Succession of *Bifidobacterium longum* strains in response to a changing early life nutritional environment reveals dietary substrate adaptations

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28	Summary			
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30	Diet-microbe interactions play a crucial role in modulation of the early life microbiota and			
31	infant health. Bifidobacterium dominates the breast-fed infant gut and may persist in			

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32 individuals during transition from a milk-based to a more diversified diet. Here, we 33 investigated adaptation of *B. longum* to the changing nutritional environment. Genomic 34 characterisation of 75 strains isolated from nine either exclusively breast- or formula-fed 35 (pre-weaning) infants in their first 18 months revealed subspecies- and strain-specific intra-36 individual genomic diversity with respect to carbohydrate metabolism, which corresponded to different dietary stages. Complementary phenotypic studies indicated strain-specific 37 38 differences in utilisation of human milk oligosaccharides and plant carbohydrates, while 39 proteomic profiling identified gene clusters involved in metabolism of selected 40 carbohydrates. Our results indicate a strong link between infant diet and *B. longum* diversity 41 and provide additional insights into possible competitive advantage mechanisms of this 42 *Bifidobacterium* species and its persistence in a single host. 43

44 Key words: *Bifidobacterium longum*, infant diet, carbohydrates, genomics, proteomics
45

46 Introduction

47 Microbial colonisation shortly after birth is the first step in establishment of the mutualistic 48 relationship between the host and its microbiota (Backhed et al., 2015, Wampach et al., 49 2017, Lawson et al., 2020). The microbiota plays a central role in infant development by 50 modulating immune responses, providing resistance to pathogens, and also digesting the 51 early life diet (Heikkila and Saris, 2003, Sela et al., 2008, Marcobal and Sonnenburg, 2012, 52 Sivan et al., 2015, de Aguero et al., 2016, Thongaram et al., 2017). Indeed, diet-microbe 53 interactions are proposed to play a crucial role during infancy and exert health effects that 54 extend to later life stages (Turnbaugh et al., 2006, Renz et al., 2012, Olszak et al., 2012, Feng 55 et al., 2015, Bokulich et al., 2016, Tang et al., 2017). The gastrointestinal tract of vaginally 56 delivered full-term healthy infants harbours a relatively simple microbiota characterised by 57 the dominance of the genus Bifidobacterium (Dogra et al., 2015, Shao et al., 2019). In 58 contrast, caesarean section born infants have disrupted transmission of 59 maternal gastrointestinal bacteria, such as *Bifidobacterium*, and high levels of opportunistic 60 hospital-associated pathogens (Shao et al., 2019). 61 Breast milk is considered the gold nutritional standard for infants, which also acts as an 62 important dietary supplement for early life microbial communities, including

63 *Bifidobacterium*. The strong diet-microbe association has further been supported by reports

of differences in microbial composition between breast- and formula-fed infants (e.g. high

65 versus low *Bifidobacterium* abundance) and related differential health outcomes between

- the two groups: e.g. increased instances of asthma, allergy and obesity in formula-fed
- 67 infants (Ip et al., 2007, Das, 2007, O'Sullivan et al., 2015, Martin et al., 2016, Stiemsma and

68 Michels, 2018, Ortega-Garcia et al., 2018, Forbes et al., 2018).

- 69 The high abundance of *Bifidobacterium* in breast-fed infants has been linked to the presence
- 70 of specific carbohydrate utilisation genes and gene clusters in their genomes, particularly
- the ones involved in the degradation of breast milk-associated human milk oligosaccharides
- 72 (HMOs) (Sela et al., 2008). The presence of these genes is often species- and indeed strain-
- 73 specific, and has been described in *B. breve*, *B. bifidum*, *B. longum*, *B. infantis*, and more
- 74 rarely in *B. pseudocatenulatum* (Sela et al., 2008, James et al., 2016, Katayama, 2016,
- 75 Garrido et al., 2016). However, previous studies have indicated co-existence of
- 76 *Bifidobacterium* species and strains in individual hosts, resulting in interaction and metabolic
- co-operation within a single (HMO-associated) ecosystem (Milani et al., 2015a, Lawson et
- 78 al., 2020).
- 79 Transition from breastfeeding to a more diversified diet and the introduction of solid foods
- 80 has been considered to initiate the development of a functionally more complex adult-like
- 81 microbiome with genes responsible for degradation of plant-derived complex
- 82 carbohydrates, starches, and xenobiotics, as well as production of vitamins (Koenig et al.,
- 83 2011, McKeen et al., 2019). Non-digestible complex carbohydrates such as inulin-type
- 84 fructans (ITF), arabino-xylans (AX) or arabinoxylo-oligosaccharides (AXOS) in complementary
- 85 foods have been proposed to potentially exert beneficial health effects through their
- 86 bifidogenic and prebiotic properties and resulting modulation of the intestinal microbiota
- 87 and metabolic end-products (Roberfroid, 2007, Broekaert et al., 2011, Hald et al., 2016,
- 88 Riviere et al., 2016).
- 89 Despite the shift in microbiota composition during weaning, specific strains of
- 90 Bifidobacterium, and B. longum in particular, have previously been shown to persist in
- 91 individuals over time (Maldonado-Gomez et al., 2016, Oki et al., 2018). B. longum is
- 92 currently recognised as four subspecies: *longum* and *infantis* (characteristic of the human
- 93 gut microbiota), and suis and suillum (from animal hosts) (Mattarelli et al., 2008, Yanokura
- 94 et al., 2015). It is considered the most common and prevalent species found in the human
- 95 gut, with *B. longum* subsp. *infantis* detected in infants, and *B. longum* subsp. *longum* widely

96 distributed in both infants and adults (Turroni et al., 2009, Turroni et al., 2012). The 97 differences in prevalence between the two subspecies, and the ability of infant, adult and 98 elderly host to acquire new *B. longum* strains during a lifetime have been attributed to 99 distinct bacterial carbohydrate utilisation capabilities and the overall composition of the 100 resident microbiota (Garrido et al., 2012, Odamaki et al., 2018). 101 There have been several recent studies that have explored the early life microbiota in 102 breast- and formula-fed babies (Magne et al., 2006, Palmer et al., 2007, Roger and 103 McCartney, 2010, Roger et al., 2010). Strain-level metagenomic investigation of the 104 DIABIMMUNE cohort provided insights into diet-related functional aspects of *B. infantis* in 105 breast-fed infants (Vatanen et al., 2019). Longitudinal studies focusing specifically on B. 106 longum have highlighted intraspecies diversity, colonisation and long-term persistence 107 (years) of this species in hosts, however there have been limited investigations into diet-108 related functions at early life stages (Chaplin et al., 2015, Oki et al., 2018, Odamaki et al., 109 2018). Furthermore, although there are studies examining *B. longum* strains in relation to 110 diet, these have not been profiled over longitudinal and changing dietary periods (Arboleya 111 et al., 2018). Hence, longitudinal assessments of B. longum strains in single hosts over time, 112 and with focus on changing dietary patterns are lacking, and further detailed studies are 113 required. 114 Here, we investigate the adaptations of *Bifidobacterium* to the changing infant diet and

examine a unique collection of *B. longum* strains isolated from nine infants across their first 116 18 months, encompassing pre-weaning, weaning and post-weaning phases. We probed the 117 genomic and phenotypic similarities between 62 *B. longum* strains and 13 *B. infantis* strains 118 isolated from either exclusively breast-fed or formula-fed infants (pre-weaning). Our results 119 indicate a strong link between host diet and *Bifidobacterium* species/strains, which appears 120 to correspond to the changing nutritional environment.

121

122 **Results**

Previous investigations into *B. longum* across the human lifespan have determined a broad distribution of this species, including prolonged periods of colonisation (Maldonado-Gomez et al., 2016, Oki et al., 2018). To gain insight into potential mechanisms facilitating these properties during the early life window, we investigated the genotypic and phenotypic characteristics of *B. longum* strains within individual infant hosts in relation to diet (i.e.

128 breast milk vs. formula) and dietary stages (i.e. pre-weaning, weaning and post-weaning), 129 following up on a longitudinal study of the infant faecal microbiota published in 2010 (Roger 130 and McCartney, 2010). Briefly, faecal samples from exclusively breast-fed infants and 131 exclusively formula-fed infants were collected regularly from 1 month to 18 months of age 132 (Roger and McCartney, 2010). The number of samples obtained from the breast-fed infants 133 during the pre-weaning period was higher than that obtained from the formula-fed group, 134 which may correlate with differences in weaning age (~20.6 vs. ~17 weeks old). Collected 135 samples were subjected to quantitative analysis using fluorescence in situ hybridization 136 (FISH) to enumerate the predominant bacterial groups (Table S1) (Roger and McCartney, 137 2010). Bacterial isolation was also carried out on selected samples, and the isolated colonies 138 identified using ribosomal intergenic spacer analysis (Roger and McCartney, 2010). 139 140 Quantitative analysis of microbial communities in breast- and formula-fed infants 141 To provide context to the microbiome environment the strains selected for the present

study were isolated from, we re-analysed the data originally generated by FISH (Figure 1,

143 **Table S1**) (Roger and McCartney, 2010). Bacteria detected using probe Bif164

144 (bifidobacteria) proportionally constituted the predominant group in samples isolated from

145 breast-fed infants during pre-weaning and weaning; between 16.5% to 100% of the

146 microbiota across the study period. During post-weaning, proportions of bifidobacteria

147 across all breast-fed samples decreased considerably and ranged from 4.6% to 12.1%. The

148 levels of bacteria detected by ER482 (members of *Clostridium* cluster XIVa) started to

149 increase during weaning, increasing to 18.2% (from 0.25% at pre-weaning). Bacteria

150 detectable by probe Bac303 (members of genus Bacteroides, Parabacteroides and Prevotella

151 species, Paraprevotella, Xylanibacter, Barnesiella species and Odoribacter splanchnicus)

152 were identified in all samples throughout the study, with this bacterial group showing

153 extensive inter-individual variation. Other microbiota members were detected in breast-fed

154 samples at lower levels, including members of family Coriobacteriia (Ato291, mean <2% of

155 microbiota), *Escherichia coli* (EC1531, <1%), members of *Clostridium* clusters I and II

156 (Chis150, <1%) and lactic acid bacteria (Lab158, mean <1%).

157 In contrast to the breast-fed group, no drastic shift in bacterial populations was observed in

158 formula-fed infants throughout the study. Overall, lower levels of bifidobacteria were

detected during pre-weaning and weaning, fluctuating from 0.0% to 73.3% of the

160 microbiota at different time points. Similar to the breast-fed group, proportions of 161 Bifidobacterium decreased during post-weaning across all formula-fed samples and ranged 162 from 6.5% to 12% at month 18. The levels of bacteria detected by probe ER482 were overall 163 higher in formula-fed samples throughout study duration; 19.96±17.41%, 25.39±14.63% 164 and 30.6±15.92% for pre-weaning, weaning and post-weaning phases. Similarly, proportions 165 of bacteria detected by Bac303 during all dietary phases were higher in the formula-fed 166 group compared to the breast-fed group. Contrastingly to the breast-fed group, levels of 167 bacteria detected by Chis150 (Clostridium clusters I and II) started to increase during 168 weaning in the formula-fed group and continued to increase (1.23±1.28%, 7.03±9.18% and 169 21.72±11.47% for pre-weaning, weaning and post-weaning, respectively). Levels of bacteria 170 identified by Ato291 and EC1531 in formula-fed samples were slightly higher than in the 171 breast-fed group (means of <3.5% and <1.25%, respectively), while the mean proportion of 172 lactic acid bacteria (Lab158) remained below <1%. 173 Overall, these results confirm previous studies which have indicated differences in faecal 174 microbiota composition between breast- and formula-fed babies, particularly during the

175 pre-weaning and weaning phases, and demonstrate the succession of bacterial species over

176 time and in relation to diet, including *Bifidobacterium*.

177

178 General features of *B. longum* genomes

179 Based on the results of bacterial culture and colony identification published previously (for 180 details, refer to (Roger et al., 2010)), 88 isolates originally identified as *Bifidobacterium* were 181 selected for this study, 46 from five exclusively breast-fed infants (BF1-BF5, including 182 identical twins BF3 and BF4) and 42 from four exclusively formula-fed infants (FF1-FF3 and 183 FF5). Following sequencing and ANI analysis (Tables S2 & S3), 75 strains were identified as 184 B. longum sp. and included in further analysis, with 62 strains identified as B. longum subsp. 185 longum (B. longum) and 13 strains identified as B. longum subsp. infantis (B. infantis) (Figure 186 2a).

187 To determine possible genotypic factors facilitating establishment and persistence of *B*.

188 *longum* in the changing early life environment, we assessed the genome diversity of our

189 strains. Sequencing generated between 12 and 193 contigs for each *B. longum* strain, with

190 74/75 containing fewer than 70 contigs, yielding a mean of 66.95-fold coverage for strains

- 191 (Table S2). The predicted genome size for strains identified as *B. longum* ranged from 2.21
- 192 Mb to 2.58 Mb, possessing an average G+C% content of 60.11%, an average predicted ORF
- 193 number of 2,023 and number of tRNA genes ranging from 55-88. For strains identified as *B*.
- *infantis*, the predicted genome size ranged from 2.51 Mb to 2.75 Mb, with an average G+C%
- 195 content of 59.69%, an average predicted ORF number of 2,280 and the number of tRNA
- 196 genes ranging from 57 to 62.
- 197

198 **Comparative genomics**

- To identify *B. longum* strains among the sequenced isolates and assess nucleotide-level
 genomic differences, we performed ANI analysis. Results (**Table S3**) indicated that *B. longum*strains isolated from individual infant hosts displayed higher levels of sequence identity than
 strains isolated from different hosts. More specifically, pairwise identity values for strains
 isolated from infant BF3 showed the narrowest range (average value of 99.99±3.15e-5%),
 followed by infant FF2 strains (99.98±1.12e-4%), with infant BF2 strains having the broadest
- 205 identity value range (averaging 99.13±7.8e-3%).
- 206 Next, we examined genetic diversity of newly sequenced *B. longum* strains and their
- 207 relatedness to each other, alongside *B. longum* type strains. We identified a total of 1002
- 208 core genes present in at least 99% of the analysed *B. longum* subspecies genomes that
- allowed clear distinction between *B. longum* subspecies (i.e. *longum* vs. *infantis*) based on
- 210 the presence/absence of specific genes (**Table S4**). Phylogenetic analysis revealed that *B*.
- 211 *longum* strains within each subspecies clustered mainly according to isolation source, i.e.
- 212 individual infants, rather than dietary stage (i.e. pre-weaning, weaning and post-weaning)
- 213 (Figure 2b). Interestingly, strains isolated from formula-fed baby FF5 clustered into two
- 214 separate clusters, irrespective of the isolation period, suggesting presence of two highly
- 215 related *B. longum* groups within this infant. Furthermore, strains isolated from identical
- twins BF3 and BF4 clustered together, indicating their close relatedness.
- 217 We next sought to identify whether specific components of the *B. longum* subspecies
- 218 pangenome were enriched in infant hosts. Each candidate gene in the accessory genome
- 219 was sequentially scored according to its apparent correlation to host diet (breast vs.
- 220 formula) or dietary stage. A gene annotated as α-L-arabinofuranosidase, along with four
- 221 other genes coding for hypothetical proteins, were predicted to be enriched in *B. longum*
- 222 strains isolated from breast-fed infants. Alpha-L-arabinofuranosidases are enzymes involved

223 in hydrolysis of terminal non-reducing α -L-arabinofuranoside residues in α -L-arabinosides 224 and act on such carbohydrates as (arabino)xylans (Ichinose et al., 2008, Ahmed et al., 2013). 225 In addition, two genes coding for hypothetical proteins and a gene coding for Mobility 226 protein A were overrepresented in strains isolated from formula-fed infants. Furthermore, 227 no associations between genes and dietary stages in B. longum, nor any associations 228 whatsoever in *B. infantis* were observed (Table S5). 229 As our strains were isolated from individual infants at different time points, we next sought 230 to determine their intra-strain diversity; for this we used the first *B. longum* isolate from 231 each infant as the 'reference' strain to which all other strains from the same infant were 232 compared (Figure 3). Infants BF1, BF3 and FF2 had the lowest strain diversity; with 233 respective mean pairwise SNP distances of 18.7±20.3 SNPs (mean±sd), 10.3±5.0 SNPs and 234 13.3±5.3 SNPs. These results suggest strains isolated from these infants may be clonal, 235 indicating long-term persistence despite dietary changes. Surprisingly, analysis of strains 236 isolated from breast-fed identical twins BF3 and BF4 revealed higher strain diversity in baby 237 BF4 (1034.5±1327.1 SNPs), compared to the highly similar strains in infant BF3 (i.e. 10.3±5.0 238 SNPs). Based on these results, we conducted SNP analysis on *B. longum* strains isolated from 239 both babies and found that out of 13 strains analysed (n=8 from BF3 and n=5 from BF4), 12 240 isolated during pre-weaning, weaning and post-weaning appeared to be clonal (with mean 241 pairwise SNP distance of 10.0±5.5 SNPs) and one strain from baby BF4 isolated post-242 weaning was more distant, 2595.4±2.8 SNPs. The difference in strain diversity may relate to 243 the fact that infant BF4 received a course of antibiotics during pre-weaning (Figure1, Tables 244 **S1 & S2**) (Roger and McCartney, 2010). Furthermore, the presence of clonal strains in both 245 babies suggests vertical transmission of *B. longum* from mother to both infants, or potential 246 horizontal transmission between babies, consistent with previous reports (Makino et al., 247 2011, Makino et al., 2013, Milani et al., 2015b, Odamaki et al., 2018). B. infantis strains 248 isolated from infant BF2 showed the highest strain diversity, 9030.9±8036.6 SNPs. Seven 249 strains isolated during both pre-weaning and weaning periods appeared to be clonal, 250 6.3±1.6 SNPs, while four strains isolated during weaning and post-weaning were more 251 distant, with mean pairwise SNP distance of 14983.5±4658.3 SNPs (Table S6). 252

253 Functional annotation of *B. longum* subspecies genomes – carbohydrate utilisation

8

254 To assess genomic differences between our strains at a functional level, we next assigned 255 functional categories to ORFs of each B. longum genome. Carbohydrate transport and 256 metabolism was identified as the second most abundant category (after unknown function), 257 reflecting the saccharolytic lifestyle of *Bifidobacterium* (Figure S1) (Pokusaeva et al., 2011, 258 Milani et al., 2015a). B. longum had a slightly higher proportion of carbohydrate metabolism 259 and transport genes (11.39±0.31%) compared to B. infantis (10.20±0.60%), which is 260 consistent with previous reports (Ventura et al., 2009, Sela and Mills, 2010). B. longum 261 strains isolated during pre-weaning had a similar proportion of carbohydrate metabolism 262 genes in comparison with the strains isolated post-weaning: 11.28±0.23% and 11.48±0.38%, 263 respectively. Furthermore, we obtained similar results for *B. longum* strains isolated from 264 breast- and formula-fed infants, with respective values of 11.41±0.21% and 11.38±0.38%. In 265 contrast, B. infantis strains isolated pre-weaning had a lower proportion of carbohydrate 266 metabolism genes in their genomes compared to the ones isolated post-weaning: 267 9.90±0.24% and 11.20±0.01%, respectively (Table S7). 268 One of the major classes of carbohydrate-active enzymes comprises glycosyl hydrolases 269 (GH), which facilitate glycan metabolism in the gastrointestinal tract. We thus sought to 270 investigate and compare the arsenal of GHs in B. longum using dbCAN2. We identified a 271 total of 36 different GH families in all Bifidobacterium strains. B. longum was predicted to 272 contain 55 GH genes per genome on average (2.72 % of OFRs), while this number was lower 273 for B. infantis strains, ~37 GH genes per genome (1.62% of ORFs) (Figure 4, Table S8). The 274 predominant GH family was GH43; enzymes involved in metabolism of complex plant 275 carbohydrates such as (arabino)xylans (Viborg et al., 2013), followed by GH13 (starch), GH51 276 (hemicelluloses) and GH3 (plant glycans) (Milani et al., 2015a, Milani et al., 2016). 277 Within the *B. longum* group, strains isolated during pre-weaning had a slightly lower mean 278 number of GH genes compared to strains isolated post-weaning (54.46±2.81 vs. 279 56.85±2.77). Moreover, strains isolated from breast-fed babies contained an average of 280 53.96±3.82 GH genes per genome, while this number was slightly higher for strains isolated 281 from formula-fed infants; 56.47±2.96. Further analysis revealed that these differences 282 appeared to be intra-host-specific and diet-related. For example, strains isolated from 283 breast-fed twins BF3 and BF4 pre-weaning had 11 GH43 genes per genome, while the pre-284 weaning strain from formula-fed baby FF3 had 13 GH genes per genome predicted to belong

to this GH family. Similarly, strains isolated from babies BF3 and BF4 post-weaning had 11

predicted GH genes, while the three strains isolated from infant FF3 were predicted to
contain 16, 16 and 18 GH genes per genome, respectively (**Table S8**).
We next determined if these GH genes differences statistically correlated with breast- and

formula-fed groups (Table S8). Significant differences (p < 0.05) were observed between
mean numbers of GH genes belonging to the predominant GH families (GH43 – higher
abundance in FF babies, GH13 – higher abundance in BF babies, and GH51 – higher

292 abundance in FF babies), and several other GH families, including GH5 (β-glucosidases and

293 β -mannosidases), GH38 (mannosylglycerate hydrolases) and GH36 (α -galactosidases), all

294 more abundant in BF babies. Further analysis of dietary phases suggested significant

295 differences in GH genes between breast- and formula-fed groups during pre-weaning (e.g.

families GH43, GH13, GH5, GH38), but not in the post-weaning phase (**Table S8**).

297 Since glycosyl hydrolases belonging to distinct GH families may have similar catalytic

298 properties, we next grouped the GH genes for which the predicted enzyme class annotation

was available and investigated their abundance (**Table S9**). The predominant enzyme classes

300 in *B. longum* strains were non-reducing end α -L-arabinofuranosidases belonging to GH43

301 and GH51, followed by β -galactosidases (GH2 and GH42), oligo-1,6-glucosidases (GH13) and

302 β -*N*-acetylhexosaminidases (GH3 and GH20).

303 The mean numbers of enzyme classes between breast- and formula-fed babies significantly 304 differed (p < 0.05) in the top three above-mentioned predominant enzyme classes as well as 305 several other less abundant ones, including non-reducing end β -L-arabinofuranosidases

306 (GH127 and GH146 – higher abundance in BF babies), α -galactosidases (GH36 – higher

307 abundance in BF babies), and endo-1,5- α -L-arabinases (GH43 – higher abundance in FF

308 babies). Additional analysis of dietary phases indicated significant differences between

309 breast- and formula fed groups during pre-weaning (e.g. non-reducing end α-L-

310 arabinofuranosidases, β -galactosidases, oligo-1,6-glucosidases as well as α -galactosidases),

311 but not during post-weaning (**Table S9**).

312 We next examined the predicted glycosyl hydrolase repertoire of *B. infantis* strains, with the

313 caveat that the majority of the strains belonging to this subspecies were isolated from a

single infant. In contrast to the *B. longum* group, the most abundant GH family was GH13

315 (starch), followed by GH42, GH20 and GH38 (**Table S8**). *B. infantis* strains also harboured

316 genes predicted to encode members of the GH33 family, which contains exo-sialidases

317 (Milani et al., 2015a). Strains isolated pre-weaning were predicted to contain an average of 318 34.83±0.4 GH genes per genome, while this number was higher for the strains isolated post-319 weaning (i.e. 43.00±0.00 GH genes). B. infantis strains isolated post-weaning contained 320 families GH1 and GH43 that were absent in the strains isolated pre-weaning. The GH1 family contains enzymes such as β -glucosidases, β -galactosidases and β -D-fucosidases active on a 321 322 wide variety of (phosphorylated) disaccharides, oligosaccharides, and sugar-aromatic 323 conjugates (Suzuki et al., 2013). The analysis of enzyme classes in the *B. infantis* strains 324 suggested that β -galactosidases (GH2 and GH42) were predominant in this group, followed by β -*N*-acetylhexaminidases (GH3 and GH20), 4- α -glucanotransferases (GH77) and oligo-325 326 1,6-glucosidases (GH13) (Table S9). 327 Members of the genus *Bifidobacterium* have previously been shown to contain GH genes 328 involved in metabolism of various HMOs present in breast milk (Garrido et al., 2015, Garrido 329 et al., 2016). We identified genes belonging to GH29 and GH95 (α -L-fucosidases found 330 active on fucosylated HMOs (Sela et al., 2012, Garrido et al., 2016)) in all our B. infantis 331 strains, as well as four *B. longum* strains isolated from formula-fed baby FF3. Furthermore, 332 we found GH20 and GH112 genes (lacto-N-biosidases and galacto-N-biose/lacto-N-biose 333 phosphorylases shown to be involved in degradation of isomeric lacto-*N*-tetraose (LNT) 334 (Kitaoka, 2012)) in all our *B. infantis* and *B. longum* strains (Table S8). 335 Overall, these findings suggest differences in general carbohydrate utilisation at different 336 stages suggesting adaptation of Bifidobacterium to a changing early life nutritional diet, 337 which may be a factor facilitating establishment of these bacteria within individuals during

338 339 infancy.

340 Prediction of gain and loss of GH families in *B. longum*

341 Given the differences in the carbohydrate utilisation profiles between *B. longum* and *B.*

342 *infantis*, we next investigated the acquisition and loss of GH families. For this purpose, we

343 additionally predicted the presence of GH families in type strains *B. longum* subsp. *longum*

344 JCM 1217^T, *B. longum* subsp. *infantis* ATCC 15697^T and *B. longum* subsp. *suis* LMG 21814^T

with dbCAN2 and generated a whole genome SNP tree to reflect gene loss/gain events more

accurately (Figure 4, Table S10). Both *B. longum* and *B. infantis* lineages appear to have

347 acquired GH families (when compared to the common ancestor of the phylogenetic group),

348 with the B. longum lineage gaining two GH families (GH121 and GH146) and the B. infantis 349 lineage one GH family (GH33). Within the B. infantis lineage, which also contains the B. suis 350 type strain, the *B. infantis* taxon has further acquired two and lost five GH families. These 351 findings suggest that the two human-related subspecies have followed different 352 evolutionary paths, which is consistent with our observation of differences between B. 353 longum and B. infantis resulting from phylogenomic analyses. Intriguingly, strain adaptation 354 to the changing host environment (i.e. individual infant gut) seems to be driven by loss of 355 specific GH families (Figure 4). For example, *B. infantis* strains isolated during pre-weaning 356 and weaning from baby BF2 appear to be missing up to three GH families (GH1, GH43 and 357 GH109) present in strains isolated post-weaning. Lack of family GH43 (containing enzymes 358 involved in metabolism of a variety of complex carbohydrates, including plant-derived 359 polysaccharides) in early life *B. infantis* strains may explain nutritional preference of this subspecies for an HMO-rich diet. Similarly, we observed differential gene loss events in B. 360 361 *longum* strains from individual hosts. For example, all strains isolated from baby BF5 appear 362 to lack GH families GH1, GH29 and GH95. However, strains isolated pre-weaning 363 additionally lacked GH53 family, which includes endogalactanases shown to be involved in 364 liberating galactotriose from type I arabinogalactans in B. longum (Hinz et al., 2005). In 365 contrast, strain B_38 isolated from this infant (BF5) post-weaning appears to have lost 366 families GH136 and GH146. Interestingly, members of family GH136 are lacto-*N*-biosidases 367 responsible for liberating lacto-*N*-biose I from LNT, an abundant HMO unique to human milk 368 (Yamada et al., 2017), while family GH146 contains β -L-arabinofuranosidases displaying <u>exo</u>-369 activity on β -linked arabinofuranosyl groups. These events may be linked to dietary changes 370 (withdrawal of breast milk) and/or a shift in the composition of the microbiota post-371 weaning. Only one *B. longum* strain was isolated post-weaning from this baby, however 372 FISH analysis (Figure 1, Table S1) revealed an increase in the bacteroides group, which might 373 explain the loss of family GH146 by strain B 38 as the founding member of GH146 family, β -374 L-arabinofuranosidase, was first characterised in Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron (Luis et al., 375 2018). Overall, the presence of intra-individual and strain-specific GH family repertoires in B. 376 *longum* suggests their adaptation to host-specific diet. The presence of strains with different 377 GH content at different dietary stages further indicates potential acquisition of new 378 Bifidobacterium strains with nutrient-specific adaptations in response to the changing infant 379 diet.

380 381 Prediction of single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) in glycosyl hydrolases 382 Given the intra-strain diversity in the nine babies and the differences in GH repertoires 383 between B. longum and B. infantis, we next sought to examine nucleotide-level differences 384 in glycosyl hydrolase genes between strains in individual infants (Table S11). Unsurprisingly, 385 we did not identify any significant SNPs that may lead to functional changes in GH genes in 386 infants that had the lowest strain diversity (infants BF1, BF3 and FF2) (Table S6). The highest 387 number of GH genes with predicted variants was recorded for *B. infantis* strains from baby 388 BF2. In total, 52 synonymous variants and 29 missense variants were predicted at 81 389 different positions in 12 GH genes across strains that showed the highest diversity from the 390 first 'reference' isolate, namely one strain isolated during weaning and the three strains 391 isolated post-weaning. A number of missense variants, both complex and single, were 392 recorded at several positions in the predominant enzyme classes, i.e. β -galactosidases (EC 393 3.2.1.23) and β -*N*-hexosaminidases (EC 3.2.1.52). 394 Similarly, both synonymous and missense variants were predicted in *B. longum* strains less 395 closely related to 'reference' strains from breast-fed (BF4 and BF5) and formula-fed (FF1, 396 FF3 and FF5) babies. We did not observe any trend in the distribution of SNPs across GH 397 genes in *B. longum* strains. The number of predicted variants, the number of GH genes with 398 identified mutations and their enzyme classification differed between individual infants. For 399 example, in baby BF4 9 out of 10 predicted variants (4 synonymous and 5 missense) were 400 identified in an α -xylosidase in a strain isolated post-weaning, while in baby FF5 14 401 synonymous and 10 missense variants were predicted at 24 positions in 7 different GH 402 genes across strains isolated during weaning and post-weaning. Some missense changes do 403 not compromise normal protein function, while others can change essential aspects of 404 protein maturation, activity or stability (Miosge et al., 2015). The presence of missense 405 variants in GH genes of *B. longum* strains may indicate potential functional differences and 406 provide additional explanation to intra-strain and intra-individual carbohydrate metabolism 407 profiles of these bacteria, however experimental evidence would be essential to confirm the 408 importance of these predictions.

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410 Phenotypic characterisation of carbohydrate utilisation

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411 Bifidobacterium longum has previously been shown to metabolise a range of carbohydrates, 412 including dietary and host-derived glycans (Watson et al., 2013, Arboleya et al., 2018). Given 413 the predicted differences in carbohydrate metabolism profiles, and to understand strain-414 specific nutrient preferences, we next sought to determine their glycan fermentation 415 capabilities. We performed growth assays on 49 representative strains from all nine infants, 416 cultured in modified MRS supplemented with selected carbohydrates as the sole carbon 417 source. For these experiments, we chose both plant- and host-derived glycans that we 418 would expect to constitute components of the early life infant diet (Mills et al., 2019). 419 Although all *B. longum* strains were able to grow on simple carbohydrates (i.e. glucose and 420 lactose), we also observed subspecies-specific complex carbohydrate preferences, 421 consistent with bioinformatic predictions (Figure 5). To represent host-derived 422 carbohydrates, we selected 2'-fucosyllactose (2'-FL) and lacto-N-neotetraose (LNnT) as 423 examples of HMOs found in breast milk. Out of the tested isolates, all B. infantis strains 424 were able to metabolise 2'-FL, as were three B. longum strains isolated from a formula-fed 425 baby FF3 during weaning and post-weaning (Figure 5). These results supported the 426 computational analysis and the identification of genes potentially involved in degradation of 427 fucosylated carbohydrates in the genomes of these isolates (GH29 and GH95). Although 428 bioinformatics identified the presence of genes involved in metabolism of isomeric LNT in all 429 our strains (GH20 and GH112), LNnT metabolism in *B. infantis* was strain-specific, with most 430 strains showing what we considered moderate (above 0.15 difference in OD from time T₂) to 431 high growth rates (above 0.25 difference in OD from time T₂), with two strains displaying 432 inconsistent growth (Table S12). Out of *B. longum* strains, B_24 and B_25 (isolated during 433 weaning from breast-fed baby BF3) also showed growth on LNnT, albeit this was 434 inconsistent. In contrast to all other B. longum strains, strain B 25 was not able to 435 metabolise plant-derived arabinose and xylose despite the predicted presence of genes 436 involved in metabolism of monosaccharides (GH43, GH31, GH2). However, it was one of the 437 two strains (out of 49 tested) that showed growth on cellobiose in 2/3 experiments; the 438 other one being the post-weaning *B. infantis* strain B 19 isolated from baby BF2. Given 439 these interesting results, we performed additional assays using cellobiose as the sole carbon 440 source over 72h, in which the B. longum strain B 25 showed high growth rate (above 0.25 441 difference in OD from time T₂), while the *B. infantis* B_19 strain did not grow at all (Table 442 **S12**). Additionally, both *B. longum* and *B. infantis* strains showed varying degrees of growth

443 performance on mannose, even when analysing the same strain, while none of the tested 444 strains were able to grow on arabinogalactan, pectin or rhamnose (Figure 5). 445 To further characterise strains identified above for putative carbohydrate degradation 446 genes, we performed carbohydrate uptake analysis and proteomics. B. longum strain B_25, 447 from one of the breast-fed identical twins that showed growth on LNnT and cellobiose, and 448 formula-fed strain B_71 which was able to grow on 2'-FL, were chosen. Supernatant from 449 these cultures was initially subjected to high-performance anion-exchange chromatography 450 (HPAEC) to evaluate the carbohydrate-depletion profiles (Figure 6). In all three cases, the 451 chromatograms showed complete utilisation of the tested carbohydrates and absence of 452 any respective degradation products in the stationary phase culture. The depletion of 453 cellobiose by B_25 and 2'-FL by B_71 occurred in the early exponential phase while LNnT 454 was still detected in the culture supernatant until the late exponential phase of growth, suggesting that cellobiose and 2'-FL were internalised more efficiently than LNnT. We next 455 456 determined the proteome of B_25 and B_71 when growing on cellobiose, LNnT and 2'-FL 457 compared to glucose (Figure 6a-c & Table S13). The top 10 most abundant proteins in the 458 cellobiose proteome of B_25 included three β -glucosidases belonging to GH3 family, as well 459 as a homologue of transport gene cluster previously shown to be upregulated in *B. animalis* 460 subsp. lactis BI-04 during growth on cellobiose (Figure 6a & Table S14) (Andersen et al., 461 2013). Among the three β -glucosidases, B 25 00240 showed 98% sequence identity to the 462 structurally characterized BIBG3 from *B. longum*, which has been shown to be involved in 463 metabolism of the natural glycosides saponins (Yan et al., 2018). B 25 01763 and 464 B 25 00262 showed 46% identity to the β -glucosidase Bgl3B from *Thermotoga neapolitana* 465 (Pozzo et al., 2010) and 83% identity to BaBgl3 from B. adolescentis ATCC 15703 (Florindo et 466 al., 2018), respectively, two enzymes previously shown to hydrolyse cello-oligosaccharides. 467 With respect to LNnT metabolism by the same strain, the most abundant proteins were 468 encoded by genes located in two gene clusters (B_25_00111-00117 and B_25_00130-469 00133) with functions compatible with LNnT import, degradation to monosaccharides and 470 further metabolism. The gene clusters contain the components of an ABC-transporter 471 (B_25_00111-00113), a predicted intracellular GH112 lacto-*N*-biose phosphorylase 472 (B 25 00114), an N-acetylhexosamine 1-kinase (B 25 00115) and enzymes involved in the 473 Leloir pathway. All these proteins were close homologues to proteins previously implicated in the degradation of LNT/LNnT by type strain *B. infantis* ATCC 15697^T (Ozcan and Sela, 474

475 2018) (Figure 6b & Table S14). Interestingly, all clonal strains isolated from twin babies BF3 476 and BF4 also contained close homologues of all the above-mentioned genes in their 477 genomes, in some cases identical to those determined in B 25; however, only strain B 25 478 was able to grow on cellobiose and LNnT. Growth of B_71 on 2'-FL corresponded to 479 increased abundance of proteins encoded by the gene cluster B_71_00973-00983. These 480 proteins showed close homology to proteins described for *B. longum* SC596 and included 481 genes for import of fucosylated oligosaccharides, fucose metabolism and two α -fucosidases 482 belonging to the families GH29 and GH95 (Figure 6c & Table S14) (Garrido et al., 2016). 483

484 **Discussion**

485 High abundance of *Bifidobacterium*, and *B. longum* in particular, in early infancy is strongly 486 linked to availability of nutrients (Koenig et al., 2011, Backhed et al., 2015, Yamada et al., 487 2017). In this study, we aimed to investigate the adaptations of *B. longum* to the changing 488 infant diet during the early life developmental window. Profiling microbiota composition 489 data (Roger and McCartney, 2010), genomic diversity of 75 B. longum strains (isolated from 490 infants at different dietary stages), and growth performance on different carbohydrates 491 revealed intra-individual and diet-related differences, which links to strain-level metabolism 492 properties for specific dietary components. 493 The FISH results corroborate findings of previous studies investigating the infant gut 494 microbiota; inter-individual variability during pre-weaning and weaning, with a shift towards 495 a more adult-like faecal microbiota associated with more complex diet at post-weaning 496 across all samples (Koenig et al., 2011, McKeen et al., 2019). Bifidobacterium constituted the 497 predominant group in breast-fed infants during pre-weaning and weaning, while the 498 composition of microbiota of the formula-fed infants during these stages was more 499 complex. 500 Our comparative genomic analysis indicates that clonal strains of *B. longum* can persist in 501 individuals through infancy, for at least 18 months, despite significant changes in diet during

502 weaning, which is consistent with previous reports (Maldonado-Gomez et al., 2016,

503 Odamaki et al., 2018). Concurrently, new strains (that display different genomic content and

504 potential carbohydrate metabolism capabilities) can be acquired, possibly in response to the

505 changing diet. Previously, strain shift in relation to withdrawal of breast milk has been

506 suggested for *B. infantis* by Vatanen et al. (Vatanen et al., 2019) based on strain-level

507 metagenomic approach. Similarly, Asnicar et al. (Asnicar et al., 2017) suggested that 508 originally acquired maternal strains of B. longum can be replaced at later life stages. Initial 509 vertical acquisition of *Bifidobacterium* from mother to newborn babies has been well 510 documented (Mikami et al., 2012, Makino et al., 2013, Milani et al., 2015b, Asnicar et al., 511 2017); however, details of strain transmission events in later life are currently unclear. Work 512 of Odamaki et al. (Odamaki et al., 2018) suggested person-to-person horizontal transmission 513 of a particular B. longum strain between members of the same family, with direct transfer, 514 common dietary sources or environmental reservoirs, such as family homes (Lax et al., 515 2014), as potential vehicles and routes for strain transmission. Our results showed the 516 presence of clonal strains in identical twins BF3 and BF4, which may have resulted from 517 maternal transfer. However, potential strain transmission between these infants living in 518 the same environment may also occur. Furthermore, wider studies involving both mothers 519 and twin babies (and other siblings) could provide details on the extent, timing and location 520 of transmission events between members of the same household. 521 Another aspect of comparative genomic analysis involved *in-silico* prediction of genes

522 belonging to GH families. This analysis revealed genome flexibility within *B. longum*, with 523 differences in GH family content between strains belonging to the same subspecies as 524 described previously; B. infantis predominantly enriched in GH families implicated in the 525 degradation of host-derived breast milk-associated dietary components like HMOs and B. 526 *longum* containing GH families involved in the metabolism of plant-derived substrates 527 (Milani et al., 2015a, Milani et al., 2016). Previously, Vatanen et al. (Vatanen et al., 2019) 528 suggested that the presence of the HMO gene cluster allowing for intracellular HMO 529 utilisation in *B. infantis* strains, in particular, confers a competitive advantage leading to 530 higher relative abundance of this subspecies in the early life microbiota. Our analysis of B. 531 infantis group identified the presence of glycosyl hydrolases associated with HMO 532 degradation in all isolates and revealed subspecies-specific differences in GH content 533 between pre- and post-weaning strains. Moreover, we observed differences in the number 534 of genes belonging to the most abundant GH families (e.g. GH43) between breast-fed and 535 formula-fed strains at different dietary stages, which can be linked to nutrient availability. 536 Surprisingly, we computationally and phenotypically identified closely related weaning and 537 post-weaning *B. longum* strains capable of metabolising HMOs (i.e. 2'-FL) in a formula-fed 538 baby that only received standard non-supplemented (i.e. no prebiotics or synthetic HMOs)

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539 formula. The analysis of SNP variants in genes identified as glycosyl hydrolases predicted the 540 presence of missense mutations in both B. longum and B. infantis strains. Given that some 541 missense variants can compromise protein function (Miosge et al., 2015), our results 542 suggest potential functional differences that could further explain intra-strain and intra-543 individual carbohydrate metabolism profiles of B. longum. However, experimental validation 544 would be essential to confirm the importance of variant predictions. 545 Recorded phenotypic data support the results of genomic analyses and further highlight 546 differences in carbohydrate utilisation profiles between and within *B. longum* and *B.* 547 *infantis*. As highlighted above, the ability of *B. infantis* to grow on different HMOs may 548 facilitate their early life establishment. Similarly, B. longum preference for plant-based 549 nutrients may be influencing their ability to persist within individual hosts through 550 significant dietary changes. Differential growth of strains that are genotypically similar on 551 various carbohydrate substrates and the ability of formula-fed strains to metabolise 552 selected HMOs suggest that *Bifidobacterium* possess an overall very broad repertoire of 553 genes for carbohydrate acquisition and metabolism that may be differentially switched on 554 and off in response to the presence of specific dietary components (Dworkin and Losick, 555 2001, Slager and Veening, 2016). Another explanation for these results may be a potential 556 influence of the intra-individual environment on epigenetic mechanisms in these bacteria. 557 One potential factor involved in this process may be a cooperative effort supported by 558 cross-feeding activities among Bifidobacterium, or between Bifidobacterium and other 559 members of the early life microbiota, e.g. Bacteroides and Eubacterium species (Rios-Covian 560 et al., 2013, Milani et al., 2015a, Schwab et al., 2017, Lawson et al., 2020). Indeed, the FISH 561 analysis revealed the presence of bacteria detected by probes Bac303 (bacteroides) and 562 ER482 (eubacterium) in faecal samples of both breast- and formula-fed infants, with intra-563 individual variation at different dietary stages. Although B. infantis is principally known as a 564 specialist HMO-degrader, we did note growth of one of the B. infantis strains from formula-565 fed baby FF1 on xylose. However, this growth profile was not consistent between 566 experiments, and therefore we did not pursue a fuller characterisation. However, future 567 examination of the ability of B. longum subsp. infantis to degrade a wider range of non-568 HMO carbohydrate sources in early life could provide additional insight into carbohydrate 569 metabolism properties of this subspecies, and its role in ecosystem structuring during 570 transition to a more complex diet.

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571 Glycan uptake analysis and proteomic investigation allowed us to determine mechanisms 572 which selected *B. longum* strains employ to metabolise different carbohydrates. A common 573 feature, based on the predicted activity of the most abundant proteins detected during 574 grown on the three substrates (cellobiose, LNnT and 2'-FL), was that they were all imported 575 and "selfishly" degraded intracellularly, therefore limiting release of degradation products 576 that could allow cross-feeding by other gut bacteria. This is in line with the carbohydrate 577 uptake analysis, where no peak for cellobiose, LNnT and 2'-FL degradation products could 578 be detected. Cellobiose uptake in B_25 occurs via a mechanism similar to *B. animalis* subsp. 579 lactis BI-04 (B. lactis) (Andersen et al., 2013); cellobiose hydrolysis appears to be mediated 580 by the activity of three intracellular β -glucosidases, although further confirmatory 581 biochemical characterization of these enzyme is still required. B 25 was observed to utilize 582 LNnT using a pathway similar to that described in *B. longum* subsp. infantis whereby LNnT is 583 internalized via an ABC-transporter (B 25 00111-00113) followed by intracellular 584 degradation into constituent monosaccharides by a GH112 (B 25 00114) and an N-585 acetylhexosamine 1-kinase (B_25_00115). LNnT degradation products are further 586 metabolized to fructose-6-phosphate by activities that include B_25_00116-00117 587 (galactose-1-phosphate urydyltranferase, UDP-glucose 4-epimerase, involved in the Leloir 588 pathway) and B 25 01030-01033 (for metabolism of N-acetylgalactosamine) prior to 589 entering the *Bifidobacterium* genus-specific fructose-6-phosphate phosphoketolase (F6PPK) 590 pathway (Ozcan and Sela, 2018). B 71 is predicted to deploy an ABC-transporter 591 (B_71_00974-00976) that allows uptake of intact 2'-FL that is subsequently hydrolysed to L-592 fucose and lactose by the two predicted intracellular α -fucosidases GH29 (B 71 00982) and 593 GH95 (B 71 00983). L-fucose is further metabolized to L-lactate and pyruvate, via a 594 pathway of non-phosphorylated intermediates that include activities of L-fucose mutarotase 595 (B 71 00981), L-fucose dehydrogenase (B 71 00978), L-fuconate hydrolase (B 71 00977) 596 as previously described for *B. longum* subsp. *longum* SC596 (Garrido et al., 2016). 597 Considering that the proteins encoded by the aforementioned genes are located in the 598 cellobiose, LNnT and 2'-FL gene clusters that share high similarity and similar organization 599 with those found in equivalent systems in other B. longum and B. lactis, it is reasonable to 600 suggest that the gene clusters are related and may be the results of horizontal gene transfer 601 events between *B. longum/B. lactis* members residing in the infant gut microbiota. 602 Collectively, these data reflect inter- and intra-host phenotypic diversity of *B. longum* strains

- 603 in terms of their carbohydrate degradation capabilities and suggest that intra-individual
- 604 environment may influence epigenetic mechanisms in *Bifidobacterium*, resulting in

605 differential growth on carbohydrate substrates.

606 In conclusion, this research provides new insight into distinct genomic and phenotypic

- 607 abilities of *B. longum* species and strains isolated from the same individuals during the early
- 608 life developmental window by demonstrating that subspecies- and strain-specific
- 609 differences between members of *B. longum* sp. in infant hosts can be correlated to their
- 610 adaptation at specific age and diet stages.
- 611

612 Limitations of the study

613 Here, we used a combination of bioinformatic approaches and experimental techniques to 614 assess genomic and phenotypic abilities of *B. longum* species and strains isolated during the 615 early life developmental window. This study, however, is not without its limitations. One 616 important caveat is the small number of *B. infantis* strains (n=13) available for analysis, and 617 the fact that most of these strains (n=11) were isolated from a single breast-fed baby (BF2). 618 The examination of these strains provides important insight into the properties of B. infantis 619 during the transition from breastfeeding to more diversified diet, however it is difficult to 620 assess how representative these results are of wider population. In addition, only one strain 621 isolated from a formula-fed baby was identified as *B. infantis*, making it impossible to 622 examine properties of members of this subspecies within this dietary group and make 623 comparisons with breast-fed strains. Another important limitation is the fact that our strain 624 collection only contains one bacterial strain per time point. Inclusion of additional strains 625 could contribute further observations on inter-individual diversity of Bifidobacterium in 626 infant hosts and their functional properties. To examine bacterial communities in faecal 627 samples, we revisited and re-analysed the data generated using FISH, but this technique has a detection limit ($\sim 10^6$ bacterial cells (wet weight faeces)⁻¹) (Roger and McCartney, 2010). 628 629 Thus, FISH allows investigation of important bacterial groups, but faecal samples may 630 contain several organisms at levels below the methodological detection threshold. In 631 addition, this technique does not allow for tracking species-level changes. This limitation 632 could be addressed by the use of comprehensive sequencing methods, such as shotgun 633 metagenomics, combined with advanced computational methods to achieve strain-level 634 resolution. Furthermore, phenotypic investigation of carbohydrate metabolism properties

635	of B. longum revealed inconsistencies in growth of individual strains on certain			
636	carbohydrates, including LNnT, cellobiose and mannose, and we therefore only explored			
637	reproducible findings further with proteomics. Previously, variability in growth of B. longum			
638	on mannose, even when analysing the same strain (Bifidobacterium longum NCC2705) has			
639	been reported (Parche et al., 2007, Liu et al., 2011). Finally, no metadata on complementary			
640	foods during weaning and infant diet post-weaning were available. This information could			
641	allow bioinformatic predictions of carbohydrate degradation properties of B. longum to be			
642	related to the specific dietary components present in weaning infant foods. Future			
643	longitudinal studies could be designed to include these data.			
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645	Resource Availability			
646				
647	Lead Contact			
648				
649	Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will			
650	be fulfilled by the Lead Contact, Lindsay J. Hall (<u>Lindsay.Hall@quadram.ac.uk</u>).			
651				
652	Materials Availability			
653				
654	This study did not generate new unique reagents.			
655				
656	Data and Code Availability			
657				
658	The draft genomes of 75 <i>B. longum</i> isolates have been deposited to GOLD database at			
659	https://img.jgi.doe.gov, GOLD Study ID: Gs0145337.			
660	The proteomics data have been deposited to the ProteomeXchange Consortium			
661	(http://proteomecentral.proteomexchange.org) via the PRIDE partner repository with			
662	dataset identifier PXD017277.			
663				
664	Methods			
665				

666	All methods can be found in the accompanying Transparent Methods supplemental file.			
667				
668	Supplemental Information			
669				
670	Supplemental Information can be found online at			
671				
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686	writing the manuscript.			

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688 Author contributions

689 LJH, LH, ALM and MK designed the overall study. ALM provided the unique *B. longum* strain 690 collection and extracted the DNA. ALM and LCR performed the FISH microbiota profiling 691 studies. MK prepared the DNA for WGS, performed all genomic analysis and visualisation, as 692 well as growth studies. MK also re-analysed the FISH data. SLLR, PBP, LJH and MK planned 693 metabolomics and proteomics studies. MK prepared samples for metabolomics and 694 proteomics. SLLR and MK performed the metabolomics and proteomics experiments and 695 SLLR analysed and visualised the resulting data. LJH and MK analysed the data, with input 696 and discussion from LH, and drafted the manuscript. SLLR, PBP, LH and ALM provided

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697	providing further edits and co-writing of the final version. All authors read and approved the				
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700	Declaration of Interests				
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702	The authors declare no competing interests.				
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704	References				
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701					
982	Figure and Scheme Legends				
983					

984 **Figure 1.** Proportional representation of bacterial populations in the faecal microbiota of a)

985 breast-fed and b) formula-fed infants based on FISH analysis. Numbers are expressed as

- 986 percentage of the total bacterial population obtained using DAPI. The vertical solid black
- 987 lines mark the different dietary phases in each infant (pre-weaning, weaning and post-
- 988 weaning). Oligonucleotide probes used to determine bacterial populations: Bif164 -
- 989 most Bifidobacterium species and Parascardovia denticolens, Bac303 most members of the
- 990 genus Bacteroides, some Parabacteroides and Prevotella species, Paraprevotella,

- 991 Xylanibacter, Barnesiella species and Odoribacter splanchnicus, ER482 most members
- 992 of Clostridium cluster XIVa, Ato291 Cryptobacterium curtum, Gordonibacter
- 993 pamelaeae, Paraeggerthella hongkongensis, all Eggerthella, Collinsella,
- 994 Olsenella and Atopobium species, Chis150 most members of Clostridium cluster I, all
- 995 members of *Clostridium* cluster II, EC1531 *Escherichia* coli, Lab158 all *Oenococcus*,
- 996 Vagococcus, Melissococcus, Tetragenococcus, Enterococcus, Catellicoccus, Paralactobacillus,
- 997 Pediococcus and Lactococcus species, most Lactobacillus,
- 998 Weissella and Leuconostoc species. See also Table S1.
- 999
- 1000 **Figure 2.** Identification and relatedness of *B. longum* strains. a) Sampling scheme and strain
- 1001 identification within individual breast-fed (BF1-BF5) and formula-fed (FF1-FF3 and FF5)
- 1002 infants based on average nucleotide identity values (ANI). The three levels of shading mark
- 1003 different dietary phases: pre-weaning, weaning, and post-weaning. b) Relatedness of *B*.
- 1004 *longum* strains based on core proteins. Coloured strips represent isolation period (pre-
- 1005 weaning, weaning and post-weaning) and isolation source (individual infants), respectively.
- 1006 See also Table2, Table S3 and Table S4.
- 1007
- Figure 3. Pairwise SNP distances between *B. longum* strains of the same subspecies within
 individual infants. Individual points show data distribution, diamonds indicate the group
 mean, box plots show group median and interquartile range. See also Table S6.
- 1011

Figure 4. Gene-loss events and abundance of GH families within *B. longum* subspecies. Pie charts superimposed on the whole genome SNP tree represent predicted GH family gainloss events within *B. longum* and *B. infantis* lineages. Due to the size of the tree, examples of detailed gain loss events have been provided for main lineages, as well as baby BF2 (strains highlighted with light blue) and BF5 (strains highlighted with light purple). Heatmap represents abundance of specific GH families predicted in analysed *B. longum* strains. See also Table S8 and Table S9.

- 1019
- 1020 **Figure 5.** Growth performance of *B. longum* strains on different carbon sources. Heatmap
- 1021 displays the difference in average growth of triplicates between T₂ (30 min) and T_{end} (48
- 1022 hours). Moderate growth is considered above 0.15 difference in OD from time T₂, high

growth above 0.25 difference in OD from time T₂. Asterisks represent strains for which
inconsistent growth was recorded (difference in OD of at least 0.15 between any of the
duplicates in the triplicate experiment). See also Table S12.

1026

1027 Figure 6. HPAEC-PAD traces showing mono-, di- and oligo-saccharides detected in the 1028 supernatant of either B_25 or B_71 single cultures during growth in mMRS supplemented 1029 with (a) cellobiose; (b) LNnT; (c) 2'-FL. The data are representative of biological triplicates. 1030 Abbreviations: LNnT, Lacto-N-neotetraose; Glc, glucose; Glc2, cellobiose; 2'-FL, 2'-1031 fucosyllactose. Panel on the right shows (a) cellobiose; (b) LNnT; (c) 2'-FL utilization clusters 1032 in B 25 and B 71 and proteomic detection of the corresponding proteins during growth on 1033 HMOs. Heat maps above genes show the LFQ detection levels for the corresponding 1034 proteins in triplicates grown on glucose (G); cellobiose (C); LNnT (L); and 2'-FL (F). Numbers 1035 between genes indicate percent identity between corresponding genes in homologous PULs 1036 relative to strains B_25 and B_71. Numbers below each gene show the locus tag in the 1037 corresponding genome. Locus tag numbers are abbreviated with the last numbers after the 1038 second hyphen (for example B 25 XXXXX). The locus tag prefix for each strain is indicated in 1039 parenthesis beside the organism name. See also Table S13 and Table S14.

1040

1041 Supplemental Table titles

1042

Table S1. FISH probes used to enumerate bacterial groups in infants (adapted from Roger &
 McCartney (2010)), proportional representation of FISH data for each baby, summative
 analysis of bacterial populations in relation to dietary phases (separate tabs). Related to
 Figure 1.

1047

Table S2. Demographic profiles of infants in this study, genomic data on the isolates in this
study, list of publicly available genomes used in this study (separate tabs). Related to Figure
2.

1051

1052 Table S3. Average nucleotide identity matrix for the isolates used in this study. Related to1053 Figure 2.

1054

1055 Table S4. Gene presence-absence matrix for the *B. longum* isolates used in this study. 1056 Related to Figure 2. 1057 1058 Table S5. List of overrepresented genes associated with breast- and formula-feeding 1059 detected using Scoary (separate tabs). Related to Figure 2. 1060 1061 Table S6. Pairwise SNP distance matrix between isolates within individual infants. Related to 1062 Figure 3. 1063 Table S7. Summary of COG categories identified in B. longum isolates. COG categories 1064 1065 legend, COG categories identified in all B. longum samples, as well as in specific groups: B. 1066 infantis, B. longum, isolates from breast-fed infants, isolates from formula-fed infants 1067 (separate tabs). Related to Figure 4. 1068 1069 Table S8. Summary of GH families identified in all B. longum isolates, as well as in specific 1070 groups: B. longum across all dietary phases, B. longum pre-weaning, B. longum post-1071 weaning, B. longum isolates from breast-fed infants, B. longum isolates from formula-fed 1072 infants, comparison between B. longum breast- and formula-fed groups, B. infantis, B. 1073 infantis pre-weaning, B. infantis post-weaning (separate tabs). Related to Figure 4. 1074 1075 Table S9. Summary of enzyme classes identified in all B. longum isolates, as well as in 1076 specific groups: B. longum across all dietary phases, B. longum pre-weaning, B. longum post-1077 weaning and *B. infantis* (separate tabs). Related to Figure 4. 1078 1079 Table S10. Prediction of glycosyl hydrolase family gain-loss events in *B. longum* isolates. 1080 Related to Figure 4. 1081 1082 Table S11. Summary of SNPs in predicted glycosyl hydrolases in breast-fed and formula-fed 1083 babies. Related to Figure 3 and Figure 4. 1084 1085 Table S12. Results of growth experiments performed for selected B. longum and B. infantis 1086 strains from nine babies. Strains (1% v/v) were grown in modified (m)MRS (pH 6.8)

31

- 1087 supplemented with cysteine HCl at 0.05% and 2% (w/v) of selected carbohydrates, except
- 1088 for pectin and mucin (1%). Experiments were performed in triplicates; the data are
- 1089 presented as difference in OD between T_2 (30min) and T_{end} (48h) for growth on 12 selected
- 1090 carbohydrate sources and T_2 (30min) and T_{end} (72h) for an additional experiment on
- 1091 cellobiose (separate tabs). Related to Figure 5.
- 1092
- 1093 **Table S13.** Proteomics data from growth of strain B_25 on LNnT and cellobiose, and strain
- 1094 B_71 on 2'-FL (separate tabs). Related to Figure 6.
- 1095
- 1096 **Table S14.** Homology of proteins identified by proteomics in strain B_25 grown on
- 1097 cellobiose and LNnT, and strain B_71 grown on 2'-FL to known *Bifidobacterium* gene clusters
- 1098 (BLAST+, e-value 1e-50) (separate tabs). Related to Figure 6.
- 1099
- 1100

















b)

a)



Summary of SNP differences between B. longum strains within individual babies

Individual infants

Tree scale: 0.01 🛏













2'-FL Arabinogalactan Arabinose Cellobiose Glucose Lactose LNnT Mannose Mucin 1% Pectin 1% Rhamnose Xylose



Log2(LFQ)	Predicted gene function		
33-34	β-glucosidase	N-acetylhexosamine kinase	L-fuconate dehydratase
31-32	Iacto-N-biose phosphorylase	galactose-1-phosphate uridylyltransferase	L-fucose dehydrogenase
29-30	α-fucosidase	UDP-glucose 4-epimerase	🗖 amido hydrolase
25-26	solute binding protein	glucokinase	dihydropicolinate synthase
19-24	permease	glucosamine-6-phosphatedeaminase	L-fucose mutarotase
	transcriptional regulator	N-acetylgalactosamine-6-phosphatedeacet	ylase

Highlights:

- B. longum strains can persist in individual infants despite dietary changes
- New strains with additional metabolism capabilities can also be acquired
- B. longum carbohydrate metabolism repertoires are individual and strain-specific
- Strains at different dietary stages show genomic adaptations to specific substrates

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