in
growth medium) of *Gardnerella* species isolated by human vaginal samples grown for 48 hours on NYC III
medium with glucose. The degradation rate was corrected for cell density (OD600). Data points represent
biological replicates.

AZCL-amylose degradation activity of different *Gardnerella* species is shown in Figure 4.

Overall, the data obtained indicate a clear difference in the ability to degrade amylose among

certain *Gardnerella* species. Using Tukey's test for multiple comparisons, *G. leopoldii*

showed highly significant differences compared to *G. piotii* ($p < 0.0001$) and *G. pickettii* 3 ($p <$

0.0001), with mean differences in amylose degradation rates of 0.776 and 0.787,

respectively. Similarly, *G. swidsinskii* exhibited a significant difference compared to *G. piotii*

($p < 0.0001$) and *G. pickettii* ($p < 0.0001$). On the other hand, some comparisons were not

statistically significant, such as between *G. leopoldii* and *G. swidsinskii* ($p = 0.99$) and

between *G. vaginalis* and *G. pickettii* ($p = 0.08$).

AZCL-amylose degradation rate is associated with Nugent score

The substantial differences in amylose degradation activity between three of the most

common vaginal species prompted us to study the presence of this enzymatic activity in

vaginal swabs. The degradation rate in clinical samples across Nugent categorization is

shown in Figure 5. Degradation of amylose was strongly associated with Nugent scoring.

Samples from women with Nugent score between 7-10 (bacterial vaginosis) showed a mean

AZCL-amylose degradation rate of 0.41 OD_{600}/h +/- 0.27 compared to 0.22 OD_{600}/h +/- 0.18

in women with Nugent score 0-3 (p=0.0051). The results of the qPCR for the genera

Gardnerella, Fannyhessea and total bacteria were strongly associated with Nugent score.

These species had a higher abundance in samples with Nugent score 7-10 compared to

samples with a Nugent score of 0-3, while lactobacilli were more abundant in women with

low Nugent scores compared to women with high Nugent scores. All correlations between

the genera and Nugent score group are shown in Table S2.

Figure 5: AZCL-amylose degradation rate of 96 vaginal samples with *Lactobacillus*-dominant

microbiome (Nugent score 0-3), intermediate microbiome (Nugent-score 4-6) or bacterial vaginosis

(Nugent score 7-10). *p*-values were calculated by ANOVA Tukey's test.** = p < 0.005. Horizontal bars

indicate the mean.

In growth experiments, a higher AZCL-amylose degradation rate was observed in cultures of

Gardnerella species compared to *Lactobacillus* species. Therefore, we hypothesized that the

observed difference in samples from women with high Nugent scores compared to women

with low Nugent scores may be due to higher *Gardnerella* abundance in the high Nugent

score group. We therefore assessed whether the measured amylose degradation rate was

associated with *Gardnerella* abundance, and found a positive correlation between AZCL-

amylose degradation rate and levels of *Gardnerella* and *Fannyhessea* (Spearman correlation

of 0.24 and 0.23, *p*-value of 0.016 and 0.028, respectively). The highest degradation rates

were found in samples containing multiple *Gardnerella* species, including *G. leopoldii*, G.

swidsinskii, and *G. piotii* (Figure S3).

AZCL-amylose degradation and sialidase activity in *Gardnerella* species

Four strains of *Gardnerella*, each representing a distinct species, were selected for

comparative analysis. After 48 hours of growth, culture supernatants were harvested to

assess AZCL-amylose degradation and sialidase activity. *G. swidsinskii* and *G. leopoldii*

demonstrated higher AZCL-amylose degradation activity relative to *G. vaginalis* and *G. piotii*.

Notably, pronounced sialidase activity was observed only in *G. piotii* strain 1801, consistent

with the presence of the *nanH3* gene (Kurukulasuriya et al., 2021)(14). *G. vaginalis* exhibited

intermediate sialidase activity (Figure 6).

Figure 6: Amylose degradation rates and sialidase activity in supernatants of four *Gardnerella*

species.

Discussion

In this study, we investigated the presence of extracellular α-glucosidase activity among key

members of the vaginal microbiota. These enzymes catalyze the breakdown of α1–4 and/or

α1–6 glycosidic linkages in α-glucans such as glycogen, amylopectin, and amylose. Between

puberty and menopause, the female reproductive tract contains substantial glycogen

reserves (Mirmonsef et al., 2014), which may serve as a carbon source for bacteria that

express and secrete glycogen-degrading enzymes. Previously, we demonstrated that

Lactobacillus crispatus strains can degrade starch and glycogen (Hertzberger et al., 2022;

van der Veer et al., 2019). Jenkins et al. identified and characterized the amylopullulanase

responsible for this activity in *L. crispatus* (Jenkins et al., 2023). However, in the current

study, we found that *L. crispatus* was unable to degrade raw amylose—composed primarily

of α1–4 linkages—whereas *Gardnerella* species demonstrated a clear capacity to do so.

Previously, resistant starches where found to modulate the gut microbiome (I. Brown et al.,

1997; Jung et al., 2020; Maier et al., 2017; Sybille et al., 2013). High amylose corn starch is

degraded by specific gut genera, one of which is *Bifidobacterium* that is closely related to the

genus *Gardnerella*. The amylopullulanase of bifidobacteria has the same carbohydrate-

binding, amylase and pullulanase domains, N-terminal signal peptide and C-terminal

transmembrane domain as the *Gardnerella* enzyme that is likely responsible for the observed

raw amylose degradation activity in this study (Bhandari et al., 2023; Jenkins et al., 2023).

Interestingly, we observed clear differences between *L. crispatus* and *G. vaginalis* α-

glucosidase activity not only in substrate specificity but also in its regulation and localization.

In contrast to *L. crispatus*, which exhibits catabolite repression of amylopullulanase in the

presence of glucose and maltodextrins (Hertzberger et al., 2022), *Gardnerella vaginalis*

retained α-glucosidase activity even when grown on glucose. Additionally, while *L. crispatus*

amylase activity is largely cell-associated, the *Gardnerella* activity was primarily extracellular,

despite the presence of a C-terminal transmembrane domain. It is possible that the physical

structure of our chemically labelled amylose substrate limited access for cell-bound

enzymes, or that proteolytic cleavage of the transmembrane domain releases the enzyme

into the environment. This phenomenon mirrors what has been described for *Gardnerella*

sialidase, which is also partially released into culture supernatants despite having a

membrane anchor (Robinson et al., 2019). Future experiments are required to precisely

localize these enzymes and investigate post-translational cleavage.

Although AZCL-amylose degradation activity correlated well with Nugent scores, we did not

observe a clear association with the abundance of any single *Gardnerella* species. For

example, *G. swidsinskii*–dominant samples exhibited both high and low degradation activity,

and several high-activity samples lacked detectable *G. swidsinskii* or *G. leopoldii*. However,

the highest degradation rates were found in samples containing multiple *Gardnerella* species

(*G. leopoldii*, *G. swidsinskii*, and *G. piotii*). These findings suggest strain-level variation within

species, and potential cooperative interactions when multiple species are present. While

host-derived amylase has been detected in vaginal fluid and proposed to contribute to

glycogen degradation (Nasioudis et al., 2015; Nunn et al., 2020; Spear et al., 2014), our data

suggest that its role may be limited in *Lactobacillus*-dominated communities, given the

generally low amylose degradation activity in samples with Nugent scores of 0–3. We cannot

exclude a contribution of human amylase in BV-associated communities, but the absence of

detectable degradation by other BV-associated genera (e.g., *Fannyhessea*, *Prevotella*, and

vaginal *Bifidobacterium*) leaves *Gardnerella* as the most likely microbial source.

To contextualize *Gardnerella*'s α-glucosidase activity within a broader enzymatic profile, we

also measured sialidase activity. Our data suggest division of labor among species: *G.*

swidsinskii and *G. leopoldii* exhibited higher amylose-degrading activity compared to *G.*

vaginalis and *G. piotii*, while *G. piotii* was the only strain with notable sialidase production.

This is consistent with prior reports linking bacterial vaginosis (BV) not to specific *Gardnerella*

species but rather to increased species diversity within the genus (Munch et al., 2024). While

our data suggest a potential trend between amylase and sialidase activity across species,

the limited sample size precludes any definitive conclusions regarding an inverse correlation.

Taken together, the characteristics of the *Gardnerella* α-glucosidase could explain the low

glycogen levels in samples with BV (Mirmonsef et al., 2014). Lactobacilli may in contrast only

'graze' the accessible linkages of the glycogen molecules and cease amylopullulanase

expression as soon as the smaller maltodextrins start to accumulate (Hertzberger et al.,

2022). Previously, *Gardnerella* sialidase and cytolysin were found to be linked to clinical

characteristics of BV, namely mucus thinning and epithelial exfoliation (Gilbert et al., 2013;

Lewis et al., 2013). Here, we propose that *Gardnerella*'s glycogen metabolism represents a

third clinical characteristic of BV. This activity links its colonization and overgrowth to the

reduced glycogen levels observed in the vaginal lumen during BV. Understanding the

enzymatic capabilities and interspecies variation of *Gardnerella* may be crucial to further

unravel its role in BV pathophysiology.

The ability of *Gardnerella* species to secrete extracellular enzymes that degrade resistant

glycogen structures such as amylose highlights a potential microbial mechanism contributing

to glycogen depletion in BV. These findings suggest that targeting bacterial α-glucosidase

activity—specifically the amylase-like enzymes of *Gardnerella*—could represent a novel

therapeutic strategy for the prevention or treatment of BV. Inhibiting this activity may help

preserve vaginal glycogen levels, thereby supporting the growth of beneficial lactobacilli and

promoting a more stable, protective microbial community. Future work should explore the

feasibility and specificity of such targeted interventions.

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Author contributions

Conceptualization, R.H., R.K. and W.L.; Methodology and data analysis, R.H., L. H., L. van S., W.L., R.K., P.C., S.B., S.M.; Experiments: R.H., L. H., L. van S., S.M.; Data curation: R.H., L.H., L. van S.; Writing—original draft preparation, R.H.; Writing review and editing, R.H., L.H., S.B., P.C., S.M., R.K.; Supervision: S.B., P.C., R.K. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

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