# 1 Gut Microbial Utilization of the Alternative Sweetener, D-

# 2 Allulose, via AlsE

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### 15 **Abstract**

D-allulose, a rare sugar with emerging potential as a low-calorie sweetener, has garnered 16 17 attention as an alternative to other commercially available alternative sweeteners, such 18 as sugar alcohols, which often cause severe gastrointestinal discomfort. D-allulose-6phosphate 3-epimerase (AIsE) is a prokaryotic enzyme that converts D-allulose-6-19 20 phosphate into D-fructose-6-phopshate, enabling its use as a carbon source. However, 21 the taxonomic breadth of AlsE across gut bacteria remains poorly understood, hindering insights into the utilization of D-allulose by microbial communities. In this study, we 22 23 provide experimental evidence showing that *Clostridium innocuum* is capable of D-24 allulose metabolism via a homologous AlsE. A bioinformatics search of 85,202 bacterial 25 genomes identified 116 bacterial species with AlsE homologs, suggesting a limited 26 distribution of AlsE in bacteria. Additionally, *Escherichia coli* contains a copy of *alsE*, but 27 it does not grow on D-allulose as a sole carbon source unless alsE is heterologously 28 expressed. A metagenomic analysis revealed that 15.8% of 3,079 adult healthy human 29 metagenomic samples that we analyzed contained *alsE*, suggesting a limited prevalence of the enzyme in the gut microbiome. These results suggest that the gut microbiome has 30 31 limited capacity to metabolize D-allulose via *alsE*, supporting its use as an alternative 32 sweetener with minimal impact on microbial composition and gastrointestinal symptoms. 33 This finding also enables personalized nutrition, allowing diabetic individuals to assess their gut microbiota for alsE, and manage glycemic response while reducing 34 gastrointestinal distress. 35

# 36 Introduction

The obesity epidemic is a serious health issue affecting many countries 37 38 worldwide.<sup>1</sup> According to the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey 39 (NHANES), conducted by the National Center for Health Statistics (NCHS), 41.9% of U.S. adults aged 20 and older are obese.<sup>2</sup> As an individual's amount of adipose tissue 40 41 increases, so too does their risk for metabolic diseases, including type 2 diabetes,<sup>3</sup> which is caused by insulin resistance and lack of insulin, resulting in chronic hyperglycemia.<sup>4</sup> 42 Over 415 million people worldwide suffer from diabetes, over 90% of whom have type 2 43 diabetes.<sup>5</sup> In the U.S., 14.8% of adults aged 20 or older are also affected.<sup>2</sup> 44

Previous studies have linked increased sugar consumption to the obesity and diabetes epidemic.<sup>6,7</sup> Further, researchers propose that a high-carbohydrate diet promotes the deposition of calories into fatty tissue, leading to weight gain through increased hunger.<sup>8</sup> The main culprits of type 2 diabetes are excessive sugar consumption and a sedentary lifestyle.<sup>5</sup> There is no cure for type 2 diabetes available as of 2024, and much more research is needed on methods to mitigate and prevent diabetes, including decreasing the consumption of fructose, glucose, and sucrose.

52 One potential strategy to minimize sugar consumption is to use sugar substitutes, 53 such as aspartame, sucralose, erythritol, xylitol, and sorbitol.<sup>9</sup> These alternative 54 sweeteners tend to taste sweet, but the human body does not metabolize them, thereby 55 reducing the adverse health effects of excess sugar consumption.<sup>10</sup> These sweeteners 56 may be derived from plant extracts or from chemical synthesis.<sup>11</sup>

57 Many of the alternative sweeteners currently approved by the U.S. Food and Drug 58 Administration include sugar alcohols and non-nutritive sweeteners (NNS), both of which 59 have been associated with some side effects on the human gut microbiome. Sugar alcohol consumption can lead to gastrointestinal discomfort and have laxative effects 60 through osmotic pressure and increased gas production through gut bacterial 61 62 fermentation, resulting in diarrhea and bloating.<sup>12</sup> Moreover, increased blood erythritol levels have been associated with increased platelet reactivity, resulting in cardiovascular 63 events such as strokes.<sup>13</sup> On the other hand, regular NNS consumption can lead to 64 functional alteration of gut microbiota composition, resulting in an impaired glycemic 65 response and glucose intolerance.<sup>14,15</sup> Therefore, it is extremely important to understand 66 67 the mechanisms of how alternative sweeteners interact with the human gut microbiome. These findings have led to an increasing interest in fructose epimers, sugar molecules 68 that resemble fructose but have altered stereochemistry at one carbon atom.<sup>16</sup> One 69 70 example is D-allulose (also known as D-psicose), a rare low-calorie sweetener that is the C-3 epimer of fructose and is found in small amounts in certain fruits.<sup>16</sup> Previous studies 71 have suggested that D-allulose has a low glycemic index, making it promising for reducing 72 the risk of diabetes.<sup>17–20</sup> Due to advances in the industrial process and bacterial 73 74 engineering methods, D-allulose production is becoming increasingly economically viable.<sup>21</sup> Thus, D-allulose is a promising way to decrease sucrose and fructose 75 consumption. 76

Although D-allulose is a promising alternative sweetener, its side effects are poorly understood compared to other types of alternative sweeteners. A significant portion of ingested D-allulose reaches the gut microbiome, as approximately 30% passes through the small intestine unabsorbed and is excreted in feces<sup>22,23</sup>. While 70% of D-allulose is absorbed via glucose transporter type 5 (GLUT5) in the small intestine, the substantial <sup>82</sup> unabsorbed fraction has the potential to interact with and impact the gut microbial <sup>83</sup> community.<sup>22,23</sup> Studies in murine models have shown that D-allulose can induce changes <sup>84</sup> in the gut microbiome.<sup>24,25</sup> Comparatively, Suez et al. 2014 showed that saccharin, <sup>85</sup> sucralose, and aspartame can induce glucose intolerance through modifications of the <sup>86</sup> gut microbiome composition and function.<sup>26</sup> Therefore, there is an urgent need to better <sup>87</sup> understand both the potential for D-allulose utilization by gut bacteria and its effects on <sup>88</sup> human gut microbiome composition.

Some bacteria possess the ability to metabolize D-allulose using the enzyme D-89 allulose-6-phosphate 3-epimerase (AlsE), encoded by the gene alsE.<sup>27</sup> In E. coli K-12, 90 alsE is in the D-allose operon, which has been well characterized (Figure 1A).<sup>28</sup> First, D-91 92 allose is converted into D-allulose 6-phosphate via AlsK and RpiB. Then, AlsE catalyzes 93 the reversible conversion of D-allulose 6-phosphate to D-fructose 6-phosphate.<sup>29</sup> Environmental and clinical isolates of Klebsiella pneumoniae, an opportunistic pathogen 94 responsible for a significant number of nosocomial bacterial infections.<sup>30</sup> are capable of 95 96 metabolizing D-allulose using a homologous AlsE, raising concerns that consuming Dallulose may confer opportunistic pathogens an advantage in colonization.<sup>31,32</sup> However, 97 98 there has not been a full systematic annotation of the prevalence and distribution of alsE 99 in the human gut microbiome.

To address this gap, we combined bioinformatic predictions and experimental verification to characterize the distribution of *alsE* in human gut microbes. Our bioinformatic predictions were validated through growth experiments, culturing bacteria in media with D-allulose as the sole carbon source. Our investigation of multiple representatives of the major gut bacterial clades expanded the known phylogenetic range 105 of D-allulose metabolism from phylum Pseudomonadota to include phylum Bacillota by 106 identifying that *Clostridium innocuum* 6 1 30 is capable of using D-allulose as a sole 107 carbon source. Through comparative genomics and protein homology searches, we 108 identified a putative AISE in C. innocuum that is homologous to AISE in K. pneumoniae 109 (35% identity, e-value 2.89e-41) that has a divergent operon organization compared to 110 the known D-allulose metabolizers. We verified the function of the C. innocuum AlsE in the E. coli Keio Knockout Collection, observing that E. coli deficient in native alsE was 111 112 able to grow on D-allulose when complemented with C. innocuum alsE. We also found 113 that E. coli, despite encoding alsE, cannot grow on D-allulose as a sole carbon source 114 unless alsE is heterologously expressed. To comprehensively characterize the taxonomic 115 distribution of AlsE, we performed a systematic search across 85,202 bacterial genomes, 116 identifying 116 species encoding putative alsE homologs. The limited distribution of alsE 117 in the gut microbiome supports D-allulose's promise as an alternative sweetener with 118 minimal impact on both microbial composition and gastrointestinal symptoms, two 119 common drawbacks of current artificial sweeteners. Although our focus is on *alsE*, it is 120 important to note that there could be alternative undiscovered pathways bacteria can use 121 to metabolize D-allulose that our study did not cover. These findings provide insights into 122 bacterial D-allulose metabolism, supporting its development as an alternative sweetener 123 to help reduce sugar consumption in the context of rising rates of obesity and diabetes.

124 **Results** 

#### 125 Investigating the potential for D-allulose utilization by gut microbes

To identify gut bacterial species capable of utilizing D-allulose as a carbon source, we conducted a preliminary identification of species with D-allulose-6-phosphate 3128 epimerase (AlsE) homologs by conducting a BLASTp search against 85,202 non-129 redundant genomes from the Genome Taxonomy Database<sup>33,34</sup>. We used the 130 experimentally verified Klebsiella pneumoniae AlsE as the query, with a threshold of 50% 131 identity and bitscore greater than 200. There were 272 species that met the threshold, 132 mostly from non-gut bacteria. Some gut bacteria genera with AlsE homologs include 133 Klebsiella, Escherichia, and Clostridium. Interestingly, Clostridium innocuum, a common gut bacterium species, contained an AlsE hit (50.49% identity, 2.30e-77 e-value, 220 134 135 bitscore).

136 To experimentally validate our bioinformatic predictions and characterize D-137 allulose metabolism across diverse gut bacteria, we tested representative strains from 138 major gut bacterial phyla including Bacillota, Bacteroidota, Actinobacteriota, and 139 Pseudomonadota for growth on D-allulose as a sole carbon source (Figure 2A). Growth 140 was quantified by spectrophotometric measurement at OD600, with significant growth 141 defined as a three-fold increase in OD600 compared to media negative controls. 142 *Clostridium innocuum* 6 1 30 demonstrated robust growth on D-allulose with a 6:1 ratio 143 in its OD600 measurement compared to the media blank, revealing a previously unknown 144 metabolic capability (Figure 2B). Notably, Escherichia coli DC10B did not grow on D-145 allulose despite encoding *alsE* within its D-allose operon (**Figure 2C**), prompting further 146 investigation.

#### 147 Escherichia coli does not readily utilize D-allulose in vitro despite encoding alsE

148 Although *E. coli* encodes *alsE* within the D-allose operon (*alsRBACEK*), previous 149 studies have demonstrated that this operon is specifically induced in response to D- allose.<sup>28</sup> We hypothesized that while *E. coli* encodes the metabolic machinery for Dallulose utilization; this capability may not be active in the absence of D-allose.

To test this hypothesis, we placed *alsE* under the control of an IPTG-inducible promoter to enable controlled expression independent of its native regulation. Using the Keio collection, a comprehensive library of single-gene knockout mutants in *E. coli* BW25113<sup>35</sup>, we cloned the *alsE* gene from strain JW2760 into a pCW-lic vector backbone under an inducible *tac* promoter, creating the pCW-lic-*E.coli alsE* construct. This plasmid was transformed into the Keio *alsE* knockout strain, and the transformed bacteria were cultured in M9 minimal media supplemented with D-allulose and IPTG.<sup>12</sup>

Our results showed that both the Keio *alsE* knockout and the untransformed *E. coli* were unable to grow using D-allulose as the sole carbon source. In contrast, the transformed *E. coli* overexpressing *alsE* exhibited robust growth (**Figure 3A and 3B**). These findings support our hypothesis that while *E. coli* encodes AlsE, it may not be capable of utilizing D-allulose as a carbon source in the absence of D-allose.

Limited 164 distribution Ε. coli of alsE strains across 165 We then investigated the presence and absence of *alsE* across *E. coli* genomes, using a previously published pangenome consisting of 1.324 *E. coli* genomes.<sup>36</sup> alsE was 166 167 present in 598 out of 1324 E. coli genomes (45%), suggesting that alsE is a strain-specific gene and may not be present in every individual's gut microbiome, despite the prevalence 168 of *E. coli* exceeding 90% among in humans.<sup>37</sup> 169

#### 170 Identification of alsE in Clostridium innocuum

171 Given that *Clostridium innocuum* 6 1 30 grew on D-allulose as a sole carbon source, we investigated the genomic origins of its D-allulose metabolism. Based on our 172 173 prior preliminary search results, we hypothesized that a homologous alsE was 174 responsible for D-allulose metabolism in C. innocuum rather than a novel pathway. To 175 conduct a comprehensive search for AISE homologs in C. innocuum, we used the Klebsiella pneumoniae MGH 78578 AlsE (NCBI accession: GCA 000016305.1) as the 176 query to search the C. innocuum genome (NCBI accession: GCA 000183585.2). 177 178 BLASTp revealed two AlsE homologs in C. innocuum, referred to as ci04257 and ci04568 179 (ci04257: 50.49% identity, 2.09e-76 e-value; ci04568: 35% identity, 2.89e-41 e-value). We examined the gene neighborhood of the two alsE candidates. The neighborhood of 180 181 ci04257 consisted mainly of genes encoding hypothetical proteins. On the other hand, 182 ci04568 was adjacent to phosphotransferase systems (PTS), which could potentially 183 perform the phosphorylation and import step of D-allulose utilization. In addition, the 184 neighboring genes are annotated with sugar metabolism functions, such as fructose 185 bisphosphate aldolase. Therefore, we hypothesized that ci04568 encodes an enzyme 186 that possibly performs a similar function to AlsE. Interestingly, the putative alsE gene 187 neighborhood in C. innocuum is completely divergent from the alsE gene neighborhood 188 in other species known to metabolize D-allulose, such as Klebsiella pneumoniae (Figure 189 **1B**).<sup>31</sup> Of note, this putative *alsE* was a core gene present in all 283/283 available C. innocuum genomes on NCBI, with all of them containing a nearly identical, if not identical, 190 191 homolog to *alsE* in 6 1 30.

192 We then sought to functionally validate the candidate alsE in C. innocuum by 193 cloning the gene into a pCW-lic vector backbone under an inducible tac promoter, 194 resulting in the pCW-lic C.inn alsE construct to heterologously express C. innocuum's 195 alsE in E. coli (Supplemental Figure 1). The plasmid was then transformed into the Keio 196 collection E. coli alsE knockout. The transformed bacteria were subsequently inoculated in D-allulose-supplemented M9 and induced *alsE*'s expression using IPTG.<sup>12</sup> The Keio 197 alsE knockout demonstrated no growth on D-allulose, while complementation of the C. 198 innocuum gene into the knockout restored function, resulting in growth on D-allulose 199 200 (Figure 3C and 3D).

#### 201 Few Gut Bacterial Species Encode AlsE

202 Once we experimentally verified the function of the *C. innocuum* and *E. coli* AlsE, we used ProkFunFind,<sup>38</sup> a bioinformatics pipeline to systematically search for AIsE in 203 204 bacteria. We used the experimentally verified AIsE protein sequences from K. pneumoniae MGH 78578, C. innocuum 6 1 30, and E. coli K-12 as queries to search the 205 206 85,202 non-redundant prokaryotic genomes from the Genome Taxonomy Database 207 (GTDB) for species that contained homologs to AlsE. We used a more stringent filtering 208 criteria compared to the preliminary search, filtering hits based on a 30% identity 209 threshold and a maximum e-value of 1e-100. Our search revealed 116 putative bacterial 210 species with AlsE (Supplemental Table 3, Figure 4). The vast majority of these species 211 were from the phylum Pseudomonadota (103/116), 10 were from the phylum Bacillota, 212 and 3 were from Fusobacteriota. Out of those 116 species, only 35 are known to be part 213 of the animal gut microbiota. Some known members of the human gut microbiome with 214 AlsE include Klebsiella oxytoca, Enterobacter cloacae, and Serratia marcescens. Other species with AlsE that are not gut-associated are primarily isolated from plants and soil,
including *Klebsiella planticola*,<sup>39</sup> *Rahnella aquatilis*,<sup>40</sup> and members of the *Kosakonia*genus.<sup>41,42</sup> Of note, none of the species that were unable to grow on D-allulose during our
initial investigation contained AlsE homologs, with the exception of *Escherichia coli* as
discussed before (*Bacteroides cellulosilytious*, *Lactobacillus reuteri*, *Clostridium symbiosum*, *Bifidobacterium adolescentis*, *Ruminococcus gnavus*).

#### 221 Presence of *alsE* in the healthy adult gut microbiome

222 To investigate the prevalence of *alsE* in the human gut microbiome, we examined 223 the presence and absence of alsE in 3,079 healthy adult human gut microbiomes that 224 passed quality checks. We built a reference database using both experimentally 225 characterized and bioinformatically discovered alsE, with thresholds of 30% identity and 226 1e-100 e-value. We then aligned healthy adult human stool metagenomic reads 227 downloaded from SRA to our alsE reference database and normalized the alignment 228 counts into counts per million. To strike a balance between spurious hits and sensitivity, 229 we considered any metagenomes with at least 1 count per million to contain alsE. 488 230 out of 3,079 metagenomes met our threshold for *alsE* presence, approximately 15.8%.

#### 231 Delineation of AlsE from Pentose-5-Phosphate 3-Epimerase

In order to elucidate the evolutionary origins of AlsE, we used a combination of phylogenetic analyses, ancestral state reconstruction, and sequence conservation. Using eggNOG-mapper (v6.0), we determined that AlsE belonged to the orthologous group COG0036 (pentose-5-phosphate 3-epimerase). We constructed a phylogenetic tree using the top 1,323 homologs of the 3 experimentally verified AlsE protein sequences against all COG0036 sequences. Based on branch lengths and the presence of the experimentally verified AlsE, we identified a putative AlsE clade that contains 515 sequences. We were able to identify conserved amino acid changes in the putative AlsE node from the ancestral node (**Figure 5A**), such as from G52 to S52, V134 to Y134, L142 to T142, and an N147 to D147 (**Figure 5B**). Based on the high entropy in the alignment at these positions, these are conserved changes and may differentiate AlsE from other pentose-5-phosphate 3-epimerases.

To determine putative catalytic residues, we performed a structural alignment of 244 245 the AlphaFold2-predicted structure of C. innocuum AlsE to the crystal structure of E. coli 246 AlsE (pdb: 3CT7). Based on the active site residues reported by Chan et al. 2008 in E. 247 coli AlsE, we determined that the putative active site residues in both Clostridium innocuum and Klebsiella pneumoniae are similar based on the structural alignment 248 (Figure 5C).<sup>29</sup> In C. innocuum, these putative residues are His 32, Asp 35, His 66, and 249 250 Asp 175, which align to His 34, Asp 36, His 67, and Asp 176 in E. coli, respectively. 251 Therefore, despite being distant homologs, C. innocuum likely shares similar catalytic 252 residues to *E. coli* AlsE.

### 253 **Discussion**

Many widely used commercial alternative sweeteners, such as sugar alcohols, are associated with significant gastrointestinal discomfort.<sup>12</sup> This discomfort arises from the malabsorption of these sweeteners, leading to osmotic diarrhea, and from fermentation by gut microbes, which produce gas.<sup>12</sup> Consequently, there is an urgent need to identify alternative sweeteners, such as D-allulose, that do not cause gastrointestinal symptoms. The presence of gut bacteria that can potentially metabolize D-allulose via D-

260 allulose-6-phosphate 3-epimerase (AIsE) has significant implications for its use as a 261 commercial alternative sweetener. Prior to our study, while D-allulose metabolism had 262 been identified in some human out bacteria, there had not been a systematic analysis of 263 the presence, abundance, and distribution of enzymes involved in D-allulose metabolism 264 across gut bacterial species - a knowledge gap that limited our understanding of how gut 265 bacteria utilize this sweetener. In our study, we demonstrated that *Clostridium innocuum* 266 can metabolize D-allulose through a homologous AlsE by examining its growth on D-267 allulose media. These findings shed light on the role of the gut microbiome in D-allulose 268 metabolism.

During the initial investigation for gut microbial species capable of growing on Dallulose as a sole carbon source, *C. innocuum* 6\_1\_30 grew on D-allulose as a sole carbon source while *E. coli* was unable to grow despite encoding *alsE* in its genome, which was intriguing. Past studies have shown that despite *E. coli* having *alsE* in its genome, its expression was too weak to support the production of D-allulose from Dfructose without genetic modifications.<sup>21,43</sup> This is consistent with our findings that the *E. coli* only grew on D-allulose when *alsE* was heterologously expressed, verified via the insertion of the respective *alsE* genes into the Keio *alsE* knockout mutant, which resulted
in *E. coli* gaining the ability to use D-allulose as a sole carbon source.

278 Our findings show that AIsE protein homologs are only present in a few gut 279 bacterial species. Out of 85,202 bacterial genomes from the GTDB, only 116 bacterial 280 species were annotated to contain AlsE homologs. Our finding that E. coli cannot grow 281 on D-allulose without heterologously expressing *alsE* suggests that some of these 116 species may not be able to metabolize D-allulose effectively. In addition, only 35 of these 282 species are known to be present in animal gut microbiomes. These data suggest that D-283 284 allulose utilization might be restricted to a small number of species within the human gut 285 microbiome. This finding is in alignment with the scarcity of D-allulose in nature. D-286 allulose has only been found in small quantities in a few plant species, such as Itea virginica and wheat.<sup>44,45</sup> Moreover, several of the bacterial species with putative alsE were 287 primarily isolated from plants such as wheat or maize, including Klebsiella planticola,<sup>39</sup> 288 Rahnella aquatilis,<sup>40</sup> and members of the Kosakonia genus.<sup>41,42</sup> We speculate that D-289 290 allulose metabolism may confer a metabolic advantage for these bacteria that live in 291 plant-associated habitats, where exposure to D-allulose is more likely. Alternatively, alsE 292 may have evolved primarily to confer D-allose metabolism, with D-allulose metabolism 293 being incidental.

Notably, the limited presence of *alsE* in gut microbiome species suggests that Dallulose may serve as a valuable alternative to common sugar substitutes, which are known to cause gastrointestinal discomfort and alter microbiome composition. Previous studies have reported that D-allulose can be consumed in relatively high doses, up to 0.5 g/kg body weight, without causing significant gastrointestinal issues.<sup>46</sup> Thus, the limited metabolism of D-allulose by gut bacteria, combined with its low impact on gastrointestinal function, suggests that it may offer a promising solution for individuals seeking low-calorie sweeteners without adverse digestive effects. Of note, approximately 15.8% of human metagenomes analyzed contained *alsE*, suggesting that individual gut microbiomes may respond differently to D-allulose consumption. Diabetic individuals looking to cut their glucose consumption may benefit from individual microbiome testing to choose the alternative sweetener that is less likely to be utilized by their gut microbiome.

Our study focuses on AlsE as an enzyme responsible for D-allulose metabolism, though we recognize the possibility of alternative mechanisms of D-allulose metabolism. To our knowledge, AlsE is the only currently known enzyme implicated in D-allulose metabolism in bacteria. However, there may be alternative mechanisms of bacterial Dallulose metabolism that are undiscovered, given the limited studies on the subject.<sup>28,31</sup> Due to this possibility of unknown alternative mechanisms, we cannot be certain of Dallulose's impact on gut microbiome composition at large.

In conclusion, we shed light on the taxonomic distribution of AlsE in the gut microbiota. We discovered that *C. innocuum* is capable of growing on D-allulose as a sole carbon source. In addition, while *E. coli* has *alsE*, it cannot grow on D-allulose without heterologously expressing *alsE*, suggesting that many of these bacteria do not necessarily grow on D-allulose as a sole carbon source. A relatively small fraction of gut microbes are capable of utilizing D-allulose, making it a promising alternative to commercially available sugar substitutes, such as sugar alcohols.

### 320 Methods

321 Identification of D-allulose-6-phosphate 3-epimerases in the GTDB genomes: All 322 representative genomes from the Genome Taxonomy Database (GTDB) (release r207) 323 were downloaded, and protein sequences for each genome were predicted using Prokka (version 1.14.6).<sup>34,47</sup> The Escherichia coli K-12, Klebsiella pneumoniae MGH78578, and 324 325 *Clostridium innocuum* 6 1 30 D-allulose-6-phosphate 3-epimerase protein sequences 326 were searched against 85,202 reference genomes using the ProkFunFind pipeline (v0.1.0).<sup>38</sup> The hits were filtered based on an 1e-100 e-value and 30% identity thresholds, 327 328 resulting in putative 126 AIsE amino acid sequences from 116 nonredundant genomes.

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330 Phylogenetic analyses: Sequences from the GTDB assigned to COG0036 were identified using eggNOG-mapper (version 2.1.3).<sup>48</sup> A BLASTp search was conducted (version 331 332 2.15.0+) using the identified D-allulose 6-phosphate 3-epimerases as gueries against 333 these identified sequences, setting a limit to the top 1,305 hits. Sequence alignment was performed using Clustal Omega (version 1.2.4).<sup>49,50</sup> Columns that have more than 97% 334 gaps were removed to enhance alignment guality using Goalign (version 0.3.7).<sup>51</sup> 335 336 Phylogenetic analysis was carried out using IQ-TREE (version 2.1.2) with default 337 parameters and model selection<sup>52</sup>. The reliability of the phylogenetic trees was evaluated using 1,000 ultrafast bootstrap replicates. Trees were visualized using the Interactive 338 339 Tree Of Life (iTOL).<sup>53</sup>

Ancestral sequence reconstruction was performed on the AlsE tree using GRASP (version 04-May-2023), with default parameters.<sup>54</sup> We then manually inspected the tree to delineate AlsE from other Pentose-5-phosphate 3-epimerases. We calculated the

entropy of the alignments using Goalign via the compute pssm function (v.0.3.7).<sup>51</sup> The
 figures were created using the Python package logomaker (v0.08).<sup>55</sup>

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346 *Growth of anaerobic bacteria:* Bacterial strains were acquired from the NIH Biodefense 347 and Emerging Infections Research Resources Repository (BEI). Each strain was 348 inoculated from a glycerol stock and grown under anaerobic conditions over a 24-hour 349 period at 37 °C in an anaerobic chamber (Coy Laboratory Products) in Brain-Heart 350 Infusion (BHI) broth (Research Products International, B11000) supplemented with 351 glucose. 25  $\mu$ L of the culture was inoculated into 4 mL of minimal media (M9) 352 supplemented with 10 mg/mL carbon source (glucose or D-allulose).<sup>12</sup>

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Absorbance Assay: The transformed Keio  $\Delta als E:: C$ . Innocuum als E & Keio  $\Delta als E:: E$ . coli 354 alsE constructs were shaken in Luria-Bertani (LB) supplemented with 100 µg/mL 355 carbenicillin (GoldBio, C-103-25) overnight at 37°C. 25 µL of the overnight culture was 356 357 inoculated in 4 mL triplicates of minimal media (M9) supplemented with 100µM Isopropyl β- d-1-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG, GoldBio, I2481C25), 100 µg/mL carbenicillin, 50 358 µg/mL kanamycin (Bio Basic, KB0286), and 10 mg/mL D-allulose<sup>12</sup> (Chem-Impex, 359 32353). For kinetic measurements, 250 µL of the triplicates were aliquoted into a 96-well 360 acrylic, clear bottom plate (Celltreat, 229592), sealed with a Breathe Easy membrane 361 362 (Electron Microscopy Sciences, 70536-10), and incubated at 37°C for 48-70 hours 363 depending on the strain observed. The end-point absorbance at 600 nm was measured 364 with a Spectramax M5 plate reader, with end-point bacterial growth calculated using a 365 ratio to the blank, with a ratio of 3 indicating significant growth.

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367 pCW-lic C.inn alsE & pCW-lic-E.coli alsE constructs: In order to achieve ectopic expression of alsE from Clostridium innocuum 6 1 30 and E. coli JW2760<sup>35</sup> in the 368 369 knockout mutants, the alsE gene was amplified and cloned into the pCW-lic vector 370 backbone (Addgene, 26098). Genomic DNA from C. innocuum and E. coli JW2760 was utilized in a polymerase chain reaction (PCR) using Phusion High-Fidelity DNA 371 Polymerase (NEB, M0530S) with the specific primers listed in Supplementary Table 1. A 372 Monarch PCR & DNA Cleanup Kit (NEB, T1030S) was used to purify the amplified 373 374 product. The pCW-lic vector backbone was digested with restriction enzymes Ndel (NEB, 375 R0111S) and HindIII-HF (NEB, R3104S), followed by purification with a Monarch PCR & 376 DNA Cleanup Kit. A Gibson assembly was completed using Gibson Assembly Master Mix 377 (NEB, E2611S) in accordance with the manufacturer's instructions. The resulting constructs were stored at -20°C until needed for use. 378

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*Keio-pCW construct:* The *alsE* gene was amplified and cloned into the pCW-lic vector backbone under a tac promoter and transformed into the Keio collection *als*E knockout as detailed above with the same primers outlined in Supplementary Table 1. For the control, an empty pCW-lic vector was cloned into the Keio *alsE* knockout.

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385 *Chemical competency:* The Keio collection *alsE* knockout was made competent using the 386 Mix & Go! *E. coli* Transformation Kit and Buffer Set (Zymo, T3001) in accordance with the 387 manufacturer's protocol and stored at -80°C until needed for use.

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389 *Transformation:* Both constructs were independently transformed into the chemically 390 competent Keio collection *alsE* knockout in accordance with the manufacturer's protocol 391 (Zymo, T3001). The resulting transformed cells were plated on LB agar plates 392 supplemented with 100  $\mu$ g/uL of carbenicillin. Successful transformation was validated 393 via Oxford Nanopore sequencing by Plasmidsaurus.

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395 Structural prediction and molecular docking: The structure for the Clostridium innocuum 6 1 30 AlsE was predicted using AlphaFold2 (v2.3.0).<sup>56</sup> Binding pockets were predicted 396 using fpocket (v4.0) with default parameters.<sup>57</sup> The pockets were compared to the 397 398 homologous Escherichia coli AlsE (3CT7) to identify putative substrate binding regions and catalytic residues.<sup>29</sup> The structure for D-allulose (PubChem compound identifier: 399 50909805) was docked onto the predicted AlsE structure using AutoDock Vina (v4.2).58,59 400 The docking simulation was performed within 15 Å × 15 Å × 15 Å cubes centered on the 401 402 center points of the chosen fpocket substrate binding pocket with exhaustiveness set to 403 32. Docking results were visualized using PyMOL.<sup>60</sup> We used Foldseek to identify the top structural homolog.<sup>61</sup> The predicted AlsE protein structure was aligned with the *E. coli* 404 405 3CT7, and the putative catalytic residues were identified based on the previous work by 406 Chan et al. 2008, using TM-Align.<sup>29,62</sup> Protein sequence conservation of AlsE was visualized using ConSurf based on the putative AlsE clade.<sup>63,64</sup> 407

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409 Profiling of alsE presence in the gut: To build the reference database, we used alsE
410 identified by ProkFunFind, which were filtered based on a threshold of e-value 1e-100
411 and percent identity 30%, resulting in a total of 126 sequences. We downloaded a

412 collection of adult healthy metagenomic biosamples that passed basic quality control 413 (n=3410) from SRA, and then trimmed adapters with Trim-Galore with default settings. 414 The reads were then mapped to a human reference (assembly T2T-CHM13v2.0) to identify potential contaminants and removed them using Samtools (v1.16).65 We removed 415 416 any samples with less than a million reads after curation, resulting in 3,079 samples, and then aligned the remaining reads to the *alsE* reference database using bowtie2 (v2.4.1).<sup>66</sup> 417 The number of reads mapped to the *alsE* reference was summarized by normalizing the 418 419 number of reads in the sample and then multiplying by one million to obtain counts per 420 million (cpm). If a biosample had multiple SRRs, we concatenated the read counts and 421 total reads across all SRRs per sample before calculating cpm. We considered samples with at least 1 cpm as containing *alsE*, to account for spurious alignments. 422

423

### 424 Author Statements

Author contributions: B.H. and X.J. conceptualized and supervised the project. All
authors performed the experiments and analyzed the data. G.M.N, A.J., C.R., and M.G.
wrote the original draft of the manuscript. All authors reviewed and edited the paper.

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#### 435

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- 438 Data and materials availability: The authors confirm that the data supporting the
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### 596 Figures



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Figure 1: A) Conversion of D-allulose-6-phosphate into D-fructose-6-phosphate by *alsE*. B) *alsE*cluster organization from *Klebsiella pneumoniae* MGH78578, *Clostridium innocuum* 6\_1\_30, and *Escherichia coli* K-12.



Figure 2: Identification of *Clostridium innocuum* 6\_1\_30 as a gut bacteria species that
can grow on allulose as a sole carbon source. A) Investigation of 7 gut bacteria species
(*Clostridium innocuum* 6\_1\_30, *Bacteroides cellulosilytious* - CL02T12C19, *Lactobacillus reuteri* CF48-3A, *Clostridium symbiosum* WAL-14163, *Escherichia coli* DC10B,

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606 Bifidobacterium adolescentis L2-32, Ruminococcus gnavus CC55 001C) for growth on 607 allulose as the sole carbon source. Each data point is the average of three technical 608 replicates from a single biological replicate per species. B) Growth curve of C. innocuum 609 6 1 30 on allulose with minimal media. Allulose is the growth curve of *C. innocuum* when 610 grown on allulose, while Glucose is a positive control of *C. innocuum* growing on glucose, and Blank refers to C. innocuum grown on blank media as a negative control. C) Growth 611 612 curve of E. coli DC10B (Col02) on allulose with minimal media.







616 **Figure 3:** A and B) Verification of the *Escherichia coli alsE* functionality. Keio  $\Delta alsE::E$ . 617 coli alsE + IPTG is the growth curve of the transformed Keio pCW-lic-E.coli alsE, 618 containing the wild-type E. coli alsE with IPTG to induce ectopic expression. Keio 619  $\Delta alsE::E. \ coli\ alsE$  is the growth curve of the transformed Keio E. coli without IPTG, 620 resulting in no gene expression. C and D) Verification of the Clostridium Innocuum 6 1 30 alsE functionality. Keio ΔalsE::C. Innocuum alsE + IPTG is the growth curve of 621 622 the transformed Keio pCW-lic C.Inn alsE, containing the C. innocuum alsE with IPTG to induce ectopic expression. Keio  $\Delta als E:: C$ . Innocuum als E is the growth curve of the same 623 624 transformed Keio E. coli without IPTG, resulting in reduced gene expression.



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- 626 **Figure 4:** Species tree showing the taxonomic distribution of AlsE in microbial genomes
- from GTDB, colored by order. The species tree was generated by pruning the GTDB
- 628 species tree using the Gotree prune command.<sup>51</sup>
- 629





Figure 5: A) Gene tree constructed from putative AlsE sequences and related enzymes annotated as pentose-5-phosphate-3-epimerase (COG0036), showing a possible delineation of the AlsE clade and the location of *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, *Clostridium innocuum*, and *Escherichia coli* AlsE. B) Diagram showing the change and conservation

(entropy) of residues in the putative AlsE clade, as well as the GRASP predicted ancestral
states of N129 (AlsE clade) and N91 (putative ancestral node). Residues with a predicted
conserved change from the ancestral state are labeled with a star. C) D-allulose docked
to the AlphaFold2-predicted structure of *C. innocuum* 6\_1\_30 AlsE, colored by amino acid
conservation via Consurf.

# 640 Supplementary Materials

#### 641



Supplementary Figure S1: Plasmid maps of constructs. A) pCW-lic vector backbone.31
B) pCW-lic\_C.inn\_*alsE* vector containing the D-Allulose-6-phosphate 3-Epimerase (*alsE*)
gene from *C. innocuum* ligated into the pCW-lic vector backbone via Gibson assembly.
C) pCW-lic-E.Coli\_*alsE* vector containing the *alsE* gene from *E. coli* ligated into the pCW-lic backbone. Pale green arrows represent an ampicillin resistance gene. Maps created
using SnapGene.

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## 654 **Supplementary Table 1: Primers used in construct development**

Strain		Sequence (5' > 3')
<i>C. innocuum</i> 6_1_30	Forward	CATCGATGCTTAGGAGGTCAAATGGAT
		ΑΤΑΑΑΑΑΤΑΤCACCATCTATC
	Reverse	TTGACAGCTTATCAGCGATATTATTTTC
		CAATTCCTGAAC
E. coli JW2760	Forward	CATCGATGCTTAGGAGGTCAAATGAAAA
		TCTCCCCCTCGTTAATG
	Reverse	TTGACAGCTTATCAGCGATATTATGCTG
		TTTTTGCATGAGGC

655

656 **Supplementary Table 2:** Predicted AlsE amino acid sequences identified with taxonomy

657 information.

658 **Supplementary Table 3:** Metadata on the metagenomics samples used in this study,

659 including SRA numbers and sample ids, along with the read mapping counts and total

660 reads.