A high-throughput microbial glycomics platform for prebiotic development

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Abstract

The intestinal glycome contains carbohydrates that govern the composition and metabolism of

the gut microbiome. Gut microbes differentially access intestinal glycans as a nutrient source

thereby directing microbial abundance and metabolite synthesis. Thus, identifying microbial

accessible carbohydrates (MACs) in the gut is critical to understanding microbial ecologies and

developing novel prebiotics that manipulate gut microbial populations for beneficial outcomes.

However, no methods exist to efficiently examine MACs in biologically-derived mixtures. Here,

we present a high-throughput platform to examine MACs from plant, animal, and microbial

sources by simultaneously measuring bioluminescence from a genome-wide library of

engineered *Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron* strains that harness bacterial glycan detection

machinery. We demonstrate that this platform exhibits specific and sensitive responses to

glycan mixtures and characterize a previously unknown MAC present in *Saccharomyces*

cerevisiae. Expanding this technology across gut *Bacteroides* species will yield a diverse and

broadly applicable glycomics platform to identify novel prebiotic substrates.

Main

Commensal microbes harvest carbon from structurally diverse MACs, to achieve

extraordinary cell densities in the mammalian intestine[1-5]. The glycosidic linkages that tether

constituent monosaccharides into each MAC are frequently resistant to degradation in the

gastrointestinal tract and therefore require substrate-specific enzymes to degrade[6-11]. Gut

microbes can utilize available MACs by expressing carbohydrate-active enzyme repertoires that

target specific glycosidic linkages[1, 8, 11, 12]. Characterizing MACs present in biologically-derived

mixtures inform how and why the gut microbiota changes due to host dietary choices, genetics,

or disease because chemically-distinct glycans support the expansion of defined microbial

subsets. Additionally, identifying MACs that can influence microbial abundance and metabolism

can promote engineered strain engraftment and gene expression to leverage the gut

microbiome as a therapeutic target. Glycan mixtures have traditionally been examined using

tandem chromatography and mass spectrometry, arrayed glycan binding aptamers, or lectins

that probe for a range of known carbohydrate structures[13-15]. Although these approaches can

characterize composite glycan content in various sample types, they are unable to directly

detect MACs.

Microbes access unique MACs by producing proteins that sequester, transport, degrade,

and detect target molecules in their environment. For example, members of the dominant

human intestinal phylum, *Bacteroidetes*, possess glycan sensors encoded within polysaccharide

utilization genetic loci (PULs) that direct rapid, dramatic, and predictable increases to

corresponding PUL gene transcripts following recognition of their target glycan epitopes[4, 6, 7, 16].

Ultimately, these sensors direct increased expression of surface glycan binding proteins

(SGBPs), SusCD transporters, and glycolytic enzymes for consumption of available MACs.

Different *Bacteroides* species encode vast and partially unique PUL repertoires, which endow

each with the ability to access various target glycans that establish distinct intra-intestinal

niches. We previously demonstrated that introduction of PUL promoters into a plasmid-borne

Bacteroides-optimized *lux* cassette, p*Bolux,* harness their glycan sensor proteins to convert

these organisms into biosensors of known and unknown target glycans present in biologically-

derived mixtures[17]. We reasoned that PUL reporters could harness the exquisite sensitivity and

specificity of their cognate sensor proteins to detect MACs in glycan mixtures and be

implemented to isolate and characterize those molecules in combination with corresponding

PUL SGBPs and glycolytic enzymes.

Here, we employ *Bacteroides* PUL sensors to generate a genome-wide *Bacteroides*

thetaiotaomicron (*Bt*) reporter library. We arrayed these PUL reporters into a scalable and

distributable high-throughput platform that sensitively indicates target glycans from biologically-

derived mixtures. We demonstrate that this approach distinguishes structurally distinct MACs

according to monosaccharide composition, glycosidic linkages, and in some instances

polysaccharide degree of polymerization. We use this technology to detect previously unknown

PUL target glycans and employ a recombinant SGBP to isolate and characterize an unknown

MAC in Baker's yeast (*Saccharomyces cerevisiae).* Collectively, these results establish

Bacteroides species as specific and sensitive toolkits to directly detect, isolate, and characterize

unknown PUL target glycans. We assert that expanding these tools into additional *Bacteroides*

species will support broad, untargeted glycomics applications to examine heterogenous glycan

mixtures and overcome current detection limitations. Ultimately, our platform can be used to

develop new prebiotics that manipulate gut microbial abundance and metabolism to benefit

human health.

Results

Construction of an arrayed *Bt* PUL reporter library.

PUL sensors specifically direct target PUL gene transcription in engineered strains

expressing constitutively active sensor proteins from PULs 16, 19, 49, 53, and 57, resulting in

dramatic increases in corresponding transcript abundances (Fig. 1a)[18, 19]. These results

demonstrate that a single PUL sensor directs increases in the predicted PUL transcripts[20, 21]. To

examine whether sensor-directed PUL transcription can be faithfully reported by corresponding

transcriptional reporters on a genome-wide scale, we generated a complete library of *Bt* PUL

reporter plasmids by introducing putative promoters identified from RNAseq datasets[22] and

mapped transcription start sites[23, 24] from annotated *Bt* PULs[25, 26] into p*Bolux*[17]. Although *Bt*

possesses 88 PULs, we generated 91 total reporter strains because PULs 14, 52, 74, and 75

possess two divergently transcribed *susCD* pairs were assigned unique reporters (denoted a

and b) and PUL63 was omitted due to the absence of a *susD*-like gene (Fig. 1a). Following

cryopreservation of batch-produced 96-well plates, individual replicates were revived by the

addition of rich media and incubated overnight. Each strain was transferred to a 384-well plate

and supplied 4 distinct carbohydrate preparations, one of which was always galactose as a

negative control (Fig. 1b). Fold changes in bioluminescence generated over 18 hours (Fig. 1c)

were calculated from the area under each curve from strains supplied unique glycan

preparations and normalized to a strain harboring the promoter-less p*Bolux* plasmid and

cultures supplied galactose alone (Fig. 1d).

Bt PUL reporters distinguish between glycosidic linkages and monosaccharide

composition.

To examine the *Bt* PUL reporter array functionality, we examined changes in

bioluminescence from all strains following the introduction of various purified mono- (Extended

Data Fig. 1a) and poly-saccharide preparations (Fig. 1e). As expected, the monosaccharides,

fructose and ribose, increased bioluminescence from their respective corresponding PUL

reporters, P-*PUL22* and P-*PUL37*, which agree with previous findings[27]. However, ribose also

increased *PUL22* transcripts[27] and corresponding bioluminescence from P-*PUL22* (Extended

Data Fig. 1a, b). Ribose is likely contaminated with fructose because a *Bt* strain lacking

sensor[PUL22] (*BT1754*) harboring P-*PUL22* exhibited no bioluminescence increases when

supplied ribose, whereas this strain harboring P-*PUL37* exhibited similar responses to *wild-type*

Bt when supplied ribose (Extended Data Fig. 1c). In contrast, a strain lacking *sensor*[PUL37]

(*BT2802*), which is unable to increase *PUL37* transcripts or utilize ribose as a sole carbon

source[27], exhibited similar bioluminescence when harboring either P-*PUL37* or p*Bolux*

(Extended Data Fig. 1c). These results indicate that the Sensor[PUL22], which binds fructose with

high affinity[7], is responsible for increasing PUL22 expression when supplied ribose. P-*PUL22*

also exhibited increased bioluminescence when supplied mannose (Extended Data Fig. 1a),

however, treatment with fructose-eliminating enzymes reduced P-*PUL22* activity (Extended

Data Fig. 1d), suggesting that the mannose preparation examined here was also contaminated

with fructose. Ultimately, these data highlight the exquisite specificity of PUL reporters for their

target ligands and detection of non-target glycans reflect their extraordinary sensitivity even in

mixtures.

We established that *Bt* PUL reporters can distinguish between MACs based on glycosidic

linkages, monosaccharide composition, and degree of polymerization (d.o.p.). Distinct strains

exhibited increased bioluminescence according to the administration of various purified plant,

animal, and microbially-derived MACs consumed via known PULs[4, 6, 7, 11, 27, 28]. Strikingly, P-

PUL66, P-*PUL48*, and P-*PUL56* were specifically activated by amylose, dextran, and pustulan,

respectively, which are distinct glucose homopolymers differing by their α1,4-, α1,6-, and β1,6-

glycosidic linkages (Fig. 1e). Each PUL requires respective linked SusR-like sensor proteins,

encoded by BT3703 (Sensor[PUL66]), BT3090 (Sensor[PUL48]), and BT3309 (Sensor[PUL56]), to

increase target PUL transcription and utilize these MACs as growth substrates. Sensor[PUL66] and

Sensor[PUL56] differentiate between glycosidic linkage because their corresponding PUL reporters

only exhibit increase bioluminescence when supplied α1,4- or β1,6- linked glucose

disaccharides (Fig. 2a). However, P-*PUL48* can also distinguish between d.o.p. because this

strain only exhibited increased bioluminescence when supplied isomaltooligosaccharides

greater than 3 α1,6-linked glucose units and requires at least 6 residues to reach activity similar

to dextran (Fig. 2b). These data demonstrate that SusR-like PUL reporters can detect distinct

glycosidic linkages and d.o.p.

Further examination of purified oligosaccharides yielded several unexpected outcomes.

First, monomeric glucose and various glucose-disaccharides, including maltose, isomaltose,

trehalose, and β-gentibiose increased bioluminescence from P-*PUL58* (Fig. 2a). Similarly,

supplying glucose-fructose heterodimers, turanose and palatinose, stimulated greater than 10-

fold increases from this strain, whereas sucrose did not, suggesting that this PUL reporter

responds to glucose- and fructose- containing disaccharides subsets. We hypothesized that

PUL58 could be governed by the SusR-like sensor, encoded by *BT2160*, that is an important *Bt*

fitness determinant during growth in trehalose and palatinose[29]. Accordingly, *ΔsensorPUL58*

harboring P-*PUL58* did not exhibit increased bioluminescence in any condition, indicating that

this sensor facilitates PUL58 transcription in response to various disaccharides (Fig. 2c).

Curiously, this sensor also responds to glucosinolates derived from cruciferous vegetables and

is required for their conversion into isothiocyanates by increasing transcription of the linked

genes *BT2159-56*[30]. A deeper examination of how and why this distally encoded sensor protein

responds to these signals is necessary to understand this regulatory relationship. Unexpectedly,

P-*PUL46* detected a *Bt*-inaccessible carbohydrate because introduction of the β1,4-linked

glucose disaccharide, cellobiose, increased bioluminescence from this strain (Fig. 2d). This

response was d.o.p.-specific because there was no change when supplied cellulose-derived

tetra- or hexa-saccharides (Fig. 2d). Because *Bt* cannot utilize cellulose or its breakdown

products (PBP) including cellobiose[31], these results suggest that cellulose-derived PBPs serve

as signals in the intestine.

_Bt_ PUL reporters detect discreet carbohydrate structures

The *Bt* PUL array can also distinguish between various microbial-, animal-, and plant

glycans covalently tethered into polymeric complexes. For example, *Bt* utilization of yeast cell

wall mannans (Extended Data Fig. 2a) requires three PULs: 36, 68, and 69[32, 33], which increase

activity from the reporter strains, P-*PUL36*, P-*PUL68,* and P-*PUL69* by the addition of purified α-

mannan (Fig. 1e). The corresponding sensor proteins, BT2628 (Sensor[PUL36]) and BT3786

(Sensor[PUL68]) facilitate mannan-responsive PUL36/68 transcription because bioluminescence

from strains harboring either P-*PUL36* or P-*PUL68* is not apparent in a strain lacking both

sensors (*Δsensors*[PUL36/68]; Extended Data Fig. 2b), consistent with previous transcript

measurements[32]. In contrast, PUL69 transcription is facilitated by Sensor[PUL69], encoded by

BT3853[32], which is required for increased bioluminescence from P-*PUL69* when supplied α-

mannan (Extended Data Fig. 2b). Sensors[PUL36/68/69] are collectively required for mannan

utilization as a sole carbon source (Extended Data Fig. 2c) but detect discreet carbohydrate

structures because the branched α1,3-[α1,6] trisaccharides increases P-*PUL36/68*

bioluminescence but not from P-*PUL69* (Extended Data Fig. 2d, e). Conversely, P-*PUL69* did

not exhibit increased bioluminescence in response to any di- or tri-saccharide examined,

suggesting it responds to a different oligo-mannan structure (Extended Data Fig. 2f). These data

highlight that PUL sensor proteins direct cognate PUL expression following recognition of

distinct glycan moieties assembled as larger polymers.

Bt possess 3 PULs that respond to glycosaminoglycans, which are intestinally abundant

heteropolymers comprised of amine sugars and uronic acids, including previously characterized

PULs 57[6, 10] and 85[34], and the uncharacterized PUL20 (Fig. 3a). Strains harboring P-*PUL57*

exhibited increased bioluminescence when supplied chondroitin sulfate (CS) or dermatan

sulfate (DS), which are variably sulfated linear polymers of repeating, disaccharide units

comprised of glucuronic acid (gluA) and β1,3-linked N-acetylgalactosamine acid (GalNAc). P-

PUL57 also responds to hyaluronic acid[17], an unsulfated GAG whose disaccharide unit is

comprised of gluA and β1,3-linked N-acetylglucosamine (GlcNAc) because the Sensor[PUL57]

protein, BT3334, cannot distinguish between either CS-, DS- or HA-derived disaccharide

subunits (Fig. 3b)[6]. Introduction of CS, DS, and HA also increased bioluminescence from P-

PUL20 (Fig. 1e), consistent with previous transcriptional measurements[3], suggesting that both

GAGs may also activate an additional PUL. However, Sensor[PUL57] is not responsible for

increasing bioluminescence from P-*PUL20* because: 1.) CS- a HA-derived disaccharides

increased activity from P-*PUL57* but not P-*PUL20* (Fig. 3b), 2.) heterologous expression of a

constitutively active Sensor[PUL57] (BT3334*) increased *PUL57* but not *PUL20* transcripts (Fig.

1a), and 3.) BT3334* increased bioluminescence from strains harboring P-*PUL57* but not P-

PUL20 (Fig. 3c). Furthermore, a distinct GAG, heparan sulfate (HS), also increased

bioluminescence from P-*PUL20* and P-*PUL85* (Fig. 1e), whereas the composite disaccharide

comprised of alternating N-acetylglucosamine (GlcNAc) and uronic acid increased activity from

P-*PUL85* but not P-*PUL20* (Fig. 3b). We propose that PUL20 targets the common GAG

tetrasaccharide linker, GlcA-[β1-3]-Gal-[β1-3]-Galβ-[1-4]-Xyl2P-β-Ser (Fig. 3d) because CS from

shark cartilage stimulates increased bioluminescence from P-*PUL20* and P-*PUL57* but no other

contaminating glycans following co-incubation with SGBP[PUL57] (Fig. 3e)[17], indicating that the

PUL20-target glycan is covalently tethered to CS.

Plant cell wall glycans called pectins and hemicelluloses, are frequently assembled into

complex polymeric structures (Extended Data Fig. 3a) that are targeted by distinct *Bt* PULs[1, 4, 9,

11]. This is exemplified by P-*PUL7*, which exhibited 68-fold increased bioluminescence when

supplied arabinan (Fig. 1e). However, arabinan also elicited increased bioluminescence from

strains harboring P-*PUL5*, P-*PUL13*, P-*PUL22*, P-*PUL23,* P-*PUL47*, P-*PUL48*, P-*PUL65*, P-

PUL77, or P-*PUL86*, indicating this preparation also contains arabinogalactan (PUL5), and II

(PULs 13 & 21), fructose (PUL22), homogalacturonan (PUL75), and rhamnogalacturonan I

(PUL77). Reporter activity faithfully reflects sensor-dependent activity because the Sensor[PUL7]

(BT0366)[35], which recognizes arabino-oligomers of at least 6 α1,5-linked arabinose residues[4],

was only required to stimulate P-*PUL7* when supplied arabinan (Extended Data Fig. 3b).

Consistent with this notion, purified polygalacturonic acid (PGA) oligosaccharides increased

bioluminescence from its corresponding reporter, P-*PUL75a&b* (Fig. 2a), whereas highly

polymeric PGA also increased activity from P-*PUL7*, P-*PUL13*, P-*PUL22*, P-*PUL48*, and P-

PUL66, and P-*PUL86* (Fig. 1e), demonstrating that PUL reporters respond predictably to

complex MACs comprised of multiple ligands[1, 4, 7, 9, 11]. Finally, the ubiquitous food additives

carrageenan, xantham gum, locust bean gum, karaya gum, and gum arabic are complex

heteropolymers of largely *Bt*-inaccessible carbohydrates[31] but contain small amounts of

accessible structures because each elicits increased bioluminescence from at least one PUL

reporter (Fig. 1e). For example, P-*PUL5* is dramatically activated by purified arabinogalactan

and exhibits significant increases when supplied karaya gum and gum arabic (Fig. 1e).

Collectively, these data demonstrate the exquisite specificity of *Bt* PUL reporters for complex

multi-valent MACs, facilitated by the cognate sensor proteins.

The Bt PUL reporter array can faithfully survey glycan mixtures.

Bt PUL reporters can simultaneously examine MACs present in heterogeneous glycan

mixtures because P-*PUL5*, P-*PUL22*, P-*PUL57*, and P-*PUL48* exhibited increased

bioluminescence when supplied an equal mixture of purified arabinogalactan (PUL5), levan

(PUL22), hyaluronan (PUL57), and dextran (PUL48) (Fig. 1e). Additionally, this mixture

increased activity from P-*PUL20* and P-*PUL47*, which were both increased by HA (Fig. 1c-e),

displaying faithful reporting of lab-prepared mixtures. To characterize biologically derived

mixtures, we measured reporter responses to PMOGs, a mixture of porcine mucosal-derived O-

glycans that increases many *Bt* PUL transcripts[3, 17, 36]. When supplied PMOG, we detected

increased activity in GAG-, and O-glycan-specific PUL reporters, consistent with previous

transcript measurements[3, 17, 36] indicating that the reporter strains can faithfully examine

biologically-derived mixtures (Fig. 4a). To prepare other host-, diet-, and microbially derived

mixtures, we adapted the oxidative-release of natural glycans (ORNG) method that can liberate

glycans from a wide variety of biological materials[37]. We determined that a preparation of

porcine mucosal glycans using ORNG (PMG), yielded similar reporter profiles as PMOG (Fig.

4a), but did display a 4-fold decrease in bioluminescence from a strain harboring P-*PUL15* and

a 5-fold increase in signal from P-*PUL34*, indicating glycan subsets are differentially extracted or

detected when this approach is applied (Extended Data Fig. 4a).

To determine how gut microbial responses differ between animal and human mucosal

material, we compared human-derived intestinal glycan mixtures collected from various patient

intestinal samples recovered following surgery (HIG) and porcine cecal mixtures from freshly

slaughtered boars (BCG). Human mucosal glycans elicited similar patterns of reporter activity

as PMOG and fresh porcine cecal glycans, suggesting that mammalian hosts largely supply gut

microbes with similar growth substrates (Fig. 4a). For example, HIG and BCG elicited similar

bioluminescence from P-*PUL14*a&b, P-*PUL20*, P-*PUL38*, P-*PUL57*, P-*PUL66*, and P-*PUL72*

(Extended Data Fig. 4b). However, the following distinctions were readily apparent: on one

hand, human material elicited reduced bioluminescence from P-*PUL31*, P-*PUL52b*, and P-

PUL85, and on the other hand they elicited increased responses from P-*PUL75b*, P-*PUL79, P-*

PUL80, and P-PUL81 (Extended Data Fig. 4b). Furthermore, human milk glycans (HMG)

elicited similar responses to HIG, however, signals were improved when HMG were prepared by

defatting and proteinase K treatment (Extended Data Fig. 4c), suggesting that ORNG can result

in glycan peeling from some source materials[38].

We used ORNG to prepare various animal, plant, and fungal material that are abundant

components of the human diet (Fig. 4b) and examined *Bt* reporter responses. As expected,

plant-, animal-, and microbially derived material occupied distinct space following PCoA analysis

indicating that MAC distribution reflects source phylogeny at the phylum level (Fig. 4c). For

example, dietary plant products emanating from both mono- and di-cot species distinctly

increased bioluminescence from strains harboring P-*PUL5* (arabinogalactan), P-*PUL7*

(arabinan), P-*PUL13* and P-*PUL21* (RGII), P-*PUL22* (fructan), P-*PUL66* (starch), P-*PUL75*

(PGA), and P-*PUL86* (RGI), which is consistent with common plant fibers. Conversely,

mammalian derived mixtures stimulated P-*PUL14b* (N-glycans), P-*PUL20* (GAG associated), P-

PUL38 (unknown mucin *O*-glycan), P-*PUL57* (CS/HA), P-*PUL66* (glycogen), and P-*PUL76*

(unknown mucin *O*-glycan). Finally, fungal products consistently increased activity from strains

containing P-*PUL29* (unknown), P-*PUL36/68* (α-mannan), P-*PUL56* (β-glucan), P-*PUL66*

(glycogen), and P-*PUL69* (α-mannan). Accordingly, processed foods containing both plant and

fungal products, including breads and beer, contained reporter increases consistent with both

grains and yeast (Fig. 4a).

Unexpectedly, several PUL reporters did not exhibit bioluminescence increases when

supplied any purified carbohydrate or mixture examined in this study, suggesting that either

these target glycans are not present in the mixtures prepared for this work or the corresponding

reporter plasmid does not contain the appropriate regulatory sequence to facilitate increased

bioluminescence. We determined that the former is the most likely scenario because qPCR

analysis for *susC* transcripts from PULs whose corresponding reporters failed to increase

bioluminescence were not increased when supplied various mixtures (Extended Data Fig. 5a).

Furthermore, expression of constitutively active sensor proteins from PULs 16, 19, 49, 53, and

57, which increased target PUL transcription (Fig. 1a)[18, 19], stimulated bioluminescence

increases when these strains contained the corresponding PUL reporter (Extended Data Fig.

5b). A notable exception is PUL2, which targets an unknown glycan exhibits 180-fold increased

transcription in yeast extract and red-wine derived glycan mixtures (Extended Data Fig. 5a), but

whose corresponding reporter did not (Fig. 4a). We engineered an additional reporter that

includes an internal transcription start site that exhibited a significantly increased

bioluminescence when supplied red wine and yeast glycans, however, these responses were

not reflective of the fold increases in PUL transcripts (Extended Data Fig. 5a). Thus, the majority

of PULs can be converted into bioluminescent glycan biosensors with a small minority that are

unable to be adapted using p*Bolux*. Finally, establishing the functionality of various PUL

reporters with unknown target glycans (Extended Data Fig. 5b) that are not activated across the

common foodstuffs examined in this study, indicate that future investigations should focus on

other glycan sources including co-resident microbes and fermented products.

PUL reporter construction across species

This study demonstrates how *Bt* PUL reporters can be readily constructed and deployed

to detect MAC content in various glycan preparations. However, other *Bacteroides* species

possess unique PUL repertoires that putatively confer distinct glycan accessibility, indicating

they possess PUL sensors that recognize a partially unique subset of carbohydrate structures

(Fig. 4c). For example, *B. fragilis* possesses PULs that facilitate its growth in host-derived

glycan preparations including those distinct from *Bt* target glycans[19], whereas *B. ovatus*[39] and *B.*

uniformis[40] possess PUL repertoires that target *Bt*-inaccessible hemicelluloses. We previously

demonstrated that p*Bolux* can report promoter-dependent transcription in *B. ovatus*[17] and *B.*

fragilis[41], and this is consistent in *B. uniformis* and *B. cellulosilyticus* because introduction of

their corresponding *rpoD* promoters in this plasmid increase bioluminescence from all five

species (Extended Data Fig. 6). Therefore, construction of future PUL reporter libraries in these

species will expand the breadth of glycan detection capabilities to comprehensively characterize

MAC content in host- and dietary- components.

Isolation and characterization of a *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* glycan consumed by *Bt*.

To explore the utility of PULs as glycomics tools, we characterized an unknown glycan

detected in a biologically derived mixture. We selected PUL71 (Fig. 5a) because yeast extract

glycans (YEG) elicited 32-fold increased bioluminescence from strains harboring P-*PUL71*,

which was also stimulated by preparations from yeast containing products like red wine and

animal feeds but not breads or beers (Fig. 4a). Furthermore, P-*PUL71* activity was increased in

yeast-derived mannan prebiotic mannooligosaccharides (MOS) but absent in host- and most

diet-derived mixtures, although increased in grape juice possibly from yeast contamination[42]

(Fig. 4a). Furthermore, this glycan is an excellent prebiotic candidate because a strain lacking

PUL71 (*ΔBT3957-BT3965*) exhibited a 5-fold fitness defect relative to *wild-type Bt* in mice

supplied a 0.5% YEG solution rather than water (Fig. 5b). Increased P-*PUL71* activity requires a

unique glycan sensor protein class, encoded by *BT3957*, that possesses a periplasmic glycan

binding domain and a cytoplasmic DNA-binding domain similar to HTCSs but lacks conserved

histidine kinase and response regulator receiver domains (Extended Data Fig. 7a). We

established that the putative sensor, BT3957, controls PUL71 transcription because a

sensor[PUL71]-deficient strain (*Δsensor*[PUL71]) harboring P-*PUL71* failed to exhibit increased activity

in response to YEG (Extended Data Fig. 7b). Conversely, *sensor*[PUL36/68]- or *sensor*[PUL69]-deficient

strains harboring P-*PUL71* exhibited similar bioluminescence as *wild-type Bt* supplied YEG

(Extended Data Fig. 7b). PUL71 responds to a glycan distinct from other well characterized

yeast-derived glycans including α-mannan, which activates P-*PUL36/68/69* (Extended Data Fig.

2b)[32] and β-1,6-glucan, which stimulates P-*PUL56* (Fig. 2a)[43], because bioluminescence from

P-*PUL71* was unchanged when supplied these purified glycans (Fig. 1e) and *Δsensor*[PUL71]

exhibited similar activity to *wild-type Bt* harboring P-*PUL36* or P-*PUL56* when supplied YEG

(Extended Data Fig. 7b). Collectively, these data indicate that Sensor[PUL71] recognizes a unique

yeast-derived glycan that increases *PUL71* expression.

To characterize the PUL71 target glycan, we co-incubated YEG with recombinant

SGBP[PUL71] (BT3961), and recovered protein-bound glycans using metal affinity

chromatography[17]. The recovered glycans were enriched for the PUL71 target over other MACs

present in YEG because the co-purifying material significantly increased activity from P-*PUL71*

but P-*PUL7* (α-arabinan), P-*PUL22* (fructans), P-*PUL29* (unknown), P-*PUL48* (dextran), P-

PUL66, and P-*PUL72* (HMNG) were no longer detectable (Extended Data Fig. 7c). However, P-

PUL36/68/69 and P-*PUL56* also exhibited increased activity indicating that α-mannan and β-

glucan co-purified with the PUL71 target (Extended Data Fig. 7c). Significantly activated PULs

contributed to accessing the SGBP[PUL71] co-purifying material because the corresponding

sensor-deficient strains exhibited reduced growth on this material as a sole carbon source, with

$\Delta sensor^{PUL71}$ exhibiting the largest reduction (Extended Data Fig. 7d). We hypothesized that the

BT3961-purified material contained covalently tethered carbohydrates comprised of the PUL71-,

PUL36/68/69-, and PUL56- target glycans because the yeast cell-wall is an interconnected

matrix comprised of chitin, β1,3-, and β1,6-glucans decorated with mannoproteins through a

GPI-anchor remnant glycan (Fig. 5d). Consistent with this notion, material co-purifying with the

SGBP^{PUL56}, BT3313, incubated with YEG, also increased bioluminescence from strains

harboring P-*PUL56*, P-*PUL36/68*, and P-*PUL71*, although bioluminescence from P-*PUL69* was

not significantly increased possibly because the corresponding ligand was below the limit of

detection (Extended Data Fig. 7e). Accordingly, only a $\Delta sensor^{PUL56}$ exhibited substantially

reduced growth when supplied SGBP^{PUL56}-isolated material, indicating the other target glycans

are present in relatively low abundances (Extended Data Fig. 7f). Collectively, these data

demonstrate that the PUL56 and PUL71 SGBPs isolate their corresponding target glycans

assembled into interconnected polymeric structures.

To determine how the PUL71-target glycan is tethered to β1,6-glucan and α-mannan, we

treated YEG with the PUL56-encoded β1,6-glucosidase (BT3312), referred to here as

GH20^{PUL56}, which liberated glucose and β-gentiobiose from YEG (Extended Data Fig. 7i). We

determined that GH^{PUL56} treatment removed β1,6-glucan but not α-mannan from the PUL71

target because SGBP^{PUL71}-isolated material no longer increased bioluminescence from P-

PUL56 but exhibited significant increases from P-*PUL36/68/69* (Fig. 5c). Accordingly,

$\Delta sensor^{PUL71}$ and $\Delta sensors^{PUL36/68/69}$ each exhibited reduced growth on this material as a sole

carbon source and growth was completely abolished in a strain lacking all four sensors

($\Delta sensors^{PUL36/68/69/71}$) (Fig. 5e). Furthermore, compositional analysis demonstrated that

SGBP^{PUL71}-isolated material from untreated YEG contained glucose (Extended Data Fig. 8a),

whereas this monosaccharide was no longer detectable when YEG was pre-treated with

GH20^{PUL56} (Extended Data Fig. 8b). Consistent with this finding, HPAEC-PAD analysis revealed

that SGBP[PUL56]-isolated glycans from untreated YEG contained mannose (Extended Data Fig.

8c), further suggesting that yeast β1,6-glucan and α-mannan are tethered in the absence of

mannoproteins, which are eliminated by ORNG extraction. These data indicate that yeast α-

mannan, β-glucan, and PUL71-target glycan are covalently assembled into a complex resistant

to oxidation, and that the PUL71 target glycan decorates yeast-derived α-mannan prepared

using ORNG (Fig. 4a, Fig. 5c) but not alkaline extraction (Fig. 1e). PUL71 includes the

mannosidases BT3962 and BT3965, which respectively convert α1,2- and α1,4-mannobioses

into mannose (Extended Data Fig. 9a, b), and a putative mannosidase BT3963, which was

unable to hydrolyze any mannobiose examined here (Extended Data Fig. 9c-e), in agreement

with previous results[44]. Collectively, these data suggest that the PUL71-target glycan is an

unknown yeast α-mannan decoration comprised of unique glycosidic linkages that could be a

useful prebiotic.

Discussion

We have developed a microbial glycomics platform that harnesses *Bacteroides* PUL sensors

to detect, isolate, and characterize MACs from biologically derived mixtures (Fig. 1). We

demonstrated that a genome-wide *Bt* PUL-reporter library can indicate the monosaccharide

composition, glycosidic linkages and d.o.p. of purified MACs (Fig. 1e ,2b). Furthermore, we

demonstrated this toolkit can efficiently characterize MAC content in semi-purified preparations

(Fig. 1e, Extended Data Figs. 1, 2) and various mixtures (Fig. 1e and Fig. 4a) derived from the

host mucosa and dietary material (Fig. 4b). We establish that reporter responses largely

correspond to the biological source of each mixture (Fig. 4c), indicating that MAC content

reflects phylogeny. The exquisite specificity and sensitivity of *Bacteroides* reporter strains

highlight their utility as glycan biosensors that could be implemented in product quality control to

detect carbohydrate contaminants (Extended Data Fig. 1d) and co-purifying moieties (Fig. 3).

Furthermore, this approach could be applied to broader glycomics applications including

surveillance of different carbohydrate structures from patient samples, plant cultivars, and

microbial isolates (Fig. 4a). Finally, *Bt* PUL reporters can directly identify novel MACs that could

be translated into prebiotics to manipulate the gut microbiome composition and products for

therapeutic purposes (Fig. 5). Therefore, PUL reporters offer a powerful new toolkit that can be

expanded using additional *Bacteroides* species that possess unique PUL repertoires (Extended

Data Fig. 9).

Materials and Methods

Bacterial growth conditions

All bacteria were cultured as described previously[45]. Briefly, *Bacteroides* strains were

cultured on brain-heart infusion agar (MilliporeSigma) containing 5% horse blood (Hardy) under

anaerobic conditions (85% N_2, 12.5% CO_2, 2.5% H_2). Liquid cultures were inoculated from a

single colony into TYG media and incubated under anaerobic conditions. All bacterial strains

included the following antibiotics where appropriate: 100 µg/mL ampicillin, 200 µg/mL

gentamicin, 2 µg/mL tetracycline, or 25 µg/mL erythromycin (MilliporeSigma).

Reporter construction

Reporter plasmids (Supplementary Table 1) were constructed by amplifying PUL

promoter fragments using oligonucleotides (Supplementary Table 3) as previously described[17].

Briefly, PUL promoters amplified using Q5 Master Mix (NEB) were combined with pBolux[17]

linearized with BamHI and SpeI (NEB) and NEBuilder Master Mix (NEB). Reactions were

incubated for 1 hour at 50°C before dialyzed on a 0.025 µM dialysis membrane against water

and subsequent electroporation into competent *E. coli* S17-1. All plasmids were verified by

Sanger sequencing.

Engineering Bt mutants

Indicated *Bt* genomic deletions were generated using pEXCHANGE-*tdk* plasmids

(Supplementary Table 2) harboring flanking sequences, using amplicon-specific primers

(Supplementary Table 3), as previously described[46]. In short, pEXCHANGE constructs were

introduced via di-parental mating and chromosomal integration was validated by PCR. Parent

strains were counter-selected on solid media containing 200ng/mL 5-fluoro-2-deoxyuridine

(DOT Scientific). All strains were validated using linear amplicon sequencing.

Bt reporter array production

All 91 reporter *Bt* strains described were cultured in TYG to stationary phase in a distinct

position of a 96 deep-well plate (Supplementary Table 1). Each strain was combined with

glycerol to a 10% final concentration, and 5 µL of the resulting mixture was dispensed into a

sterile 96-well plate using a Mini-96 (Integra), covered with adhesive sterile foil, and placed on

dry ice before ultimate storage at -80°C.

Bt reporter assays

One replicate array plate was thawed and combined with pre-reduced TYG and cultured

overnight at 37°C under anaerobic conditions. The following day, each strain was diluted 50-fold

into minimal media containing 0.5% galactose and cultured to mid-logarithmic phase before

centrifugation at 2,204 x *g* to pellet cells, resuspension into 2x minimal media containing 0.2%

galactose and distribution into a sterile 384-well white, clear bottom microplate (Corning)

containing equal amounts of 0.8% carbon. Absorbance and bioluminescence were measured

using an Infinite M200 Plex (Tecan) every 15 minutes over 18 hours.

Biologically derived glycan mixture preparation

Solid material was homogenized in 6% bleach (PureBright) and allowed to stir for 30

minutes at room temperature before addition of 1:100 volumes of formic acid were combined

and stirred for 5 additional minutes at room temperature. Reactions were centrifuged at 7200 x

g for 10 minutes and the resulting supernatant was combined with bleach to a final

concentration of 0.2% and stirred for 16 hours at room temperature before addition of equal

volumes of formic acid and stirring for an additional 5 minutes. Reactions were centrifuged at

7200 x g for 10 minutes and the resulting supernatant was sterilized using a 0.22 μm vacuum

filter (Millipore). The resulting material was dialyzed with ultrapure H_2O using 1KDa cutoff

dialysis membrane for 3 days before lyophilization.

Human tissue collection

The Pennsylvania State University College of Medicine Institutional Review Board

approved this study (IRB Protocol No. HY98-057EP-A). Prior to colectomy, patients gave

informed consent to have surgically resected tissue collected and banked into the Carlino

Family Inflammatory Bowel and Colorectal Disease Biobank. Diagnoses were confirmed using

colonoscopy and biopsy. Surgical specimens were immediately transferred from the operating

room to the surgical pathology lab, where the tissue was examined by a pathologist and

surgeon. The samples were then transported to the research laboratory on ice for further

processing. Mucosa was scraped from approximately 1 inch tissue sections and stored at -80°C

until samples were weighed, pooled, and subjected to glycan extraction.

Protein expression and purification

SGBPs and GHs were recombinantly expressed as previously described[45]. Briefly,

inserts encoding each enzyme were amplified from *B. thetaiotaomicron* VPI-5482 genomic DNA

and cloned into pT7-7-N6H4A[17] linearized with NotI-HF and HindIII-HF using NEBuilder Hi-Fi

Master Mix (NEB). The resulting plasmids were introduced into *E. coli* S17-1 and verified by

Sanger sequencing. Plasmids were introduced into BL21 and plated on selective media. A

single colony was inoculated into Luria Bertani broth (BD) and cultured to mid-logarithmic phase

before 50 μM IPTG addition and subsequent incubation for 4 hours at 30°C. Pelleted cells were

lysed in Lysis Buffer (20 mM Tris (pH, 8) and 100 mM sodium chloride) and N-terminally hexa-

histidine-tagged proteins were recovered following co-incubation with Ni^{2+}-NTA resin (Thermo)

and elution with Lysis Buffer containing 25 mM Histidine. Recovered proteins were buffer

exchanged in 10 mM Tris (pH, 7.4) containing 10% glycerol using appropriate molecular weight

cut-off centrifugal concentrators (MilliporeSigma). Protein concentrations were determined using

a BCA protein quantification kit (Thermo).

SGBP-mediated glycan isolation

Glycans were recovered from mixtures using recombinant SGBPs as previously

described[17]. Briefly, an *Ec* strain BL21 cell lysate expressing N-terminal hexa-his-tagged SGBP

was combined with 0.5% glycan and 1.0 mL Ni^{2+}-NTA resin (Thermo) and incubated overnight

at 4°C with rocking. The mixture was packed into a 3 mL gravity flow column and washed with

20 mM Tris (pH, 8) and 100mM Sodium Chloride 8. Protein-glycan complexes were eluted with

25 mM histidine (MilliporeSigma), treated with proteinase K before incubation at 65°C for 2

hours. The reaction was combined with 3x volume of 100% ethanol incubated overnight at 4°C

with rocking and centrifuged for 15 minutes at 21,291 x *g*. The pelleted material was dried under

filtered air, resuspended in water and combined before lyophilization.

qPCR

Stationary phase cultures were diluted 50-fold into pre-reduced minimal media containing the

0.5% galactose and incubated to mid-logarithmic phase (OD_{600} = 0.45 - 0.65). 1.0 mL of culture

was pelleted by centrifugation, immediately placed on dry ice, and stored at -80°C Remaining

cultures were pelleted by centrifugation at 7200 x g for 3 minutes and resuspended in pre-

reduced 2X minimal media containing no carbon. Equal amounts of resuspended culture and

carbon were combined for a final concentration of 0.5% carbon and incubated for 60-minutes

before 1.0 mL of culture was pelleted by centrifugation, immediately placed on dry ice, and

stored at -80°C. RNA was isolated using the RNeasy Mini Kit (QIAGEN), quantified by

absorbance, and 1 µg was converted to cDNA following addition of the Superscript IV VILO

Master Mix with ezDNAse (Invitrogen) per the manufacturer's directions. Transcript abundances

were measured as previously described[45] using a QuantStudio5 (ThermoFisher) and PowerUp

SYBR Green Master Mix (ThermoFisher) with amplicon specific primers (Supplementary Table

3). The 16S *rRNA, rrs,* was used as the reference gene for all qPCR experiments.

In vivo competitive fitness of B. thetaiotaomicron strains

All animal experiments were performed in accordance with protocols approved by Penn State

Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee. Germ-free C57/BL6 mice were maintained in

flexible plastic gnotobiotic isolators with a 12-hour light/dark cycle and provided a standard,

autoclaved mouse chow (LabDiet, 5021) *ad libitum*[45]. Mice were randomly distributed into 2

groups, which were supplied either autoclaved drinking water or 0.5% yeast extract glycans, 2

days prior to gavage with 10^8 CFU of each indicated strains suspended in 200 µL of phosphate-

buffered saline. Input (day 0) abundance of each strain was determined by counting colony

forming units following plating on solid media. Fresh fecal pellets were collected at the indicated

days and genomic DNA was extracted as described previously[22]. The abundance of each strain

was measured by qPCR, using barcode-specific primers (Supplemental Table 2) as described

previously[45].

Monosaccharide Composition Analysis

Trifluoroacetic acid was added to the indicated glycan preparations to a final concentration of

2N and heated to 100°C for 4 hours. Reactions were cooled to room temperature, dried under

filtered air, and washed twice with 50% isopropanol before being dried to completion. Reactions

were resuspended in 0.2 mL of deionized water and analyzed by HPAEC-PAD.

Software and statistics

533 Data collection and curation was done in Microsoft Excel. All data was plotted in GraphPad

534 Prism, except for heatmaps and PCoA, which were generated using ggplot2 in RStudio.

535 Statistical analyses were calculated in Prism. For all experiments, N denotes individual

536 biological replicates across at least two independent experiments.

CAZyme activity

539 YEG was combined with 200 nM $GH20^{PUL56}$ to a final concentration of 1.0% in 20 mM Tris (pH,

540 8), incubated for 4 hours at 37 °C, and analyzed by HPAEC-PAD. Mannobioses were combined

541 with 200 nM of each PUL71 GH in 20 mM Tris (pH=8) and 1 µM calcium chloride.

Supplementary Information

Supplementary Table 1. *Bt* PUL reporter plasmids

Supplementary Table 2. Strains and plasmids used in this study

Supplementary Table 3. Oligonucleotides used in this study

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Fig. 1. Construction of a genome-wide _Bt_ PUL reporter library array. a, Cartoon depicting 88 _Bt_ PULs denoted by individual genes (innermost black circles). Dots emanating from PULs represent significantly increased transcripts measured by RNAseq from strains engineered to produce constitutively active PUL sensors from PUL16 (red), PUL19 (orange), PUL49 (green), PUL53 (cyan), or PUL57 (purple) and color-corresponding heatmaps. The outermost symbols represent distinct classes of known PUL sensor proteins and glycan structures that specifically activate various PULs are indicated. **b,** schematic depicting PUL reporter construction and glycan analysis using the arrayed library. **c-d,** Bioluminescence (**c**) from all 92 _Bt_ reporters following supply of hyaluronic acid normalized by identical strains supplied galactose and (**d**) AUC over 18 hours from each strain. All significantly increased reporters have corresponding colors and insignificantly increases are displayed in grayscale. N=3, error is SEM. **e,** Heatmap of AUC over 18 hours from all reporters supplied mixtures containing galactose and various purified polysaccharides. N≥2. All statistics were calculated using 2-way ANOVA and *** indicates P-values <0.001, **<0.01, and *<0.05.

b

P-*PUL48*

Normalized AUC

dop: 2 (ns), 3 (ns), 4 (***), 5 (***), 6 (***), ~350 (***)

c

P-*PUL58*

● *wild-type*
● *Δsensor^PUL58*

Normalized AUC

glucose (***), β-gentibiose (***), Nigerose (***), Isomaltose (***), Trehalose (***), Kojibiose (***), Maltose (***), Palatinose (***), Turanose (***)

d

P-*PUL46*

wild-type | *Δsensor^PUL58*

Normalized AUC

dop: 2 (***), 4 (ns), 6 (ns) | 2 (***), 4 (ns), 6 (ns)

Fig. 2. *Bt* PUL reporters distinguish between monosaccharide composition, dop, and glycosidic linkage. a, A heatmap displaying normalized AUC following the introduction of various oligosaccharides to the *Bt* PUL reporter array. n=2. **b,** Normalized AUC from P-*PUL48* supplied isomaltooligosaccharides with increasing dop. N=6, error is SEM. **c,** Normalized AUC from *wild-type* (black) or *sensor^PUL58*-deficient (*BT2160*, red) strains harboring P-*PUL58* supplied the indicated di- and tri-saccharides. N≥3, error is SEM. **d,** Normalized AUC from *wild-type* (black) or *sensor^PUL58*-deficient (*ΔBT2160*, red) strains harboring P-*PUL46* supplied the indicated cello-oligosaccharides. N=4, error is SEM. For panels **b-d**, *P*-values were computed using 2-way ANOVA. *** indicates values < 0.001 and *ns* indicates values > 0.05.

Fig. 3. PUL 20 responds to a unique GAG-tethered glycan. a, cartoon representing PUL20 activated by GAGs. **b**, Normalized bioluminescence from *wild-type Bt* strains harboring P-*PUL20,* P-*PUL38,* P-*PUL47,* P-*PUL57,* or P-*PUL85* supplied unsaturated disaccharides (di0S) derived from CS (blue), HA (red), or HS (purple) and normalized by responses from a strain harboring p*Bolux*. n=4, error is SEM. P-values were calculated using 2-way ANOVA with Fisher's LSD test. *** indicates values < 0.001. **c,** Normalized bioluminescence from a strain expressing BT3334* harboring the reporters described in (**b**) and normalized by identical strains harboring the empty vector cultured in galactose as a sole carbon source. **d,** Cartoon representation of the common GAG core linker glycan. **e,** Normalized biolumines-cence from *wild-type Bt* strains harboring P-*PUL20,* P-*PUL38,* P-*PUL47,* P-*PUL57,* or P-*PUL85* supplied SGBP^PUL57 co-purified material following incubation with shark CS and normalized by respons-es from a strain harboring p*Bolux*. n=4, error is SEM.

Figure 4. Arrayed *Bt* PUL reporter strains differentiate MAC sources. a, Heatmap representing Bt PUL array responses to the indicated biologically-derived mixtures clustered by similar reporter activation. n>2. **b,** PCoA of *Bt* reporter responses to different MACs from (**a**) using the Jaccard similarity index and Ward D2 distance calculations. **c,** Distribution of literature-derived and predicted PULs across *Bacteroides* species. Similarities were calculated using a previously described modularity equation.

Fig. 5. PUL71 consumes an unknown yeast cell wall glycan. a, Cartoon schematic of PUL71, which is increased in response to yeast extract glycans. b, Fitness index of *PUL71*-deficient strain relative to *wild-type Bt* in mice supplied a 0.5% YEG solution compared to those supplied water. c, Normalized bioluminescence of YEG-induced reporter strains supplied BT3961-isolated glycans from GH30[PUL56]-treated YEG. N=6, error is SEM. *P*-values were calculated using 2-way ANOVA with Fisher's LSD test. *** indicates values < 0.001. d, cartoon schematic of *Bt*-accessible yeast cell wall glycans, α-mannan and β1,6-glycan tethered by the GPI-anchored mannoprotein. e-f, Growth of *wild-type* and the indicated sensor-deficient *Bt* strains supplied (e) SGBP-[PUL71]-co-purifying material following co-incubation with GH30[PUL56]-treated or (f) untreated YEG. N=6, error is SEM. g, Normalized bioluminescence from a strain harboring P-*PUL71* supplied various di- and oligo-mannosaccharides, yeast α-mannan, or YEG. N=4, error is SEM. P-values were calculated using 2-way ANOVA with Fisher's LSD test. *** indicates values < 0.001 and ns > 0.05.