Stepwise evolution of *E. coli* C and ΦX174 reveals unexpected lipopolysaccharide (LPS) diversity

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Abstract

Phage therapy is a promising method for the treatment of multi-drug-resistant bacterial infections. However, its long-term efficacy depends on understanding the evolutionary effects of the treatment. Current knowledge of such evolutionary effects is lacking, even in well-studied systems. We used the bacterium *Escherichia coli* C and its bacteriophage ΦX174, which infects cells using host lipopolysaccharide (LPS) molecules. We first generated 31 bacterial mutants resistant to ΦX174 infection. Based on the genes disrupted by these mutations, we predicted that these *E. coli* C mutants collectively produce eight unique LPS structures. We then developed a series of evolution experiments to select for ΦX174 mutants capable of infecting the resistant strains. During phage adaptation, we distinguished two types of phage resistance: one that was easily overcome by ΦX174 with few mutational steps ("easy" resistance), and one that was more difficult to overcome ("hard" resistance). We found that increasing the diversity of the host and phage populations could accelerate the adaptation of phage ΦX174 to overcome the hard resistance phenotype. From these experiments, we isolated 16 ΦX174 mutants that, together, can infect all 31 initially resistant *E. coli* C mutants. Upon determining the infectivity profiles of these 16 evolved phages, we uncovered 14 distinct profiles. Given that only eight profiles are anticipated if the LPS predictions are correct, our findings highlight that the current understanding of LPS biology is insufficient to accurately forecast the evolutionary outcomes of bacterial populations infected by phage.

Introduction

Multidrug-resistant bacterial infections are one of the most pressing issues in medicine, a situation that is only expected to worsen in the coming decades (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (U.S.) 2019; WHO 2021; Murray et al. 2022). An alternative to treating bacterial infections with antibiotics is phage therapy. Major research efforts are being conducted to develop efficient therapies (Oechslin 2018; Bull et al. 2019; Monteiro et al. 2019). An efficient therapy should be able to eliminate a pathogen without selecting for resistance to the phage being used to treat that pathogen. Phage resistance can often evolve by modifying the cell envelope to avoid phage adsorption. The outer membrane of all Gram-negative bacteria is covered in lipopolysaccharides (LPSs), which is consequently the first contact point between a bacterium and its environment (Zhang et al. 2013). LPS structure determines whether a bacterium will be recognized by the immune system, the efficiency of nutrient uptake as well as the susceptibility to antibiotics and, importantly, the susceptibility to phage infection (Nikaido 2003; Simpson and Trent 2019; Mutalik et al. 2020). Hence, LPS structure is an important factor determining the success of phage therapy.

The functions of genes involved in synthesizing and assembling bacterial LPS have been elucidated (Schnaitman and Klena 1993; Amor et al. 2000; Raetz and Whitfield 2002; Qian et al. 2014; Klein and Raina 2019). Most *Escherichia coli* strains produce LPS molecules composed of three parts: the lipid A, the core oligosaccharide (OS), and the O-antigen chain. The LPS core OS itself consists of a very conserved inner core across *E. coli* species and a variable outer core (Amor et al. 2000). Strains with the tripartite LPS molecules (lipid A, core OS, and O-antigen) are termed "smooth" (Raetz and Whitfield 2002). Some *E. coli* strains, however, produce LPS molecules that lack one or more components. LPS molecules lacking the O-antigen are classified as "rough", and molecules lacking both the O-antigen and the outer core OS as "deep rough" (van der Ley et al. 1986; Schnaitman and Klena 1993; Yethon et al. 1998; Whitfield et al. 1999; Amor et al. 2000; Klein et al. 2013). These modifications in LPS structure can lead to a plethora of phenotypic effects (Simpson and Trent 2019), including (i) destabilization of the outer membrane (Raetz and Whitfield 2002), (ii) changes in the expression of some outer membrane proteins, (iii) modification of intracellular turgor pressure (Pagnout et al. 2019), (iv) increased susceptibility to hydrophobic compounds such as antimicrobial peptides, antibiotics, and bacteriocins (van der Ley et al. 1986; Schnaitman and Klena 1993; Yethon et al. 1998; Whitfield et al. 1999; Amor et al. 2000; Klein et al. 2013), (v) altered interactions with the

host immune system (Raetz and Whitfield 2002; Matsuura 2013; Maldonado et al. 2016), (vi) alteration

of the redox status of cells leading to oxidative stress (Seregina et al. 2022), and (vii) changes in

resistance to phages (Hancock and Reeves 1976; Labrie et al. 2010; Kulikov et al. 2019; Mutalik et al.

2020).

Phage ΦX174 is a small (~320 Å), tailless, lytic coliphage from the *Microviridae* family. It carries a

circular, single-stranded DNA genome of only 5386 bases long that encodes 11 genes (Sinsheimer

1959; Sanger et al. 1978). To enter a host cell, ΦX174 relies solely on attaching to the core OS by one

of its spike proteins before migrating and irreversibly adsorbing to the host's cell surface via its capsid

(Incardona and Selvidge 1973; Incardona et al. 1985; Sun et al. 2017). ΦX174 does it with a high

degree of specificity. For instance, among 783 different *E. coli* isolates, only six (0.8 %) could be

infected by wildtype ΦX174 (Michel et al. 2010). In the laboratory, ΦX174 infects - and hence is

usually grown on - *E. coli* C, which produces rough type (*i.e.*, lacking in O-antigen) LPS molecules

(Feige, Ulrich and Stirm, Stephan 1976; Inagaki et al. 2000; Kawaura et al. 2000; Król et al. 2019)

(**Figs. 1 and S1**).

Fig. 1. Structure of *E. coli* C's rough type LPS. The rough type LPS of *E. coli* C is composed of

two parts: lipid A (composed of an acetylated and 1,4'-diphosporylated β(1→6)-linked glucosamine

(GlcN) disaccharide), and the core oligosaccharide (Raetz and Whitfield 2002). The core

oligosaccharide is subdivided into a structurally conserved inner core and an outer core. The dashed

lines show non-stochiometric substitutions of phosphate (P), ethanolamine (EtNP), and 3-deoxy-D-

manno-octulosonic acid (Kdo) residues on the LPS (Kojima et al. 2010). Details of the LPS assembly

process are provided in **Fig. S1**.

Here, we explore the evolutionary potential of *E. coli* C to become resistant to infection by ΦX174

and, conversely, the potential of ΦX174 mutants to infect phage-resistant *E. coli* C hosts with modified

LPS structures. We first generated a set of 31 *E. coli* C mutants that are resistant to infection by ΦX174

wildtype and determined that each mutant carries at least one mutation affecting LPS biosynthesis.

The currently accepted model for predicting LPS structure posits that the presence or absence of each

LPS gene leads to a single LPS phenotype. Based on the position of each mutation, the one-gene-one-

phenotype model allows us to predict the LPS structure of each of our LPS mutants. Our 31 *E. coli* C

mutants collectively produce LPS molecules with eight distinct structures. To test the accuracy of

these predictions, we evolved and genotypically characterized a set of 16 ΦX174 genotypes that can,

together, infect all initially resistant 31 *E. coli* C mutants. If the LPS structure predictions are correct,

then all bacteria predicted to carry the same LPS structure should be susceptible to the same set of

phages. Interestingly, this was not always the case, indicating that the diversity of LPS structures

generated by LPS-pathway mutations is much higher than anticipated from previous studies. Bacterial

strains with different mutations in the same LPS gene sometimes have strikingly different infection

phenotypes. Even the required number of phage mutations to overcome these resistances can differ

significantly. A better understanding of the evolution of phage resistance hence requires a better

understanding of the biology and evolution of LPS structures.

Results

Diverse LPS structures confer resistance to ΦX174 infection

To study LPS diversity in *E. coli* C, we generated 35 spontaneous phage-resistant strains and used

whole genome re-sequencing to identify the mutations conferring resistance (see **Methods**). Due to a

lack of isogeneity or only partial resistance to wildtype ΦX174, four of these strains (*E. coli* C R1, R3,

R15, and R19) were excluded from downstream analyses (see **Text S1**). Of the remaining 31 strains,

27 are predicted to carry a single mutation, three carry two mutations, and one carries three mutations

(see **Table S1**). A total of 36 mutations were identified, 32 of which are unique (including 15 nucleotide

substitutions, 13 deletions, one duplication, and three IS*4* and IS*5* insertion events). Twenty-four (of

32, or 75%) mutations introduce premature stop codons or lead to frameshifts and thus are highly likely to disrupt gene function.

Interestingly, two mutations are shared by two strains (R27/R31 and R8/R10), and one mutation is shared by three strains (R4/R24/R29). Given that there are almost limitless ways to disrupt gene function, this high degree of parallelism is initially surprising. We note that the repetition of these mutations is unlikely to result from their positive selection. That is, phage-resistant *E. coli* C mutants of both low and high fitness are expected to have an equal chance of appearing on our agar plates as long as they can form visible colonies (Luria and Delbrück 1943). Presumably, the observed parallelism is, instead, due to elevated mutation rates at particular genomic positions (Lind et al. 2019). The fact that two of three parallel mutations occur in homopolymeric tracts supports this hypothesis (Moxon et al. 1994).

Mutations in genes encoding the LPS machinery are expected to lead to changes in LPS structure and, in some cases, a switch from a rough to a deep rough phenotype (Yethon et al. 1998; Whitfield et al. 1999; Yethon et al. 2000). It has been shown that logical predictions of mutant LPS structures can be made. If an enzyme that synthesizes a particular LPS component is absent or non-functional, then that LPS component cannot be synthesized. In addition, LPS components assembled downstream of the missing component are also absent from the final LPS structure. The assumption that each mutation in an LPS gene leads to a complete lack of function allows us to predict the LPS structure and type of each of the 31 *E. coli* C phage-resistant mutants (**Figs. 2**, **S1**, **S2 and Table S1**). A total of seven emergent LPS structures were predicted from our set of mutants (**Fig. 2**). Compared with the *E. coli* C wildtype LPS, three of these seven LPS structures carry alterations in the outer-core LPS and hence are predicted to be of the rough type (as is wildtype *E. coli* C; ten mutants). The remaining four LPS structures differ from wildtype LPS in both the inner- and outer-core LPS, and are presumed to be of the deep rough type (twenty mutants) (see **Table S1**).

The LPS structure and type of the remaining mutant (*E. coli* C R25) were not predicted because the effect of the phage-resistance mutation on LPS biosynthesis remains unclear. R25 carries a nonsense mutation in *rfaH*. The *rfaH* gene encodes a transcriptional antiterminator that regulates the *waa* operon (Bailey et al. 1997; Klein and Raina 2019), meaning that any number of LPS biosynthetic genes could potentially be affected by this mutation.

Fig. 2. Predicted LPS structures of 30 ΦX174-resistant *E. coli* C strains. Predicted LPS structures fall into two groups depending on their degree of truncation and/or loss of phosphate groups: the "deep rough" phenotype with a completely truncated outer core or a loss of phosphate groups (twenty *E. coli* C mutants) and the "rough" phenotype with smaller LPS truncations located in the outer core (ten *E. coli* C mutants). The LPS phenotype of the final *E. coli* C mutant (R25) could not be predicted (see text). The products of genes in red are also involved in LPS biosynthesis and, although no mutations were identified in these genes during this study, are also potential targets for phage resistance. Details on the functions of *gmhA*, *gmhB*, *gmhD*, *hldE*, *galU*, and *galE* are provided in **Fig. S2**. "?P": No information was found on the phosphorylation of Hep(I) in the absence of *waaF*; (P): only 40% of the hexose phosphorylation was observed (Yethon et al. 2000); R#: the number gave to each *E. coli* C resistant strain; "*, **, ***, °, °°": symbols link the resistant strains (R#) to particular mutated LPS genes (Δ*gene-names*). Resistant strains with identical symbols carry their mutations in the same LPS gene. For example, [R8, R10, R26, R27, R31, and R32]-strains each carry a mutation in the *hldE* gene, and [R9, R23, and R28]-strains all carry a mutation in the *waaG* gene (**Table S1**).

183 The LPS structure predictions above can be tested by evolving wildtype ΦX174 to specifically infect
184 *E. coli* C cells with modified LPS structures. That is, a phage that can infect a given modified LPS
185 structure is expected to be able to infect all bacterial strains displaying this LPS type, regardless of the
186 underlying mutations. Alternatively, the inability of mutant phages to cross-infect bacterial strains of
187 the same predicted LPS structural class (but via different mutations) would indicate that these
188 mutations actually lead to distinct LPS structures.

190 **ΦX174 evolves to overcome host resistance, a process that can be accelerated by host diversity**
191 Phages that can infect resistant *E. coli* C mutants were evolved by serially transferring wildtype ΦX174
192 on each of the 31 resistant *E. coli* C strains (**Fig. 3A and Methods**). To reduce the complexity of the
193 experiment, bacterial cultures were not allowed to co-evolve. Instead, phages were inoculated into
194 fresh, exponentially growing host cultures at each transfer. The experiment gave rise to 12 evolved
195 phages that were collectively able to infect 21 (of the 31) initially resistant *E. coli* C strains (these display
196 the "easy" resistant phenotype; see **Table S1**). However, even after 21 transfers, ten (of 31) resistant
197 *E. coli* C strains remained uninfected (the "hard" resistant phenotype; see **Table S1**).

199 Overcoming phage resistance of this subset of hard-resistant strains may not be achievable with few
200 mutational steps. Hence, either the evolution experiment has to be performed for a much longer
201 period of time, or an experiment that increases the genetic variation available to evolution has to be
202 designed (Hermisson and Pennings 2005; Barrett and Schluter 2008). We designed two further
203 evolution experiments, one to increase genetic diversity and another one to additionally increase the
204 speed of evolution by increasing the number of phage generations per day (**Figs. 3B and 3C**). In both
205 of these experiments, phage diversity was increased by combining all evolved phage strains that
206 successfully reinfected their corresponding resistant strains into a single phage cocktail (Hermisson
207 and Pennings 2005; Barrett and Schluter 2008). The phage cocktail was serially transferred once per
208 day in the overall second evolution experiment, while four transfers per day were performed in the
209 third evolution experiment. Phage diversity was maintained from one transfer to another by adding
210 all corresponding resistant strains to the host culture (see **Methods**). At the end of the evolution
211 experiments, all resistant strains could be cross-infected by at least one of the evolved phage mutants.
212 Our method of evolving phages with an extended infection range is simple and effective and allows
213 the successful evolution and retrieval of phages that, together, can infect all of the 31 resistant *E. coli*
214 C phenotypes.

Fig. 3. Three phage evolution experiments used to overcome *E. coli* C resistance to wildtype ΦX174. A. First evolution experiment (standard): 31 independent lineages, each founded by ΦX174 wildtype, were serially transferred daily for up to 21 days (21 transfers). Phages were grown on non-evolving (i.e., freshly prepared at each transfer) host cultures containing a mixture of *E. coli* C wildtype and one of the 31 initially resistant strains (see **Table S1**). The presence of *E. coli* C wildtype was necessary to propagate ΦX174 and avoid its dilution from one transfer to another. Phages capable of infecting the initially resistant host strain were isolated from 12 lineages. Three control lineages were included, where ΦX174 was cultured on only *E. coli* C wildtype. **B.** Second evolution experiment (increased diversity). A cocktail of ΦX174 wildtype and 14 evolved ΦX174 strains was generated (panel A – the two evolved phages infecting R5 and R19 were part of the final cocktail but removed from the mutational analysis, see **Text S1**). The phage cocktail was transferred daily for up to four days, on non-evolving host cultures containing: (i) *E. coli* C wildtype, (ii) the 14 host strains for which resistance had been overcome (permissive hosts), and (iii) an excess of one of the still-resistant strain of interest (non-permissive host). Phages capable of infecting two resistant strains of interest (*galU* and *waaG* mutants) were isolated from two lines. **C.** Third evolution experiment (increased diversity

and generations). The same cocktail used for the second evolution experiment (panel B) was
transferred four times daily for four days (i.e., a maximum of 16 transfers) on non-evolving host
cultures containing: (i) *E. coli* C wildtype, (ii) the 14 strains for which resistance had been overcome
(permissive hosts), and (iii) one of the still-resistant strain of interest (non-permissive host). Notably,
all transfers completed on the same day involved transferring both phage and bacteria; supernatants
were collected on every fourth transfer, and only phages were transferred. Phages capable of infecting
two resistant strains of interest (*waaP/pssA* mutants) were isolated from two lines. Details of the
evolved phages are presented in **Table S2**, and further methodological details are provided in
Methods.

Increasing both phage and host diversities in the second and third evolution experiments accelerated
the adaptation of ΦX174 to resistant *E. coli* C strains. While our experiment quickly gave rise to phages
able to infect most non-permissive strains (**Fig. 4A**), some phage-resistant hosts could only be infected
when both host and phage diversities were increased (**Figs. 4B and 4C**).

Fig. 4. Increased host diversity facilitates viral adaptation. A. ΦX174 wildtype evolves on *E. coli*

C wildtype and an easy-resistant *E. coli* C strain. Adaptation to the resistant mutant is fast and only

requires a few transfers. **B.** ΦX174 wildtype evolves on *E. coli* C wildtype and a hard-resistant *E. coli*

C strain that it failed to infect within 21 standard serial transfers. Infecting this resistant strain may be

difficult and take a long time. **C.** ΦX174 wildtype evolves in a three-host mix containing *E. coli* C

wildtype and two *E. coli* C resistant strains: one easy and one hard. Phage adapts quickly to the easy-

resistant phenotype. If the infection of the easy-resistant strain leads to the production of an

evolutionary intermediate phage, then the hard phenotype can be infected after a few more transfers.

If no evolutionary intermediate phage is produced, then no phage evolves to infect the hard-resistant

E. coli C strain.

To identify the mutation(s) responsible for the re-infection of the resistant mutants, we performed
whole genome re-sequencing on the 16 evolved phages that successfully overcame the corresponding
resistance in one of the three evolution experiments (see **Methods**). We found mutations in *F* and/or
H genes in all 16 evolved phages (**Table S2**). Notably, all hard-resistant *E. coli* C strains - those whose
resistance was overcome in the second and/or third evolution experiments - are only infected by
phages carrying four mutations (see **Tables S1 and S2**).

The evolutionary emergence of a multi-mutation phage in a two-strain evolution experiment is
expected to require a large number of transfers (**Fig. 4B**). However, this process is significantly
accelerated by propagating a diverse mixture of phages. If some of the phages are evolutionary
intermediates (i.e., carry a subset of mutations required to overcome hard resistance) then the
mutations required to overcome hard resistance can emerge in a single mutational step, either by
recombination (Rokyta et al. 2006) or by adding mutation to an existing set (**Fig. 4C**). For example,
the hard-resistant strain *E. coli* C R22 (a *galU* mutant; see **Table S1**) is overcome in the second
evolution experiment by ΦX174 R22 T1, a phage that carries four mutations (three in *F*, one in *H*;
see **Table S2**). Each of these mutations was present in the phage cocktail used to initiate the
evolutionary lineage: ΦX174 R18 T4 and ΦX174 R8 T6 contain three of the four mutations, and the
final mutation is found in ΦX174 R10 T6. The evolved phage infecting R22 may, therefore, be the
product of a recombination event between ΦX174 R10 T6 and ΦX174 R18 T4 (or ΦX174 R8 T6).
Alternatively, ΦX174 R18 T4 or ΦX174 R8 T6 could have acquired a single additional mutation.
Thus, adaptation to certain easy-resistant LPS phenotypes yields evolutionary intermediate phages that
can recombine or acquire a few additional mutations to infect a hard-resistant LPS structure.

Our results show that high host diversity can facilitate the evolution of phages to infect resistant
strains. In contrast, Sant et al. showed that high host diversity hinders phage evolution (Sant et al.
2021). The major difference between the experiments is the difficulty of the evolutionary problem
posed. Sant et al. only evolved phages to infect easy-resistant strains, strains that could be infected by
phages after seven to eight transfers through the acquisition of a few mutations. Evolutionary
intermediates will not be required in this situation (**Fig. 4A**). However, as we show here, it is very
difficult to infect hard-resistant strains starting with low phage and host diversities (**Fig. 4B**). Hence,
increasing the host diversity will accelerate the evolution of phage adaptation under conditions where
the additional hosts allow the evolution of intermediate phage phenotypes (**Fig. 4C**).

ΦX174 overcomes *E. coli* C resistance by mutations in the F capsid and H minor spike proteins

The 16 evolved phages collectively carry 40 mutations, 15 of which are unique (**Fig. 5A and Table S2**). All are non-synonymous and occur in either *F* (encoding the viral capsid) or *H* (encoding the minor spike protein involved in viral DNA injection) genes (**Figs. 5B and 5C**). The majority of phages (13 of 16) carry between two and four mutations (**Fig. 5D**). These results are consistent with previous studies demonstrating that mutations in *F* and *H* are relevant for the adaptation of ΦX174 to novel hosts (Weisbeek et al. 1973; Crill et al. 2000; Cox and Putonti 2010).

Fig. 5. Adaptation of ΦX174 to resistant strains of *E. coli* C. A. Positions of all predicted amino acid changes in the F (viral capsid; coloured in cyan) and H (minor spike; coloured in yellow) proteins observed in the 16 evolved ΦX174 strains. No mutation was found in the G protein (major spike; coloured in magenta) despite being an integral part of ΦX174's recognition system and the first contact point with the LPS structure (Kawaura et al. 2000; Sun et al. 2017). **B.** Substitution matrix of

all amino acid changes observed in ΦX174. ΦX174 strains are ordered based on the predicted LPS

structures they infected during the evolution experiments (A-F: overcame heptoseless *waaC* and *hldE*

mutants; G-L: overcame *waaO* mutants; M-N: overcame *galU* and *waaG* mutants; O: overcame

waaP/*pssA* mutant; P: overcame *rfaH* mutant). The solid blue lines separate the evolved phages

according to the evolution experiment from which they were isolated (A-L: first; M-N: second; O-P:

third). The x-axis shows amino acid substitutions in the F and H proteins (separated by the dashed

line), R# indicates the resistant bacterial strain the phage evolved on, and T# is the number of

transfers required to overcome host resistance. **C.** Location of protein changes on the ΦX174 three-

dimensional structure. The F capsid proteins are coloured in cyan, and the G major spike proteins are

in magenta. Residues affected by the mutations in this study are in red and shown for one F capsid

unit only. The G protein spike (above that pictured here) has been removed to improve visualisation.

The image was generated using Geneious Prime (version 2020.1.2) and Protein Data Bank accession

code 2BPA (McKenna et al. 1992). Changes in the H protein cannot be displayed as they all occur

outside of the currently determined crystallographic structure. **D.** Barplot of the number of evolved

phage isolates carrying 1, 2, 3, 4 mutations. Most phage isolates – particularly those isolated from the

second and third evolution experiments – carry multiple mutations.

Parallel evolution was common in our evolved phages, particularly in the control lines and the lineages

that failed to infect their corresponding resistant *E. coli* C strains during the first evolution experiment

(see **Table S3**). Of the three controls and 15 resistant lines that remained uninfected by their own

phage, a total of 33 mutations were detected, but only ten were unique. All these mutations are located

in the *F* gene, except one in the *A*/*A** genes. *A* gene is involved in the stage II and III of phage DNA

replication (Barrell et al. 1976; Sanger et al. 1978), while the *A** gene is a non-essential gene that may

play a role in the inhibition of host cell DNA replication and superinfection exclusion (Eisenberg and

Ascarelli 1981). The mutation in the *F* gene at genomic position 2280 (causing amino acid change

S427L in the F protein) arose in 13 lineages. Among them, nine (69 %) carry between one to three

additional mutations. High degrees of parallel evolution have also previously been observed in ΦX174

wildtype strains and other viruses (Bull et al. 1997; Wichman et al. 1999; Remold et al. 2008; Bertels

et al. 2019; Bertels et al. 2021) and is an indicator of either (i) a low number of mutational targets with

similar high fitness gains (many more targets with lower fitness may exist but these will not be

outcompeted by the high fitness mutants), or (ii) mutational bias towards certain positions in the

genome (Lind et al. 2019; Bertels et al. 2021). While these substitutions may not allow the infection of

resistant *E. coli* C strains, they are probably adaptations to our evolution experiment.

We also observed high levels of parallel evolution in the phage strains (isolates) that evolved to infect

E. coli C mutants with the same predicted LPS phenotype (**Figs. 5A and 5B**). Parallelism was especially

remarkable among phages infecting the four bacterial strains with the shortest (deep rough

heptoseless) predicted LPS structure (see **Fig. 2**). The four phages infecting *E. coli* C R18, R8, R10,

and R26 all carry an amino acid substitution at position 154 in the F protein (either Q154K or Q154R).

In addition, the two phage strains adapted to the *E. coli* C mutants R8 (*hldE* mutant) and R18 (*waaC*

mutant) also carry the mutations Y103H in the F protein and A68T in the H protein. Finally, while *E.*

coli C R27 and R31 both became resistant via the same amino acid substitution in HldE (G27A), their

corresponding phages evolved similarly by each acquiring a different mutation that led to the same

change at the protein level (G91V in the H protein).

Parallel evolution was also observed in phages infecting bacteria within several other classes of

predicted LPS structure. For example, the mutation at position 116 in the F protein (either D116G or

D116S) occurred in four different phages all infecting different *waaO* mutants (**Figs. 5A and 5B,**

Table S2). Parallel evolution in phages that evolved to infect *E. coli* C strains with the same predicted

LPS structure generally supports the predicted classes of LPS structure. However, analyses in the

following section demonstrate that LPS structure predictions generally underestimate LPS diversity.

Evolved phages can be used to discriminate between LPS phenotypes

To determine precisely which of the 16 evolved phages can infect which of the 31 initially resistant *E.*

coli C strains each (i.e., the infection pattern of each phage), a cross-infection assay was performed

(**Fig. S3**). This involved measuring the infectivity of all possible host-phage combinations by two

distinct methods: (i) phage spotting on host lawns and (ii) host spotting on phage lawns. In cases

where a mismatch between the two results was observed, standard plaque assays were additionally

applied (see **Methods**).

If our predictions – based on the current understanding in the literature – of seven distinct LPS

structures among the 31 initially resistant *E. coli* C strains are accurate (see **Fig. 2 and Table S1**), then

all phages that evolved to infect a mutant with a given predicted LPS structure are expected to cross-

infect all other host strains with the same predicted LPS structure. That is, the infection patterns in

Fig. S3 would be identical for each class (colour) of *E. coli* C mutant.

To visually determine whether infection patterns cluster according to the predicted LPS structures, a

hierarchical agglomerative clustering analysis was performed on the infection matrix in **Fig. S3**. Of

the six predicted LPS structures that occur in at least two *E. coli* C mutants, three form unbroken

clusters with respect to infectivity patterns (cyan, light purple, and dark purple highlighting in **Fig. 6**)

and three do not (magenta, yellow, green highlighting). Each group is discussed in more detail below.

Fig. 6. Hierarchical agglomerative clustering analysis of the host ranges of evolved phage. To

unravel structures in the heatmap infection matrix (see **Fig. S3**), we performed a clustering analysis

using the default settings of the Seaborn library (version 0.11.2) for Python (version 3.7.4). Briefly,

each data point corresponds to either presence (dark blue) or absence (light blue) of phage infections

determined from the combination of the different spotting test assays' results (**Methods**). The linkage

method computes the distance between them, then repeatedly combines the two nearest clusters into

larger clusters until a single cluster is left. *E. coli* C strains are coloured based on their predicted core

LPS structure (see **Fig. 2**). Phage names in black were obtained during the first 21 serial transfers (first

evolution experiment). Phage strains in blue were obtained in the second evolution experiment (phage

cocktail, one transfer per day). Phage strains in red were obtained in the third evolution experiment

(phage cocktail, four transfers per day). Dark blue squares=infection, light blue square=no infection,

coloured square=control infection by a phage evolved on that host. R# indicates the number of the

resistant strain the phage evolved on, and T# is the transfer number where plaques were first observed.

"?": core LPS structure of *E. coli* C R25 (*rfaH* mutant) could not be predicted. "INS": insertion.

"DUP": duplication. "stop": stop codon. "Δ": deletion. Examples: L249fsTer#263 indicates a

frameshift (fs) leading to a premature codon stop (Ter); the position of the premature stop codon is

in parentheses. S75_L78ins(377) indicates an insertion; the two flanking amino acids are separated by

a "_" and followed by the number of inserted amino acids in parentheses. Δ(A99-E105) indicated

deletion; two flanking amino acids are separated by a "-". P242_A276dup(34) indicates a duplication;

the two flanking amino acids are separated by a "_" and followed by the number of duplicated amino

acids in parentheses.

LPS predictions that cluster by infection pattern. The identical ΦX174 mutants R22 T1 and R28 T1 that

evolved to infect resistant strains with mutations in *galU* (*E. coli* C R22) and *waaG* (*E. coli* C R28) can

cross-infect all eight *E. coli* C mutants predicted to exhibit the same LPS structure (*E. coli* C R9, R16,

R17, R22, R23, R28, R30, R35; highlighted in cyan in **Figs. 6 and S3**). Furthermore, both *E. coli* C

waaW mutants (R2 and R34; light purple) are cross-infected by the same three evolved phage

genotypes (R6 T12, R13 T6, R25 T4). Also, both *E. coli* C *waaF* mutants (R12 and R14; dark purple)

are infected by a near-identical set of seven (R12) or six (R14) phages. In each of these cases, phage

infectivity patterns appear to be a good indicator of host LPS phenotype.

LPS predictions that do not cluster by infection pattern. Six of the seven *E. coli* C *waaO* mutants (highlighted

in magenta in **Figs. 6 and S3**) can be cross-infected by the same set of 13 phages. The seventh *waaO*

mutant (*E. coli* C R7) was the only *waaO* mutant for which the corresponding phage lineage did not

evolve to infect the resistant mutant in the first evolution experiment. It can only be infected by the

phage infecting R26 and phages that evolved in the second and third evolution experiments (**Fig. 6**).

Hence, it is likely that the LPS structure of R7 differs from that of the other *waaO* mutants. The

difference could conceivably result from residual (or altered) WaaO function; *E. coli* C R7 carries an

in-frame deletion of a 6-bp repeat in *waaO*, which alters two WaaO residues but leaves the remainder

of the protein intact (see **Table S1**). Because R7 is close to the *galU/waaG* mutants (**Figs. 6**), it may

be possible that its LPS structure resembles the ones of the *galU/waaG* mutants. However, more

detailed LPS studies are needed to elucidate the LPS structure of R7.

The infection patterns of the two *waaP* mutants *E. coli* C R6 and R11 (highlighted in yellow in **Figs. 6**

and S3) also suggest that, in contrast to the prediction, these strains possess different LPS structures.

R6 is infected by a single phage that evolved directly on host R6 (phage R6 T12 from the third

evolution experiment), while R11 is cross-infected by two different phages (phage R13 T6 from the

first evolution experiment and phage R25 T4 from the third evolution experiment). *E. coli* C R6 was

the last resistant strain to be infected by an evolved phage, and the evolved phage infecting R6 cannot

cross-infect R11.

The R11 mutation introduces a premature codon stop at the beginning of the *waaP* gene (**Fig. 6 and**

Table S1). *WaaP* is special because it is not required for completing the backbone structure of the

LPS (Yethon et al. 1998). The deletion of this gene should, therefore, lead to a unique LPS structure

(see **Fig. 2**). Instead, the cluster map analysis indicates that R11 displays an LPS phenotype comparable

to the rough LPS phenotype of R33, a *waaT* mutant (**Fig. 6**). These similarities may be caused by a

polar effect of the R11 mutation in *waaP* on *waaT* downstream. This effect may have resulted in a

decrease or an alteration of *waaT* activity leading to a truncation of the outer core LPS similar to the

one in R33.

The combination of phages that can infect each of the eight heptoseless *E. coli* C mutants predicted

to have the shortest LPS structure (**Fig. 2**; green highlighting in **Figs. 6 and S3**) is remarkably

different. These *E. coli* C strains cluster into four different phenotypic sub-groups (**Fig. 6**). The first

sub-group consists of *E. coli* C R8, R10, R18, and R26. Each of these strains can be cross-infected by

their corresponding evolved phages, regardless of their genotypes (a mixture of *waaC* or *hldE* mutants).

However, none of the four evolved phages can cross-infect *E. coli* C R27 or R31 (*hldE* mutants). *E.*

coli C R27 and R31 comprise the second sub-group. Both *E. coli* C R27 and R31 and their

corresponding evolved phages acquired identical genotypes and, not surprisingly, they also share

phenotypes. *E. coli* C R5 (*gmhB* mutant) and *E. coli* C R32 (*hldE* mutant) fall into a third and a fourth

sub-groups. *E. coli* C R32 is the only heptoseless mutant for which the corresponding phage lineage

failed to infect during the first evolution experiment. Only a very narrow but different set of evolved

phages can infect R5 and R32 (**Figs. 6 and S3**).

A total loss of function in *hldE* or *waaC* genes always leads to a complete truncation of the inner core

LPS (**Fig. S2A**). Thus, the involvement of these two genes in the production of the deep rough

phenotypes (highlighted in green in **Figs. 6 and S3**) cannot explain the vast phenotypic diversity in

LPS structures. For example, *E. coli* C R8, R10, R18, and R26 belong to the same phenotypic group

despite having both *hldE* or *waaC* mutated, while R27, R31, and R32 (all *hldE* mutants) do not belong

to this group (**Fig. 6 and Table S1**). Instead, the location and type of mutation are more likely to

cause the observed LPS structure diversity.

Interestingly, HldE is a bifunctional protein, where each function is performed by a different domain:

HldE1 (from M1 to T318) and HldE2 (from M344 to G477) (Valvano et al. 2000; Kneidinger et al.

2002; Raetz and Whitfield 2002; McArthur et al. 2005). Each domain has the potential to affect the

LPS structure, but all four unique *hldE* mutations occur within the first domain only, resulting in at

least three different LPS phenotypes (**Fig. 6 and Table S1**). These LPS phenotypes are caused by

three different types of mutations (duplication, missense mutations, and frameshift) in different parts

of the same domain. Yet, there is no obvious correlation between the LPS phenotypes and mutation

positions and/or types. The phenotypic diversity produced by these mutations in a single domain of

a single gene is surprising and highlights our extremely limited understanding of LPS biology.

The mutated *gmhB* gene in *E. coli* C R5 is involved in the production of yet another deep rough

phenotype. Previous research demonstrated that the deletion of *gmhB* only causes a partial defect in

the synthesis of the LPS core, resulting in the formation and co-existing of a heptoseless and a heptose-

rich form of LPS molecules (Kneidinger et al. 2002). The *gmhB* mutation in R5 is an early frameshift

leading to a premature stop codon. Hence, we assume that the effect is similar to what was found by

Kneidinger et al., a mix of deep rough and wildtype LPS molecules on the outer bacterial cell

membrane. This hypothesis is supported by the fact that R5 most closely clusters with the wildtype in

our infection matrix.

Linking phage genotype to phenotype

Phage infectivity patterns (host ranges) can be used to construct phage genotype-phenotype maps.

For example, every phage strain that loses the ability to infect *E. coli* C wildtype has a combination of

two mutations: A68T in the H protein and Q154K/R in the F protein (**Figs. 5B and 6**). In isolation,

A68T confers the ability to infect *waaO* mutants and Q154K/R to infect [R8, R18, R10, R26]-

heptoseless mutants. The two mutations combined allow the phage to infect both heptoseless and

waaO mutants, but cannot infect the *E. coli* C wildtype (**Figs. 5B and 6**). ΦX174 R25 T4 is the only

phage that can infect all three genotypes: *waaO*, the [R8, R18, R10, R26]-heptoseless mutants, and *E.*

coli C wildtype. Presumably, because this phage does not contain the Q154K/R mutation and instead

uses another set of mutations that allows R25 to infect [R8, R18, R10, R26]-heptoseless mutants

(**Table S2**).

Discussion

Our experiments have shown that *E. coli* C can become resistant to ΦX174 infection through

mutations in genes involved in the LPS biosynthesis or assembly. ΦX174 can, in turn, evolve to

reinfect initially resistant *E. coli* C strains by acquiring mutations in genes involved in host recognition

or DNA injection. Similar to ΦX174 wildtype, the evolved phages are highly host-specific and hence

can be used to distinguish between bacteria with different LPS structures. Such high host specificity

allows testing of the currently accepted LPS structure model, where LPS structures are determined by

the presence and absence of LPS synthesis and assembly genes. Our data on phage infectivity show

that LPS diversity is far greater than the current model suggests. Presumably, the modulation of LPS

gene activity leads to a variety of LPS phenotypes. Our findings can potentially be applied to other

phages that use LPS as a single or complementary receptor for host infection (Bertozzi Silva et al.

2016; Latino et al. 2016; Broeker and Barbirz 2017). The LPS is a major structural component of the

outer membrane of Gram-negative bacteria (Zhang et al. 2013), and its biosynthesis and assembly are

conserved among bacterial species.

Another major finding of our study is that increasing phage and host diversity allows the infection of

hard-resistant phenotypes (see **Fig. 4C**). This phenomenon – the successful infection of hard-resistant

phenotypes – is similar to a receptor shift observed with phage λ (Meyer et al. 2012). Phage λ also
requires at least four mutations to infect the novel OmpF receptor in *E. coli* B, making it almost
impossible to evolve from the wildtype phage in a single step (Burmeister et al. 2016). Evolving all
four mutations in one λ phage genome first required the presence of λ phage evolutionary
intermediates that already carried specific mutations. These evolutionary intermediates may have
arisen from the infection of easy-resistant *E. coli* B mutants (*malT* loss-of-function mutants) that could
still spontaneously induce low levels of the traditional host receptor, LamB. By increasing the host
diversity, phage λ eventually acquired additional mutations (four in total) to overcome the hard-
resistant *E. coli B* mutants (*lamB* loss-of-function mutants) (Meyer et al. 2012; Gupta et al. 2022).
Similarly, we showed that the successful infection of *waaG*, *galU*, *rfaH*, and *waaP*/*pssA* resistant strains
became accessible by increasing host and phage diversity.

Our experiments suggest that it may be possible to breed well-established model phages such as
ΦX174 to infect a wide range of currently resistant pathogenic *E. coli* strains. If possible, then this
could make ΦX174 a promising therapeutic agent. Currently, instead of breeding well-known model
systems to infect pathogenic bacteria, unknown phages that can infect specific bacterial pathogens are
isolated from environmental samples (Chan et al. 2018). These unknown phages, however, still have
to be characterized. Their safety has to be ensured by a process that, in the end, may drastically be
more time-consuming than breeding well-studied model systems. Safety concerns regarding novel
phages are significant due to their potential to carry dangerous toxins and antibiotic-resistance genes
(Krüger and Lucchesi 2015; Colavecchio et al. 2017; Jamet et al. 2017). The considerable knowledge
acquired from decades of research on ΦX174 structure, life cycle, and evolution showed that ΦX174
does not carry virulence genes. ΦX174 is also highly host-specific (Michel et al. 2010), meaning that
it will be harmless to the patient's microbiota, in contrast to phages with broader infectivity or
antibiotics known to disrupt the microbiota and lead to adverse health outcomes (Ramirez et al. 2020).
Furthermore, its use as a marker of immune responses in patients has already been approved *in vivo*
by the FDA in specific case studies (Rubinstein et al. 2000; Bearden et al. 2005). ΦX174 can easily be
manipulated in a laboratory unlocking its potential as a powerful therapeutic agent. For all these
reasons, we believe that bacteriophage ΦX174 could become a promising therapeutic agent.

Methods

Bacterial and phage strains. The ancestral *Escherichia coli* strain C used in this study differs from the one uploaded on the NCBI website (GenBank accession number CP020543.1) by the presence of 9 additional insertions and two nucleotide substitutions (c → t at the position 1,1720,214 and g → t at the position 1,190,560). The genomic sequence of CP020543.1 was manually modified using Geneious Prime (version 2020.1.2). All resistant bacterial strains generated in this study are derived from our ancestral *E. coli* C strain. All bacteriophage strains are derived from the ancestral coliphage ΦX174 (GenBank accession number AF176034). AF176034 genomic sequence was downloaded from the NCBI website and manually annotated using Geneious Prime (version 2020.1.2). Whole-genome re-sequencing on ΦX174 wildtype's glycerol stock showed no difference to the NCBI sequence. Complete genomes of *E. coli* C WT and ΦX174 WT used as references have been deposited in Zenodo (doi: 10.5281/zenodo.6952399). The *E. coli* C and ΦX174 ancestral strains were provided by Holly A. Wichman (Department of Biological Sciences, University of Idaho).

Media and growth conditions. Phage and bacteria were grown in a shaking incubator (New Brunswick™ Innova® 44) at 37°C, 250 rpm, in LB (Lysogeny Broth, Miller) medium supplemented with $CaCl_2$ and $MgCl_2$ at a final concentration of 5 mM and 10 mM, respectively. Solid LB agar (1.5 % agar) was used to plate both bacteria and phages. When plating phage, top agar overlay (0.5 % agar), also called semi-solid agar (SSA) in this study, was supplemented with $CaCl_2$ and $MgCl_2$ at a final concentration of 5 mM and 10 mM respectively. PBJ solution (Phage Buffer Juice: 2.03 % Tris-HCl, 0.61 % $MgCl_2$.$6H_2O$) was used for serial dilutions. *E. coli* colony plates were generated by streaking with a sterile loop a scrap of the corresponding bacterial glycerol stock on the surface of a solid LB plate and incubated inverted overnight. After incubation, the colony plates were stored at 4°C for a maximum of two weeks. Overnight bacterial liquid cultures were systematically started by inoculating a single colony in 5 ml of LB supplemented with $CaCl_2$ and $MgCl_2$ at a final concentration of 5 and 10 mM, respectively, shaken at 250 rpm. Phage infections were either started from (i) a scrap of the corresponding phage glycerol stock resuspended in 100 µl of PBJ or (ii) a single plaque isolated from the top agar overlay with a sterile cut tip (a circle of agar) directly inoculated inside the bacterial culture. Overnight incubations of both plates and cultures were set up for ~16-17 hours at 37°C.

Measuring the growth of each resistant *E. coli* C strain

To assess the impact of LPS modifications harboured by the different *E. coli* C resistant mutants on

their growth, two independent cultures of each resistant strain were grown at 37°C, 250 rpm for 17

hours. 180 μl of each overnight culture was inoculated into a 14 ml sterile tube (FALCON®)

containing 5 ml of LB (supplemented with $CaCl_2$ and $MgCl_2$ at final concentrations of 5 and 10 mM,

respectively) pre-warmed at 37°C. Incubation time was set to six hours at 37°C, 250 rpm. Optical

density at 600 nm (OD600) was measured every 30 minutes with an Ultrospec 10 (Biochrom®). *E.*

coli C wildtype was used as a reference. The mean OD600 values at each time point for each bacterial

mutant were calculated and plotted.

Isolation and storage of *E. coli* C strains with resistance to wildtype ΦX174. To avoid

competition and to produce a diverse set of phage-resistant bacterial mutants with different growth

phenotypes, we generated ΦX174-resistant *E. coli* C strains on agar plates. Thirty-five *E. coli* C wildtype

colonies were randomly chosen from an agar plate, and each was used to inoculate an independent

overnight liquid culture. 50 μl of each stationary phase culture was mixed with 50 μl of a high titer

(~10^9 plaque-forming unit pfu ml^{-1}) stock of ΦX174 wildtype lysate, immediately plated with sterile

beads on LB plates, and incubated at 37°C overnight. From each plate, half a randomly chosen colony

was used to inoculate a fresh overnight LB liquid culture. Once grown, a sample from each culture

was mixed with glycerol saline solution and frozen at -80°C (giving strains *E. coli* C R1-R35). To

confirm the resistance to wildtype ΦX174, the remaining half of each colony was streaked onto an

LB plate soaked with 100 μl of the high titer ΦX174 wildtype lysate and incubated at 37°C overnight.

Phage lysate preparation. To extract phages in infected host cultures, ten to twelve drops of

chloroform were added to growing *E. coli* C-phage co-cultures and vortexed for at least 30 seconds to

kill the bacteria. Cultures were then centrifuged at 5000 rpm for 10 min at 4°C. Supernatants (phage

lysates) were transferred to sterile 5 ml Eppendorf tubes and stored at 4°C. 1 ml of each lysate was

stored with glycerol saline solution and frozen at -80°C.

First phage evolution experiment - Standard. The protocol from Bono *et al.* (Bono et al. 2012) was

adapted to evolve phages that can infect resistant *E. coli* C strains. Of R1-R35 – the 35 *E. coli* C strains

resistant to ΦX174 wildtype, see above – 31 were used for the first phage evolution experiment

(excluding R1, R3, R15, and R19; see **Results** and **Text S1**). Thirty-one ΦX174 lineages were each

founded by ΦX174 wildtype and serially transferred daily, up to 21 days (21 transfers) in cultures

containing a mix of *E. coli* C wildtype (permissive strain) and one resistant *E. coli* C strain (non-

permissive strain; R2-R35). For each transfer, permissive and non-permissive bacteria were grown

separately until they reached the log phase, then mixed in at a specific ratio depending on the growth

of the non-permissive strain (see **Figs. 3A and S4** and **Supplementary Methods**) to a final volume

of 5 ml. At each transfer, freshly prepared susceptible cells were infected by ΦX174 at MOI_{input} ~0.1.

Infected cultures were shaken at 250 rpm, 37°C, for three hours. Phage lysates were isolated as

described in **Phage lysate preparation**. Phage lysates from the previous day were used to inoculate

the fresh bacterial mixes the next day. Transfers continued until phages were found to infect their

corresponding resistant *E. coli* C strain or until 21 transfers were reached. Three control lines were

also run in parallel by transferring ΦX174 at MOI_{input} ~0.1 in a culture containing *E. coli* C wildtype

only. See **Supplementary Methods** for a detailed version of the protocol.

Second phage evolution experiment – Increased diversity. A phage cocktail made of (i) the

wildtype ΦX174 and (ii) all ΦX174 strains that successfully re-infected their corresponding resistant

strains during the first phage evolution experiment was generated by first diluting each phage lysate

and mixing them at a roughly equal number of plaque-forming units (PFU). Fourteen phage strains

were used: ΦX174 R4 T7, ΦX174 R5 T2, ΦX174 R8 T6, ΦX174 R10 T6, ΦX174 R13 T6, ΦX174

R18 T4, ΦX174 R19 T1, ΦX174 R20 T5, ΦX174 R21 T1, ΦX174 R24 T1, ΦX174 R26 T1, ΦX174

R27 T1, ΦX174 R29 T1, and ΦX174 R31 T1. Phages infecting R5 and R19 were used for the cocktail

but removed from the mutational analysis (see **Text S1 and Table S4**). The phage cocktail was grown

and transferred daily for up to four days, on non-evolving host cultures containing (i) *E. coli* C wildtype,

(ii) the 14 host strains (see **Text S1** and **Table S4**) for which resistance had been overcome (permissive

hosts), and (iii) an excess of one of the still-resistant strain of interest (non-permissive host). For the

non-permissive host, we used R6 (*waaP/pssA* mutant), R22 (*galU* mutant), R25 (*rfaH* mutant), or R28

(*waaG* mutant; see **Table S1**). *E. coli* C R22 and R28 were chosen as representatives of the *galU* and

waaG mutants, respectively. Each bacterial strain (permissive and non-permissive) was grown

separately in LB liquid culture for one hour (37°C, 250 rpm), then pooled at a roughly equal number

of colony-forming units The resistant strain of interest was added in excess to give a final volume of

4 ml. Infected cultures were initiated by adding the phage cocktail (MOI_{input} ~0.1), shaken at 250 rpm,

37°C, for 5 hours (see **Fig. 3B**). Phage lysates were isolated as described in **Phage lysate preparation**.

Phage lysates from the previous day were used to inoculate the fresh bacterial mixes the next day. This

process was repeated until phages were found to infect their corresponding resistant *E. coli* C strains

or until four transfers had been completed. See **Supplementary Methods** for a detailed version of

the protocol.

Third evolution experiment – Increased diversity and generations. Protocol from the second

evolution experiment was adjusted to reduce the amount of time necessary to retrieve the desired

phages. The same phage cocktail used in the second phage evolution was grown and transferred daily,

four times a day, for up to four days on non-evolving host cultures containing (i) *E. coli* C wildtype,

(ii) the 14 host strains for which resistance had been overcome (permissive hosts), and (iii) one of the

still-resistant strain of interest (non-permissive host). We increased the number of serial transfers per

day from one to four, for a total of four days (16 transfers). *E. coli* C R6 (*waaP/pssA* mutant) and R25

(*rfaH* mutant, see **Table S1**) were used as non-permissive hosts. After reaching their exponential log

phase, bacterial strains (except the non-permissive hosts) were mixed depending on their growth

(**Figs. 3C and S4**, **Supplementary Methods**). New host cultures were kept in exponential growth

phase independently by transferring every hour 1:5 of the volume (1 ml) in fresh LB pre-heated at

37°C (see **Fig. 3C**). Before each transfer, all host cultures were mixed together. Infected cultures were

started by adding the phage cocktail to the final host mix at MOI_{input} ~0.1, shaken at 250 rpm, 37°C,

for one hour. After that, 1:15 of the volume of each infected culture was transferred in freshly mixed

bacterial cultures and infection continued for one hour (see **Fig. 3C**). This step was repeated for a

total of four transfers. The final (fourth) transfer lasted for two hours. All transfers completed on the

same day involved transferring both phage and bacteria; on every fourth transfer, supernatants were

collected and only phages were transferred. Phage lysates were isolated as described in **Phage lysate**

preparation. Phage lysates from the previous day were used to inoculate the first fresh bacterial mixes

the next day. This process was repeated until phages were found to infect their corresponding resistant

E. coli C strains or until four transfers had been completed. See **Supplementary Methods** for a

detailed version of the protocol.

Isolation of evolved ΦX174 strains from evolution experiments. To isolate pure, single clones

from the different evolution experiments, top agar overlays were prepared by mixing 100 μl of

undiluted phage lysates with 200 μl of an overnight culture of the corresponding resistant *E. coli* C

strain in 4 ml SSA. Plates were incubated inverted at 37°C for ~16-17 hours. An isolated plaque was

chosen randomly for each phage lysate to infect cultures of the corresponding resistant *E. coli* C strains

(in exponential growth state) incubated at 37°C, 250 rpm, for 5 hours. Phage lysates were isolated as

described in **Phage lysate preparation**. Phage isolates were re-isolated from single plaques a second

time from their glycerol stocks. See **Supplementary Methods** for a detailed version of the protocol.

Determination of the evolved phages' host range by spotting assays

Method 1. Each top agar overlay was prepared by mixing 200 μl of an *E. coli* C strain from stationary

phase culture in 4 ml SSA, then poured on LB plates and dried for at least 15 minutes. Then, 3 μl of

each undiluted evolved phage lysate (between 10^7 and 10^9 pfu ml^{-1}) was dropped at the surface. *Method*

2. Each top agar overlay was prepared by mixing a volume of each phage lysate in 4 ml SSA at a final

concentration of ~10^7 pfu ml^{-1}, then poured on LB plates and dried for at least 15 minutes. Then, 3

μl of both undiluted and ten-fold diluted of each *E. coli* C strain (from overnight culture) were dropped

onto the surface with a pipette. For both methods, spots were dried for at least 30 minutes, and plates

were incubated inverted at 37°C for ~17 hours. *E. coli* C wildtype was used as a positive control

(permissive strain), and *E. coli* K-12 MG1655 as a negative control (non-permissive strain). A bacterial

host strain was classified as sensitive only when signs of lysis were detected using both methods in at

least two (of three) replicates per method. A phage-bacterium combination that yielded different

results between the two methods was tested in standard plaque assays. Finally, the host strain was

classified as sensitive if plaques were observed at both dilutions. See **Supplementary Methods** for a

detailed version of the protocol.

Data visualisation. The hierarchical agglomerative clustering analysis (Clustermap **Fig. 6**), the

heatmap (**Fig. S3**), and the growth curves (**Fig. S4**) were generated using the default settings of the

Seaborn library (version 0.11.2) for Python (version 3.7.4). All schematic drawings (**Figs. 1**-**4**, **S1 and**

S2) were created with BioRender.com. The Lollipop plot (**Fig. 5A**) was generated using trackViewer

Vignette: lollipopPlot (Lolliplot) in R (version 1.27.11).

Whole genome re-sequencing.

Bacteria. Samples were prepared for whole genome re-sequencing from 1 ml of stationary-phase

culture. Genomic DNA was extracted using the Wizard® Genomic DNA purification Kit (Promega,

Germany). Extracted DNA was tested for quality, pooled, and sequenced by the Max-Planck Institute

for Evolutionary Biology (Plön, Germany) using an Illumina Nextera DNA Flex Library Prep Kit to

produce 150 bp paired-end reads (Picelli et al. 2014).

Phage. ΦX174 samples were prepared for whole genome re-sequencing from 1 ml of phage lysate.

Genomic DNA was extracted using the QIAprep Spin Miniprep Kit (QIAGEN), then amplified by

performing 20 cycles of PCR using Q5® High-Fidelity 2X Master Mix (NEB) (final concentration

between 30-100 ng.μl^{-1}). The primers used for the amplification of the ΦX174 genome are listed in

Table S6. All PCR products were cleaned using the QIAquick PCR Purification Kit® (QIAGEN).

DNA samples were tested for quality, pooled, and sequenced by the Max-Planck Institute for

Evolutionary Biology (Plön, Germany). Sequencing was performed using an Illumina MiSeq DNA

Flex Library Prep Kit to produce 150 bp paired-end reads (Picelli et al. 2014).

The quality of the sequencing output from bacteria and phages was controlled using *FastQC* version

0.11.8. Reads were trimmed using *Trimmomatic*, assembled and analysed using the *breseq* pipeline version

0.33.2 (Barrick et al. 2014; Deatherage and Barrick 2014; Deatherage et al. 2015) and Geneious Prime

(version 2020.1.2).

Sanger sequencing of ΦX174 *F* and *H* genes.

Genomic DNA was extracted using the QIAprep Spin Miniprep Kit® (QIAGEN) (final

concentration between 30-100 ng.μl^{-1}). ΦX174's *F* and *H* genes were amplified by performing 35

cycles of PCR using Phusion® High-Fidelity PCR Master Mix with HF Buffer (ThermoFisher).

Primers used for this purpose are listed in **Table S6**. All PCR products were cleaned using the

QIAquick PCR Purification Kit®. Sanger sequencing was performed using the sequencing primers

listed in **Table S6**. The sequencing was performed at the Max-Planck Institute for Evolutionary

Biology (Plön, Germany). Sequencing results were assembled and analysed with Geneious Prime

(version 2020.1.2).

Data availability

Whole-genome and Sanger sequencing results. Complete genomes of *E. coli* C WT and ΦX174 WT used as

references and raw sequencing reads used to generate **Tables S1 to S5** have been deposited in Zenodo

(doi: 10.5281/zenodo.6952399). *Growth curves*. Raw OD measurements used to generate **Fig. S4** have

been deposited in Zenodo (doi: 10.5281/zenodo.6952399). *Hierarchical agglomerative clustering and*

heatmap data. Pictures and raw data used to generate **Figs. 6** and **S3** have been deposited in Zenodo

(doi: 10.5281/zenodo.6952399).

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Contributions

J.R.D and F.B conceived the study and planned the experiments. J.R.D and L.P. carried out the experiments. J.R.D conducted the sequence analyses. J.R.D, F.B, and J.G interpreted the results. J.R.D., F.B., and J.G. wrote the manuscript. J.R.D prepared all figures and tables. All authors reviewed and approved the manuscript.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

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Supplementary Text S1

Excluded bacteria and phage isolates from downstream analyses. We removed four bacterial strains (*E. coli* C R1, R3, R15, and R19) and two evolved phage strains (ΦX174 R5 T2 and ΦX174 R19 T1) from both mutational and phenotypical analyses. The reasons behind these exclusions are outlined below.

Bacteria. We found that both *E. coli* C R3 and R15's glycerol stocks contain more than one genotype; while whole genome re-sequencing from their respective glycerol stocks showed only a single mutation in *galE*, whole genome re-sequencing of ten re-streaked colonies showed that additional mutations were systematically associated with the single mutation in *galE* (**Tables S4 and S5**). *E. coli* C R1 displayed an unstable resistant phenotype using the spotting assay *method 1* (see section **Determination of the evolved phages' host range by spotting assays**). We performed phenotypic assays in a semi-solid environment by plating top agar overlays from overnight cultures of *E. coli* C R1 without phage. All overnight cultures were started with a randomly picked single colony obtained from the glycerol stock of R1. We observed that colonies of R1 made different lawn types: either "smooth" (no bacterial aggregate) or "granulous" (presence of numerous bacterial aggregates), which could potentially impact phage infectivity. The existence of two different aggregation phenotypes suggests that the glycerol stock of *E. coli* C R1 consists of two different populations. Unlike R3 and R15, however, no discrepancy was found between the whole genome re-sequencing results of R1 from the glycerol stock and its ten re-streaked colonies. The exact cause of the phenotypic inconsistency could not be identified. *E. coli* C R19 remains sensitive to ΦX174 wildtype infection. When plated undiluted, a high titer ΦX174 wildtype lysate (~10^9 pfu ml^{-1}) could not clear *E. coli* C R19's lawn, but a few thousand small clear plaques were produced. Thus, R19 is likely to be only partially resistant to ΦX174 wildtype infection. It carries a single mutation *yajC* (locus tag B6N50_17610), which encodes a periplasmic protein (Fang and Wei 2011) with a putative preprotein translocase subunit (Pfam e-value 2.3e-26) (see **Table S4**). While no link to the LPS biosynthesis or assembly has been defined yet, *yajC* could conceivably play a role in the injection of phage DNA into the bacterium's cytoplasmic membrane (Schulze et al. 2014; Bohm et al. 2018).

In our matrices (**Figs. 6 and S3**), *E. coli* C R32 cannot be infected by any evolved phages from the first evolution experiment. The phage infecting R5 was the only phage that could infect R32 but was removed from the subsequent analysis (see below).

34   *Phage*. We removed the evolved phage infecting R5 (ΦX174 R5 T2) because its glycerol stock contains

35   more than one genotype (confirmed by Sanger Sequencing). Since we removed R19 from the final

36   analysis, we also removed its corresponding evolved phage obtained during the first evolution

37   experiment (ΦX174 R19 T1). Details on their respective mutations (in the *H* gene) can be found in

38   **Table S4**.

Supplementary Figures

Fig. S1. Assembly of *E. coli* rough type core LPS. A. Organization of the chromosomal *waa* region in the *E. coli C* wildtype strain. The chromosomal *waa* locus (formerly named *rfa*) is organized into three major operons, usually designated by the first gene of each transcriptional unit: *waaA, gmhD* and *waaQ* (Whitfield et al. 1999). The *waaA* operon is responsible for the incorporation of two Kdo (3-deoxy-D-*manno*-octulosonic acids) moieties to the lipid A (Belunis et al. 1995). The *gmhD* operon is required for the assembly of the inner core's backbone (Schnaitman and Klena 1993), and the *waaQ* operon contains all eight genes necessary to modify the inner core and built the outer core (Whitfield et al. 1999) **B.** Sequential steps of the core OS LPS synthesis (from WaaA to WaaV). *Inner core assembly and modification.* Inner core assembly starts first with WaaA adding the two Kdo moieties to the lipid-A-IV precursor (Schnaitman and Klena 1993; Whitfield et al. 1999; Amor et al. 2000). A bacterium lacking WaaA activity displays severe membrane defects, resulting in the inability to form colonies (Klein et al. 2009). Heptose residues I and II are then anchored to the Kdo moieties by the heptosyltransferases WaaC and WaaF, respectively (Jansson et al. 1981; Schnaitman and Klena 1993; Whitfield et al. 1999). LPS core heptose kinases WaaP and WaaY add phosphate groups to the first and second heptose residues, respectively. WaaQ adds the last heptose to the second heptose residue (Jansson et al. 1981; Schnaitman and Klena 1993; Whitfield et al. 1999). *WaaP*, *waaQ*, and *waaY* proceed in this specific order. *WaaY* cannot work without the activity of *waaQ*, which cannot work

without *waaP* (first red ellipse). *Outer core assembly.* The glucosyltransferases WaaG and WaaO start the

formation of the outer core by anchoring the first glucose to the second heptose residue and the

second glucose to the first glucose residue, respectively (Heinrichs, Yethon, and Whitfield 1998;

Vinogradov et al. 1999; Whitfield et al. 1999). It has been suggested that the WaaG-catalyzed reaction

might be required for WaaP and WaaY substrate specificity (Yethon et al. 2000). Then, the

galactosyltransferases WaaT and WaaW add the first galactose to the second glucose residue and the

second galactose to the first galactose residue, respectively (Heinrichs, Yethon, Amor, et al. 1998;

Whitfield et al. 1999). The completion of the outer core LPS is achieved when WaaV adds the third

glucose to the second glucose residue. Here, *waaV* requires the activity of *waaW* and proceeds in this

specific order (second red ellipse). If *waaW* is deleted, *waaV* is not functional (Heinrichs, Yethon,

Amor, et al. 1998; Leipold et al. 2007). Modifications of the LPS structure can lead to major phenotypic

effects. In particular, the deep rough phenotype is usually associated with a strongly destabilized outer

membrane, a decreased expression of some outer membrane proteins, a modification of the turgor

pressure (Pagnout et al. 2019), and an increase of susceptibility to hydrophobic compounds such as

AMPs (antimicrobial peptides), antibiotics, or bacteriocins (van der Ley et al. 1986; Schnaitman and

Klena 1993; Yethon et al. 1998; Whitfield et al. 1999; Amor et al. 2000; Klein et al. 2013). Differences

in LPS structures can also affect interactions with the host immune system (Raetz and Whitfield 2002;

Matsuura 2013) and phage resistance (Hancock and Reeves 1976; Labrie et al. 2010; Kulikov et al.

2019; Mutalik et al. 2020).

A.

B.

Fig S2. Biosynthesis of the core LPS glucose, galactose and heptose sugar components. A.
ADP-L-glycero-β-D-*manno*-heptose synthesis pathway. It involves four genes: *gmhA*, *hldE*, *gmhB* and
gmhD. Each gene encodes a protein that catalyses the production of a heptose intermediate. The final
product is ADP-L-glycero-β-D-*manno*-heptose, which is used by the heptosyltransferase WaaC to
build the inner core LPS (Kneidinger et al. 2002). Thus, deletion of one of these genes is expected to
result in an heptoseless, deep rough LPS (McArthur et al. 2005). This figure is adapted from
https://biocyc.org/ECOLI/NEW-IMAGE?type=PATHWAY&object=PWY0-1241 (Karp et al.
2019). **B.** Galactose degradation I (Leloir Pathway). GalU and GalE function in the Leloir pathway
(Frey 1996; Kneidinger et al. 2002; McArthur et al. 2005). GalU catalyses the formation of UDP-α-D-
glucose from α-D-glucopyranose 1- phosphate (Weissborn et al. 1994). UDP-α-D-glucose can then
be incorporated into the outer core LPS by WaaG. Therefore, both Δ*galU* and Δ*waaG* mutants result

in the same truncated LPS structure (Schnaitman and Klena 1993; Weissborn et al. 1994; Genevaux

et al. 1999). GalE catalyses the interconversion of UDP-α-D-galactose and UDP-α-D-glucose during

galactose catabolism (Pierson and Carlson 1996). UDP-α-D-galactose is then incorporated into the

outer core LPS by WaaT (Heinrichs, Yethon, Amor, et al. 1998). Therefore, both Δ*galE* and Δ*waaT*

are expected to result in the same truncated LPS (Schnaitman and Austin 1990). This figure was

adapted from https://biocyc.org/ECOLI/NEW-

IMAGE?type=PATHWAY&object=GALACTMETAB-PWY (Karp et al. 2019).

Fig. S3. Infection matrix of evolved ΦX174 phages on the 31 resistant *E. coli* C strains. The

infection matrix was produced by combining the results of two spotting methods and the plaque assays

(see **Methods**). *E. coli* C R32 cannot be infected by any evolved phages from the first phage evolution

experiment. The phage infecting R5 was the only phage that could infect R32 (**Text S1**) but was

removed from the subsequent analysis due to a lack of isogeny. *E. coli* C strains are grouped and

coloured based on their predicted core LPS structures (Jansson et al. 1981; Schnaitman and Austin

1990; Schnaitman and Klena 1993; Weissborn et al. 1994; Heinrichs, Yethon, and Whitfield 1998;

Genevaux et al. 1999; Vinogradov et al. 1999; Whitfield et al. 1999; Amor et al. 2000; Kawaura et al.

2000; Yethon et al. 2000; Kneidinger et al. 2002; Raetz and Whitfield 2002; McArthur et al. 2005;

Leipold et al. 2007; Fang and Wei 2011; Król et al. 2019). ΦX174 strains are ordered based on the

predicted LPS structures they infected during the evolution experiments (A-F: overcame heptoseless

waaC and *hldE* mutants; G-L: overcame *waaO* mutants; M-N: overcame *galU* and *waaG* mutants; O:

overcame *waaP/pssA* mutant; P: overcame *rfaH* mutant). The solid blue lines separate the evolved

phages according to the evolution experiment in which they were isolated (A-L: first; M-N: second;

O-P: third). Dark blue squares=infection, light blue square=no infection, coloured square=control

infection by a phage evolved on that host. R# indicates the number of the resistant strain the phage

evolved on, and T# is the transfer number where plaques were first observed. "?": core LPS structure

of *E. coli* C R25 (*rfaH* mutant) could not be predicted. "INS": insertion. "DUP": duplication. "stop":

stop codon. "Δ": deletion. Examples: L249fsTer#263 indicates a frameshift (fs) leading to a premature

codon stop (Ter); the position of the premature stop codon is in parentheses. S75_L78ins(377)

indicates an insertion; the two flanking amino acids are separated by a "_" and followed by the number

of inserted amino acids in parentheses. Δ(A99-E105) indicated deletion; two flanking amino acids are

separated by a "-". P242_A276dup(34) indicates a duplication; the two flanking amino acids are

separated by a "_" and followed by the number of duplicated amino acids in parentheses.

Fig. S4. *E. coli* C resistant strains can be categorized as fast, intermediate, or slow growers. The mean OD600 values of two

independent cultures grown in 5 ml LB at each time point for each bacterial mutant were calculated and plotted. Resistant strains are

categorized with respect to their growth compared to *E. coli* C wildtype. Black lines: *E. coli* C wildtype. Blue lines: resistant bacteria that grew

similarly to *E. coli* C wildtype ("fast growers"). Green lines: resistant strains grew somewhat more slowly than *E. coli* C wildtype and fast

growers ("intermediate growers"). Red lines: resistant strains that grew more slowly than *E. coli* C wildtype and intermediate growers ("slow

growers"). **A.** Growth curves of resistant strains R2-R6 and R21-R35. **B.** Growth curves of resistant strains R7-R20. These data (mutants

and controls) were collected in a separate block to those in panel A. **C.** Mean OD600 values of all resistant strains in panels A and B, each

normalized with respect to their corresponding *E. coli* C wildtype control (($OD600\_R\#_{ti} - ODR\#_{t0})/(OD600\_wildtype_{ti} -$

$OD600\_wildtype_{t0})$). R# is the resistant strain number.

Supplementary Tables

E. coli C resistant strains	Genes	Locus tags	Synonyms	Descriptions	Positions	Nucleotide changes	Amino Acid changes	Predicted LPS structure phenotypes	"Easy" or "Hard" LPS structure phenotypes?	# Experiment during which resistance was overcome or cross-infected
R2	waaW	B6N50_00430 →	-	UDP-galactose--(galactosyl) LPS alpha1,2-galactosyltransferase	79,779	g→a	G267D	Rough	Easy	1
R4	waaO	B6N50_00415 →	rfaI	UDP-D-glucose:(glucosyl) LPS α-1,3-glucosyltransferase	76,970	(a)$_{7\to6}$	L249fsTer#263[a]	Rough	Easy	1
R5	gmhB	B6N50_18960 ←	-	D-glycero-β-D-manno-heptose 1,7-bisphosphate 7-phosphatase	3,693,747	(t)$_{8\to7}$	M45fsTer#51	Deep rough	Easy	1
R6	waaP	B6N50_00410 →	rfaP	Lipopolysaccharide core heptose(I) kinase	76,163 - 76,168	Δ6 bp	Δ(A251-A253)	Deep rough	Hard	3
	pssA	B6N50_06070 ←	-	Phosphatidylserine synthase	1,190,560	t→g	V54V			
R7	waaO	B6N50_00415 →	rfaI	UDP-D-glucose:(glucosyl) LPS α-1,3-glucosyltransferase	77,219 - 77,224	(ttattt)$_{2\to1}$	Δ(F332-L334)	Rough	Easy	1
R8	hldE	B6N50_03700 →	rfaE/waaE	Bifunctional heptose 7-phosphate kinase/heptose 1-phosphate adenyltransferase	721,891 - 721,892	(gc)$_{5\to4}$	A79fsTer#83	Deep rough	Easy	1
R9	waaG	B6N50_00405 →	rfaG	UDP-glucose:(heptosyl) LPS α1,3-glucosyltransferase (glucosyltransferase I)	75,073 - 75,076	Δ4 bp	G260fsTer#266	Deep rough	Hard	2
R10	hldE	B6N50_03700 →	rfaE/waaE	Bifunctional heptose 7-phosphate kinase/heptose 1-phosphate adenyltransferase	721,891 - 721,892	(gc)$_{5\to4}$	A79fsTer#83	Deep rough	Easy	1
	CRISPR	B6N50_05180 → / ← B6N50_05185	-	Repeat region	1,023,697 - 1,023,940	Δ244 bp	Non-coding region			
R11	waaP	B6N50_00410 →	rfaP	Lipopolysaccharide core heptose(I) kinase	75,562	g→a	W51stop	Deep rough	Easy	1

R12	*waaF*	*B6N50_00450* ←	*rfaF*	ADP-heptose LPS heptosyltransferase II	84,376	g→a	Q30stop	Deep rough	Easy	1
R13	*waaO*	*B6N50_00415* →	*rfaI*	UDP-D-glucose:(glucosyl) LPS α-1,3-glucosyltransferase	76,255	Δ1 bp	M11fsTer#58	Rough	Easy	1
R14	*waaF*	*B6N50_00450* ←	*rfaF*	ADP-heptose LPS heptosyltransferase II	84,081	c→t	W128stop	Deep rough	Easy	1
R16	*galU*	*B6N50_13325* ←	-	UTP--glucose-1-phosphate uridylyltransferase	2,611,994	Δ1 bp	V37fsTer#41	Deep rough	Hard	2
R17	*galU*	*B6N50_13325* ←	-	UTP--glucose-1-phosphate uridylyltransferase	2,611,409	$(g)_{4\rightarrow3}$	P232fsTer#248	Deep rough	Hard	2
R18	*waaC*	*B6N50_00445* ←	*rfaC*	ADP-heptose LPS heptosyltransferase I	83,271	Δ1 bp	H48fsTer#71	Deep rough	Easy	1
R20	*waaO*	*B6N50_00415* →	*rfaI*	UDP-D-glucose:(glucosyl) LPS α-1,3-glucosyltransferase	77,104	g→a	W294stop	Rough	Easy	1
R21	*waaO*	*B6N50_00415* →	*rfaI*	UDP-D-glucose:(glucosyl) LPS α-1,3-glucosyltransferase	76,978	c→a	S252stop	Rough	Easy	1
	potH	*B6N50_15295* ←	-	Spermidine/putrescine ABC transporter permease	2,990,409	g→t	Q310K			
R22	*galU*	*B6N50_13325* ←	-	UTP--glucose-1-phosphate uridylyltransferase	2,611,590 - 2,611,600	INS 2,783,815 - 2,784,943	M168_V172ins(376)[b]	Deep rough	Hard	2
R23	*waaG*	*B6N50_00405* →	*rfaG*	UDP-glucose:(heptosyl) LPS α1,3-glucosyltransferase (glucosyltransferase I)	74,589 - 74,606	Δ18 bp	Δ(A99-E105)	Deep rough	Hard	2
R24	*waaO*	*B6N50_00415* →	*rfaI*	UDP-D-glucose:(glucosyl) LPS α-1,3-glucosyltransferase	76,970	$(a)_{7\rightarrow6}$	L249fsTer#263	Rough	Easy	1
R25	*rfaH*	*B6N50_22865* →	-	Transcription/translation regulatory transformer protein	4,485,876	g→a	W4stop	Unknown	Hard	3
R26	*hldE*	*B6N50_03700* →	*rfaE/waaE*	Bifunctional heptose 7-phosphate kinase/heptose 1-phosphate adenyltransferase	722,353	t→c	S233P	Deep rough	Easy	1

R27	*hldE* →	*B6N50_03700* →	*rfaE/waaE*	Bifunctional heptose 7-phosphate kinase/heptose 1-phosphate adenyltransferase	721,736	g→c	G27A	Deep rough	Easy	1
R28	*waaG* →	*B6N50_00405* →	*rfaG*	UDP-glucose:(heptosyl) LPS α1,3-glucosyltransferase (glucosyltransferase I)	74,864	g→t	G191stop	Deep rough	Hard	2
R29	*waaO* →	*B6N50_00415* →	*rfaI*	UDP-D-glucose:(glucosyl) LPS α-1,3-glucosyltransferase	76,970	(a)$_{7→6}$	L249fsTer#263	Rough	Easy	1
	pcoA ←	*B6N50_01165* ←	-	Multicopper oxidase	237,963 - 237,973	INS 1,040,936 - 1,042,273	G152_G155ins(446)			
	eutM - *eutN* - *eutE*	*[B6N50_06785]* - *[B6N50_06790]* - *[B6N50_06795]* →	-	Ethanolamine utilization protein EutM - Ethanolamine utilization protein EutN - Aldehyde dehydrogenase EutE	1,342,381 - 1,343,448	Δ1,068 bp	Δ[EutM_A58-EutE_A181]^c			
R30	*galU* ←	*B6N50_13325* ←	-	UTP--glucose-1-phosphate uridylyltransferase	2,611,680	c→a	E142stop	Deep rough	Hard	2
R31	*hldE* →	*B6N50_03700* →	*rfaE/waaE*	Bifunctional heptose 7-phosphate kinase/heptose 1-phosphate adenyltransferase	721,736	g→c	G27A	Deep rough	Easy	1
R32	*hldE* →	*B6N50_03700* →	*rfaE/waaE*	Bifunctional heptose 7-phosphate kinase/heptose 1-phosphate adenyltransferase	722,381 - 722,482	DUP 722,381-722,482 (102) bp	P242_A276dup(34)^d	Deep rough	Easy	1
R33	*waaT* →	*B6N50_00420* →	-	UDP-galactose:(glucosyl) LPS α-1,2-galactosyltransferase	78,125	g→a	W290stop	Rough	Easy	1
R34	*waaW* →	*B6N50_00430* →	-	UDP-galactose--(galactosyl) LPS alpha1,2-galactosyltransferase	79,820	c→t	Q281stop	Rough	Easy	1
R35	*galU* ←	*B6N50_13325* ←	-	UTP--glucose-1-phosphate uridylyltransferase	2,611,872 - 2,611,880	INS 2,783,815 - 2,784,945	S75_L78ins(377)	Deep rough	Hard	2

Table S1: List of mutations found in *E. coli* C strains that are resistant to wildtype ΦX174. *E. coli* C resistant strains: R# is the strain

number. Genes: name of the gene(s) in which mutations have been identified (as compared with wildtype *E. coli* C; doi:

10.5281/zenodo.6952399). Locus tags: identifier of each listed gene. Synonyms: alternative gene names. Descriptions: protein product

encoded by each listed gene. Positions: genomic coordinates of mutation. Nucleotide changes: observed nucleotide change. Amino acid

changes: resulting change in amino acid sequence. Predicted LPS structure phenotypes: based on predicted LPS structure (see **Fig. 2**). "Easy"

or "Hard" LPS structure phenotypes?: easy LPS phenotypes were overcome or could be cross-infected after the first phage evolution

experiment, while hard LPS phenotypes required the second or third phage evolution experiment to be infected. "INS": insertion. "DUP":

duplication. "stop": stop codon. "[a]": L249fsTer#263 indicates a frameshift (fs) leading to a premature codon stop (Ter); the position of the

premature stop codon is in parentheses. "[b]": M168_V172ins(376) indicates an insertion; the two flanking amino acids are separated by a "_"

and followed by the number of inserted amino acids in parentheses. "[c]": Δ[EutM_A58-EutE_A181] indicated a long deletion starting from

EutM to EutE. P242_A276dup(34) indicates a duplication; the two flanking amino acids are separated by a "_" and followed by the number

of duplicated amino acids in parentheses.

ΦX174 strains	Evolution experiment #	Gene mutated in the corresponding *E. coli* C resistant strains	Mutants sensitive to the evolved ΦX174 strain infection	Gene mutated in ΦX174 strains	Descriptions	Positions	Nucleotide changes	Amino acid changes	Are mutations present in a control lineage?
R21 T1	1	*waaO*	R5, R4, R13, R20, R21, R24, R29, WT	*F*	Capsid protein	1,347	a→g	D116G	No
				H	Minor spike protein	3,132	g→a	A68T	No
R24 T1	1	*waaO*	R5, R4, R13, R20, R21, R24, R29, WT	*F*	Capsid protein	1,346	g→a	D116S	No
				F	Capsid protein	1,347	a→g	D116S	No
R26 T1	1	*hldE*	R18, R8, R10, R26, R12, R7, R4, R13, R20, R21, R24, R29	*F*	Capsid protein	1,460	c→a	Q154K	No
				H	Minor spike protein	3,132	g→a	A68T	No
R27 T1	1	*hldE*	R27, R31, WT	*H*	Minor spike protein	3,202	g→t	G91V	No
R29 T1	1	*waaO*	R5, R4, R13, R20, R21, R24, R29, WT	*F*	Capsid protein	1,346	g→a	D116S	No
				F	Capsid protein	1,347	a→g	D116S	No
R31 T1	1	*hldE*	R27, R31, WT	*H*	Minor spike protein	3,202	g→t	G91V	No
R18 T4	1	*waaC*	R18, R8, R10, R26, R12, R14, R4, R13, R20, R21, R24, R29	*F*	Capsid protein	1,307	t→c	Y103H	No
				F	Capsid protein	1,461	a→g	Q154R	No
				H	Minor spike protein	3,132	g→a	A68T	No
R20 T5	1	*waaO*	R5, R27, R31, R12, R14, R4, R13, R20, R21, R24, R29, WT	*F*	Capsid protein	1,354	t→a	N118K	No
				H	Minor spike protein	3,132	g→a	A68T	No
R8 T6	1	*hldE*	R18, R8, R10, R26, R12, R14, R4, R13, R20, R21, R24, R29	*F*	Capsid protein	1,307	t→c	Y103H	No
				F	Capsid protein	1,461	a→g	Q154R	No
				F	Capsid protein	3,132	g→a	A68T	No
R10 T6	1	*hldE*	R18, R8, R10, R26, WT	*F*	Capsid protein	1,317	a→g	H106R	No

				F	Capsid protein	1,460	c→a	Q154K	No
R13 T6	1	*waaO*	R11, R4, R13, R20, R21, R24, R29, R33, R2, R34, WT	*F*	Capsid protein	2,015	g→c	D339H	No
R4 T7	1	*waaO*	R4, R13, R20, R21, R24, R29, WT	*F*	Capsid protein	1,301	a→g	T101A	Yes (in C1 T21)
				F	Capsid protein	1,347	a→g	D116G	No
				F	Capsid protein	2,085	c→t	A362V	No
R22 T1	2	*galU*	R18, R8, R10, R26, R32, R12, R14, R16, R17, R30, R35, R22, R28, R23, R9, R7, R4, R13, R20, R21, R24, R29	*F*	Capsid protein	1,307	t→c	Y103H	No
				F	Capsid protein	1,317	a→g	H106R	No
				F	Capsid protein	1,461	a→g	Q154R	No
				H	Minor spike protein	3,132	g→a	A68T	No
R28 T1	2	*waaG*	R18, R8, R10, R26, R32, R12, R14, R16, R17, R30, R35, R22, R28, R23, R9, R7, R4, R13, R20, R21, R24, R29	*F*	Capsid protein	1,307	t→c	Y103H	No
				F	Capsid protein	1,317	a→g	H106R	No
				F	Capsid protein	1,461	a→g	Q154R	No
				H	Minor spike protein	3,132	g→a	A68T	No
R25 T4	3	*rfaH*	R5, R18, R8, R10, R26, R12, R14, R25, R11, R7, R4, R13, R20, R21, R24, R29, R33, R2, R34, WT	*F*	Capsid protein	1,301	a→g	T101A	Yes (in C1 T21)
				F	Capsid protein	1,304	g→c	G102R	No
				F	Capsid protein	1,347	a→g	D116G	No
				H	Minor spike protein	3,132	g→a	A68T	No
R6 T12	3	*waaP*	R5, R18, R27, R31, R32, R6, R4, R13, R20, R21, R24, R29, R2, R34, WT	*F*	Capsid protein	1,727	c→t	L243F	No
				F	Capsid protein	2,015	g→c	D339H	No
				H	Minor spike protein	3,132	g→a	A68T	No
				H	Minor spike protein	3,154	c→t	A75V	No

Table S2: List of mutations identified in ΦX174 evolved isolates. ΦX174 strains: R# is the corresponding resistant strain number and

T# is the transfer number where plaques were observed for the first time on the given resistant strain. Evolution experiment #: experiment

number from which the evolved phages were isolated. Mutants sensitive to the evolved ΦX174 strains infection: list of all resistant strains

that a specific phage strain can infect (See **Figs. 6 and S3**). Descriptions: names of proteins encoded by the listed genes. Positions: genomic

coordinates of mutation (according to GenBank accession number AF176034.1). Nucleotide changes: observed nucleotide change. Amino

acid changes: resulting change in amino acid sequence. Are mutations present in a control lineage?: indicates mutations that were observed

in at least one control lineage (see **Methods**).

ΦX174 populations	Gene mutated in the corresponding E. coli C resistant strains	Gene mutated in ΦX174 strains	Descriptions	Positions	Nucleotide changes	Amino acid changes	Frequencies (%)	Are mutations present in a control lineage?
C1 T21	None (WT)	F	Capsid protein	1,301	a→g	T101A	69,8	-
		F	Capsid protein	1,965	g→a	G322D	70,9	-
C2 T21	None (WT)	F	Capsid protein	1,968	a→g	N323S	17,8	-
		F	Capsid protein	2,277	c→t	T426I	56,7	-
C3 T21	None (WT)	F	Capsid protein	2,277	c→t	T426I	5,7	-
		F	Capsid protein	2,280	c→t	S247L	80,7	-
R2 T21	waaW	F	Capsid protein	1,965	g→a	G322D	19,0	Yes (in C1 T21)
		F	Capsid protein	2,276	a→g	T426A	30,4	No
		F	Capsid protein	2,279	t→c	S427P	10,9	No
		F	Capsid protein	2,280	c→t	S247L	30,9	Yes (in C3 T21)
R5 T21	gmhB	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
R7 T21	waaO	F	Capsid protein	2,279	t→c	S427P	5,4	
		F	Capsid protein	2,280	c→t	S247L	93,2	Yes (in C3 T21)
R9 T21	waaG	F	Capsid protein	2,280	c→t	S247L	100	Yes (in C3 T21)
R11 T21	waaP	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
R12 T21	waaF	F	Capsid protein	2,280	c→t	S247L	100	Yes (in C3 T21)
R14 T21	waaF	F	Capsid protein	2,280	c→t	S247L	93,5	Yes (in C3 T21)
R16 T21	galU	F	Capsid protein	2,280	c→t	S247L	100	Yes (in C3 T21)
R17 T21	galU	F	Capsid protein	2,279	t→c	S427P	6,7	No
		F	Capsid protein	2,280	c→t	S247L	93,1	Yes (in C3 T21)

Strain	Gene		Description	Position	Nucleotide change	Amino acid change	Frequency	Reversion
R23 T21	waaG	F	Capsid protein	1,301	a→g	T101A	5,6	Yes (in C1 T21)
		F	Capsid protein	2,280	c→t	S247L	91,6	Yes (in C3 T21)
R30 T21	galU	F	Capsid protein	2,279	t→c	S427P	7,9	No
		F	Capsid protein	2,280	c→t	S247L	90,0	Yes (in C3 T21)
R32 T21	hldE	F	Capsid protein	2,276	a→g	T426A	29,6	No
		F	Capsid protein	2,277	c→t	T426I	6,8	Yes (in C2 T21 and C3 T21)
		F	Capsid protein	2,280	c→t	S247L	61,9	Yes (in C3 T21)
R33 T21	waaT	F	Capsid protein	2,276	a→g	T426A	42,9	No
		F	Capsid protein	2,277	c→t	T426I	14,8	Yes (in C2 T21 and C3 T21)
		F	Capsid protein	2,280	c→t	S247L	41,7	Yes (in C3 T21)
		A/A*	Replication-associated protein/protein A*	4,817	c→t	D279D/D107D	12,8	No
R34 T21	waaW	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
R35 T21	galU	F	Capsid protein	1,301	a→g	T101A	19,1	Yes (in C1 T21)
			Capsid protein	1,649	c→t	R217C	8,0	No
			Capsid protein	2,179	g→t	Q393H	6,8	No
			Capsid protein	2,280	c→t	S247L	82,9	Yes (in C3 T21)

Table S3: List of mutations found in the evolved ΦX174 populations that did not infect their corresponding *E. coli* C resistant strains. ΦX174 populations: R# is the corresponding resistant strain number and T# is the transfer number where plaques were observed for the first time on the given resistant strain. Descriptions: names of proteins encoded by the listed genes. Positions: genomic coordinates of mutation (according to GenBank accession number AF176034.1). Nucleotide changes: observed nucleotide change. Amino acid changes:

168   resulting change in amino acid sequence. Frequencies (%): frequency of a given mutation in the phage population. Are mutations present in

169   a control lineage?: indicates mutations that were observed in at least one control lineage (see **Methods**). NA: no data available.

Excluded *E. coli* C resistant strains	Genes	Locus tags	Synonyms	Descriptions	Positions	Nucleotide changes	Amino Acid changes	Predicted LPS structure phenotypes
R1	*waaV*	B6N50_00435 →	-	UDP-glucose:(Glucosyl) LPS β1,3-Glucosyltransferase	80,534	$(t)_{7\rightarrow6}$	F149fsTer#158[a]	Rough
	galE	B6N50_15815 →	-	UDP-glucose 4-epimerase	3,096,098 - 3,096,107	Δ10 bp	T228fsTer#233	
R3	*galE*	B6N50_15815 →	-	UDP-glucose 4-epimerase	3,095,443	g→a	G10D	Rough
R15	*galE*	B6N50_15815 →	-	UDP-glucose 4-epimerase	3,096,191	c→a	Y259stop	Rough
R19	*yajC*	B6N50_17610 ←	-	Preprotein translocase subunit	3,447,574	Δ1 bp	G18fsTer#23	Wildtype

ΦX174 strains	Evolution experiment #	Gene mutated in the corresponding *E. coli* C resistant strains	Gene mutated in ΦX174 strains	Descriptions	Positions	Nucleotide changes	Amino acid changes	Are mutations present in a control lineage?
R19 T1	1	*yajC*	*H*	Minor spike protein	3,781	c→a	S284Y	No
R5 T2	1	*gmhB*	*H*	Minor spike protein	3,169	c→t	G80V	No

Table S4: List of all *E. coli* C and evolved ΦX174 isolates excluded from the analysis. *E. coli* C resistant strains: R# is the excluded resistant strain number. Genes: name of gene(s) in which mutations have been identified (as compared with wildtype *E. coli* C; doi: 10.5281/zenodo.6952399). Locus tags: identifier of each listed gene. Synonyms: alternative gene names. Descriptions: protein product encoded by each listed gene. Positions: genomic coordinates of mutation. Nucleotide changes: observed nucleotide change. Amino acid changes: resulting change in amino acid sequence. Predicted LPS structure phenotypes: based on predicted LPS structure (see **Fig. 2**). "stop": stop codon. "[a]": F149fsTer#158 indicates a frameshift (fs) leading to a premature codon stop (Ter); the position of the premature stop codon is in parentheses. ΦX174 strains: R# is the corresponding resistant strain number and T# is the transfer number where plaques were observed for the first time on the given resistant strain. Evolution experiment #: experiment number where the evolved phages were obtained.

180   Descriptions: names of proteins encoded by the listed genes. Positions: genomic coordinates of mutation (according to GenBank accession

181   number AF176034.1). Nucleotide changes: observed nucleotide change. Amino acid changes: resulting change in amino acid sequence. Are

182   mutations present in a control lineage?: indicates mutations that were observed in at least one control lineage (see **Methods**).

E. coli C resistant strains	Replicate #	Genes	Locus tags	Descriptions	Positions	Nucleotide changes	Amino Acid changes	Predicted LPS structure phenotypes
R3	1	*gltD*	B6N50_02830 ←	Glutamate synthase subunit gltD	555,954	t→c	Y318C	Rough
		galE	B6N50_15815 →	UDP-glucose 4-epimerase	3,095,443	g→a	G10D	
R3	2, 3, 5, 9, 10	*WaaT*	B6N50_00420 →	UDP-galactose:(glucosyl) LPS α-1,2-galactosyltransferase	77,302	(a)6→5	K16fsTer#23[a]	Rough
		gltD	B6N50_02830 ←	Glutamate synthase subunit gltD	555,954	t→c	Y318C	
		-	-	Hypothetical protein	2,147,627	c→t	Q793stop	
		galE	B6N50_15815 →	UDP-glucose 4-epimerase	3,095,443	g→a	G10D	
R3	4	*oppB*	B6N50_13280 ←	Murein tripeptide ABC transporter/inner membrane subunit	2,600,004	g→a	A211V	Deep rough
		galU	B6N50_13325 ←	UTP--glucose-1-phosphate uridylyltransferase	2,611,933	Δ1 bp	I57fsTer#86	
		galE	B6N50_15815 →	UDP-glucose 4-epimerase	3,095,443	g→a	G10D	
R3	6	*gmhD*	B6N50_00455 ←	ADP-L-glycero-D-mannoheptose-6-epimerase	84,986	g→t	Y140stop	Rough
		galE	B6N50_15815 →	UDP-glucose 4-epimerase	3,095,443	g→a	G10D	
R3	7	*galE*	B6N50_15815 →	UDP-glucose 4-epimerase	3,095,443	g→a	G10D	Rough
		galT	B6N50_15820 →	Galactose-1-phosphate uridylyltransferase	3,097,396	t→c	L319P	
R3	8	*gltD*	B6N50_02830 ←	Glutamate synthase subunit gltD	555,954	t→c	Y318C	Rough
		-	-	Hypothetical protein	2,147,627	c→t	Q793stop	
		galE	B6N50_15815 →	UDP-glucose 4-epimerase	3,095,443	g→a	G10D	
R15	1	*galP*	B6N50_04295 ←	Galactose-proton symporter	835,258	a→g	F405L	Rough
		galE	B6N50_15815 →	UDP-glucose 4-epimerase	3,096,191	c→a	Y259stop	

R15	2	*WaaT*	*B6N50_00420 →*	UDP-galactose:(glucosyl) LPS α-1,2-galactosyltransferase	77,590	g→t	E112stop	Rough
		galE	*B6N50_15815 →*	UDP-glucose 4-epimerase	3,096,191	c→a	Y259stop	
R15	3 - 6	*waaW*	*B6N50_00430 →*	UDP-galactose--(galactosyl) LPS alpha1,2-galactosyltransferase	79,764	t→g	L262R	Rough
		galE	*B6N50_15815 →*	UDP-glucose 4-epimerase	3,096,191	c→a	Y259stop	
R15	7	*galP*	*B6N50_04295 ←*	Galactose-proton symporter	836,442	g→t	S10stop	Rough
		galE	*B6N50_15815 →*	UDP-glucose 4-epimerase	3,096,191	c→a	Y259stop	
R15	8	*galP*	*B6N50_04295 ←*	Galactose-proton symporter	835,353	a→g	L373P	Rough
		galE	*B6N50_15815 →*	UDP-glucose 4-epimerase	3,096,191	c→a	Y259stop	
R15	9	*galE*	*B6N50_15815 →*	UDP-glucose 4-epimerase	3,096,191	c→a	Y259stop	Rough
R15	10	*galP*	*B6N50_04295 ←*	Galactose-proton symporter	835,170	c→t	W434stop	Rough
		galE	*B6N50_15815 →*	UDP-glucose 4-epimerase	3,096,191	c→a	Y259stop	

Table S5: List of the additional mutations associated with *galE* mutations. *E. coli* C resistant strains: R# is the resistant strain number.

Genes: name of the gene(s) in which mutations have been identified (as compared with wildtype *E. coli* C; doi: 10.5281/zenodo.6952399).

Locus tags: identifier of each listed gene. Descriptions: protein product encoded by each listed gene. Positions: genomic coordinates of

mutation. Nucleotide changes: observed nucleotide change. Amino acid changes: resulting change in amino acid sequence. Predicted LPS

structure phenotypes: based on predicted LPS structure (see **Fig. 2**). "stop": stop codon. "a": K16sTer#23 indicates a frameshift (fs) leading

to a premature codon stop (Ter); the position of the premature stop codon is in parentheses.

Name	Sequence (5'→3')	Binding Region	Tm 2Q5	Ta 2Q5	Purpose
ΦX174_2361_r	TCGCTTGGTCAACCCCTCAG	2342-2361	70°C	71°C	ΦX174 Whole genome amplification
ΦX174_2362_f	AGCGCGGTAGGTTTTCTGCT	2362-2382	70°C		
ΦX174_399_r	CTTGACTCATGATTTCTTACC	379-399	58°C	59°C	ΦX174 Whole genome amplification
ΦX174_400_f	TTACTGAACAATCCGTACGTTTC	400-422	62°C		

Name	Sequence (5'→3')	Binding Region	Tm Phusion (buffer HF)	Ta Phusion (buffer HF)	Purpose
ΦX174_F_fw	CGCTCGTCTTTGGTATGTAGGTGG	928-951	65°C	68°C	Amplification of ΦX174's F gene
ΦX174_F_rv	AGCGGCGTTGACAGATGTATCC	2580-2601	65°C		Amplification of ΦX174's F gene
ΦX174_F_fw2	GTTGCGAGGTACTAAAGGCAAGCG	898-921	66°C	68°C	Amplification of ΦX174's F gene
ΦX174_F_rv2	CTGGAGTAACAGAAGTGAGAACCAGC	2245-2470	65°C		Amplification of ΦX174's F gene
ΦX174_F_fw_sh	CGTCTTTGGTATGTAGGTGG	932-951	57°C	61°C	Amplification of ΦX174's F gene
ΦX174_F_rv_sh	CGGCGTTGACAGATGTATC	2581-2599	58°C		Amplification of ΦX174's F gene
ΦX174_H_fw	CAAGGACTGTGTGACTATTGACGTCC	2763-2788	65°C	68°C	Amplification of ΦX174's H gene
ΦX174_H_rv	GCCTCTACGCGATTTCATAGTGGAG	4490-4514	65°C		Amplification of ΦX174's H gene
ΦX174_H_fw2	CGCTACTAAATGCCGCGGATTGG	2847-2869	66°C	67°C	Amplification of ΦX174's H gene
ΦX174_H_rv2	GCCTCCAGCAATCTTGAACACTC	4467-4489	64°C		Amplification of ΦX174's H gene
ΦX174_H_fw_sh	GACTGTGTGACTATTGACGTCC	2767-2788	60°C	61°C	Amplification of ΦX174's H gene
ΦX174_H_rv_sh	GCCTCTACGCGATTTCATAG	4495-4514	58°C		Amplification of ΦX174's H gene

Name	Sequence (5'→3')	Binding Region	Tm	Ta	Purpose
ΦX174_F_Sanger_fw	CCTCATCGTCACGTTTATGG	1217-1236	58°C	56°C	Sanger sequencing of ΦX174's *F* gene
ΦX174_F_Sanger_fw2	ACCGATATTGCTGGCGAC	1934-1951	59°C	56°C	Sanger sequencing of ΦX174's *F* gene
ΦX174_F_Sanger_rv	GGCGTTATAACCTCACACTC	2294-2313	58°C	56°C	Sanger sequencing of ΦX174's *F* gene
ΦX174_F_Sanger_rv2	GGCGAGAAAGCTCAGTCTC	1529-1547	60°C	56°C	Sanger sequencing of ΦX174's *F* gene
ΦX174_H_Sanger_fw	GTGGCGCCATGTCTAAATTG	2974-2993	59°C	56°C	Sanger sequencing of ΦX174's *H* gene
ΦX174_H_Sanger_fw2	CAGCAAACGCAGAATCAGC	3720-3738	60°C	56°C	Sanger sequencing of ΦX174's *H* gene
ΦX174_H_Sanger_rv	CCACAAGCCTCAATAGCAG	4054-4072	58°C	56°C	Sanger sequencing of ΦX174's *H* gene
ΦX174_H_Sanger_rv2	CTTTATCAGCGGCAGACTTG	3251-3270	58°C	56°C	Sanger sequencing of ΦX174's *H* gene

Table S6. List of primers used in this study. *F*: encodes for the viral capsid protein. *H*: encodes for the minor spike protein. "fw": forward. "rv": reverse. Tm 2Q5: melting temperature of the primer used with the Q5® High-Fidelity 2X Master Mix (NEB). Ta 2Q5: annealing temperature of the set of primers used with the Q5® High-Fidelity 2X Master Mix (NEB). Tm Phusion (buffer HF): melting temperature of the primer used with Phusion® High-Fidelity PCR Master Mix with HF Buffer (ThermoFisher). Ta Phusion (buffer HF): annealing temperature of the primer used with Phusion® High-Fidelity PCR Master Mix with HF Buffer (ThermoFisher).

Supplementary Methods

In this section, we provide a more detailed version of the protocols used in the **Methods** section.

First phage evolution experiment - Standard. The protocol from Bono *et al.* (Bono et al. 2012) was adapted to evolve phages that can infect resistant *E. coli* C strains. Of R1-R35 – the 35 *E. coli* C strains resistant to ΦX174 wildtype, see above – 31 were used for the first phage evolution experiment (excluding R1, R3, R15, and R19; see **Results** and **Text S1**). Thirty-one ΦX174 lineages were each founded by ΦX174 wildtype and serially transferred daily, for up to 21 days, on non-evolving host cultures containing a mix of (i) *E. coli* C wildtype (permissive strain) and (ii) one resistant *E. coli* C strain (non-permissive strain; R2-R35).

For each transfer, permissive and non-permissive bacteria were grown separately until they reached the log phase. These cultures were founded with an initial inoculum of 180 μl from fast and intermediate growers' overnight cultures or 350 μl from slow growers' overnight cultures (see **Fig. S4**). Fast and intermediate growers' cultures were incubated at 37°C (250 rpm) for two hours, while slow growers' cultures were incubated for three hours. Then, permissive and non-permissive strains were mixed in a 14 ml sterile tube at a specific ratio depending on the growth of the non-permissive strain (1:1 for fast growers, 1:2 for intermediate growers, 1:3 for slow growers), to a final volume of 5 ml.

At each transfer, $\sim 10^8$ freshly prepared susceptible cells were infected by $\sim 10^7$ ΦX174 (MOI_{input} ~ 0.1). Infected cultures were shaken at 250 rpm, 37°C for three hours. Phage lysates were isolated as described in **Phage lysate preparation**. Phage lysates from the previous day were used to inoculate the fresh bacterial mixes the next day. Transfers continued until phages were found to infect their corresponding resistant *E. coli* C strain, or until 21 transfers were reached. Three control lines were also run in parallel, by transferring ΦX174 at MOI_{input} ~ 0.1 in a culture containing *E. coli* C wildtype (permissive strain) only.

Second phage evolution experiment – Increased diversity. A phage cocktail made of (i) the wildtype ΦX174 and (ii) all ΦX174 strains that successfully re-infected their corresponding resistant strains during the phage evolution experiment – Standard was generated by first diluting each phage lysate and mixing them at a roughly equal number of pfu (final concentration of $\sim 2.10^8$ pfu ml^{-1}). These phage strains (14 in total) are: ΦX174 R4 T7, ΦX174 R5 T2, ΦX174 R8 T6,

ΦX174 R10 T6, ΦX174 R13 T6, ΦX174 R18 T4, ΦX174 R19 T1, ΦX174 R20 T5, ΦX174 R21

T1, ΦX174 R24 T1, ΦX174 R26 T1, ΦX174 R27 T1, ΦX174 R29 T1, and ΦX174 R31 T1.

Despite being removed from the mutational analysis, phages infecting R5 and R19, respectively,

were part of the final cocktail (see **Text S1** and **Table S4**).

The phage cocktail was grown and transferred daily, for up to four days, on non-evolving host

cultures containing: (i) *E. coli* C wildtype, (ii) the 14 host strains for which resistance had been

overcome (permissive hosts: *E. coli* C R4, R5, R8, R10, R13, R18, R19, R20, R21, R24, R26, R27,

R29, and R31), and (iii) an excess of one of the still-resistant strain of interest (non-permissive

host). For the non-permissive host, we used R6 (*waaP*/*pssA* mutant), R22 (*galU* mutant), R25 (*rfaH*

mutant), or R28 (*waaG* mutant; see **Table S1**). *E. coli* C R22 and R28 were chosen as representatives

of the *galU* and *waaG* mutants, respectively.

Each bacterial strain (permissive and non-permissive) was grown separately in LB liquid culture

for one hour (37˚C, 250 rpm). An inoculum of 180 μl from overnight cultures was used for the

fast and intermediate growers, while 350 μl was used for the slow growers. After the incubation

time, permissive strains were pooled at a roughly equal number of colony-forming units (CFU),

for a final concentration of ~10^8 susceptible, permissive cells. One of the *E. coli* C resistant strains

of interest (non-permissive host; R6, R22, R25 or R28) was then added in excess (in between ~1

and 5$x10^8$ resistant cells) in the host mix, to give a final volume of 4 ml.

Infections were initiated by adding ~10^7 phages (MOI_{input} ~0.1) from the phage cocktail to the

bacterial culture mix. Infected cultures were shaken in 100 ml sterile Erlenmeyer at 250 rpm, 37˚C,

for five hours. Phage lysates were isolated as described in **Phage lysate preparation**. Phage lysates

from the previous day were used to inoculate the fresh bacterial mixes the next day. This process

was repeated until phages were found to infect their corresponding resistant *E. coli* C strains, or

until four transfers had been completed.

Third evolution experiment – Increased diversity and generations. The same phage cocktail

used in the second phage evolution experiment – Increased diversity was grown and transferred

daily, four times a day, for up to four days on non-evolving host cultures containing (i) *E. coli* C

wildtype, (ii) the 14 host strains for which resistance had been overcome (permissive hosts: *E. coli*

C R4, R5, R8, R10, R13, R18, R19, R20, R21, R24, R26, R27, R29, and R31), and (iii) one of the

still-resistant strain of interest (non-permissive host). The definitive protocol from the second

phage evolution experiment – Increased diversity was adjusted to reduce the amount of time

necessary to retrieve the desired phages. We increased the number of transfers per day from one

to four for a total of four days (16 transfers in total). Only *E. coli* C R6 (*waaP*/*pssA* mutant) and

R25 (*rfaH* mutant) (see **Table S1**) were used as non-permissive hosts.

Each bacterial strain (permissive and non-permissive) was grown separately for one hour. An

inoculum of 180 μl from overnight cultures was used for the fast and intermediate growers, while

350 μl was used for the slow growers. After the incubation time, permissive strains were pooled

at a roughly equal number of colony-forming units (CFU) in three different mixes depending on

the growth categories of each bacterium (slow, intermediate, and fast growers, **Fig. S4**). 1 ml of

each fast grower was used to make the "fast mix" (constituted of *E. coli* C wildtype, R5, R19, R27,

and R31). 833 μl of each intermediate grower was used for the "intermediate mix" (constituted of

R4, R13, R20, R21, R24, and R29). Finally, 1.25 ml of each slow grower was used to prepare the

"slow mix" (constituted of R8, R10, R18, and R26).

Non-permissive strains and bacterial mixes were kept in exponential growth phase independently

by transferring 1:5 of the volume (1 ml) in fresh LB pre-heated at 37°C every hour (final volume

of 5 ml). To check whether the growth of the different bacteria remained consistent from one

transfer to another, the OD600 values were measured before each transfer. The volume

transferred at each hour was modified accordingly if the bacterial growth was too fast or too slow.

Before adding the phage cocktail, all bacterial mixes were pooled together at a roughly equal

number of cfu (500 μl each, for a total of $\sim 10^8$ susceptible cells), and one of the *E. coli* C resistant

strains of interest (non-permissive host; R6 or R25) was added in excess (i.e., the number of

resistant cells was comprised between ~ 1 and 5.10^8), for a final volume of 4 ml.

Infections started by adding $\sim 10^7$ phages ($MOI_{input} \sim 0.1$) from the cocktail in the final bacterial

mix. Infected cultures were shaken in 100 ml sterile Erlenmeyer at 250 rpm, 37°C, for one hour.

After that, 1:15 of the volume of each infected culture was transferred to freshly mixed bacterial

cultures and the infection continued for one hour. This step was repeated for a total of four

transfers. The final (fourth) transfer lasted for two hours to ensure that all phages completed the

infection cycle and are present in the culture medium and not in the cell. All transfers completed

on the same day involved transferring both phage and bacteria; on every fourth transfer,

supernatants were collected and only phages were transferred. Phage lysates were isolated as

described in **Phage lysate preparation**. Phage lysates from the previous day were used to

inoculate the first fresh bacterial mixes the next day. This entire process was repeated until phages

that could infect their corresponding resistant *E. coli* C strains were identified or until four transfers

had been completed.

Isolation of evolved ΦX174 strains from single plaques. To isolate pure, single clones from

the different evolution experiments, top agar overlays were prepared by mixing 100 μl of undiluted

phage lysates with 200 μl of an overnight culture of the corresponding resistant *E. coli* C strain in

4 ml SSA (supplemented with $CaCl_2$ and $MgCl_2$ at a final concentration of 5 and 10 mM,

respectively). Top agar overlays were poured onto LB plates, dried for at least 15 minutes, and

incubated inverted at 37°C for ~16-17 hours. Plaques were counted the next day. An isolated

plaque was chosen randomly for each phage lysate to infect cultures of the corresponding resistant

E. coli C strains (in exponential growth state) incubated at 37°C, 250 rpm, for five hours. Phage

lysates were isolated as described in **Phage lysate preparation**. To obtain pure phage glycerol

stocks (isogenic stocks which are presumed to hold one genetic clone (van Charante et al. 2019)),

phages were purified via a second round of plaque isolation from their first glycerol stocks. Phage

lysates were isolated and stored as described in **Phage lysate preparation**.

Determination of the evolved phages' host range by spotting assays

Method 1. Each top agar overlay was prepared by mixing 200 μl of an *E. coli* C strain from stationary

phase culture in 4 ml SSA (supplemented with $CaCl_2$ and $MgCl_2$ at a final concentration of 5 and

10 mM, respectively), then poured on LB plates and dried for at least 15 minutes under a sterile

laminar flow hood. Then, 3 μl of each undiluted evolved phage lysate (between 10^7 and 10^9 pfu

ml^{-1}) was dropped at the surface.

Method 2. Each top agar overlay was prepared by mixing a volume of each phage lysate in 4 ml SSA

at a final concentration of $\sim 10^7$ pfu ml^{-1}, then poured on LB plates and dried for at least 15 minutes

under a sterile laminar flow hood. Then, 3 μl of both undiluted and ten-fold diluted of each *E. coli*

C strain (from overnight culture) were dropped onto the surface with a pipette.

For both methods, spots were dried for at least 30 minutes under sterile laminar flow, and the

plates were subsequently incubated inverted at 37°C for ~17 hours. *E. coli* C wildtype was used as

a positive control (permissive strain), and *E. coli* K-12 MG1655 as a negative control (non-

permissive strain). Sterile H_2O was also spotted at the end of each plate as a control for material

contamination (pipettes and tips). A bacterial host strain was classified as sensitive only when signs

of lysis were detected using both methods, in at least two (of three) replicates per method. A phage-

bacterium combination that yielded different results between the two methods was tested in

standard plaque assays as follows: a top agar overlay was prepared by mixing 100 μl of the phage

lysate diluted to 10^{-1} and 10^{-6} with 200 μl of the resistant *E. coli* C strain from stationary phase

culture in 4 ml SSA supplemented with $CaCl_2$ and $MgCl_2$ at a final concentration of 5 and 10 mM,

respectively), then poured on LB plates and dried for at least 15 minutes. The presence or absence

of plaques was assessed the next day. Finally, the host strain was classified as sensitive if plaques

were observed at both dilutions.

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450