Microbiota-directed fibre activates both targeted and secondary metabolic shifts in the distal gut

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ABSTRACT

Beneficial modulation of the gut microbiome has high-impact implications not only in humans, but also in livestock that sustain our current societal needs. In this context, we have tailored an acetylated galactoglucomannan (AcGGM) fibre to match unique enzymatic capabilities of *Roseburia* and *Faecalibacterium* species, both renowned butyrate-producing gut commensals. The accuracy of AcGGM was tested within the complex endogenous gut microbiome of pigs, wherein we resolved 355 metagenome-assembled genomes together with quantitative metaproteomes. In AcGGM-fed pigs, both target populations differentially expressed AcGGM-specific polysaccharide utilization loci, including novel, mannan-specific esterases that are critical to its deconstruction. However, AcGGM-inclusion also manifested a "butterfly effect", whereby numerous metabolic changes and interdependent cross-feeding pathways were detected in neighboring non-mannolytic populations that produce short-chain fatty acids. Our findings show that intricate structural features and acetylation patterns of dietary fibre can be customized to specific bacterial populations, with potential to create greater modulatory effects at large.

MAIN TEXT

Microbiota-directed foods (MDFs) have emerged as a strategy to modulate the gut microbiome, as diet has distinct and rapid effects on microbiome composition and function[1,2]. MDFs by definition are not broadly metabolized, but rather elicit a targeted metabolic response in specific indigenous microbiota that confers benefits to their host. This in itself presents a challenge; as many newly identified MDF target organisms, such as beneficial butyrate-producing (i.e. butyrogenic) *Roseburia* and *Faecalibacterium* spp.[3,4], have broad metabolic capabilities that are shared with the vast majority of fibre-fermenting microbiota in the gut ecosystem. Nevertheless, recent studies have revealed intimate connections between the enzymatic and mechanistic features of microorganisms and the glycan structures of the fibres they consume[5,6], which creates new conceptual MDF targets.

This is exemplified by discoveries of sophisticated polysaccharide-degrading apparatuses that enable

certain microbiota to consume fibre in a "selfish" manner, whereby complex glycan-structures (such

as β-mannans) are cleaved into large oligosaccharides at the cell surface, which are subsequently

transported into the cell and depolymerized into monomeric sugars[5,7,8]. Such a mechanism restricts

the release of sugars into the ecosystem for neighboring scavenging populations, thus giving a

selective metabolic advantage to the selfish-degrader in the presence of these highly complex glycans.

Beta-mannans are present in human and livestock diets, and depending on their plant origins, can

be heavily decorated with varying amounts of acetylation that protect the fibre from enzymatic

degradation[9]. We recently demonstrated that the human gut commensal *Roseburia intestinalis*

encodes a mannan-specific polysaccharide utilization locus (PUL), and "selfishly" converts highly

complex mannan substrates to butyrate[5]. Within this mannan PUL, a carbohydrate esterase (CE) family

2 (*Ri*CE2) removes 3-O-, and 6-O- acetylations on mannan, whereas a novel CE family 17 (*Ri*CE17)

removes the axially oriented 2-*O*-hydroxyl acetylations[9], which are distinctive features found in limited

mannan moieties and inaccessible to most of the characterized bacterial esterases present in the gut

microbiome. Closer genome examinations have revealed that putative CE2/CE17-containing mannan

PULs are in fact prominent within many butyrate-producers including *Roseburia* spp.,

Faecalibacterium prausnitzii, *Ruminococcus gnavus*, *Coprococcus eutactus* and *Butyrivibrio*

fibrisolvens[5,10]. It is well known that the metabolic attributes of these populations are highly desirable

in the gastrointestinal tract, and that their depletion is implicated in colorectal cancer, Crohn's disease,

inflammatory bowel syndrome, ulcerative colitis, forms of dermatitis and several other diseases[11,12].

These collective findings thus raised the question: could a custom MDF fibre that was tailored to match

these specialized enzymatic capabilities selectively engage butyrate-producers in a complex

microbiome ecosystem?

2-*O*-acetylated mannans are found in a limited number of characterized western dietary fibre

sources (i.e. tomatoes[13] and coffee[5]), however 2-*O*-acetylations are present in acetylated

galactoglucomannan (AcGGM), which is the main hemicellulose in the secondary cell wall of Norway

spruce (*Picea abies*)[14]. Here, we have utilized controlled steam explosion (SE), followed by

ultrafiltration (UF) fractionation to extract complex AcGGM from spruce wood. Processing conditions

were selected to tailor the fibre with a high degree of galactose branching's and 2-*O-*, 3-*O-* and 6-*O-*

acetylations[15], which is amenable to inclusion as an MDF in animal feed production. Previously, the

MDF concept has matched polysaccharides with *Bacteroides*-encoded PULs to demonstrate the

creation of exclusive metabolic niches[1,16]. In particular, Shepherd et al engrafted exogenous strains in

mice via their rare PUL-encoded enzymatic capabilites[16], whereas Patnode et al[1] illustrated that

bioactive carbohydrates were found to target particular *Bacteroides* species in a defined consortium

of 20 human gut microbial species in gnotobiotic mice. However, what is less understood from MDF

studies to date, is (1) can the MDF concept be applied to target indigenous populations within a

complex endogenous microbiome, and (2) what are the broader secondary community effects if a

targeted population is stimulated, i.e. are new niches created and/or existing ones closed?

Here, we tested whether our AcGGM fibre could specifically target beneficial Firmicutes

species *Roseburia* and *Faecalibacterium* within a "real-world" gut ecosystem that consists of 100-

1000's of different species. To do this, we fed weaned piglets diets containing varying AcGGM levels

over a 28-day period that extended from their first meal after sow separation until an adapted, fibre-

degrading microbiome was established. Temporal changes in the microbiome were monitored using

metagenomics, which phylogenetically and functionally resolved the genomes of indigenous

microbiota. Finally, quantitative metaproteomic analysis and carbohydrate microarrays were used to

visualize the metabolic and enzymatic responses of the different microbiota to the varying AcGGM

exposure. This approach demonstrates how the activity of specific beneficial microbiota can be

directly stimulated while simultaneously deciphering the secondary, trophic effects on other

populations and metabolic niches, with both aspects having broader implications for developing

strategies to effectively modulate the gut microbiome.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Steam explosion allows scalable production of highly complex dietary mannan fibres from wood.
Spruce galactoglucomannan consists of a backbone of β-(1,4)-linked mannose and glucose residues, decorated with α-(1,6) linked galactose branching, and a large degree of esterification of the mannose residues by 2-*O*- and 3-*O*-, and 6-*O*- acetylations[14] (**Fig 1a**). A crucial part of this study was the development of an efficient, large-scale extraction process entailing SE as well as ultra- and nano-filtration, which ultimately provided high quantities at high purity whilst not damaging the complexity of the AcGGM fibre (**Fig. 1b-c**). A total of 700kg of dry Norway spruce chips was processed using SE at conditions corresponding to a combined severity factor (R'_0) of 1.70. We produced 50 kg of oligo/polysaccharides for feed production (**Fig. 1c-e**), with a monosaccharide (Man: Glc: Gal) ratio of 4:1:0.6. The degree of polymerization (DP) of the AcGGM fibre ranged from β-mannooligosaccharides with DP of 2-10 to manno-polysaccharides (DP of ≥11), with both exhibiting degree of acetylation (DA = 0.35). Crucially, this DA value was higher than previous iterations of the fibre (DA = 0.28)[7], and its acetylation patterns (previously determined[9]) matched the enzymatic capabilities of mannan PULs encoded in human gut *Roseburia* and *Faecalibacterium* spp.[5,10]. We therefore predicted that our AcGGM fibre would match representatives of the same populations that are indigenous to porcine gut ecosystems[17,18] (**Fig. 1f**).

Fig. 1. Schematic representation and graphic illustration of the production pipeline for Norway spruce AcGGM. **a**, Wood chips were milled to increase the surface area exposed for hydrothermal extraction and washing the released mannooligosaccharides. Spruce mannan isolated by mild extraction is long chained galactoglucomannan (DP200-400), highly acetylated DA~0.65, predominantly 2-*O* and 3-*O* acetylations[19]. **b**, During hydrothermal pretreatment, release of acetic acid promoted hydrolysis of glycosidic bonds, thereby relinquishing monosaccharides, oligosaccharides and other breakdown products. **c**, Ultra filtration retained the longer, complex oligosaccharides and discarded the monosaccharides, acetic acid and other steam explosion byproducts. **d**, The purified mannan was incorporated into feed pellets at varying inclusion levels, produced by a conventional feed pelleting process. **e**, The growth performance experiment and a feeding trial were conducted in a randomized block design, with four inclusion levels of AcGGM. **f**, Multi-omic approaches were used to analyze the porcine gut microbiome in response to AcGGM and determine if indigenous mannan PULs matched the glycan structure of the AcGGM fibre. Glycosidic bonds between the β-(1,4)-mannose and glucose units in the backbone of AcGGM require hydrolysis by glycoside hydrolases (GH) from families GH5 and GH26. GH36 and GH27 α-galactosidases are required to remove the α-(1,6)-galactose decorations. Single mannose and glucose units are removed from the non-reducing end of the oligosaccharides by enzymes from families GH1, GH2, GH3, GH113 and GH130, while mannose in the reducing end can be removed by GH113 family mannosidases. 3-*O*-, and 6-*O*- acetylations on mannan are removed by esterases from family CE2. A unique feature of particular beta-mannans is the axially oriented 2-*O*- acetylation on mannose, which is the prevalent form of acetylation present on AcGGM used in this study. 2-*O*-acetylations are removed by esterases homologous to the *Ri*CE17 mannan-specific esterase from *Roseburia intestinalis*, which was recently characterized by our group[5].

Spruce AcGGM altered the gut microbiome of weaned piglets in a dose-response manner. We

previously demonstrated that varieties of AcGGM can be metabolized by pure cultures of *Roseburia*

intestinalis L1-82[5], *in vitro* enrichments with human gut butyrate-producers[10] and "mini-microbiota"

within gnotobiotic mice[5]. Here, we wanted to test our AcGGM fibre's accuracy and ability to elicit a

specific response in indigenous representatives of our target populations within a highly complex and

competitive endogenous microbiome. In total, four separate cohorts of twelve weaned piglets were

given a pelleted basal feed semi-*ad libitum*, which contained either 0% (control), 1%, 2% or 4% AcGGM

to additionally determine the level necessary to elicit an effect on both the host and its microbiome.

We chose a dietary supplementation strategy, which is commonly applied to piglets during the post-

weaning period to offset their particularly low feed intake and enhance gut health and growth

performance[20]. Cautious measures were made to eliminate potential pen biases (see details in

materials and methods), and fecal samples as well as animal performance metrics were taken before

AcGGM administration (when piglets were assigned to pens), and subsequently at days 7, 14, 21 and

27 during the feeding trial. At day 28, the piglets were sacrificed and host gut tissue and digesta

samples taken from all intestinal regions (duodenum, jejunum, ileum, cecum and colon) for down-

stream analysis (Supplementary Table 1, Supplementary Dataset 1). Measurements of major short-

chain fatty acids (SCFAs) in the cecum and colon showed a trend of incremental increases of absolute

butyrate levels as AcGGM levels were increased (**Fig. 2**). Butyrate is commonly measured in the colon

at levels that are approximately one-third of acetate, the most abundant SCFA[21]. Compared to control

animals, the mean molar ratio of butyrate to acetate in samples from pigs fed 4% AcGGM increased

in both the cecum (from 0.29:1 to 0.37:1 mM, p-value: 0.03) and colon (from 0.35:1 to 0.45:1 mM, p-

value: 0.002) (Supplementary Dataset 1), suggesting that AcGGM inclusion promotes butyrogenic

fermentation. While changes in SCFA and microbiome composition (**Fig. 2-3**) resulted from AcGGM

inclusion, we observed no adverse effects on the host's physiology, with the average weight, feed

conversion ratio, blood cell composition, T cell population, and colon morphology not differing

between the control and AcGGM treatments (Supplementary Fig. 1, Supplementary Dataset 1).

Fig. 2 Absolute levels of butyrate detected in the cecum and colon digesta of pigs fed the four different AcGGM diets with
varying inclusion levels (0-4%). Raw SCFA measurements are presented in Supplementary Dataset 1. Bars represent median
and boxes interquartile range determined from 12 animals analyzed per dietary group. Data were analyzed using a two-tailed
t test.

Monitoring of temporal microbiome changes using 16S rRNA gene analysis over the month-

long trial indicated that inclusion of AcGGM into the piglets feed caused a pronounced shift in the

microbiome structural composition from the 21st day of the trial onwards (Supplementary Fig. 2b,

Supplementary Fig. 3). Spatial changes were also examined at the final sampling day and showed

typical patterns, whereby the structure of the gut microbiome varied by gut region (Supplementary

Fig. 2a, Supplementary Fig. 3, Supplementary Fig. 4). As expected, the AcGGM-effect was more

pronounced in the fibre-fermenting distal regions (cecum, colon) of the gut, where the relative

abundance of hundreds of phylotypes was observed to change (adjusted p<0.05) in response to

varying inclusion levels (**Fig. 3a**, Supplementary Dataset 2). To determine the effect AcGGM had on

microbiome function, we also closely examined the 355 metagenome assembled genomes (MAGs,

Supplementary Fig. 5a) that were reconstructed from metagenomic data generated from the colon

samples of each pig fed the control and 4% AcGGM diets (Supplementary Table 2). Taxonomic

affiliation of the MAGs was calculated via GTDB-Tk (Supplementary Dataset 3), while phylogeny was

inferred from a concatenated ribosomal protein tree (Newick format available in Supplementary

Dataset 4) that was constructed using MAGs from this study and 293 closely related reference

genomes.

Our target butyrogenic populations produced mixed results, whereby the 16S rRNA gene

relative abundance of *Faecalibacterium* affiliated phylotypes increased in response to increasing levels

of AcGGM (**Fig. 3c**, Supplementary Fig. 3c), whereas *Roseburia* affiliated phylotypes seemingly

decreased (**Fig. 3b**, Supplementary Fig. 3b). However, detailed analysis of *Roseburia*- affiliated MAGs

showed that specific phylotypes that encoded AcGGM-specific PULs were indeed stimulated by the

AcGGM fibre (**Fig. 3b**). Reputable fibre-fermenting populations affiliated to *Prevotella*[22] also showed

varying responses (**Fig. 3g**), with 16S rRNA gene relative abundance of individual phylotypes increasing

from 4% to 12% between the control and 4% AcGGM inclusion in both colon and cecum

(Supplementary Fig. 3a). Interestingly, relative abundance estimates of both 16S-rRNA gene OTUs and

MAGs indicated that phylotypes affiliated to non-fibre degrading taxa, such as *Catenibacterium*[23],

Dialister[24] and *Megasphaera*, demonstrated some of the highest dose-dependent increases in relative

abundance in response to AcGGM (**Fig. 3d-f**), indicating that other underlying factors are likely

dictating microbiome structure, besides fibre degradation.

Fig. 3. Effect of AcGGM-containing diets on the pig gut microbiome. 16S rRNA gene amplicon analysis was used to monitor
the effect the AcGGM fibre had on the gut microbiome structure of weaned piglets. **a** Ordination plots of Bray-Curtis
distances between microbial communities from pigs feed either the control or AcGGM diets (at varying inclusion levels: 1%,
2% or 4%, 12 animals per dietary group). Samples were collected at day 27 of the feeding trials from various sections of the
small and large intestine. The AcGGM-effect was more pronounced in the fibre-fermenting distal regions (cecum, colon) of

the gut. **b** Relative 16S rRNA gene abundance of *Roseburia*-affiliated phylotypes (agglomerated at the genus level) in either
cecum or colon samples collected from pigs fed AcGGM diets with varying inclusion levels. MAG relative abundances were
determined from colon samples only, collected from pigs fed either the control or 4% AcGGM diets. Despite being suspected
as an active mannan degrader, 16S rRNA gene abundance of *Roseburia*-affiliated phylotypes decreased with increasing %
AcGGM. However, MAG relative abundance analysis of *Roseburia* populations showed that specific phylotypes that encoded
AcGGM-specific PULs (indicated by green text) were indeed stimulated by the AcGGM fibre. **c** The relative 16S rRNA gene
abundance of the genus *Faecalibacterium* was enhanced by the inclusion of AcGGM, as were affiliated MAGs in the colon.
The same trends were observed for phylotypes affiliated to *Catenibacterium* (**d**), *Dialister* (**e**), *Megasphaera* (**f**) and *Prevotella*
group 9 (**g**). Due to space constraints only a partial representation of *Prevotella*-affiliated MAG abundances is illustrated in
panel **g.** Bars represent median and boxes interquartile range determined from 12 animals analyzed per dietary group. Both
16S rRNA and MAG relative abundance data were analyzed using a two-tailed t test, with significant increases (red) and
decreases (blue) indicated between pigs fed either the control or AcGGM diets (* denotes p<0.05, ** denotes p<0.001).

Targeted mannan PULs and butyrogenic activities were detected in *Faecalibacterium*- and

***Roseburia*-affiliated populations within the colon of AcGGM-fed pigs.**

Because our primary goal was to elucidate whether our target, butyrogenic populations were

activated in response to AcGGM, we annotated MAGs affiliated to butyrate-producers and conducted

metaproteomic analysis with label-free quantification (LFQ) on randomly selected colon samples from

four control and four 4% AcGGM fed pigs (**Fig. 4a-b**), and mapped 8515 detected protein groups back

to our MAGs to identify functionally active populations **(Fig. 4c)** (Supplementary Datasets 5-6).

Community-wide analysis of the MAG genetic content (Supplementary Fig. 5b) from each sample and

clustering analysis of their detected proteins (**Fig. 4a-b**) further supported our 16S rRNA gene analysis,

reiterating that the microbiomes from piglets fed the control and 4% AcGGM diets were distinct.

Our MAG-centric multi-omic approach gave clear indications as to what effect the AcGGM fibre

had on putative butyrogenic *Roseburia* and *Faecalibacterium* populations in the distal gut of pigs.

Fifteen MAGs clustered with representative *Roseburia* spp. genomes (**Fig. 3b, Fig. 4**), which reflected

the multiple *Roseburia*-affiliated phylotypes that were predicted with our 16S rRNA gene analysis

(Supplementary Fig. 3b, Supplementary Dataset 2). In general, the relative abundance of *Roseburia*-

affiliated MAGs (**Fig. 3b**) and detected proteins (**Fig. 4c**) were observed at either static or lower levels

in AcGGM-fed pigs, reiterating our initial 16S rRNA gene observations that AcGGM negatively affected

Roseburia populations (**Fig. 3b**). However, one specific *Roseburia*-affiliated population (MAG041) was

detected at significantly higher abundance levels (p=0.0016) (**Fig. 3b**), and its detected proteins were

enriched (p<0.001) in the 4% AcGGM pig samples compared to the control (**Fig. 4b-c**, Supplementary

Dataset 7).

Fig. 4. Genome-centric metaproteomic analysis of colon samples collected from pigs fed either the control of 4% AcGGM diet. a Principle Component Analysis of metaproteomes generated from randomly selected colon samples collected from

pigs fed either the control (C1-4) or 4% AcGGM (M1-4) diet. Clear separation was observed between the two diets,
highlighting that the detected proteins in the colon microbiomes from piglets fed the control and 4% AcGGM diets were
distinct. **b** Hierarchal clustering and heatmap of detected protein group abundance profiles. Rows are scaled so that red
represents the highest abundance for that protein group and blue the lowest. Five different clusters were observed, with
protein groups differentially detected in AcGGM fed pigs (M1-4: red), control pigs (C1-4: blue), all pigs (M1-4 + C1-4: purple),
AcGGM fed pigs plus one control (M1-4 + C4: brown) and only in individual pigs (Individual: green). **c** Phylogeny and
metaproteomic detection of 355 MAGs sampled from the colon of weaned piglets. This maximum likelihood tree is based on
an alignment of 22 concatenated ribosomal proteins from the 355 MAGs reconstructed in this study from 24 colon
metagenomes (12 control pigs, 12 fed 4% AcGGM diet), in addition to 239 reference genomes closely related to the MAGs.
Branches are shaded with colour to highlight phylum-level affiliations (see legend). Coloured bars on the outside of the tree
depict the average number of unique and shared protein groups detected for each MAG in four randomly selected samples
that were analyzed from pigs fed either the control- (grey) or 4% AcGGM-diet (green). Total number of proteins for each
MAG in each pig is detailed in Supplementary Dataset 5. Purple circles on the inside of the tree represent nodes with
bootstrap support ≥ 70%, relative to size. MAG041 and MAG243 were found to encode CE2/CE17-containing mannan PULs
are indicated by *. All MAGs depicted in **Fig. 6 (blue circles) and Fig. 7 (red circles)** are listed, with average detected protein
counts in both diets, which metaproteomic expression cluster they are enriched in (part **b**, adjusted p-values are indicated:
* denotes p<0.05, ** denotes p<0.001), and their MAG taxonomic affiliation determined via GTDB-Tk. Recently reclassified
Roseburia species are denoted as *Agathobacter*. The full tree in Newick format is provided in Supplementary Dataset 4.

Closer examination of MAG041 revealed a putative CE2/CE17-containing mannan-degrading PUL

that was absent in the other *Roseburia*-affiliated MAGs and was differentially expressed in the AcGGM

diet **(Fig. 5)**. Importantly, the MAG041 mannan PUL exhibited gene synteny to the *R. intestinalis* strain

L1-82 PUL whose biochemical properties we recently characterized in detail[5] **(Fig. 5)**. The predicted

multi-modular mannanase (CBM27-GH26-CBM23) in the MAG041 mannan PUL is homologous to the

GH26 in *R. intestinalis* L1-82 (48% identity over 87% of the sequence), and can be presumed to fulfill

the same function – "selfishly" breaking down AcGGM fibres at the cell surface prior to intracellular

transport. Besides the detection of GH26 and esterases in AcGGM-fed pigs, other mannan-specific

enzymes also responded to the dietary shift within the MAG041 mannan PUL, including a

phosphoglucomutase, a multiple-sugar binding protein, a GH130.1 4-*O*-β-D-mannosyl-D-glucose

phosphorylase and a GH130.2 β-1,4-manno-oligosaccharide phosphorylase **(Fig. 5)**.

In contrast to *Roseburia*-affiliated MAGs, only one MAG clustered with *F. prausnitzii* (MAG243,

Fig. 4, Supplementary Dataset 3), implying that the multiple phylotypes that were predicted with our

16S rRNA gene data (Supplementary Fig. 3c, Supplementary Dataset 2) encode high genome similarity

and coverage and thus likely co-assembled into a representative population-level MAG. The relative

abundance of MAG243 in the distal gut of pigs fed 4% AcGGM increased approximately 5-fold to

~1.24% (p<0.001) **(Fig. 3c)**, while metaproteomic hierarchical clustering analysis showed that MAG243

proteins were enriched in the same samples (**Fig. 4b-c**, Supplementary Dataset 7). Similar to MAG041,

MAG243 was found to encode a CE2/CE17-containing mannan PUL, which was broadly detectable in

the presence of AcGGM but absent in the control samples (**Fig. 5**, Supplementary Dataset 6). While

the MAG243 mannan PUL contained two GH130 manno-oligophosphorylases, a mannose 6-

phosphate isomerase, phosphoglucomutase and two carbohydrate esterase (CE17 and CE2), it lacked

a GH26 mannanase representative, which suggests that *F. prausnitzii* is likely preferentially targeting

the shorter acetylated manno-oligosaccharides that form part of the AcGGM structure (**Fig. 1**). In

addition to the mannan-PULs of MAG041 and MAG243 being activated in AcGGM-fed pigs, their

butyrogenic pathways were also detected at high levels, based on label-free quantification (LFQ)

scores of detected proteins **(Fig. 6-7**, Supplementary Dataset 6), suggesting that both populations can

convert mannan to butyrate (Supplementary Dataset 6).

Fig. 5. Metaproteomic detection of CE2/CE17-containing mannan-PULs encoded in *Roseburia*- (MAG041) and
***Faecalibacterium*- (MAG243) affiliated MAGs in pigs fed with either the control or 4% AcGGM diet.** Predicted gene
organization and annotated gene function is colour-coded and largely derived from previous biochemical and structural
characterization of the mannan degradation cluster (characterized genes indicated with *) in *R. intestinalis* L1-82[5]. Gene
synteny and identity % between mannan PULs found in in *R. intestinalis* L1-82, MAG041 and MAG243 are indicated in grey
boxes. Heat maps above detected enzymes show the LFQ detection levels for the four replicates sampled in control and 4%
AcGGM-fed pigs. LFQ values of proteins from both clusters are in Supplementary Dataset 6. The predicted multi-modular
mannanase (CBM27-GH26-CBM23) from MAG041 was the only extracellular protein in the locus, and the only extracellular
mannanase expressed in response to AcGGM inclusion.

Removal of 2-*O*-, 3-*O*- and 6-*O*-mannose acetylations are the key enzymatic activities required for accessing AcGGM.

A crucial step in the utilization of mannans as an energy source is the deacetylation of 2-*O*-, 3-*O*- and 6-*O*-mannose residues, which allows the subsequent breakdown of the sugar-containing backbone of the fibre. In *R. intestinalis* L1-82, AcGGM deacetylation occurs via the synergistic actions of two carbohydrate esterases (*Ri*CE2 and *Ri*CE17) that exert complementary specificities[9]. MAG041 and MAG243 both encoded CE2 homologues within their mannan PULs, sharing 63% and 31% identity (respectively) to *Ri*CE2, which has demonstrated activity on 3-*O*-, (4-*O*-) and 6-*O*-acetylations, and is mannan specific[9]. For CE17, MAG041 and MAG243 homologs shared 65% and 46% identity (respectively) with *Ri*CE17, including the active site residues and the aromatic stacking tryptophan (Trp326), which in *Ri*CE17 are associated with 2-*O*- acetylation specificity[9]. Broader screens of our MAG data revealed other CE2/CE17-containing PULs within Firmicute-affiliated MAGs from the pig colon microbiome (Supplementary Fig. 6), however aside from MAG041 and MAG243, they originated from populations whose MAG relative abundance was very low (<0.05%) and metabolic activity was undetectable via metaproteomics in any of the control or AcGGM diets (**Fig. 4**). Finally, the differential proteomic detection of MAG041 and MAG243 CEs in pigs fed AcGGM diets (**Fig. 5**), strengthened our hypothesis that both these populations can accommodate the unique features of the AcGGM fibre and are actively engaging in its utilization *in vivo*.

Beyond the target populations consuming AcGGM, we also observed a pronounced "butterfly effect"

MDFs studies to date have eloquently highlighted that metabolic symmetry between individual fibres and microbiota can be used to stimulate specific populations[1,16]. However, deeper microbiome

effects that result from a target species being enriched via MDFs are poorly understood. Although the

specificity of the AcGGM fibre matched selected mechanistic features of our target populations, our

data showed that AcGGM dietary intervention reverberated further down the microbial trophic

networks that support conversion of dietary fibre into keystone SCFAs that are of nutritional value to

the host animal. In particular, we observed varying effects upon different non-AcGGM-degrading

butyrogenic populations belonging to clostridial cluster XIVa (Lachnospiraceae: *Roseburia* spp.,

Eubacterium rectale, *Butyrivibrio* and *Pseudobutyrivibrio*) and cluster IV (Ruminococcaceae:

Faecalibacterium prausnitzii-related bacteria)[25] (**Fig. 6**, Supplementary Dataset 6). Specific populations

that were closely related to AcGGM-degrading MAG041 were found to be either unaffected (MAG292)

or metabolically suppressed (MAG133) in the presence of 4% AcGGM. Indeed, detected proteins from

MAG133 were enriched in pigs fed the control diet (adj. $p < 0.001$, Supplementary Dataset 7), and

enzymes associated with butyrate production were largely undetected in 4% AcGGM-fed pigs (**Fig. 6**,

Supplementary Dataset 6). In most cases, non-AcGGM degrading, butyrogenic populations were

seemingly utilizing sugars found in starch, arabinoxylan and/or arabinogalactan fibres that were

detected in the basal feed components using Micro Array Polymer Profiling (MAPP; Supplementary

Dataset 8). Broader analysis of our omic data identified multiple abundant populations with similar

metabolic capabilities, suggesting that suppressed butyrogenic populations were possibly being

outcompeted by Prevotella-affiliated populations such as MAG285 (see below). While SCFA

measurements indicated an increase in relative butyrate levels in AcGGM-fed pigs (**Fig. 2b**), the

indirect effects of our MDF on this dynamic functional group are likely dampening an even greater

influence of AcGGM-stimulated *Roseburia* and *Faecalibacterium* populations upon the broader

microbiome and host animal (Fig. 6).

Fig. 6. The differing metabolisms of butyrate-producers in the colon microbiome of pigs fed AcGGM. A plethora of MAGs affiliated with putative butyrate-producers were recovered from the pig colon metagenome, which varied in their fibre degrading capacity and detected activity in either the control (C) or 4% AcGGM (M) diets. Here, we present a representative selection of populations that: encoded specific AcGGM degrading capabilities (MAG041 and MAG243), were abundant across both diets with no apparent effect (MAG292), were significantly enriched in pigs feed the control diet (MAG133, MAG324 and MAG269), and encoded an alternative pathway for butyrate production (via Butyrate kinase) (MAG324). GTBD-Tk inferred taxonomy (recently reclassified *Roseburia* species are denoted as *Agathobacter*), MAG relative abundance (control: black circles, AcGGM: green circles) and MAG-centric metaproteomic enrichment analysis is indicated (see **Fig. 4c**, significant differences denoted by adjusted p-values: * $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.001$).

Besides butyrate-producers, MAG-centric metaproteomic enrichment analysis showed that fibre-

degrading *Prevotella*-affiliated populations experienced contrasting effects as a result of AcGGM

inclusion. For example, MAG191 was found to account for the highest levels of detectable proteins in

our datasets (**Fig. 4c**, Supplementary Dataset 6), which were enriched in clusters differently detected

in the presence of 4% AcGGM (p<0.001, Supplementary Dataset 6). Pathway annotation of AcGGM-

enriched *Prevotella* populations (such as MAG191, MAG196, MAG285, see **Fig. 4c**, **Fig. 7**,

Supplementary Dataset 6-7) indicated active metabolism of dietary fibres such arabinoxylans, starch,

glucans (e.g. cellobiose), α-galactans and mannose sugars (detected via MAPP analysis,

Supplementary Dataset 8) as well as acetate, succinate and/or propionate production, which were all

detected with higher LFQ scores in AcGGM-fed pigs (**Fig. 7**, Supplementary Dataset 6). However, many

CAZymes and fermentation enzymes from the aforementioned MAGs were also detected across both

diets (albeit at varying LFQ values), while other *Prevotella* populations were specifically enriched in

pigs fed the control diet (i.e. MAG034: adj. p<0.001, Supplementary Dataset 7), suggesting that

Prevotella-driven baseline consumption of basal feed fibre was occurring irrespective of AcGGM

inclusion (**Fig. 7**, Supplementary Dataset 6).

Several mannan-targeting PULs were identified in *Prevotella*-affiliated MAGs that were configured

in an archetypical "Bacteroidetes-format", which combines outer-membrane transport and

carbohydrate-binding SusC/D-like proteins as well as CAZymes[26] (Supplementary Fig. 5a). In particular,

a PUL recovered from MAG196 encoded predicted SusC/D-like proteins, mannanases (GH26, GH5_7),

mannosyl-phosphorylases (GH130) and an esterase, although neither the mannanases nor the

esterase were detected in the metaproteomes recovered from the AcGGM-fed pigs (**Fig. 7**,

Supplementary Fig. 6, Supplementary Dataset 6). In addition, we speculate that MAG196 and MAG191

are perhaps capable of metabolizing elements of the AcGGM fibre such as the α-galactose side-chain

or deacetylated manno-oligosaccharides, which was inferred via detected GH36 and GH130

representatives (**Fig. 7**, Supplementary Fig. 6, Supplementary Dataset 6).

Fig. 7. Selected metabolic features of the porcine colon microbiome in response to AcGGM dietary intervention, as inferred from genome and proteome comparisons. The different metabolic pathways (fibre deconstruction, glycolysis, pentose-phosphate pathway and SCFA production) are displayed for each population MAG. Graphical representation of pathways, enzymes, CAZymes, and cellular features are based on functional annotations that are depicted as numbered or abbreviated gene boxes, which are additionally listed in Supplementary Dataset 6. Metaproteomic analysis (detected genes and enzyme complexes) is highlighted according to the different LFQ values of the detected proteins sampled at a single time-point (28 days) either from animals fed the control or 4% AcGGM diet (green perforated boxes). The main dietary fibres (starches, xylans, glucans and mannans) and SCFAs (butyrate, acetate, propionate, lactate and succinate) are represented by large colored arrows. GTBD-Tk inferred taxonomy is included (recently reclassified *Roseburia* species are denoted as *Agathobacter*). Gene names and abbreviations are also provided in Supplementary Dataset 6.

Dietary inclusion of AcGGM also unexpectedly led to pronounced metabolic shifts in numerous

phenotypically and phylogenetically diverse microbial populations that are not normally associated

with fibre hydrolysis. Mirroring our 16S rRNA gene analysis, MAGs affiliated to the genera *Dialister*

(MAG150), *Catenibacterium* (MAG048) and *Megasphaera* (MAG053) were the three highest enriched

populations in expression clusters differentially detected in the AcGGM diet (adj. p<0.001), although

none were found to encode CE2/CE17-containing mannan PULs (**Fig. 3-4**, **Fig. 7**, Supplementary

Dataset 6). In particular, the MAG048 proteome included a putative sugar phosphotransferase system

(PTS) and GH1 phospho-β-glucosidases (EC 3.2.1.86) that are predicted to catalyze the

phosphorylation of disaccharides (such as cellobiose and mannobiose[27,28]) and hydrolyze the PTS-

transported sugars into D-glucose and D-glucose 6-phosphate. Concomitantly, glycolysis and

acetogenesis pathways from MAG048 were also highly detected in AcGGM-fed pigs (**Fig. 7**,

Supplementary Dataset 6). Together, this data suggests that certain *Catenibacterium* populations are

advantageously consuming AcGGM-derived disaccharides that were either available as a fraction of

the original AcGGM fibre preparation, have been generated via the actions of other fibre-degrading

populations or have become available via new ecological niches that have been created via the

AcGGM-derived structural shifts in the microbiome.

Both MAG053 (*Megasphaera*) and MAG150 (*Dialister*) were predicted via our multi-omics

approach to metabolize SCFAs such as lactate and succinate that were generated endogenously by

Lactobacillus- (i.e. MAG013) and *Prevotella-* (i.e. MAG285) affiliated populations, and produce

butyrate and propionate, respectively (**Fig. 7**, Supplementary Dataset 6). Neither of these cross-

species relationships had any evidence of being directly influenced by AcGGM and are presumably

being driven by underlying availabilities of fermentation intermediates (e.g. lactate and succinate)

resulting from as-yet uncharacterized niche fluctuations. Collectively, these data highlight that while

a highly tailored MDF can directly activate enzymatically equipped populations in an endogenous

microbiome, they can also inadvertently alter the metabolisms of other non-mannolytic populations

creating effects that should be quantified to ascertain the true modulation potential of an MDF. The

community dynamics that drive fibre-fermentation is not well understood and is likely a contributory

factor that restricts broader prebiotic fibre development.

CONCLUSION

Here, we have advanced the MDF concept by showing that the defined relationship between

fibre and microbe can be used to directly target specific microbiota in highly complex and competitive

gut ecosystems. This was achieved by matching the structural features of our characterized AcGGM

fibre to a specific genetic locus in our target microbiota, for which there exists comprehensive

biochemical information pertaining to the encoded enzymatic functions.

Using integrated multi-omics analysis, we illustrate the impact of the AcGGM structural configuration

on microbial uptake and metabolism within the distal regions of the porcine digestive tract, with the

key driver of AcGGM selectivity being the presence of acetylations of mannan, as well as carbohydrate

composition and size[29]. Preserving the complexity of AcGGM resulted in a highly specific shift in the

composition of the colon microbiome from weaned piglets, with increases in the relative

butyrate:acetate ratios and no adverse effect on host growth performance or health status. We

showed that the AcGGM fibre activated a metabolic response in specific *Roseburia* and

Faecalibacterium populations *in vivo*, as it did in the previous *in vitro* experiments[5,10], with both

populations expressing proteins from unique CE2/CE17-containing mannan PULs that are homologous

to a biochemically characterized representative in *R. intestinalis* L1-82. In conclusion, our data provide

a foundation for modulatory strategies to design and match custom dietary fibres to unique enzymatic

features of their target organisms. However, they also underscore the fact that the greater network

of interconnected metabolic exchanges and trophic structures inherent to the gut microbiome are

highly susceptible to minor dietary interventions. Ultimately, further research is required to determine

whether AcGGM MDFs can confer improvements to animal performance metrics (such as growth and

disease resistance) in the context of full-scale livestock production.

DATA AVAILABILITY

All sequencing reads have been deposited at the NCBI sequence read archive under BioProject

PRJNA574295, with specific numbers listed in Supplementary Table 2. All annotated MAGs are publicly

available via doi: 10.6084/m9.figshare.9816581. The proteomics data has been deposited to the

ProteomeXchange Consortium (http://proteomecentral.proteomexchange.org) via the PRIDE partner

repository[30] with the dataset identifier PXD015757.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

L.M., J.C.G., P.B.P. and B.W. conceived the study, performed the primary analysis of the data and wrote

the paper (with input from all authors). L.L. and M.Ø. designed, performed and analyzed the animal

experiments. S.L.L.R., L.H.H., M.Ø.A., T.R.H. and J.D. generated the data and/or contributed to the data

analyses. W.G.T.W. and C.T-J. generated and analyzed MAPP data. N.T., V.L and B.H. annotated and

curated the MAGs and identified carbohydrate-active enzymes.

COMPETING INTERESTS

The authors declare there are no competing financial interests in relation to the work described.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Animals, diets and experimental design.

Animal care protocols and experimental procedures were approved by the Norwegian Animal Research Authority, approval no. 17/9496, FOTS ID 11314 and treated according to institutional guidelines. A total of 48 cross bred piglets (Landrace x Yorkshire), 24 male and 24 female, with an average initial body weight (BW) of 9,8 ± 0,5 kg and weaned at 28 days of age, were sorted by litter, sex and weight and randomly divided into twelve pens of four animals, with three pens fed each of the four diets. The piglets in each pen were trained to feed at individual stations containing their respective feed. The animals were housed in an environmentally controlled facility with plastic flooring and a mechanical ventilation system. The temperature of the room was maintained at 22°C.

Piglets were fed cereal-based diets containing increasing levels of AcGGM in the diets (1, 2 and 4%). Inclusion levels were selected based on in-house experience from previous feeding trials and communication with the feed industry, where an inclusion level of 1-4% of MDF in feed would be realistic. The highest inclusion level at 4% was selected in order to test a dose response. Diets were pelleted with a 3 mm diameter feed formulated to meet the requirements for indispensable amino acids and all other nutrients (NRC, 2012). The composition of diets is listed in Supplementary Table 3. Pigs were fed semi-ad libitum twice a day at a feeding level equal to about 5% of body weight. To evaluate growth performance, the BW of each pig was recorded at the beginning and once a week. Feed consumption was recorded for each individual pig during the experiment to calculate individual weight gain and feed intake. After each meal, feed leftovers were registered, dried and subtracted from the total feed intake.

Production of AcGGM.

AcGGM oligosaccharides for the feeding trial were produced from Norway spruce chips milled

with a hammer mill to <2 mm size. Wood chips were then steam-exploded on a pilot scale steam

explosion rig (100L reactor vessel) at the Norwegian University of Life Sciences (NMBU). The steam

explosion was conducted in batches of approximately 6kg dry matter, 14.5 bar pressure (equivalent

to 200° C), with 10 minutes residence time. The pH in the collected biomass slurry after the steam

explosion was ~3.7, which corresponds to a combined severity factor R'_0=1.70 for the process. The

severity was calculated by $R'_0 = (10^{-pH}) \times (t \times e^{(T_{exp}-100)/14.75})$[31]. Steam exploded wood was collected in

50 L plastic buckets that were topped up with hot (~70° C) water. The slurry was transferred to a

60Lcider press (Speidel, Germany) and the liquid fraction was pressed out. Milled wood was collected,

soaked in hot water again, and pressed for the second time. The liquid fraction was collected and

recirculated through a bag filter 50μm pore WE50P2VWR (Allied filter systems, England) partly filled

with the wood particles as a filter aid. Once free of floating wood particles, the liquid fraction of

hemicellulose was filtered through a 5-kDa spiral wound Polysulphone/polyethersulphone

ultrafiltration membrane, GR99PE polyester (Alfa Laval, Denmark) that was deliberately fouled to

prevent larger oligosaccharides from running through the permeate, using a GEA pilot-scale filtration

system Model L (GEA, Denmark). The fraction retained by the membrane was concentrated by

nanofiltration using a TriSep XN 45, which had a higher efficiency for permeating water. The filtrate

was further concentrated by vacuum evaporation (set to 65 °C) and the concentrate was freeze-dried

and homogenized with a grain mill. The final product consisted of 0.9% rhamnose, 2.7% arabinose,

13.7% xylose, 58.9% mannose, 14.9% glucose and 9.4% galactose (determined by gas chromatography

as alditol acetates after sulfuric acid hydrolysis as described previously[32]). AcGGM contained 0.73 %

ash and 2.4% protein (quantified from total nitrogen by the Kjeldahl method). The Man:Glc:Gal ratio

in the mannan was 4:1:0.6, and the DA=0.35[9] (determined by acetate release from NaOH treated

AcGGM by the same method as described in the SCFA section below). Moreover, previous two-

dimensional (2D) [1]H-^{13}C heteronuclear single quantum correlation (HSQC) NMR analysis of the AcGGM

used in this study, showed the distribution of acetylations on mannose units, indicating that spruce

mannan hydrolysate without enzyme addition contained prevalently 2-O-, some 3-O- acetylations,

and a lower degree of 4-O- and 6-O-acetylations[9]. The dry matter content was determined by drying

0.2g of sample at 105°C for 20 hours. The remaining sample was burned at 600°C for 24 hours in an

oven (Carbolite, Sheffield, England) to determine ash content. All measurements were performed in

triplicates.

Fecal scoring.

During the experiment, fecal consistency was assessed using a scoring system developed by Pedersen

and Toft[33] to improve and help standardize current protocols for clinical characterization of fecal

consistency. The scoring was based on the following 4 consistency categories: score 1 = firm and

shaped, score 2 = soft and shaped, score 3 = loose and score 4 = watery. Samples with score 3 or 4 are

considered diarrheic. Daily fecal scores for each pen were recorded throughout the trial.

pH measurements.

The pH of digesta samples from duodenum, jejunum, ileum, cecum and colon were measured

immediately after slaughter. Samples were placed in universal containers and pH measurements made

using an Inolab pH7110 pH meter (WTW, Germany).

Blood sampling and flow cytometry.

Blood samples were collected from the same six piglets per diet at 0, 7 and 27 feeding days. The blood

samples were taken 1-2 hours post-prandial by venipuncture in the jugular vein while pigs were kept

on their backs. Non-heparinised and K_3EDTA vacuum tubes (Beckman Dickson Vacutainer System)

were used to recollect serum and whole blood. Serum was isolated immediately by centrifugation at

1,500 x *g* at 4°C for 15min. Serum samples were split in PCR-tubes (200 µL) and stored at -80°C until

analysis. Hematological and clinical analyses were performed with an Advia® 2120 Hematology System

using Advia 2120 MultiSpecies System Software and clinical chemistry analyses were performed with

Advia 1800 Chemistry System (both from Siemens AG Healthcare Sector).

For flow cytometry analysis, whole blood was diluted 1:1 in RPMI 1640 and kept on ice until single

cells isolation. For the isolation of peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) blood was purified by

centrifugation in a Ficoll gradient (Kreuzer et al. 2012). Then, isolated PBMCs were incubated with

Fixable Yellow Dead Cell Stain Kit (Life Technologies, Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc.) followed by primary

monoclonal antibodies (mAbs), brief incubation with 30% normal pig serum to block Fc-receptors, and

finally fluorescence-labeled secondary antibodies (Abcam plc, UK). To detect the intracellular CD3

epitope, surface-labeled cells were permeabilized with Intracellular Fixation and Permeabilization

Buffer Set (eBioscience, Affymetrix Inc.) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Labeled cells

were analyzed on a Gallios Flow Cytometer (Beckman Coulter, Inc.) and data were processed using

Kaluza 1.5 software (both Beckman Coulter, Inc.). Cell gates were designed to select for single and

viable mononuclear cells. Defined markers were used to identify the different immune

subpopulations. For monocytes, antibodies against CD45, CD3, CD14, CD163 and MHCII were used. To

analyze regulatory T cells (T reg) the following antibodies were used: CD45, CD3, TCR γ/δ, CD4, CD8,

FOXp3 and CD25, while CD45, CD8, NKp46, CD4, CD8, Ki67 and CD27 were used to identify T and NK

cells. The gating strategy used for flow cytometric data is presented in Supplementary Figure 7.

Analysis of Serum Cytokines: MULTIPLEX

Expression of GMCSF, IFNG, IL-1A, IL1B, IL-1RA, IL-2, IL-4, IL-6, IL-8, IL-10, IL-12, IL-18 and TNFα were

measured in serum samples using MILLIPLEX MAP Porcine Cytokine and Chemokine Magnetic Bead

Panel - Immunology Multiplex Assay (Merck Millipore) following the manufacturer instructions. The

measurement was performed using a Bio-Plex MAGPIX Multiplex Reader (BIO-RAD).

Small Intestine Morphology.

569 The samples of the small intestine were collected on day 0 and 28 for determination of intestinal
570 morphology and integrity. Intestinal morphological measurements included the following indices:
571 villus height (VH), crypt depth (CD) and VH:CD. Mean values of VH, CD and their ratio were calculated.
572 Histology evaluation was performed by the Veterinary Histophalogy Center, VeHiCe, Chile.

SCFA analysis.

Samples of digesta from duodenum, jejunum, ileum, cecum and colon of individual pigs were collected
for SCFA analysis. 250 mg or 250 µL of a sample, depending on the source site were mixed 1:1 with
4mM H_2SO_4, homogenized by shaking at room temperature for one hour, and centrifuged at 12000xg
for 10 minutes. The supernatant was collected with a syringe and filtered through a 0.22 µm pore
syringe filter. Samples were stored at -20 °C and centrifuged at 12000xg before transferring aliquots
into HPLC vials for analysis. SCFA content was analyzed by HPLC using a REZEX ROA-Organic Acid H+
(Phenomenex, Torrance, California, USA) 300x7.8 mm ion exclusion column, isocratic elution with 0.6
mL/min 4 mM H_2SO_4 at 65 °C. Eluting analytes were detected by UV at 210 nm. The same HPLC method
was used to determine the degree of acetylation, by measuring the acetate released from samples of
AcGGM dissolved in 100mM KOH and relating the values to the mannose content of the sample. All
data were analyzed using a two-tailed *t* test.

Micro Array Polymer Profiling (MAPP)

All cell wall preparations were analysed similar to Moller et al[34]. Cell-wall glycans were sequentially
extracted from 10mg of each sample by incubation with 2ug/ml cellulase, pH8.9 in 20mM tris buffer
for 16hrs, 45°C to release residual glycans bound to cellulose. Each extract was mixed 50/50 with

glycerol buffer (55.2% glycerol, 44% water, 0.8% Triton X-100) and spotted with four 5-fold dilutions

and two technical replicates onto nitrocellulose membrane with a pore size of 0.45µm (Whatman,

Maidstone, UK) using an Arrayjet Sprint (Arrayjey, Roslin, UK). The arrays were probed using

antibodies from the JIM, LM (Plant Probes), BioSupplies, series and a Carbohydrate Binding Module

(CBM, NZYTech) detected using anti-rat (JIM, LM), anti-mouse (BioSupplies) or anti-His (CBM)

secondary antibodies conjugated to alkaline phosphatase (Sigma Aldrich) as described in Pedersen et

al[35]. The microarrays were developed using an NBT/BCIP substrate containing Nitro Blue Tetrazolium

(NBT) and 5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indolylphosphate p-toludine salt (BCIP) in Tris buffer (0.5mM $MgCl_2$,

100 mM diethanol-amine, pH 9.5). The arrays where scanned using a desktop scanner (CanoScan 8800

F, Canon) at 2400 dpi and the intensity of NBT/BCIP stained spots quantified using Array-Pro Analyzer

6.3 (Media Cybernetics). This produces data for the normalised intensity of spots relative to the

background intensity of the nitrocellulose membrane (to control for background staining). We used

this data to create a heatmap, for average spot intensity across biological replicates and sample

dilutions.

Microbial Sampling

Fecal samples were collected from 6 piglets per experimental group (n=12) at days 0, 7, 14,

21, and 27 post-weaning. At the end of the trial, all piglets (n=48) were sacrificed, and distinct samples

were collected from the lumen of the duodenum, jejunum, ileum, cecum, and colon. Samples were

obtained within the first 15 minutes after the piglets were sacrificed and the samples were flash-

frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C until DNA extraction.

DNA Extraction

DNA was extracted with a MagAttract PowerMicrobiome DNA/RNA Kit (MO BIO Laboratories

Inc., Carlsbad, CA, USA) according to the manufacturer instructions, except for the bead beating step

where we used a FastPrep-96 Homogenizer (MP Biomedicals LLC., Santa Ana, CA, USA) at maximum

intensity for a total of 2 minutes in 4 pulses of 30 s with a 5 minute cooling period between each pulse.

A KingFisher Flex DNA extraction robot was used for the automated steps of the protocol. The

extracted nucleic acids were quantified with a Qubit Fluorimeter and the Qubit dsDNA BR Assay Kit

(Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) and stored at -80°C.

16S Amplicon Sequencing and Analysis

16S amplicon sequence data was obtained for all fecal and intestinal samples. The V3-V4

region of the 16S rRNA gene was PCR amplified using the primers Pro341F (5'-CCT ACG GGN BGC ASC

AG-3') and Pro805R (5'-GAC TAC NVG GGT ATC TAA TCC-3'), to which the MiSeq adaptors were

additionally incorporated on the 5' ends[36]. The 25 µL PCR reactions consisted of 1X iProof High-Fidelity

Master Mix (Biorad, Hercules, CA, USA), 0.25 µM primers, and 5 ng template DNA. PCR thermal cycling

began with a hot start step at 98 °C for 180 s and was followed by 25 cycles of 98 °C denaturation for

30 s, 55 °C annealing for 30 s, and 72 °C extension for 30 s, followed by a final, 300 s extension step at

72 °C. Amplicons were individually purified with AMPure XP beads (Beckman Coulter, Indianapolis, IN,

USA) and indexed with the Nextera XT Index Kit v2 (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA) according to the

Illumina protocol for 16S metagenomic sequencing library preparation. Next, equal volumes from each

indexing reaction were pooled together, and the pool was purified with AMPure XP beads. The purified

amplicon pool was then quantified with a Qubit Fluorimeter, diluted, mixed with 15% PhiX Control v3

(Illumina), and denatured according to the aforementioned Illumina protocol. The denatured library

was sequenced on the Illumina MiSeq platform using the MiSeq Reagent Kit v3 (600 cycle). Data were

output from the sequencer as demultiplexed FASTQ format files.

Processing of the data was done with a combination of standalone programs, QIIME[37]

MOTHUR[38] and the R package Phyloseq[39]. To process the data, the paired end reads for each sample

were merged with PEAR[40], specifying a minimum assembly length 400, maximum assembly length 575,

minimum overlap 50, and no statistical test. Then, PRINSEQ[41] version 0.20.4 was used to filter low

quality reads by requiring a minimum quality score of 10 for all bases and a minimum mean quality of

30. Primer sequences were trimmed in MOTHUR version 1.36.1, and chimeric sequences were

identified and filtered out using QIIME version 1.9.1. Next, open reference $OTU_{0.97}$ clustering[42] was

performed with VSEARCH[43] version 2.3.2 and the Silva database[44] release 128 as the taxonomy

reference. Then, the QIIME core diversity analyses script was run. Differentially abundant phylotypes

were identified in both cecum and colon for the control vs. 4% AcGGM samples using both the

MetagenomeSeq fitZIG and DESeq2 negative binomial algorithms via the QIIME wrapper. The OTU

table, phylogenetic tree, representative sequences, and taxonomy from QIIME were incorporated

along with the sample metadata into a Phyloseq version 1.22.3 object in R for data exploration and

visualization.

Whole Metagenome Sequencing and Analysis

Whole metagenome sequencing was performed at the Norwegian Sequencing Centre on 2

lanes of the Illumina HiSeq 4000 to generate 2 X 150 paired-end reads. TruSeq PCR-free libraries were

prepared for 12 control and 12 AcGGM (4%) samples from the colon. All 24 samples were run in both

lanes to eliminate the potential for lane-specific sequencing bias. FASTQ format files were received

from the sequencing center, and prior to assembly, these were quality filtered with Trimmomatic[45]

version 0.36 whereby TruSeq adaptor sequences were eliminated, sequences were required to have

an average quality score above 20, leading and trailing bases with quality below 20 were removed,

sequences with average quality score below 15 in a 4-base sliding window were trimmed, and the

minimum read length was required to be 36 bases. Individual sample assembly was accomplished with

metaSPAdes[46] version 3.11.1. MegaHIT[47] version 1.1.3 was used for co-assembly of all 24 samples

together as well as co-assembly of the 12 control samples together and the 12 4% AcGGM samples

together. MetaBAT[48] version 0.26.3 was used to bin the assemblies, and dRep[49] was used to

dereplicate the multiple assembly and binning combinations to produce an optimal set of MAGs.

MASH[50] version 2.0 used to compare the similarity of the 24 metagenomes by calculating pairwise

Jaccard distances which were imported into R for NMDS ordination and visualization. Completeness

and contamination was determined for each MAG using CheckM[51] version 1.0.7. Taxonomic

classifications of MAGs was performed using GTDB-Tk[52], and relative abundance estimations were

generated using CoverM (https://github.com/wwood/CoverM). Feature and functional annotation

were completed with the Prokka pipeline[53] version 1.12, and the predicted protein sequences from all

355 MAGs were concatenated to create the metaproteomics reference database. Resulting annotated

open reading frames (ORFs) were retrieved, further annotated for CAZymes using the CAZy annotation

pipeline with libraries from the July 2018 database release[54,55], and subsequently used as a reference

database for the metaproteomics (with the exception of glycosyltransferases).

Metaproteomics

Proteins were extracted from each sample by the following method. An aliquot (1 g) of colon digesta

from pigs fed either a control diet or a diet supplemented with 4% β-mannan was dissolved 1:1 (w/v)

in 50 mM TrisHCl, pH 8.4.

Lysis was performed using a bead-beating approach whereby glass beads (size ≤ 106 μm) were added

to the colon digesta slurry and cells were disrupted in 3 x 60 second cycles using a FastPrep24 (MP

Biomedicals, Santa Ana, CA, USA). Debris were removed by centrifugation at 16.600 x g for 20 minutes

and proteins were precipitated overnight in 16% ice-cold TCA. The next day, proteins were dissolved

in 100 μL 50 mM TrisHCl, pH 8.4 and concentration was determined using the Bradford protein assay

(Bradford Laboratories, USA) using bovine serum albumin as a standard. Fifty milligrams of protein

was prepared in SDS sample buffer, separated by SDS-PAGE using an Any-kD Mini-PROTEAN gel (Bio-

Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA, USA) and stained using Coomassie Brilliant Blue R250. The gel was cut

into 6 slices and reduced, alkylated and digested as described previously[56]. Prior to mass spectrometry,

peptides were desalted using C_{18} ZipTips (Merck Millipore, Darmstadt, Germany) according to the

manufacturer's instructions.

The peptides were analyzed by nanoLC-MS/MS as described previously, using a Q-Exactive hybrid

quadrupole orbitrap mass spectrometer (Thermo Scientific, Bremen, Germany)[57], and the acquired

raw data was analyzed using MaxQuant[58] version 1.4.1.2. Proteins were quantified using the MaxLFQ

algorithm[59]. The data was searched against a sample-specific database (602.947 protein sequences),

generated from the 355 metagenome assembled genomes (MAGs), and against the genome of pig,

(*Sus scrofa domesticus)* (40.708 sequences). In addition, common contaminants such as human

keratins, trypsin and bovine serum albumin were concatenated to the database as well as reversed

sequences of all protein entries for estimation of false discovery rates. Protein N-terminal acetylation,

oxidation of methionine, conversion of glutamine to pyro glutamic acid, and deamination of

asparagine and glutamine were used as variable modifications, while carbamidomethylation of

cysteine residues was used as a fixed modification. Trypsin was used as digestion enzyme and two

missed cleavages were allowed. All identifications were filtered in order to achieve a protein false

discovery rate (FDR) of 1% using the target-decoy strategy. A total of 8515 protein groups (20 350

shared proteins) were considered valid, which required the protein group to be both identified and

quantified in at least two replicates, and in addition, we required at least one unique peptide per

protein and at least two peptides in total for every protein group. In cases where a protein group

consisted of two or more homologues protein identifications, both unique and shared proteins are

indicated (i.e. **Fig. 4c** and **Supplementary Dataset 6**). The output from MaxQuant was further explored

in Perseus version 1.6.0.7 where filtering, data transformation, and imputation were performed.

For metaproteomic enrichment analysis, missing values in the proteomics data were set to zero, and

proteins with zero variance across the eight samples, or with a non-zero value in only one replicate

animal in either the control or AcGGM treatment were removed. This resulted in 4562 unique protein

groups assigned to 12 535 MAG ORFs (i.e. shared detected proteins). A Principle Component Analysis

(PCA) was performed on the 4562x8 matrix using the R function *prcomp*. Hierarchal clustering

dendrograms were constructed using the R functions *hclust* with Pearson correlation and *method =*

"ward.D", and a heatmap was drawn using the function *heatmap.2* with *scale = "row"*. The number of

protein clusters were selected by visual inspection and the clusters were selected using the *cutree*

function. Enzyme commission (EC) annotation and MAG enrichment analysis was performed using the

hypergeometric distribution function *phyper* in R.

Genome tree

Phylogenetic analysis was performed using a block of 22 universal ribosomal proteins (30S ribosomal

protein L1, L2, L4-L6, L10, L11, L14, L15,L18 and 50S ribosomal protein S3, S5, S7-S13, S15, S17,

S19)[60,61]. In addition to the MAGs, we recruited 239 reference genomes for phylogenetic resolution.

These genomes were selected based on preliminary examination of the assembled metagenome using

metaQUAST[62]. The reference genomes were annotated using the Prokka pipeline in the same manner

as for the MAGs. All identified ribosomal protein sequences were aligned separately with MUSCLE

v3.8.31[63], and manually checked for duplications and misaligned sequences. Divergent regions and

poorly aligned positions were further eliminated using GBlocks[64], and the refined alignment were

concatenated using catfasta2phyml.pl (https://github.com/nylander/catfasta2phyml) with the

parameter '-c' to replace missing ribosomal proteins with gaps (-). The maximum likelihood-based

phylogeny of the concatenated ribosomal proteins was inferred using RAxML version 8.2.12[65]

(raxmlHPC-SSE3 under PROTGAMMA distributed model with WAG substitution matrix) and support

values determined using 100 bootstrap replicates. The tree was rooted to the Euryarchaeota phylum

and visualized using iTOL[66]. Clades of reference genomes with only distant phylogenetic relation to

the MAGs were collapsed to refine the final tree in **Fig. 3**. The complete tree is available in Newick

format as Supplementary Dataset 1.

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