

Title	Ecological importance of cross-feeding of the intermediate metabolite 1,2-propanediol between bacterial gut symbionts			
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Publication date	2020-04-10			
Original Citation	Cheng, C. C., Duar, R. M., Lin, X., Perez-Munoz, M. E., Tollenaar, S., Oh, JH., van Pijkeren, JP., Li, F., van Sinderen, D., Gänzle, M. G. and Walter, J. (2020) 'Ecological importance of cross-feeding of the intermediate metabolite 1,2-propanediol between bacterial gut symbionts', Applied and Environmental Microbiology. doi: 10.1128/AEM.00190-20			
Type of publication	Article (peer-reviewed)			
Link to publisher's version	10.1128/AEM.00190-20			
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Download date	2024-04-20 11:44:21			
Item downloaded from	https://hdl.handle.net/10468/9878			



AEM Accepted Manuscript Posted Online 10 April 2020 Appl. Environ. Microbiol. doi:10.1128/AEM.00190-20 Copyright © 2020 American Society for Microbiology, All Rights Reserved.

- 1 Ecological importance of cross-feeding of the intermediate metabolite 1,2-
- propanediol between bacterial gut symbionts 2
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Abstract

Cross-feeding based on the metabolite 1,2-propanediol has been proposed to
have an important role in the establishment of trophic interactions among gut symbionts,
but its ecological importance has not been empirically established. Here, we show that
in vitro growth of Lactobacillus reuteri ATCC PTA 6475 is enhanced through 1,2-
propanediol produced by Bifidobacterium breve UCC2003 and Escherichia coli MG1655
from the metabolization of fucose and rhamnose, respectively. Work with isogenic
mutants showed that the tropic interaction is dependent on the <i>pduCDE</i> operon in <i>L</i> .
reuteri, which encodes for the ability to use 1,2-propanediol, and the L-fucose permease
(fucP) gene in B. breve, which is required for 1,2-propanediol formation from fucose.
Experiments in gnotobiotic mice revealed that, although the <i>pduCDE</i> operon bestows a
fitness burden on <i>L. reuteri</i> ATCC PTA 6475 in the mouse digestive tract, the ecological
performance of the strain was enhanced in the presence of <i>B. breve</i> UCC2003 and the
mucus-degrading species Bifidobacterium bifidum. The use of the respective pduCDE
and fucP mutants of L. reuteri and B. breve in the mouse experiments indicated that the
trophic interaction was specifically based on 1,2-propanediol. Overall, our work
established the ecological importance of cross-feeding relationships based on 1,2-
propanediol for the fitness of a bacterial symbiont in the vertebrate gut.

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Importance

Through experiments in gnotobiotic mice that employed isogenic mutants of bacterial strains that produce (Bifidobacterium breve) and utilize (Lactobacillus reuteri) 1,2-propanediol, this study provides mechanistic insight into the ecological ramifications of a trophic interaction between gut symbionts. The findings improve our understanding on how cross-feeding influences the competitive fitness of L. reuteri in the vertebrate gut and revealed a putative selective force that shaped the evolution of the species. The findings are relevant as they provide a basis to design rational microbial-based strategies to modulate gut ecosystems, which could employ mixtures of bacterial strains that establish trophic interactions or a personalized approach based on the ability of a resident microbiota to provide resources for the incoming microbe.

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Introduction

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The gut microbiota is a complex microbial community whose members form interdependent trophic relationships that determine the ecology of bacterial populations and their interplay with the host (1). One such interaction involves the exchange of products between microbes, otherwise known as cross-feeding (2). Cross-feeding of nutrients is central to the fermentative degradation of non-digestible dietary fibres and host-derived substrates, such as mucin or human milk oligosaccharides (HMO) (3-10). For example, glycans released from the partial degradation of HMO are utilized by other bifidobacterial species (11), and certain bifidobacteria and Akkermansia muciniphila liberate glycans from host mucins that are utilized by other inhabitants of the gut (6, 12). Similarly, Ruminococcus bromii releases carbohydrates from resistant starch fermentations into the gut environment (13). These interactions ultimately lead to the formation of dynamic metabolic networks essential in the ecology of the gut microbiome and the production of short chain fatty acids (SCFA), which are a key ecosystem service that benefits the host (14, 15).

Trophic interactions can also result from the exchange of metabolic end-products derived from fermentation processes. Hydrogenotrophic microbes utilize the molecular hydrogen produced by several fermentative organisms, a process important to maintain energy flux (16). In addition, cross-feeding based on intermediary metabolites such as lactate, acetate, succinate, and 1,2-propanediol is important for the production of SCFA (5). In the gut, 1,2-propanediol results from the microbial fermentation of deoxyhexose sugars that originate from the hydrolyzation of dietary fibre, fucosylated HMOs, and host mucins, such as rhamnose and fucose (17, 18). Several gut commensal bacteria (i.e.

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Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron, Roseburia inulinivorans, Escherichia coli, Bifidobacterium breve) can produce 1,2-propanediol from the fermentation of either rhamnose or fucose (3, 5, 17, 18). Other bacteria such as Eubacterium hallii and Lactobacillus reuteri do not utilize fucose or rhamnose directly but metabolize 1,2propanediol (19-21) and convert it to propanol and propionate (21, 22). Cross-feeding of 1,2-propanediol between Eu. hallii and Bifidobacterium species based on metabolism of mucin and HMO has been studied in vitro (3, 4, 6). Although cross-feeding based on 1,2-propanediol is considered important in gut ecosystems (5) and has been shown to confer a fitness advantage in vivo for pathogens such as Salmonella spp. (23), its ecological importance for bacterial gut symbionts, and the underlying mechanisms by which it impacts bacterial performance in the gut, have not been empirically established in vivo in a tractable experimental model.

In both Eu. hallii and L. reuteri, 1,2-propanediol is metabolized through the cobalamin-dependent glycerol/diol dehydratase encoded in the pduCDE operon, found in the pdu-cbi-cob-hem gene (pdu) cluster (19-21). The glycerol/dehydratase converts 1,2-propanediol to propionaldehyde and further to propanol and propionate and have been shown to increase growth rates for L. reuteri in vitro (19, 24). In L. reuteri, the pdu cluster is observed predominantly in two L. reuteri phylogenetic lineages that are dominated by strains from human, herbivore, and chicken origin, but rarer in strains from other hosts such as mice and rats (25). This distribution suggests that the cluster constitutes an adaptation to the characteristics of the gastrointestinal tract of specific hosts (26, 27). In the murine forestomach, which is densely colonized by L. reuteri (25), fermentable mono- and disaccharides are in ample supply (28). In contrast, distal

portions of the human intestinal tract are characterized by low concentrations of monoand disaccharides. The pdu cluster may therefore constitute a colonization factor in the distal regions of the gut, to take advantage of 1,2-propanediol produced by other microbes (19, 25).

Most studies on diol-metabolism in L. reuteri have focused on the synthesis of the antimicrobial intermediate β-hydroxypropionaldehyde (reuterin) from glycerol, which is also mediated by the pdu operon (29). It remains unclear whether L. reuteri uses the pdu operon to engage in cross-feeding interrelationships with other gut bacterial species that produce 1,2-propanediol in its gastrointestinal habitat, and how this interaction contributes to its ecological competitiveness. It was therefore the aim of this study to characterize the ecological importance of 1,2-propanediol-cross-feeding between L. reuteri and the 1,2-propanediol producers Bifidobacterium breve and Escherichia coli, both *in vitro* and in the digestive tract of mice.

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Results

1,2-propanediol enhances growth of L. reuteri in vitro

We first sought to confirm the importance of 1,2-propanediol metabolism for L. reuteri L. reuteri ATCC PTA 6475 (referred to as L. reuteri PTA 6475) growth in vitro. The presence of 1,2-propanediol in the medium containing glucose improved growth rates and increased the final cell density of the strain when compared to the growth solely on glucose or to growth of a pduCDE delection mutant (referred to as L. reuteri ΔpduCDE) (Fig. 1A). Neither L. reuteri PTA 6475 nor L. reuteri ΔpduCDE were able to

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use 1,2-propanediol as the sole carbon source for growth (Fig. 1A). To confirm that the enhanced growth of L. reuteri PTA 6475 was due to 1,2-propanediol metabolism, the metabolic end-products in the supernatant were measured using HPLC. As shown in Figure 1B and C, L. reuteri PTA 6475 but not L. reuteri ΔpduCDE converted 1,2propanediol to propanol and low concentrations of propionate. For L. reuteri PTA 6475 but not *L. reuteri* Δ*pduCDE*, utilization of 1,2-propanediol resulted in acetate production and decreased production of ethanol (Fig. 1D & E; Fig. S1A & B). These findings confirm that L. reuteri PTA 6475 is able to disproportionate 1,2-propanediol to propanol and propionate (22). However, 1,2-propanediol is not used as sole substrate but cometabolized with glucose. Predominant production of propanol demonstrates that the reducing branch of the propanediol pathway is preferred over the oxidizing branch to regenerate electron acceptors, thus enhancing acetate formation and ATP production, and therefore growth (30).

Interspecies cross-feeding of 1-2-propanediol enhances growth of L. reuteri in vitro

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We developed an experimental system to study cross-feeding between L. reuteri and gut bacteria that produce 1,2-propanediol. We chose B. breve and E. coli which are known to produce 1,2-propanediol from fucose and rhamnose, respectively, which are substrates not utilized by L. reuteri. Since growth rates and growth conditions differ among L. reuteri, B. breve, and E. coli are, cross-feeding was not studied in co-culture. Instead, B. breve and E. coli were first grown under their respective optimal conditions and on the specific substrates that result in the production of 1,2-propanediol. Spent supernatant obtained from these fermentations was then supplemented with glucose

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and half-strength mMRS (conditioned media; see Materials and Methods) and used for analyzing growth kinetics and metabolite production of L. reuteri strains (Table 1). Conditioned media from an isogenic mutant of B. breve with an insertion mutation in fucP (encoding the L-fucose transporter) that is unable to metabolize fucose into 1,2propanediol served as a control (Table 1).

B. breve UCC2003 and its fucP mutant B. breve UCC2003-fucP were grown in a medium containing cellobiose with and without fucose. Fucose does not support the growth of B. breve UCC2003 yet is co-utilized with cellobiose to produce 1,2propanediol. Importantly, neither fucose or cellobiose are metabolized by L. reuteri (20). In the fucose/cellobiose-containing medium, B. breve UCC2003 and B. breve UCC2003-fucP reached similar cell density after 24 hours of growth (Fig. S2). L. reuteri PTA 6475 reached a significantly higher OD₆₀₀ and showed elevated growth rate when grown in conditioned medium with supernatant of B. breve UCC2003 grown with fucose and cellobiose when compared to L. reuteri ΔpduCDE or L. reuteri PTA 6475 grown in conditioned medium of B. breve UCC2003 grown in the absence of fucose (Fig. 2A). The growth advantage of L. reuteri PTA 6475 was not observed in conditioned media from the B. breve UCC2003-fucP, even if grown in the presence of fucose (Fig. 2B). HPLC analysis confirmed the presence of 1,2-propanediol in the conditioned medium of B. breve UCC2003 but not B. breve UCC2003-fucP grown with fucose (Fig. S3A), and showed that enhanced growth of L. reuteri PTA 6475 was linked to the conversion of 1,2-propanediol to propanol, which was not detected in L. reuteri ΔpduCDE cultures (Fig. 2C & D). Propionate, acetate, and ethanol could not be quantified as unknown compounds in the conditioned media interfered with the metabolite analysis. Fucose

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and cellobiose did not alter the growth kinetics of the L. reuteri strains when grown in glucose (Fig. S4A), and they did not serve as growth substrates on their own (Fig. S4B), confirming that the enhanced growth in L. reuteri PTA 6475 was not due to a direct effect of residual concentrations of these sugars in the spend supernatant.

1,2-propanediol results also from the fermentation of rhamnose by E. coli MG1655 (Fig S3B). Cross-feeding experiments revealed that L. reuteri PTA 6475 had a higher growth rate and reached a significantly higher cell density when grown in conditioned medium of E. coli grown on rhamnose when compared to L. reuteri ΔpduCDE, or L. reuteri PTA 6475 grown in conditioned medium from E. coli that did not contain rhamnose (Fig. 3A). Importantly, growth experiments of L. reuteri strains in media with rhamnose with or without glucose confirmed that rhamnose could neither be used as a carbon source nor alter growth (Fig. S4C & D). Metabolite analysis of fermentations conducted in the conditioned medium of E. coli grown on rhamnose revealed that L. reuteri PTA 6475, and not L. reuteri ΔpduCDE, could metabolize 1,2propanediol produced by E. coli and form propanol, propionate, and acetate (Fig. 3B-D; Fig. S5). Metabolite interference in the conditioned media did not allow the quantification of ethanol by HPLC.

Together, these findings demonstrate that L. reuteri PTA 6475 utilizes 1,2propanediol produced by B. breve and E. coli from the fermentation of deoxyhexose sugars as an electron acceptor, enhancing its growth capabilities.

Importance of 1,2-propanediol cross-feeding in the gastrointestinal tract

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The ecological relevance of cross-feeding based on 1,2-propanediol in the gastrointestinal tract was investigated with a series of colonization experiments in gnotobiotic mice (Fig 4; Table S1 & S2). Germ-free Swiss-Webster mice (6-16 weeks old; male and female) were housed in individually ventilated cages (groups of 2-3). A fat-free diet was used in order to avoid possible confounding affects from the hydrolysis of dietary triglyceride fats, which is a source of glycerol (also utilized via the pdu cluster and enhances growth). Fecal cell numbers of colonizing strains were determined by selective plating (see Materials and Methods).

As described earlier, B. breve produces 1,2-propanediol from fucose. Host mucins are an intrinsic source of fucose in the gastrointestinal tract, but B. breve does not possess glycosidases required for mucin degradation (9). 1,2-Propanediol crossfeeding between B. breve and L. reuteri was therefore studied in triple-species associated mouse in the presence of the mucinolytic strain B. bifidum PRL2010, which is capable of degrading mucin and releasing fucose without producing 1,2-propanediol (Fig. 4A; Table S1) (9). We first tested wild-type and mutant L. reuteri strains separately. Mice were gayaged with an inoculum that contained B. bifidum PRL2010. B. breve UCC2003 or its fucP mutant, and either L. reuteri PTA 6475 or L. reuteri ΔpduCDE (Table S1, inocula A-D). In these experiments, the two Bifidobacterium strains formed stable populations of ~10⁸-10⁹ CFU/g (Fig. S6A-H), while the *L. reuteri* strains colonized at ~10⁶-10⁸ CFU/g (Fig. S7A). When colonizing with wild-type B. breve UCC2003, L. reuteri PTA 6475 formed higher populations than L. reuteri ΔpduCDE over the duration of the experiment. Contrary, fecal cell numbers of L. reuteri PTA6475 where consistently lower than L. reuteri ApduCDE when colonizing with B. breve UCC2003-

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Downloaded from http://aem.asm.org/ on April 15, 2020 at UNIV COLLEGE CORK significantly higher in mice colonized with B. breve UCC2003 as compared to mice colonized with B. breve UCC2003-fucP (Fig. 5A). Interestingly, while the ratio between L. reuteri PTA 6475 and L. reuteri ApduCDE was greater than 1 when the L. reuteri strains were co-colonized with B. breve UCC2003, it was substantially lower than 1 when co-colonized with B. breve UCC2003-fucP (Fig. 5A). These finding suggests that the pdu cluster confers a fitness burden on L. reuteri unless 1,2-propanediol is provided, under which the cluster becomes advantageous. In a parallel set of experiments, we tested the importance of 1,2-propanediol cross-feeding in gnotobiotic mice that were gavaged with B. bifidum PRL2010, either B. breve UCC2003 or B. breve UCC2003-fucP, and both L. reuteri PTA 6475 and L. reuteri ΔpduCDE (wild-type and mutant) in direct competition (Table S1, inocula E & F). In agreement with the experiments with only one L. reuteri strain, Bifidobacterium species formed stable populations that were comparable among groups (~108-109 CFU/g: Fig. S6I-L). L. reuteri formed stable populations (~10⁶-10⁸ CFU/g), and concordant with the experiments using single strains of L. reuteri, cell counts of L. reuteri PTA 6475 were higher than the mutant in mice colonized with B. breve UCC2003 as compared to the B. breve UCC2003-fucP (but differences were not statistically significant) (Fig. S7B). However, significant differences were observed between the relative proportions of the

fucP (but differences did not reach statistical significance due to the high variation

between mice) (Fig. S7A). However, normalized ratios (see Materials and Methods)

between fecal cell numbers of L. reuteri PTA 6475 and L. reuteri ApduCDE were

two L. reuteri strains. Specifically, L. reuteri PTA 6475 reached significantly higher

proportions (>75 %) in mice colonized with B. breve UCC2003 as compared to B. breve

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UCC2003-fucP (Fig. 5B). Interestingly, L. reuteri ΔpduCDE reached ~75 % of the total Lactobacillus population in mice colonized with B. breve UCC2003-fucP (Fig. 5B), supporting the notion that the pdu cluster is a fitness burden to L. reuteri unless 1,2propanediol is provided. Overall, these observations demonstrated that B. breve UCC2003 can provide 1,2-propanediol as the result of a trophic chain from the degradation of mucin by B. bifidum PRL2010 that facilitates colonization of L. reuteri in the gastrointestinal tract (9).

A set of dual-associated gnotobiotic mouse experiments were also conducted to test if the production of 1,2-propanediol, from the metabolism of rhamnose by E. coli, influences the fitness of L. reuteri in the gastrointestinal tract. Mice were colonized either with E. coli and L. reuteri PTA 6475 and L. reuteri ΔpduCDE alone or in competition. Rhamnose was provided to mice in the drinking water (Fig. 4B; Table S2). Stable populations of E. coli were reached in all mice (~109 CFU/g), and the provision of rhamnose led to an ~10-fold increase in fecal cell numbers of E. coli (Fig. S8). Contrary to the findings with gnotobiotic mice colonized by bifidobacteria, L. reuteri ΔpduCDE colonized with higher cell numbers and outcompeted L. reuteri PTA 6475 under all conditions tested (Fig. 5C & D). This was indicated by ratios of less than 1 between L. reuteri PTA 6475 and L. reuteri ΔpduCDE in mice colonized with single L. reuteri strains (Fig. 5C) and an enrichment of the mutant to ~60 % of the total Lactobacillus population in competition experiments (Fig. 5D). The latter results resample those obtained with the triple-species Bifidobacterium experiments in mice colonized with B. breve UCC2003-fucP (Fig. 5), confirming the fitness burden of the *pdu* cluster.

Discussion

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Cross-feeding between members of the gut microbiota based on 1,2-propanediol is considered an important ecological process that shapes the gut microbiome and its metabolism. However, conclusions have so far been derived from in vitro experiments and metagenomic predictions. In this study, we demonstrate that L. reuteri engages in trophic interactions with bacteria that are common in the human gut and provide 1,2propanediol, which is used predominantly to regenerate reduced metabolic cofactors. Using isogenic mutants in both the bacterium that produces 1,2-propanediol and L. reuteri, we ensured that this cross-feeding interaction is in fact based on this metabolic intermediate. We further established that the pduCDE genes constitute a fitness burden for L. reuteri in the gut unless 1,2-propanediol is provided, which makes the cluster ecologically advantageous. Our findings therefore provide insight into both the ecological role of the *pdu* cluster in *L. reuteri* and how it evolved.

Our results demonstrate that in vitro, L. reuteri can obtain a growth advantage by cross-feeding from 1,2-propanediol derived from the fermentation of fucose and rhamnose by B. breve and E. coli, respectively. These findings extend previous work showing that pdu cluster-containing L. reuteri strains grow at a faster rate and to a higher cell yield in the presence of glycerol or 1,2-propanediol (19). Contrary to findings with L. reuteri DSM 20016, which produces propanol and propionate in equimolar concentrations through disproportionation when utilizing 1,2-propanendiol as a sole substrate (22), L. reuteri PTA 6475 produces propanol in excess over propionate (Figure 1B) and enhances acetate formation (Fig. 1D) when utilizing 1,2-propanendiol together with glucose. These metabolic patterns suggest that when L. reuteri PTA 6475

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grows with glucose, 1,2-propanediol functions mainly as an electron acceptor, allowing the conversion of acetyl-phosphate to acetate and to generate an extra ATP (30). Apart from enhancing bacterial growth, 1,2-propanendiol metabolism by L. reuteri can therefore contribute to SCFA formation in the gut, which might have health implications as propionate and acetate impact host physiology, e.g. by contributing to gluconeogenesis in the liver, reducing cholesterol, and promoting satiety (5, 18).

Our experiments in gnotobiotic mice provide empirical evidence for the ecological relevance of 1,2-propanendiol cross-feeding for the ecological performance of a gut symbiont in the gastrointestinal tract. The use of the respective pduCDE and fucP mutants of L. reuteri and B. breve in the mouse experiments indicated that this trophic interaction was specifically based on 1,2-propanediol produced through the fermentation of fucose. Since B. breve cannot degrade mucins, and the mouse feed was devoid of fucose, the findings suggests that L. reuteri benefits from 1,2-propanediol resulting from interspecies trophic interactions between bifidobacteria, in which B. bifidum PRL2010 degrades host mucin and provides fucose for B. breve to produce 1,2propanediol (9). The hydrolysis of mucin is suggested to play a key role in the facilitation of bacterial species in the gut microbiota and have been demonstrated in vitro (7, 31, 32) and with bacterial pathogens in vivo (e.g. Salmonella spp. and Clostridium difficile) (23, 33). Our data suggests that it also plays a role in cross-feeding interactions among symbionts or commensals, ultimately conferring a fitness advantage to L. reuteri in the murine gut through the provision of 1,2-propanendiol.

Although our experiments demonstrated 1,2-propanediol cross-feeding between bifidobacteria and L. reuteri, equivalent findings were not observed in mouse

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experiments with L. reuteri and E. coli. This observation can potentially be attributed to a phenomenon called carbon catabolite repression or the "all-or-none" effect in E. coli, in which a hierarchy-based regulatory system controls the sequential uptake of carbon sources (34). The mouse diet was highly saturated with glucose (34.4 % w/w) and, in vitro, the presence of glucose suppresses the uptake of other carbohydrates in E. coli (35), which is in agreement with our finding that E. coli MG1655 did not produce 1,2propanendiol from rhamnose while in the presence of glucose (Fig. S3B). Hence, it is possible that the uptake and metabolism of rhamnose into 1,2-propanediol by E. coli was suppressed in the murine gut.

Interestingly, the mouse experiments consistently revealed a fitness burden of the pduCDE genes when 1,2-propendiol was absent. Fitness trade-offs are well understood in the evolution of antibiotic resistance in bacteria, where resistance genes are costly and lead to a reduction of growth (36), and are therefore often lost in the absence of antibiotic pressure (37). Our findings indicate that genes that facilitate crossfeeding interactions are also subjected to fitness trade-offs in that they are only beneficial when the metabolite is provided. Such trade-offs have also been shown in cross-feeding based on the exchange of carbohydrates. Bacteroides ovatus possesses an enzyme system dedicated to the digestion of polysaccharides that does not directly benefit itself, but rather cooperative members of the gut microbiota through reciprocal cross-feeding. This enzyme system is energetically unfavorable and in the absence of a reciprocating species, a knock-out mutant strain can outcompete the enzyme-encoding wild-type (38). In L. reuteri, the fitness burden of the pdu genes provides a possible explanation for the evolution of the pdu cluster (26). Although likely ancestral to

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currently known lineages of L. reuteri, there is evidence of a deletion of the pdu cluster from most rodent strains (25, 26). Growth substrates are abundant in the forestomach and bacteria providing 1,2-propanediol are absent (25, 26), which might have led to loss of the pdu cluster as it was evolutionary advantageous, in agreement with the Black Queen Hypothesis (39). In the human distal gut, 1,2-propanediol is likely provided through other microbiota members, which may explain why the pdu cluster is conserved among these strains (26, 27).

Although cross-feeding based on 1,2-propandiol is only one of many trophic interactions that establish interactive networks within the gut microbiota, this study provides important information as it establishes the importance and consequences of cross-feeding for the ecological performance of the involved members. Such knowledge has repercussions for our understanding on the ecological and evolutionary forces that shape gut ecosystems and determine how they function (38, 40-42). In addition, an understanding of mutualistic interactions has important implications as it can be translated into improved microbial-based strategies to modulate gut microbiomes (i.e. probiotics). A challenge encountered in the field of probiotics is that gut ecosystems are homeostatic, resilient to change, and thus difficult to modulate, and most probiotics do not persist or change the resident community (43-46). One solution to this problem is the adoption of an ecological framework for probiotic applications (44). A consideration of the mutualistic and facilitative interactions between community members can be used for designing probiotic strain mixtures or personalized probiotic applications with the goal to achieve a more successful long-term persistence, which might be beneficial for certain applications. For example, 1,2-propanediol cross-feeding could be considered in

generating probiotic products by pairing L. reuteri with Bifidobacterium species that release fucose from the degradation of host-derived substrates and convert it into 1,2propanediol (9, 12). Additionally, bifidobacteria are more prevalent in the infant gut (47, 48) and some strains only partly utilize HMOs, releasing fucose, possibly forming an effective synergistic combination with L. reuteri (3, 32, 40). Furthermore, cross-feeding of 1,2-propanediol derived from gut symbionts and S. enterica serovar Typhimurium has been demonstrated to play a role in promoting pathogen expansion in the gut (23). L. reuteri could play a therapeutic role in excluding pathogenic Salmonella during gastroenteritis, by directly competing for the intermediary metabolite. Overall, this information could not only be used to formulate probiotic mixtures and synbiotic products, but potentially personalize probiotic applications based on the baseline microbiome (43).

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Materials and Methods

Bacterial strains and culture conditions

Bacterial strains used in this study are listed in Table 2. L. reuteri strains were grown in de Man, Rogosa, and Sharpe (MRS) medium (Difco) in an anaerobic chamber (gas mix of 5 % CO₂, 5 % H₂, and 90 % N₂). B. bifidum PRL2010, B. breve UCC2003, and B. breve UCC2003-fucP were grown anaerobically in MRS medium supplemented with 0.05 % L-cysteine. E. coli were grown in Luria-Bertani (LB) broth with agitation. All incubations were performed at 37 °C.

Evaluation of the impact of 1,2-propanediol on L. reuteri ATCC PTA 6475 growth

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Overnight cultures of L. reuteri PTA 6475 and L. reuteri \(\Delta pduCDE \) were inoculated at 1 % into 15 ml of half-strength mMRS (49) containing 25mM glucose alone, 50 mM of 1,2-propanediol (Sigma-Aldrich) alone, or 25mM glucose plus 50mM of 1,2-propanediol. Growth of cell cultures were monitored based on OD₆₀₀ with a spectrophotometer every 3 h over the span of 12 h. One mL samples were collected for HPLC analysis every 3 h. All experiments were performed in triplicate at 37 °C under anaerobic conditions.

In vitro production of 1,2-propanediol and cross-feeding assay development

Pre-cultures of B. breve strains and E. coli were prepared as follows. Full-strength mMRS supplemented with 30 mM cellobiose ± 30 mM L-fucose were inoculated with 1 % of overnight cultures of B. breve UCC2003 or B. breve UCC2003-fucP. Full-strength mMRS containing 25 mM of glucose or 30 mM of L-rhamnose were inoculated with 1 % of overnight E. coli MG1655 cultures. These fermentations were conducted under anaerobic conditions for 24 h at 37 °C. Conditioned media were prepared from precultures as follows. Cells were removed from pre-cultures by centrifugation (5000 x q for 10 minutes) after which the supernatant was collected. The supernatant was supplemented with half-strength mMRS from scratch (50 % w/v; mMRS dry reagents) and glucose (25 mM; dry reagent) to the supernatant. These were further adjusted to pH 6.6 and filter sterilized (0.22 µm), stored at 4 °C and used within 48 h. Conditioned media are described in Table 1. For growth experiments, conditioned media were inoculated with L. reuteri strains (1 % inoculation). Growth was monitored for 12 h by measuring OD₆₀₀ with a spectrophotometer and 1 mL samples for HPLC analysis were collected every 3 h. All experiments were performed in triplicate under anaerobic conditions at 37 °C.

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Experiments in gnotobiotic mice

All animal experiments were performed with the approval of the Animal Care and Use Committee (ACUC) of the University of Alberta (AUP 00002764). Germ-free Swiss-Webster mice (6-16 weeks of age, male and female) were bred and maintained in the Health Sciences Laboratory Animals Services (HSLAS) Facility at the University of Alberta. Mice were randomly selected and moved from a flexible-film isolator and housed in sterile, individually ventilated, positive-pressured biocontainment cages for the duration of the experiments (IsoCage P Biocontainment; Tecniplast). To avoid possible confounding effects of glycerol, which is also utilized by the pdu clusterencoded diol/glycerol dehydratase (50), an irradiated fat-free diet (34.4 % glucose and 34.4 % cornstarch; Teklad TD.180765) was used in order to minimize possible interference from the hydrolysis of triglyceride fats. After transfer to the biocontainment cages, mice were fed with the new diet for 3 d before colonization with the bacteria.

To study the cross-feeding of 1,2-propanediol in the gastrointestinal tract, groups of mice (n=5), 2 to 3 mice per cage, were assigned to receive either Bifidobacterium-L. reuteri triple-species mixtures (Table S1) or E. coli-L. reuteri double-species mixtures (Table S2). To test for cross-feeding of 1,2-propanediol produced from mucin derived fucose, mice were gavaged with Bifidobacterium-L. reuteri triple-species mixtures containing B. bifidum PRL2010, either B. breve UCC2003 or B. breve UCC2003-fucP, and either L. reuteri PTA 6475 or L. reuteri ΔpduCDE (single L. reuteri strains), or both strains in competition (Table S1). To test for cross-feeding of dietary rhamnose, we gavaged mice with E. coli-L. reuteri double-species mixtures containing E. coli and L. reuteri PTA 6475 or L. reuteri ΔpduCDE (single L. reuteri strains), or both strains in

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competition (Table S2). Rhamnose was provided in the drinking water (2 % w/v). Each mouse was gavaged with 200 µL of the corresponding bacterial cell mixtures containing ~108 viable cells of each strain. Fecal pellets were collected from individual mice 1, 3, 5, and 7 days after inoculation and plated. Selective plating was used to enumerate bacterial cells in fecal samples as follows: Modified Rogosa agar plates were used to quantify L. reuteri strains (51). L. reuteri PTA 6475 and L. reuteri ΔpduCDE were differentiated using a reuterin hydrazone detection assay (52). MacConkey agar was used for quantifying E. coli. Bifidobacterium were selected using Bifidobacterium selective iodoacetate mupirocin (BSIM) agar as previously described (48). B. bifidum PRL2010 and B. breve strains were differentiated based on colony morphology.

Metabolite analysis of post-fermentation

1,2-Propanediol, propanol, propionate, acetate, and ethanol were measured using HPLC. A BioRad Aminex HPX-87H column (300 mm x 7.8 mm) and a refractive index detector was used (HPLC-RI). Samples taken from fermentations were mixed with 70 % HClO₄ (0.005 % v/v), stored at 4 °C overnight to precipitate proteins, centrifuged (18,800 x g for 5 minutes), filtered (0.22 μm), and stored at -20 °C before injection into HPLC. Ten μL were injected and eluted with 5 mM H₂SO₄ at a flow rate of 0.4 ml/min at 70 °C. 1,2-Propanediol, propanol, propionate, acetate, and ethanol were quantified using external standards.

Statistical analysis

Statistical significance between L. reuteri growth curves were determined by twoway analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Bonferroni multiple comparisons test ($\alpha = 0.05$).

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An unpaired two-tailed Student's t-test was used to analyze significance between B. breve growth in mMRS supplemented with cellobiose ± fucose.

Comparisons between L. reuteri PTA 6475 and L. reuteri ApduCDE CFU recovered from fecal samples over the duration of the gnotobiotic mice experiments were performed by unpaired two-tailed Student's t-test. Tests were conducted between L. reuteri strains that were associated with (i) B. breve UCC2003 or (ii) B. breve UCC2003fucPin the triple-species experiments and E. coli-L. reuteri double-species experiments with rhamnose (iii) present or (iv) absent.

For the gnotobiotic mice experiments inoculated with the 'single L. reuteri strain' mixtures (Table S1 & 2), CFU of L. reuteri PTA 6475 and L. reuteri ΔpduCDE recovered from mouse feces were used to produce normalized ratios. Ratios were generated using the formula (equation 1) below, where a_n is a CFU value for L. reuteri PTA 6475 from a single mouse - used in the comparison, b_n is the CFU value of L. reuteri $\Delta pduCDE$ from each mouse in the group, and n_b is the total population of mice inoculated with the mutant strain used in the experiment.

$$Normalized\ ratio = \frac{a_n}{\Sigma\left(\frac{(b_1 + b_2 + \dots + b_n)}{n_b}\right)}$$

(1) 454

455 The formula was used to generate sets of ratios for the following comparisons from 456 the 'Single L. reuteri strain' mice experiments: (i) B. breve UCC2003 vs B. breve UCC2003-fucP and (ii) E. coli-L. reuteri double-associated mice in the presence vs the 457

absence of rhamnose. Statistical significance between the sets of ratios were determined by Mann-Whitney U test (P value < 0.05). Fisher's exact test was used to determine statistical significance between L. reuteri

population frequencies from murine groups inoculated with 'L. reuteri strains in competition' mixtures (P value < 0.05). This was performed between groups of mice from either: (i) Bifidobacterium-L. reuteri triple-species associations including B. breve UCC2003 vs B. breve UCC2003-fucP(ii) E. coli-L. reuteri double-species associations with murine diet supplemented with rhamnose vs without rhamnose. Statistical analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism 6.07.

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Acknowledgements

JW acknowledges support from the Campus Alberta Innovation Program (CAIP) and the Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council of Canada (NSERC) for a Discovery grant. We thank Gautam Gaur for his technical advice concerning HPLC use and Nicole Coursen for her assistance throughout the mouse experiments. We also thank Dr. Marco Ventura (University of Parma, Parma, Italy) for generously providing us the B. bifidum PRL2010 strain.

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Author contributions

C.C.C. designed and conducted the experiments, collected and analyzed data, and wrote the manuscript. R.M.D. contributed to conceiving the project, the

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development of experimental approaches, supervision, intellectual leadership, and wrote the manuscript. X.B.L contributed to experimental designs and edited the manuscript. M.E.P.M contributed to the design of animal experiments, and contributed to the manuscript through editing and generation of figures. S.T. was responsible for animal husbandry and oversaw animal experiments. J.H.O. and J.P.V. generated the mutant *L. reuteri* ATCC PTA 6475 Δ*pduCDE* strains and contributed to manuscript editing. F.L. contributed to supervision and manuscript editing. D.V. provided the Bifidobacterium bifidum PRL2010, Bifidobacterium breve UCC2003, Bifidobacterium breve UCC2003-fucP strains, contributed to conceiving animal experiments, and gave technical and conceptual advice. M.G.G. oversaw analytical analysis and data interpretation, and contributed to supervision and manuscript editing. J.W. conceived project, contributed to the conceptualization of the experiments, supervised data analysis and interpretation, and wrote the manuscript.

Table 1. Media used for in vitro cross-feeding experiments

Fermenting Strain	Deoxyhexose Sugar	Other carbohydrates	Abbreviation	Purpose
B. breve UCC2003	N/a	30 mM Cellobiose	BM (C)	Control for <i>L. reuteri</i> growth absent of 1,2-propanediol production
	30 mM Fucose	30 mM Cellobiose	BM (CF)	For the study of effect of 1,2-propanediol produced from Fucose fermentation on <i>L. reuteri</i>
B. breve UCC2003- fucP	N/a	30 mM Cellobiose	B-fucP M (C)	Control for <i>L. reuteri</i> growth absent of 1,2-propanediol production
	30 mM Fucose	30 mM Cellobiose	B-fucP M (CF)	Control for <i>L. reuteri</i> growth absent of 1,2-propanediol production
E. coli MG1655	N/a	25 mM Glucose	EM (G)	Control for <i>L. reuteri</i> growth absent of 1,2-propanediol production
	30 mM Rhamnose	N/a	EM (R)	For the study of effect of 1,2-propanediol produced from Rhamnose fermentation on <i>L. reuteri</i>

N/a: not applicable

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498 499 Table 2. Strains used in this study

Species (strain code)	Origin	Relevant features	Reference
Lactobacillus reuteri			
ATCC PTA 6475	Breast Milk	1,2-propanediol utilizer with complete <i>pdu</i> cluster	BioGaia; (53)
L. reuteri ΔpduCDE	Isogenic mutant of PTA 6475	Deletion mutant of Glycerol/diol dehydratase genes (pduCDE)	(53)
Escherichia coli			
MG1655	Lab-derived strain	L-rhamnose utilizer, 1,2- propanediol producer	The Coli Genetic Stock Center (CGSC)
Bifidobacterium bifidum			,
PRL2010	Infant stool	Mucin degrader, L-fucose producer	(32)
Bifidobacterium breve			
UCC2003	Infant stool	L-fucose utilizer, 1,2- propanediol producer	(54)
Bifidobacterium breve UCC2003-	Isogenic mutant of	Insertion mutant of the L-	(9)
fucP	UCC2003	fucose transporter gene (fucP)	• •

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Figure 1. Impact of 1,2-propanediol on growth and metabolism of L. reuteri PTA 6475 and L. reuteri ΔpduCDE. (A) L. reuteri strains were grown in half-strength mMRS supplemented with either glucose (Glc; 25 mM), 1,2-propanediol (50 mM), or a mixture of the two. Asterisks indicate a significant difference (Two-way ANOVA; p < 0.001) in growth of L. reuteri PTA 6475 on glucose plus 1,2-propanediol compared to the other conditions. (B-C) Utilization of 1,2-propanediol and production of propanol and propionate by (B) L. reuteri PTA 6475 and (C) L. reuteri ΔpduCDE during growth on glucose in the presence of 1,2-propanediol. (D-E) Production of (D) acetate and (E) ethanol by the two strains during growth on glucose in the presence of 1,2-propanediol.

Figure 2. Growth and metabolites of *L. reuteri* PTA 6475 and *L. reuteri* Δ*pduCDE* in conditioned media of B. breve UCC2003 and B. breve UCC2003-fucPgrown with cellobiose alone or with the addition of fucose. Growth curves of (A) L. reuteri strains in B. breve UCC2003 conditioned media and (B) L. reuteri in B. breve UCC2003-fucP conditioned media. Asterisks indicate a significant difference (Two-way ANOVA; p < 0.001) in growth of L. reuteri PTA 6475 grown in B. breve UCC2003 conditioned medium that had fermented cellobiose and fucose together compared to growth of L. reuteri PTA 6475 in B. breve UCC2003 conditioned medium without fucose or to L. reuteri ΔpduCDE grown in all conditioned media derived from B. breve UCC2003. (C-D) Utilization of B. breve derived 1,2-propanediol present in the conditioned media and production of propanol in cultures of (C) L. reuteri PTA 6475 and (D) L. reuteri ΔpduCDE grown in the conditioned medium of B. breve UCC2003 grown in the

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media used in the study).

presence of fucose. Propionate, acetate, and ethanol concentrations could not be determined due to interference of unknown compounds in the medium. Abbreviations: BM, B. breve UCC2003 conditioned media; B-fucP M, B. breve UCC2003-fucP conditioned media; (C), pre-culture fermentations of cellobiose only; (CF), pre-culture fermentations of cellobiose with added fucose (See Table 1 for more details about media used in the study).

Figure 3. Growth curves and metabolites of *L. reuteri* PTA 6475 and *L. reuteri* ΔpduCDE in conditioned media of E. coli grown with glucose or rhamnose. (A) Growth of L. reuteri strains. Asterisks indicate a significant difference (Two-way ANOVA; p < 0.01) in growth of L. reuteri PTA 6475 grown in E. coli conditioned medium that had fermented rhamnose compared to E. coli conditioned medium that fermented glucose and to growth of L. reuteri ApduCDE in both E. coli conditioned media fermentations of either glucose or rhamnose. (B-C) Utilization of E. coli-derived 1,2-propanediol, and production of propanol and propionate by (B) L. reuteri PTA 6475 and (C) L. reuteri ΔpduCDE grown in conditioned medium from E. coli grown with rhamnose. (D) Comparison of acetate production by the two strains grown in conditioned medium from E. coli grown with rhamnose. Ethanol concentrations could not be determined due to

interference of an unknown compound in the medium. Abbreviations: EM, E. coli

conditioned media; (G), pre-culture fermentation of glucose only by E. coli; (R), pre-

culture fermentation of rhamnose only by E. coli. (See Table 1 for more details about

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Figure 4. Graphical illustration of hypothesized trophic interactions of 1,2-propanediol in gnotobiotic mice. (A) In triple-species associated gnotobiotic mice (colonized by B. bifidum, B. breve, and L. reuteri), B. bifidum liberates fucose from the degradation of host mucin, which is metabolized by B. breve UCC2003 producing 1,2-propanediol, that is subsequently utilized by L. reuteri PTA 6475. (B) In dual-species (E. coli and L. reuteri) associated mice whose diet has been supplemented with rhamnose added through the drinking water, E. coli metabolizes rhamnose producing 1,2-propanediol that is subsequently utilized by *L. reuteri* PTA 6475.

Figure 5. Populations of L. reuteri PTA 6475 and L. reuteri ΔpduCDE in the gastrointestinal tract of triple-species and double-species associated gnotobiotic mice. (A) Normalized ratios between L. reuteri PTA 6475 to L. reuteri ΔpduCDE obtained from Bifidobacterium-L. reuteri triple-species associated gnotobiotic mice in which colonization by L. reuteri PTA 6475 and L. reuteri ΔpduCDE was tested separately. "+" indicates mice colonized with B. breve UCC2003 and "-" indicates mice colonized with B. breve UCC2003-fucP. (B) Percent CFU for L. reuteri PTA 6475 and L. reuteri ΔpduCDE as measured in triple-species associated gnotobiotic mice in which the two L. reuteri strains were tested in competition. (C) Normalized ratios between L. reuteri PTA 6475 and L. reuteri ΔpduCDE in E. coli-L. reuteri double-species associated gnotobiotic mice in which colonization of L. reuteri PTA 6475 and L. reuteri ΔpduCDE was tested separately. (D) Percent CFU for L. reuteri PTA 6475 and L. reuteri ΔpduCDE mutant in double-species associated gnotobiotic mice in which the two L. reuteri strains were tested in competition. "+" indicates the presence of rhamnose (Rha) in the diet, while "-"

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indicates absence of rhamnose in the diet. Statistical significance for ratios and percent abundance (% CFU) was determined using Mann-Whitney test and Fisher's exact test, respectively. Table S1. Strains used in experiments with Bifidobacterium-L. reuteri triple-species

575 576 associated gnotobiotic mice.

Table S2. Strains used in experiments with E. coli-L. reuteri double-species associated mice.

581 Figure S1. Concentrations of (A) acetate and (B) ethanol in media after growth of L. reuteri PTA 6475 and L. reuteri ΔpduCDE on glucose (Glc) in the presence or absence 582 583 of 1,2-propanediol.

Figure S2. Growth of B. breve UCC2003 and B. breve UCC2003-fucP in mMRS 585 586 supplemented with cellobiose (30 mM; Cell), fucose (30 mM; Fuc), cellobiose and fucose, or with no carbon source (No Carb) after 24 hours. 587

Figure S3. Total 1,2-propanediol concentrations in media after growth with (A) B. breve UCC2003 and B. breve UCC2003-fucP after fermentation of cellobiose (Cell) and cellobiose plus fucose (Cell + Fuc). (B) 1,2-propenediol concentrations in E. coli cultures after growth with glucose (Glc), rhamnose (Rha), or glucose and rhamnose (Glc + Rha).

Figure S4. Growth of L. reuteri PTA 6475 and L. reuteri ΔpduCDE in the presence of deoxyhexose sugars. L. reuteri strains do not utilize (A & B) cellobiose (Cell), fucose (Fuc), or (C & D) rhamnose (Rha) as growth substrates or electron acceptors when cultured with glucose (Glc). Figure S5. Acetate production of L. reuteri PTA 6475 and L. reuteri ΔpduCDE in the

conditioned media of E. coli fermentation of glucose and rhamnose. In the symbol labels, E. coli conditioned media is abbreviated as EM, followed by fermentation of glucose by E. coli as indicated with (G), and rhamnose with (R) (See Table 1 for more details about media used in the study).

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Figure S6. Quantification of Bifidobacterium strains in fecal samples from triple-species associated gnotobiotic mice. Fecal CFU of B. bifidum PRL2010 recovered from of gnotobiotic mice inoculated with (A) B. breve UCC2003 and L. reuteri PTA 6475 or (B) B. breve UCC2003 and L. reuteri ApduCDE. Fecal CFU of B. bifidum PRL2010 from gnotobiotic mice inoculated with (C) B. breve UCC2003-fucP and L. reuteri PTA 6475 or (D) B. breve UCC2003-fucP and L. reuteri ApduCDE. Fecal CFU of B. breve UCC2003 from gnotobiotic mice inoculated with (E) B. bifidum PRL2010 and L. reuteri PTA 6475 or (F) B. bifidum PRL2010 and L. reuteri ApduCDE. Fecal CFU of B. breve UCC2003fucP from gnotobiotic mice inoculated with (G) B. bifidum PRL2010 and L. reuteri PTA 6475 or (H) B. bifidum PRL2010 and L. reuteri ΔpduCDE. Fecal CFU of B. bifidum PRL2010 from gnotobiotic mice inoculated with L. reuteri PTA 6475 and L.

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reuteri ΔpduCDE in competition as well as with (I) B. breve UCC2003 or (J) B. breve UCC2003-fucP. (K) Fecal CFU of B. breve UCC2003 from gnotobiotic mice inoculated with B. bifidum PRL2010 and L. reuteri PTA 6475 and L. reuteri ΔpduCDE in competition. (L) Fecal CFU of B. breve UCC2003-fucP from gnotobiotic mice inoculated with B. bifidum PRL2010 and L. reuteri PTA 6475 and L. reuteri ΔpduCDE in competition. Figure S7. Quantification of L. reuteri strains from triple-species and double-species associated gnotobiotic mice experiments. (A-B) CFU of L. reuteri recovered from feces of the Bifidobacterium triple-species gnotobiotic mice experiments containing either (A) single L. reuteri strains or (B) L. reuteri strains in competition. "+" indicates mice colonized with B. breve UCC2003 and "-" indicates mice colonized with the fucP mutant of B. breve UCC2003. (C-D) CFU of L. reuteri recovered from feces of E. coli doublespecies gnotobiotic mice experiments from either (C) single L. reuteri strains or (D) L. reuteri strains in competition. "+" indicates the presence of rhamnose (Rha) in the diet, while "-" indicates absence of rhamnose in the diet. Figure S8. Quantification of E. coli from double-species associated gnotobiotic mice experiments. CFU of E. coli recovered from 'single L. reuteri strain' bacterial mixtures in the (A) presence of rhamnose in the diet, (B) absence of rhamnose in the diet, and from

(C) L. reuteri in competition where rhamnose was either supplemented into the mouse

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