Title

From phenotype to receptor: validating physiological clustering of *Escherichia coli*

phages through comprehensive receptor analysis

Running title

Coliphage traits and receptor-driven classification

Keywords

Bacteriophage, *Escherichia coli*, Target receptor, Lipopolysaccharide, Phage

classification

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Disclosure

The authors declare no conflicts of interest associated with any financial or commercial

arrangements of this manuscript.

Abstract

Understanding the relationship between bacteriophage (phage) classification and target receptors is crucial for phage ecology and applied research. In this study, we compared 13 previously isolated *Escherichia coli* phages based on physiological characteristics, whole-genome sequences, and tail fiber protein phylogenetics. We improved our previously proposed physiological clustering method by optimizing the bacterial panel for host range assessment, implementing appropriate distance metrics for mixed data types, and applying silhouette coefficient analysis for objective determination of optimal cluster numbers. We combined genomic analysis and lipopolysaccharide (LPS) structural analysis of phage-resistant *E. coli* strains to identify target receptors of the phages. Complementation experiments further confirmed the direct involvement of identified genes in phage reception. The results revealed that phylogenetically distinct *E. coli* phages target different sites in the LPS R-core region (modified by WaaV, WaaW, WaaT, and WaaY), membrane proteins (NfrB, TolA, YhaH), or flagella. Our analysis revealed that, subtle chemical modifications of LPS (such as Heptose phosphorylation) were shown to be important for *E. coli* phage recognition. Furthermore, physiological characteristics, tail fiber phylogenetics, and whole genome analysis independently classified the phages with high correlation to target receptor specificity. The addition of three phages with known receptors further validated our approach. Our results suggest that phage phenotypes and genotypes are closely related to target receptor specificity. Here, we elucidated the diversity and specificity of *E. coli* phage target receptors, providing new insights into the classification of *E. coli* phages and phage-host interactions.

Importance

Phage therapy is gaining attention as an alternative treatment for antibiotic-resistant bacteria. Developing effective phage cocktails requires combining phages with different target receptors, but traditional methods for identifying target receptors are labor-intensive. This study demonstrates that *E. coli* phages with different target receptors can be grouped based on their physiological characteristics, tail fiber sequences, or whole genomes. This insight can be used to more efficiently create diverse phage cocktails. Additionally, we identified phages targeting diverse sites, including different regions of LPS, membrane proteins, and flagella. These findings deepen our understanding of phage host recognition mechanisms, enabling the rapid preparation of effective phage cocktails and contributing to new advancements in bacterial infection treatment.

Introduction

With the emergence of antibiotic-resistant bacteria, bacteriophage (phage) therapy - utilizing viruses that specifically infect bacteria - is gaining attention as an alternative treatment. Phages exhibit extremely high host specificity, which is primarily determined by their target receptors. For instance, phages that infect *Escherichia coli* are known to target membrane proteins, such as OmpC and LamB, or the lipopolysaccharide (LPS) (1). While bacteria can also become resistant to phages, using multiple phages that target different host receptors in a therapeutic cocktail has been shown to be effective at delaying and/or suppressing the emergence of phage-resistant bacteria (2)(3)(4)(5).

However, in the clinical setting, identifying the target receptors of each phage before creating a cocktail is impractical due to time constraints. For example, in a case of multidrug-resistant *Acinetobacter baumannii* infection reported by Schooley et al., the

initial phage screening and selection was completed within 18 hours to address the

patient's critical condition, though additional phages were subsequently identified and

administered to the patient. In such urgent cases, conventional methods based on receptor

identification is impractical, and more rapid treatment decision-making is required (6).

Traditionally, phage target receptor identification has involved a labor-intensive process

of creating phage-resistant bacteria, conducting whole-genome comparative analysis, and

identifying mutation sites (7)(8). While this methodology is reliable, it is unsuitable for

clinical application due to its time and cost requirements. As such, in personalized phage

therapy, phages are often combined in therapeutic cocktails without the knowledge of

each phage's receptor. If multiple phages target the same receptor, a single receptor

mutation could render the cocktail ineffective.

In addition, while genomic approaches to phage characterization have become

increasingly accessible for well-studied organisms like *E. coli*, receptor identification

based on genomic data requires that the host bacterial genome is well-characterized, with

comprehensive understanding of its surface structures and their genetic determinants. For

emerging multidrug-resistant pathogens with less characterized genomes, such as

Stenotrophomonas maltophilia or various non-model clinical isolates, the interpretation

of genomic data for receptor identification remains challenging (9).

In our previous study, we proposed a clustering method based on physiological

characteristics such as growth dynamics and host range. This method makes it possible

to create effective phage cocktails without identifying the target receptors (10). However,

at the time, we did not evaluate the validity of the proposed clustering methodology.

First, the bacterial panel used for host range evaluation was limited and lacked systematic

selection criteria. Second, the distance calculation methods used for clustering did not

optimally handle the mixed nature of qualitative infection data and quantitative physiological measurements. Third, the criteria for determining the optimal number of clusters were not clearly defined. Fourth, the relationship between the clustered phages and their target receptors remained unverified. Finally, the correlation between physiological clustering and genomic characteristics was not evaluated.

The present study aimed to validate and improve the proposed clustering method through comprehensive analysis of each phage's target receptor. We enhanced our methodology by implementing more robust approaches for host range assessment, distance calculation, and cluster determination. Furthermore, we compared this improved physiological characteristic based classification method to other classification methods, including whole-genome sequencing and tail fiber protein phylogenetic analysis. Through these analyses, we aimed to evaluate how each classification method correlates with target receptors, with a particular focus on validating our refined physiological clustering approach. These findings are expected to contribute to rapid treatment decision-making in clinical settings and the standardization of phage therapy.

Results

Genomic characterization of phages

Whole genome sequencing and ANI analyses indicated that the phages represent three distinct taxonomic genera (Fig. S1, Table S1, S2, S3): ΦWec172, ΦWec174, and ΦWec177 belong to *Felixounavirus* (*Ounaviridae*); ΦWec189, ΦWec191, ΦWec193, and ΦWec196 are members of *Vequintaviridae* (*Vequintavirus*); and ΦWec179, ΦWec181, ΦWec186, ΦWec187, ΦWec188, and ΦWec190 are members of *Stephanstirmvirinae*. Among the *Stephanstirmvirinae* phages, ΦWec187 showed characteristics related to

Justusliebigvirus, while our previous analysis indicated that ΦWec179, ΦWec181,

ΦWec186, ΦWec188, and ΦWec190 represent a proposed novel genus "*Wecvirus*" (11).

Fig S1. Visualized physiological relationship. The genomes of the 13 phages used in

this study and the genomes of 3503 reference phages (Prokaryotic Viral RefSeq201) from

vConTACT2 were clustered based on shared proteins and analyzed as a network. The

distance between phages was measured using vConTACT2, and the network was

visualized using Cytoscape. (a) Overview of the entire network showing viral clusters.

(b) Enlarged view of the cluster containing ΦWec172, 174, and 177. All phages in this

viral cluster belong to various genera within *Ounavirinae*. (c) Enlarged view showing

ΦWec179, 181, 186, 187, 188, and 190, which belong to or are closely related to viral

clusters containing phages exclusively from various genera within *Stephanstirmvirinae*

(11). Additionally, ΦWec189, 191, 193, and 196 belong to a viral cluster containing only

Vequintavirus phages from *Vequintavirinae*.

Table S1 ANI of phages in this study

Table S2 ANI between ΦWec172, 174, 177 and registered *Ounavirinae* phages

The table shows ΦWec172, 174, and 177 in the upper left. Maximum ANI values with

registered phages range between 70% and 80%, suggesting these phages represent new

species within the *Felixounavirus* genus of *Ounavirinae*, considering the established

thresholds of 70% for genus demarcation and 95% for species demarcation. For detailed

data, refer to the supplementary information Excel file.

Table S3 ANI between ΦWec189, 191, 193, 196 and registered *Vequintavirus* phages

	phiWec189	phiWec191	phiWec193	phiWec196	Escherichia~phage~APECc02	Escherichia~phage~FFH2	Escherichia~phage~FV3	Escherichia~phage~JES2013	Escherichia~phage~Murica	Escherichia~phage~slur16	Escherichia~phage~V18	Escherichia~phage~V5
phiWec189	1.0000	0.8713	0.8582	0.8731	0.8559	0.8715	0.8257	0.8797	0.8950	0.8814	0.8452	0.8684
phiWec191	0.8956	1.0000	0.8431	0.8475	0.8882	0.8781	0.8308	0.8719	0.9152	0.8930	0.8312	0.8702
phiWec193	0.8725	0.8485	1.0000	0.9980	0.8711	0.8845	0.7927	0.8688	0.8983	0.8490	0.8152	0.8684
phiWec196	0.8785	0.8536	0.9980	1.0000	0.8641	0.8839	0.7986	0.8628	0.8979	0.8488	0.8095	0.8740
Escherichia~phage~APECc02	0.8634	0.8558	0.8552	0.8627	1.0000	0.8921	0.8060	0.8489	0.8772	0.8503	0.8185	0.8450
Escherichia~phage~FFH2	0.8891	0.8724	0.8603	0.8827	0.9084	1.0000	0.8491	0.9051	0.9085	0.8801	0.8529	0.8636
Escherichia~phage~FV3	0.8359	0.8292	0.8137	0.8297	0.8019	0.8451	1.0000	0.8360	0.8477	0.8629	0.8243	0.8204
Escherichia~phage~JES2013	0.8640	0.8540	0.8330	0.8633	0.8515	0.8906	0.8336	1.0000	0.9124	0.8766	0.8792	0.8931
Escherichia~phage~Murica	0.8884	0.8994	0.8710	0.8899	0.8722	0.8991	0.8186	0.8991	1.0000	0.8898	0.8551	0.8600
Escherichia~phage~slur16	0.8789	0.8951	0.8528	0.8578	0.8610	0.8860	0.8670	0.8817	0.9090	1.0000	0.8736	0.8749
Escherichia~phage~V18	0.8112	0.7778	0.7596	0.7824	0.7854	0.8042	0.7813	0.8216	0.8428	0.8145	1.0000	0.7883
Escherichia~phage~V5	0.8889	0.8699	0.8486	0.8642	0.8537	0.8531	0.8274	0.8841	0.8787	0.8761	0.8542	1.0000

178 The table shows ΦWec189, 191, 193, and 196 in the upper left. Maximum ANI values

179 with registered phages range between 70% and 90%, suggesting these phages represent

180 new species within the *Vequintavirus* genus, considering the established thresholds of

181 70% for genus demarcation and 95% for species demarcation. For detailed data, refer to

182 the supplementary information Excel file.

184 Whole genome analysis of TK001 wild type strain and mutation analysis of target

185 receptor mutant strains

TK001 used in this study was isolated from the feces of a C57BL/6JJcl female mouse

with dextran sodium sulfate induced colitis (MP Biomedicals, Soho, OH, USA) and was

used as the host strain for phage isolation. Hybrid assembly of shotgun sequencing and

long-read sequencing revealed that the complete genome of TK001 consists of 4,779,140

bp with a GC content of 50.79%, and its sequence type (ST) based on Multilocus sequence

typing (MLST) analysis is 345.

Mutation analysis of 13 phage-resistant strains revealed frameshift mutations or stop

codon insertions in genes encoding outer membrane/inner membrane proteins or LPS

synthesis enzymes in each strain (Table 1). Among the 13 phage-resistant strains, 8 strains

showed mutations in the genes of the LPS synthesis pathway, while the other 4 strains

had mutations in genes related to membrane proteins or flagella. Notably, no target

receptor mutants were obtained for ΦWec179. For ΦWec177, two resistant strains were

analyzed and are distinguished as R177-1 and R177-2.

Table 1 Genes with frameshift or stop codon mutations in target receptor mutant

***E. coli* strains**

phage used to make strains resistant	strain	mutated gene(s)	description (role of genes)	mutation site in WT	mutation type	mutation site in WT amino acids (native length [AAs])	the size of the expected gene product (WT size) [Da]
ΦWec172	R172	waaV	beta1,3-glucosyltransferase	3934566	Frame shift (A→.)	p.Y151lfs*158 (327)	17856.774 (38773.742)
ΦWec174	R174	waaW	UDP-galactose--(galactosyl) LPS alpha1,2-galactosyltransferase	3935258	Frame shift (.→T)	p.A290Dfs*295 (341)	33723.99 (39312.395)
ΦWec177	R177-1	waaV	beta1,3-glucosyltransferase	3934492	Frame shift (A→.)	p.F175Lfs*181 (327)	20786.28 (38773.742)
ΦWec177	R177-2	waaV	beta1,3-glucosyltransferase	3934492	Frame shift (A→.)	p.F175Lfs*181 (327)	20786.28 (38773.742)
		wecA	Undecaprenyl-phosphate alpha-N-acetylglucosaminyl 1-phosphate transferase	4108976	Frame shift (A→.)	p.A28Afs*28 (367)	3647.418 (40938.761)
ΦWec181	R181	manB-1	Mannose-1-phosphate guanylyltransferase	2178550-2178553	Frame shift (CCTC→.)	p.A390_E391fs*432 (458)	47602.579 (50839.022)
		waaT	LPS 1,2-galactosyltransferase	3937043	Stop codon (C→T)	p.W269* (331)	30982.807 (38497.428)
ΦWec186	R186	flhD	Flagellar transcriptional regulator FlhD	2021475	Ser→Pro (A→G)	p.S16P (156)	13308.283 (13298.245)
		bcsG	Cellulose biosynthesis protein BcsG	3831107	Stop codon (C→T)	p.Q542* (559)	59871.85 (61986.166)
ΦWec187	R187	bcsG	Cellulose biosynthesis protein BcsG	3831107	Stop codon (C→T)	p.Q542* (559)	59871.85 (61986.166)
ΦWec188	R188	yhaH	Inner membrane protein YhaH	3405873-3405920	Frame shift*	p.Pro66_Ala82del (121)	12236.536 (14262.756)
ΦWec189	R189	nfrB	bacteriophage N4 adsorption protein B	576511	Stop codon (C→T)	p.W391* (745)	45051.426 (85329.404)
		ompA	Outer membrane protein A	1046632-1046640	Frame shift (CACCAAAAG→.)	p.A60_G63del (346)	36906.975 (37182.278)
ΦWec190	R190	waaG	UDP-glucose:(heptosyl)LPS alpha-1,3-glucosyltransferase	3940586	Stop codon (A→T)	p.L76*(374)	8796.029 (42509.807)
ΦWec191	R191	nfrB	bacteriophage N4 adsorption protein B	576613	Asp→Ala (T→G)	p.N357A (745)	85285.395 (85329.404)
		tolA	TolA	767756	Stop codon (C→T)	p.Q269* (422)	7295.244 (43138.074)
ΦWec193	R193	waaY	LPS core heptose(II) kinase RfaY	3936259	Stop codon (C→A)	p.E196* (230)	22793.077 (26975.989)
ΦWec196	R196	waaY	LPS core heptose(II) kinase RfaY	3936259	Stop codon (C→A)	p.E196* (230)	22793.077 (26975.989)

202 In the "Mutation type" column, an asterisk (*) indicates that the sequence "CGTGGTGGGCAGTTCAGTTCCGCCGCCTGCACGACACCGACCGCTCGG" is missing (i.e., replaced with ".").
The "Mutation site in WT amino acids (native length [AAs])" column follows HGVS nomenclature.

Identification and validation of phage receptor genes through efficiency of plating

(EoP) of phages against target receptor mutant strains and Keio collection,

complementation, and structural prediction

The EoP of each phage against TK001 and target receptor mutant strains was evaluated

(Table 2). A decrease in EoP to less than 10-fold ($\log(\text{EoP}) < -1$) was defined as a

reduction in infection efficiency. All phages could infect *bcsG* mutant (R187), a mutation

common to R186 (*flhD* and *bcsG* mutant); therefore, *bcsG* was not considered to be

involved in target recognition.

Regarding LPS synthesis genes, none of the phages could infect the *waaG* mutant (R190).

ΦWec172, 174, and 177 lost their ability to infect *waaW* mutant (R174) and *waaV*

mutants (R172, R177-1, and R177-2). ΦWec174, 177, 187, 189, 191, 193, and 196 could

not infect *waaY* mutants (R193 and R196). ΦWec179, 181, 186, 188, and 190 lost

infectivity against *waaT* and *manB-1* double mutant (R181).

For membrane protein and flagella genes, ΦWec179, 181, and 186 could not infect *fihD*

mutant (R186). ΦWec188 and 190 lost infectivity against *yhaH* mutant (R188). ΦWec189,

191, 193, and 196 could not infect *nfrB* and *ompA* double mutant (R189) and *nfrB* and

tolA double mutant (R191).

Using ΦWec187, 189, 191, 193, and 196, which can infect the K-12-derived BW25113

strain (wild-type of the Keio collection), we investigated their ability to infect Keio

collection strains with single gene deletions corresponding to the mutations found in

phage-resistant strains (Table S4). ΦWec187, 189, 191, 193, and 196 all failed to infect

Δ*nfrB*, Δ*waaG*, and Δ*waaF* strains. Additionally, ΦWec189, 191, 193, and 196 could not

infect the Δ*nfrA* strain, which is genetically redundant with *nfrB*.

Based on these results, the genes necessary for infection by each phage were classified

into six types (Table 3). Types a and b were very similar, differing only in the presence or

absence of a *waaY* mutation.

To further validate our receptor identification, we performed two additional analyses.

First, we tested three additional phages (ΦWec270, ΦWec272, and T5) against our panel

of receptor mutant strains. ΦWec270 and ΦWec272, which belong to the same genus as

ΦWec189, 191, 193, and 196 based on previous genomic analyses, showed identical

infection patterns to these phages, confirming they share the same target receptor

requirements including both NfrB and phosphorylated heptose in LPS (mediated by

WaaY). In contrast, T5, which is known to target FhuA in *E. coli* K-12 (12)(13) and is

taxonomically distinct from all other phages used in this study, remained infective against

all our receptor mutant strains, indicating it recognizes a different receptor not affected

by our mutations.

Second, we conducted complementation experiments by expressing wild-type genes in

the corresponding mutant strains using plasmid vectors. When the wild-type versions of

the mutated genes were reintroduced, infection sensitivity was restored in most cases,

confirming the direct involvement of these genes in phage reception (Table 3).

Specifically, complementation of *waaW, waaG, waaT, waaY, nfrB, flhD*, and *yhaH*

mutations restored sensitivity to the respective phages that lost infectivity against these

mutants.

Interestingly, complementation results for *waaV* mutations were variable. Introduction of

wild-type *waaV* into the R172 mutant (with deletion at position 451 bp) restored phage

sensitivity, while complementation failed to restore sensitivity in R177-1 and R177-2

mutants (both with deletion at position 525 bp). To investigate whether this was due to

the mutant protein interfering with wild-type function or due to polar effects on

downstream genes, we expressed the mutant *waaV* variants in wild-type TK001. Neither

variant affected EoP, suggesting that the different complementation outcomes might be

related to secondary effects specific to the R177-1/2 genetic background.

Structural predictions of LPS synthesis enzymes using AlphaFold2 and AlphaFold3

revealed the molecular impacts of the identified mutations on protein structure and

function (detailed analyses in Supplementary Results and Discussion, Fig. S3-9). The

analysis revealed that mutations in *waaG, waaV, wecA*, and *manB-1* resulted in extensive

truncations (45-92% of the protein). Mutations in *waaW, waaT*, and *waaY* resulted in

more limited truncations (14-19% of the protein), primarily affecting C-terminal regions

rich in basic amino acids while preserving most catalytic residues.

Table 2 Infectivity of each phage against phage-resistant *E. coli* strains

Note: Gray indicates LPS genes. For ΦWec179, 181, and 186 against R181, 4 out of 7 trials were ND(Not Detected), and the log (EoP) value in the table is the average of the remaining 3 trials. Additionally, phage names with the same color indicate groups that show similar EoP patterns against the panel of phage-resistant mutant strains, reflecting similar receptor specificity profiles.

266 **Table S4 Infectivity of K-12-infecting phages against Keio collection strains**

267 Note: Phage names of the same color indicate that they belong to the same group when divided into five sub-groups in that grouping.

269 **Table 3 Infectivity of each phage against complemented resistant mutants**

270 Note: The order and color coding of phages is maintained consistent with Table 2 for ease of comparison. Phages of the same color show similar infectivity patterns against both the resistant mutants (Table 2) and their complemented derivatives.

272 **Table 4 Genes associated with molecules recognized by each phage**

	waaV	waaW	waaY	waaT	fihD	yhaH	nfrB	tolA	Type
ΦWec172	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	a
ΦWec174	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	b
ΦWec177	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	b
ΦWec179	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	c
ΦWec181	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	c
ΦWec186	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	c
ΦWec187	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	d
ΦWec188	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	e
ΦWec190	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	e
ΦWec189	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	f
ΦWec191	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	f
ΦWec193	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	f
ΦWec196	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	f
ΦWec270	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	f
ΦWec272	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	f
T5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	g

273 Note: 1 indicates "targeting", 0 indicates "not targeting". LPS is represented by synthesis genes.

LPS structure of TK001 wild type and phage resistant strains

Mutations in genes involved in the LPS synthesis pathway were identified in many phage-

resistant *E. coli* strains. Most of the LPS-related enzymes mutated in the target receptor

mutant strains were associated with R-core synthesis, while *wecA* and *manB-1* were genes

for synthesizing sugars that constitute the O-antigen. Each *E. coli* strain possesses one of

five R-core types, and the analysis suggested that the R-core of TK001 was the R1 type

(Fig. 1a, Fig. S2a) (14). Variations in the R-core structure were suggested to arise from

deficiencies in the R-core synthesis pathway genes (Fig. S2b). The KEGG mapper results

indicated the presence of both *waaR* and *waaT* genes, as these genes share the same

KEGG Orthology (KO) identifier in the database, though they encode functionally

distinct enzymes. However, examination of the actual genome annotation revealed that

TK001 possesses only the *waaT* gene and not *waaR*, suggesting that the cascade beyond

waaR is not active.

DOC-PAGE analysis of LPS structure revealed that TK001 is similar to *E. coli* O111:B4,

suggesting the presence of LPS with a relatively uniform, long O-antigen repeat unit in

addition to the R-core (Fig. 1b). Strains with mutations in genes unrelated to LPS

synthesis showed the same band pattern in DOC-PAGE as TK001, indicating no change

in LPS structure (Fig. 1c). In *waaV* mutants (R172, R177-1, and R177-2), O-antigen (the

upper band in DOC-PAGE) completely disappeared. The DOC-PAGE profile of the

waaW mutant (R174) showed changes in the shape of the upper band and a downward

shift in the R-core band position. The *waaT* mutant (R181) showed complete

disappearance of the upper band and a downward shift in the R-core band position. The

waaG mutant (R190) showed near disappearance of the upper band and separation of the

R-core band into two. No clear changes in band pattern were observed in *waaY* mutants

(R193 and R196).

Fig. 1 LPS structural analysis and comparison across reference strains and TK001 mutants

(a) Schematic representations of LPS structures of *Salmonella enterica* serovar Typhimurium and *E. coli* R1, R2, R3, R4 and K12. The predicted LPS structure of TK001 and associated biosynthesis enzymes is also shown. (b) DOC-PAGE analysis comparing LPS from TK001 with reference strains. "Smooth" is LPS from *S. enterica* serovar Typhimurium, showing ladder-like bands characteristic of smooth strains with varying numbers of repeats of O-antigen. "O111:B4" is LPS from *Escherichia coli* O111:B4, showing a band pattern characteristic of smooth strains with relatively compact long repeat units. "Semi-rough" is LPS from *S. enterica* serovar Typhimurium SL1034 (semi-rough chemotype). "Ra" is Ra chemotype. Same as others. (c) DOC-PAGE analysis of LPS from TK001 phage-resistant mutant strains. The order has been rearranged for ease

313 of viewing. Orange and green highlights show the downward shift of the lower bands

314 compared to the wild type. Blue highlights indicate the presence of an additional band

315 distinct from the band marked by the green highlight.

Fig. S2 Prediction of LPS synthesis pathway in *Escherichia coli* TK001 strain by

KEGG mapping

(a) Structure of R1-type R-core and related synthesis enzymes. (b) Predicted LPS

structures of LPS-related gene mutants.

Fig. S3 Original unedited DOC-PAGE gel images of LPS from wild-type TK001 and

phage-resistant mutant strains

Original, unedited DOC-PAGE gel image showing LPS from wild-type TK001 and all

phage-resistant mutant strains. All samples were run simultaneously on the same gel

under identical conditions, ensuring accurate size comparisons between samples. In Fig.

1(c) of the main text, lanes from this gel have been rearranged for ease of viewing and

logical comparison, but no other adjustments were made to the image that would affect

the relative positions or intensities of the bands.

Improved methodology for physiological clustering of phages

To enhance the rigor of our previously proposed classifiying method based on

physiological characteristics, we implemented several methodological improvements.

First, we optimized the bacterial panel for host range assessment by analyzing an infection

matrix of 58 phages, which were primarily those used in our previous research (15),

against 41 *Enterobacteriaceae* strains (Table S5, 6). Using a greedy algorithm, we

selected strains that collectively maximized the number of distinct infection patterns

observed. This approach identified 16 strains (Table 5) that collectively revealed 39

distinct infection patterns, providing a more systematic basis for host range evaluation

than previously used.

For clustering analyses, we implemented Gower distance instead of Euclidean distance

to appropriately handle both qualitative infection data and quantitative physiological

measurements. To objectively determine the optimal number of clusters, we applied

silhouette coefficient analysis, which identified k=4 as the optimal number of clusters for

our original set of 13 phages (Fig. 2a).

The resulting clustering (Fig. 2d) revealed four distinct phage groups: P1 (ΦWec189, 191,

193, 196), P2 (ΦWec172, 174, 177), P3 (ΦWec179, 181, 186), and P4 (ΦWec187, 188,

190). When additional phages with known receptors (ΦWec270, ΦWec272, and T5) were

included, silhouette analysis identified k=5 as the optimal number, with T5 forming its

own distinct group (P5), while ΦWec270 and ΦWec272 clustered with group P1 (Fig 2a,

g).

Table 5 Bacterial panel selected for optimized host range assessment

Rank	*Enterobacteriaceae* strain	Additional discriminatory patterns	Cumulative discriminatory patterns
1	TK001	2	2
2	MG1655	2	4
3	BL21	3	7
4	ESBL953	5	12
5	NBRC102203	6	18
6	ESBL983	4	22
7	ATCC43888	3	25
8	TOP10F'	2	27
9	ESBL946	2	29
10	ESBL955	2	31
11	ESBL1054	2	33
12	*E. fergusonii* NBRC102419	2	35
13	SUTL-3	1	36
14	ESBL920	1	37
15	ESBL1013	1	38
16	*S*. Pullorum NBRC3163	1	39

356 Note: All of them are *E. coli* other than *E. ferugusonii* and *S*. Pullorum

Table S5 Bacterial strains tested for optimization of host range assessment panel

Bacteria	Origin/characteristics
E. coli TK001 (strain used to isolate phage)	Derived from colitis induced mouse feces in the SPF room
MG1655	
JM109	
TY0807	
TOP10F'	Laboratory strain
BW25113	
BL21	
SUTL-1	
SUTL-2	
SUTL-3	Blood culture isolate: ExPEC, ESBL-producing
SUTL-4	
SUTL-5	
ESBL920	Mid-stream urine isolate, ESBL-producing
ESBL922	Venous blood isolate, ESBL-producing
ESBL933	Venous blood isolate, ESBL-producing
ESBL946	Venous blood isolate, ESBL-producing
ESBL953	Venous blood isolate, ESBL-producing
ESBL955	Pus isolate, ESBL-producing
ESBL960	Mid-stream urine isolate, ESBL-producing
ESBL963	Pus isolate, ESBL-producing
ESBL971	Pus isolate, ESBL-producing
ESBL981	Catheter urine isolate, ESBL-producing
ESBL983	Venous blood isolate, ESBL-producing
ESBL991	Venous blood isolate, ESBL-producing
ESBL994	Venous blood isolate, ESBL-producing
ESBL1002	Venous blood isolate, ESBL-producing
ESBL1013	Catheter urine isolate, ESBL-producing
ESBL1054	Perianal ulcer isolate, ESBL-producing
ESBL1064	Mid-stream urine isolate, ESBL-producing
ESBL1080	Bladder catheter urine isolate, ESBL-producing
ESBL1090	Pus isolate, ESBL-producing
ESBL1097	Decubitus ulcer isolate, ESBL-producing"
ESBL1109	Mid-stream urine isolate, ESBL-producing
ATCC43888	Purchased from ATCC
NBRC102203	Purchased from NBRC
TWCC59747	Positive blood culture strains from patients with suspected Bacteria translocation at Tokyo Women's Medical University
E. fergusonii NBRC102419	Purchased from NBRC
S. pullorum NBRC3163	Purchased from NBRC
S. typhimurium NBRC13245	Purchased from NBRC
S. enteritidis NBRC3313	Purchased from NBRC
S. Minnesota NBRC15335	Purchased from NBRC

Table S6 Infection matrix showing host range patterns of phages against bacterial

strains

Note: Phages with the same phylogenetic classification are indicated by the same color. A value of 1 indicates infection (confirmed by plaque formation), while 0 indicates no infection.

Comparison of target receptors with various classification methods

To evaluate how our improved physiological clustering correlates with target receptor

specificity, we compared groupings based on physiological characteristics, tail fiber

phylogeny, and whole genome phylogeny with grouping based on target receptors. Using

silhouette coefficient analysis, we determined the optimal cluster numbers for tail fiber

phylogeny (k=5) and whole genome phylogeny (k=4) for the original 13 phages (Fig. 2a-

c).

The grouping results from the three classification methods are summarized in Fig. 2d-f.

While each method produced somewhat different groupings, there were notable

consistencies. For example, ΦWec172, ΦWec174, and ΦWec177 were consistently

grouped together across all three methods (P2, T1, W1). Similarly, ΦWec189, ΦWec191,

ΦWec193, and ΦWec196 formed a consistent group (P1, T2, W2).

When including the three additional phages, the optimal cluster numbers increased to 5,

6, and 5 for physiological, tail fiber, and whole genome classifications, respectively.

The similarity between these groupings and the phage groups based on target receptors

was evaluated using the Adjusted Rand Index (ARI), which measures the agreement

between two clustering methods (Table 6). All three classification methods showed high

correlation with the grouping based on target receptors, both before and after the addition

of the three new phages. Notably, the addition of phages with distinct receptor specificity

improved the ARI values for all three methods, demonstrating the robustness of these

classification approaches.

The whole genome-based classification consistently showed the highest similarity with

target receptor grouping (ARI = 0.90 for 13 phages, increasing to 0.94 for 16 phages).

Physiological characteristic-based clustering showed substantial improvement with the

addition of new phages (ARI increasing from 0.82 to 0.89), demonstrating its ability to

accurately classify phages with diverse receptor specificities.

Furthermore, we evaluated the similarity between the different classification methods

themselves (Table 7). All three methods showed high concordance with each other, with

ARI values ranging from 0.80 to 0.95. The addition of the three phages further increased

the agreement between methods, indicating that as the diversity of phages increases, these

different classification approaches tend to converge in their grouping patterns.

These results demonstrate that all three classification methods reflect the underlying

biological relationships between phages, particularly their target receptor specificity.

Importantly, the physiological characteristic-based classification, which can be

determined without extensive genomic analysis, provides a reliable basis for estimating

both genetic relationships and receptor specificity of phages across a diverse range of

phage types.

Fig. 2 Silhouette coefficient analysis and hierarchical clustering of phages by different methods

(a-c) Silhouette coefficient analysis for determining optimal cluster numbers based on (a) physiological characteristics, (b) tail fiber phylogeny, and (c) whole genome phylogeny. The plots show average silhouette width values for different numbers of clusters (k) from 2 to 10. Black plots represent analysis of 13 original phages, while red plots show results after addition of three supplementary phages (ΦWec270, ΦWec272, and T5). Arrows indicate the maximum silhouette coefficient values, representing the optimal number of clusters for each method. Note that in panel (c), results for k=10 are not shown as the coefficient value diverged to negative infinity for whole genome phylogeny. (d-f)

Hierarchical clustering dendrograms for the original 13 phages based on (d) physiological

characteristics, (e) tail fiber phylogeny, and (f) whole genome phylogeny. (g-i)

Hierarchical clustering dendrograms after addition of three supplementary phages based

on (g) physiological characteristics, (h) tail fiber phylogeny, and (i) whole genome

phylogeny. Colors in dendrograms (d-i) represent clusters determined using the optimal

number identified by silhouette coefficient analysis in panels (a-c).

Table 6 ARI Values of Similarity between each Clustering Method with Target

Receptor-Based Grouping Before and After Additional Phages

	ARI	
Comparison Pair	13 phages	16 phages
Physiological vs Target receptor	0.82	0.89
Tail fiber vs Target receptor	0.78	0.86
Whole genome vs Target receptor	0.90	0.94

425   **Table 7 ARI Values of Similarity between Three Different Classification Methods**

426   **Before and After Additional Phages**

	ARI	
Comparison Pair	13 phages	16 phages
Physiological vs Tail fiber	0.80	0.87
Physiological vs Whole genome	0.91	0.95
Tail fiber vs Whole genome	0.87	0.92

Discussion

While phage therapy using a cocktail of phages targeting different receptors is known to be effective, methods to identify phage target receptors remain limited and time-consuming. In our previous study, we demonstrated that effective phage cocktails could be prepared by grouping phages based on their physiological characteristics, but the actual receptors of the phages were not confirmed (9). In this study, we validated our previous clustering method through detailed analysis of each phage's target receptor. Our findings demonstrate that phages with different target receptors can be grouped based on their physiological characteristics, tail fiber sequences, or whole genomes. These results provide a foundation for more efficient creation of diverse phage cocktails and deepen our understanding of phage-host interactions, enabling rapid preparation of effective therapeutic combinations.

Phage target receptors

In this study, we identified the target receptors of each phage in detail by combining the analysis of phage-resistant strains with LPS structure analysis. These results reveal the diversity and specificity of phage host recognition mechanisms and provide new insights into the relationship between LPS structure and phage infectivity (Fig. 3).

The results of LPS structure analysis clearly show the specific effects of each gene mutation on LPS structure. The complete disappearance of the upper band in DOC-PAGE for *waaV* mutants (R172, R177-1, and R177-2) strongly suggests that in the TK001 strain, the O-antigen is attached to the Glcβ added by WaaV. Additionally, the downward shift of the R-core bands in *waaW* and *waaT* mutants (R174 and R181) indicates that the deficiency of these genes results in a shorter R-core length. Interestingly, in the *waaG* mutant (R190), the upper band almost disappeared, and the R-core band separated into

two. Since *waaG* is an early gene in outer core synthesis, this result suggests that while

R-core synthesis was incomplete, some compensatory mechanism may have led to the

expression of a unique LPS, consistent with previous observations by Klein et al. who

demonstrated that *waaG* deletion in *E. coli* K-12 resulted in increased incorporation of a

third Kdo residue and rhamnose, leading to accumulation of different structures of

glycoforms (16). On the other hand, no clear changes in band pattern were observed in

waaY mutants (R193 and R196), indicating that WaaY, which is involved only in Hep

phosphorylation, has little effect on the overall length of LPS but creates functionally

critical modifications for specific phage recognition. Notably, although ΦWec172, 174,

and 177 were suggested to be similar in our previous report (10) due to their common

isolation source, similar lysis range, and over 99% homology in ANI-based similarity

evaluation (Table S3), ΦWec172 did not require WaaY's function, unlike ΦWec174 and

177. These phages have two types of tail fibers: Tail fiber 1 consisting of 844 amino acid

residues and Tail fiber 2 consisting of 390 amino acid residues. There are the N777S

mutation in Tail fiber 1 of ΦWec174 and the K286E mutation in Tail fiber 2 of ΦWec177.

These differences suggest that ΦWec172 may interact with LPS differently from the other

two phages and may not require Heptose phosphorylation by WaaY. This observation

demonstrates the complexity and flexibility of phage receptor recognition and may

provide an example of adaptation strategies in phage-host interactions. However, as no

unique mutations were found in these tail fibers for ΦWec172 alone, further genomic

analysis, structural analysis, or mutation experiments are necessary to elucidate the

mechanism.

The changes in LPS structure were closely related to the infectivity of each phage. The

most important finding was that all phages were unable to infect the *waaG* mutant (R190),

clearly demonstrating that LPS is essential for infection by all phages used in this study.

Our structural prediction analyses revealed how different types of mutations in LPS

biosynthesis genes lead to diverse effects on receptor function. For extensive truncations

in WaaG, WaaV, WecA and ManB-1, the complete loss of catalytic domains explains the

absence or severe disruption of LPS structures observed in DOC-PAGE. In contrast, for

WaaW, WaaT, and WaaY mutations, the truncations appeared less extensive but

potentially significant to function. These mutations preserved most catalytic residues but

affected C-terminal regions containing clusters of basic amino acids. These positively

charged regions likely interact with the negatively charged LPS, suggesting how even

limited truncations could substantially alter substrate binding capabilities without

complete loss of enzymatic activity.

The WaaY mutations provided particularly compelling evidence for this mechanism.

DOC-PAGE analysis showed no visible changes in overall LPS length, suggesting the

core structure remained intact. However, phage infection experiments clearly

demonstrated functional changes, as certain phages (ΦWec189, ΦWec191, ΦWec193, and

ΦWec196) could not infect these mutants. Complementation with wild-type WaaY

restored phage sensitivity, confirming the direct relationship between the mutation and

phenotype. Our structural predictions explain this apparent discrepancy - WaaY's kinase

activity phosphorylates heptose residues without altering core length, creating negatively

charged regions that serve as critical recognition sites for specific phages. This

demonstrates the remarkable discriminatory capacity of phages, which can evolve to

recognize highly specific chemical modifications on the bacterial surface.

Furthermore, interesting results were obtained regarding the target receptor recognition

of ΦWec172, 174, and 177. These phages could not infect the *waaW* mutant but could

infect the strain with a mutation in WaaT, which functions just before WaaW in the LPS

synthesis pathway. In the LPS synthesis pathway, WaaT transfers Galactose, followed by

WaaW transferring second Galactose. This result suggests that these phages primarily

target the Galactose transferred by WaaW. However, the fact that they can also infect the

WaaT mutant suggests that similar structures, such as Glucose transferred by WaaO, may

serve as alternative targets. This flexible recognition mechanism might be one of the

phages' strategies for adapting to their hosts.

Our variable results in complementing *waaV* mutations highlight the complexity of LPS

biosynthesis pathways. The successful complementation in R172 (deletion at position 451

bp) but not in R177-1 and R177-2 (deletions at position 525 bp) suggests that the position

of the mutation within *waaV* may lead to different effects on downstream genes or LPS

assembly mechanisms. The failure of mutant *waaV* variants to affect EoP when expressed

in wild-type TK001 indicates that these mutations are likely recessive and do not interfere

with wild-type function, pointing to potential secondary effects in the genetic background

of specific mutants.

The addition of phages with known receptors (ΦWec270, ΦWec272, and T5) further

validated our approach. ΦWec270 and ΦWec272, which share the same genus as

ΦWec189, 191, 193, and 196, showed identical infection patterns, confirming they target

the same receptor structures requiring both NfrB and phosphorylated heptose in LPS. In

contrast, T5, which targets FhuA in *E. coli* K-12, remained infective against all our

receptor mutant strains, indicating it recognizes a receptor not affected by our mutations.

This diversity in receptor recognition mechanisms demonstrates the importance of using

multiple phages targeting different host receptors in therapeutic applications.

Fig. 3 Target receptors of each phage

The receptor diagram illustrates the diversity of receptors including LPS components, membrane proteins, and flagella. NfrA/B are depicted together as they represent functionally linked membrane proteins that cooperatively serve as phage receptors (18). Arrows extending from each phage indicate their target receptors. The dotted red arrow from ΦWec172 indicates that this phage does not require WaaY-mediated heptose phosphorylation for infection, despite being grouped with ΦWec174 and ΦWec177 based on genomic and physiological characteristics. This suggests subtle differences in receptor recognition mechanisms even among closely related phages.

Phage classification methods

In this study, we compared three approaches for phage classification: physiological characteristics, tail fiber phylogeny, and whole genome phylogeny. We enhanced our previously proposed physiological classification method through several methodological improvements, including optimized bacterial panel selection, implementation of Gower

distance for mixed data types to properly handle both qualitative infection data and quantitative measurements. Additionally, we applied silhouette coefficient analysis for objective determination of optimal cluster numbers across all classification methods, eliminating the subjective nature of cluster number selection that was a limitation in previous work.

Comparison of these methods with grouping based on target receptors showed that all methods performed better than random classification, with Adjusted Rand Index (ARI) values well above zero. All methods showed high agreement with target receptor-based classification, demonstrating strong interchangeability between these approaches. The improvement in ARI values after adding phages with distinct receptor specificities (ΦWec270, ΦWec272, and T5) further validates the robustness of our classification approaches. The proper clustering of T5 as a separate group across all methods demonstrates their ability to distinguish phages with unique receptor specificities, while the consistent grouping of ΦWec270 and ΦWec272 with phages sharing the same receptors confirms the methods' sensitivity to receptor-related characteristics.

While overall agreement between methods was high, some phages showed variable classification depending on the method used. Specifically, ΦWec187 was grouped differently across methods - clustering with ΦWec188 and ΦWec190 in physiological-based grouping, with ΦWec179, 181, and 186 in tail fiber analysis, and forming its own distinct group in whole genome classification. This variability persisted even after adding new phages to the analysis, suggesting that ΦWec187 possesses a unique combination of characteristics that are captured differently by each method. Such observations highlight that each classification approach may emphasize different aspects of phage biology.

Importantly, none of the methods completely matched the classification based on target

receptors. This suggests that phage target receptor specificity is a complex characteristic

that cannot be fully explained by a single classification criterion. The recognition of target

receptors is likely determined by not only specific regions of phage tail fibers but also

other structural proteins. Furthermore, subtle differences such as structural elements may

play significant roles that cannot be fully captured by whole genome analysis or

physiological characteristics alone.

For example, studies on bacteriophage T4 have revealed that structures such as the collar

and whiskers act as environment-sensing devices, regulating the retraction of long tail

fibers under unfavorable conditions and thus preventing infection, demonstrating that

phage-host recognition can involve structural elements beyond tail fibers to modulate

infection processes (17). These results highlight the challenges in phage classification and

functional prediction, and reflects the complexity of phage-host coevolution.

Nevertheless, this study demonstrated that our improved clustering based on

physiological characteristics is an effective method that reflects phage target receptor

specificity to a high degree. The high correlation between classifications based on

phenotypic data and genomic information supports the validity of our approach for

practical applications in phage selection, providing an important foundation for the

development of effective phage therapy.

Limitations and future directions

While our findings provide strong support for the validity of physiological characteristic-

based clustering as a proxy for target receptor diversity, our analyses were conducted

using a single *E. coli* strain (TK001) as the primary host, and the identified receptor

mutations may be specific to this genetic background. The high agreement between our

different classification methods suggests that physiological characteristics can serve as

reliable indicators of genetic relationships and receptor specificity. This has important

practical implications, particularly for phages targeting bacterial species with limited

genomic characterization. As noted in our introduction, while genomic approaches have

become increasingly accessible for well-studied organisms like *E. coli*, receptor

identification based on genomic data requires well-characterized bacterial genomes. For

emerging multidrug-resistant pathogens with less characterized genomes, our

physiological classification approach could provide a practical alternative that does not

depend on extensive genomic information.

In conclusion, this study provides important insights into *E. coli* phage target receptors

and the relationship between various classification methods. Our findings reveal that

phage host recognition mechanisms are diverse and specific, with many phages

recognizing specific structures of LPS, while others target membrane proteins or flagella.

Through robust molecular analysis of 13 phages, including detailed characterization of

their physiological features, whole genome sequences, and target receptors, we have

definitively validated our previously proposed classification method by demonstrating its

correlation with actual phage target receptors.

While our findings are based on *E. coli* phages, this approach has potential broader

applications. Further studies with phages infecting other bacterial species will be

necessary to confirm the universal applicability of these methods. Nevertheless, in

clinical settings where conventional receptor identification is impractical and rapid

decision-making is crucial, our validated classification approach offers powerful tools for

creating effective phage cocktails that can suppress the emergence of phage-resistant

bacteria, marking a significant advancement in the field of phage therapy.

Materials and methods

Reagents and bacteria

Luria–Bertani (LB) medium (BD Difco, Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA) and the soft agar containing 0.5% agar were used for bacterial and phage cultivation. *E. coli* strain TK001, originally isolated from dextran sodium sulfate (MP Biomedicals, Soho, OH, USA)-induced colitis mouse feces, was used as the host for phage screening in this study (10).

Phage preparation

Thirteen phages (ΦWec172, ΦWec174, ΦWec177, ΦWec179, ΦWec181, ΦWec186, ΦWec187, ΦWec188, ΦWec190, ΦWec189, ΦWec191, ΦWec193, and ΦWec196) were propagated using *E. coli* TK001 as the host through the plate lysate method.

For validation experiments, three additional phages were included. ΦWec270 and ΦWec272, previously characterized in our taxonomic study (15), and bacteriophage T5 (NBRC 20005) from the Biological Resource Center, National Institute of Technology and Evaluation (NBRC), were used. These three phages can infect TK001, but were propagated using *E. coli* MG1655 (CGSC #6300) as the host using the same plate lysate method.

Briefly, 100 μL of overnight-cultured TK001 and 100 μL of phage suspension (10^4 plaque-forming unit (PFU)/mL) were added to soft agar (0.5% agar) and overlaid on agar plates. After overnight incubation at 37 °C, 5 mL of SM buffer (0.1 M NaCl, 8 mM MgSO$_4$•7H$_2$O, 50 mM Tris-HCl buffer [pH=7.5], 0.1% gelatin) was added to each plate and subjected to orbital shaking (approximately 250 rpm, 2-3 hours). The supernatant was centrifuged (9,000 rpm, 15 min, 4 °C) to separate solid and liquid components. The supernatant was transferred to a new tube, and 1 mL of chloroform was added. After vortexing and settling, and purified phage was decanted and served as the phage stock.

Generation and selection of phage resistant receptor mutants

Phage-resistant strains were generated using both liquid and solid culture methods:

Liquid culture method: Log-phase TK001 culture was diluted 100-fold, and 100 μL of high-titer phage suspension ($>10^8$ PFU/mL, MOI > 10) was added. The mixture was incubated at 37°C with shaking at 40 rpm in a compact rocking incubator (TVS062CA, Advantec Toyo Co. Ltd., Tokyo, Japan). The emergence of resistant bacteria was confirmed by turbidity curves the following day. The culture was centrifuged (9000 rpm, 5 min, 4 °C), and the pellet was washed with 1× phosphate-buffered saline (PBS). The pellet was serially diluted in 1× PBS (1 mL), and 20 μL of each dilution was spotted onto soft agar containing 100 μL of high-titer phage. Eight phage-resistant *E. coli* colonies were isolated for each phage and purified by streak culture at least twice. Purified colonies were inoculated into 1 mL of LB, cultured for 11 hours, and stored at -80 °C.

Solid culture method: 100 μL of overnight-cultured TK001 and 100 μL of high-titer phage suspension ($>10^8$ PFU/mL) were added to soft agar and overlaid on agar plates. Four colonies per phage (one for ΦWec190 and three for ΦWec193) were isolated the following day and purified by streak culture at least twice. Purified colonies were processed and stored as described in the liquid culture method.

Phage adsorption assay was used to select target receptor mutants from the acquired phage-resistant strains. A mixture of overnight-cultured resistant strain (100 μL) and LB (890 μL) was combined with phage suspension ($>10^7$ PFU/mL, 100 μL). Samples (10 μL) were taken at 0- and 10-min post-phage addition, mixed with 990 μL SM buffer (pre-added with 100 μL chloroform), and centrifuged (15,000 rpm, >2 min, 4 °C). The supernatant (100 μL) and overnight-cultured TK001 (100 μL) were mixed in soft agar and overlaid on agar plates. After overnight incubation, the unadsorbed ratio was

calculated by dividing the number of plaques at 10 min by the number at 0 min. Strains

with an adsorption rate (100 - unadsorbed ratio) below 20% were designated as target

receptor mutants.

Whole genome analysis of wild type strain

DNA was extracted from overnight static cultures of *E. coli* TK001 in LB medium using

ISOPLANT II (Nippon Gene, 310-04151, Tokyo, Japan) according to the manufacturer's

instructions.

Sequencing was performed by BGI Genomics. Continuous genome sequencing was

assembled using two different sequencing technologies. Shotgun sequencing was

performed using DNBSEQ G400 (MGI) with a read length of 150 bp. Clean data was

generated using SOAPnuke (BGI) to remove adapters and low-quality reads (parameters:

"-n 0.01 -l 20 -q 0.4 --adaMis 3 --outQualSys 1")(19). Long reads obtained by Oxford

Nanopore Technologies were processed using porechop (ver. 0.2.4, default parameters).

The processed shotgun and long-read data were assembled using SPAdes (ver. 3.15.5,

parameters: "-k auto --cov-cutoff auto --careful -t 12") for hybrid assembly (20).

Annotation of the resulting contigs was performed using prokka (21). Basic statistical

analysis of the contigs was conducted using seqkit (22).

Whole genome analysis and mutation detection in mutant strains

DNA was extracted from selected target receptor mutant strains as described for the wild-

type strain. BGI performed shotgun sequencing and read processing similarly to the wild-

type strain. The mutant strain shotgun reads were mapped to the indexed wild-type

sequence using bwa. Samtools was used to convert the mapping results to BAM format

and sort them. The sorted BAM files were indexed using samtools. Guided assembly was

performed using pilon (ver. 1.24, parameters: "--vcf --tracks --changes --verbose") with

the index files (23). Non-synonymous mutations were detected by comparing each

resistant strain's sequence obtained through guided assembly with the wild-type strain

using nucdiff (24).

Complementation experiments

To confirm that the identified mutations in phage-resistant strains were directly

responsible for the resistance phenotypes, we performed complementation experiments.

Wild-type genes corresponding to the mutated genes in resistant strains were cloned into

the low-copy plasmid pACYC184. This plasmid was selected for its stability in TK001,

and dual antibiotic resistance markers (tetracycline and chloramphenicol).

Each gene of interest, along with its native promoter region, was PCR-amplified from

TK001 genomic DNA. The amplified fragments were designed to replace the tetracycline

resistance gene in pACYC184 (Nippon Gene Co., Ltd., Tokyo, Japan) using In-Fusion

cloning (Takara Bio Inc., Shiga, Japan). Care was taken to avoid including unnecessary

adjacent genes when incorporating promoter regions. The resulting constructs were

initially transformed into *E. coli* JM109 (Takara Bio Inc., Shiga, Japan), and positive

transformants were selected on LB agar with chloramphenicol (25 μg/mL). For each gene,

approximately 10 colonies were isolated and verified by PCR amplification of the inserted

gene and by confirming loss of tetracycline resistance.

Verified plasmid constructs were then isolated and transformed into the corresponding

phage-resistant mutant strains using a standard chemical competent cell protocol (see also

supplementary method). For each complementation, three independent transformants

were isolated and verified by PCR to confirm the presence of the complementing gene.

The complemented strains were then tested for restored phage sensitivity using spot tests

as described in the "Spot test using target receptor mutants" section. EoP values were

calculated relative to the wild-type strain TK001 carrying the empty pACYC184 vector.

Biological replicates were performed 3 times.

The complemented strains were then tested for restored phage sensitivity using the same

spot test method as described in the "Spot test using target receptor mutants" section. EoP

values were calculated relative to the wild-type strain TK001 carrying the empty

pACYC184 vector. Biological replicates were performed 3 times.

For *waaV* mutations, which showed variable complementation results, we performed

additional experiments by expressing the mutant variants of *waaV* in wild-type TK001 to

assess whether the mutant proteins might interfere with wild-type function.

Protein structure prediction and analysis

To understand the molecular basis of how the identified mutations affect protein function,

we predicted protein structure using AlphaFold2 via Google Colaboratory (25)(26) or

AlphaFold3 (27). For each mutated protein (WaaG, WaaV, WaaW, WaaT, WaaY, WecA,

and ManB-1), we generated structural models of wild-type. The predictions were run with

default parameters, and models were evaluated using the predicted local distance

difference test (pLDDT) and predicted aligned error (pAE).

For WaaG, where crystal structures of homologs are available, predicted WaaG structure

was superimposed on a previously solved crystal structure (PDB: 2IW1) to identify

catalytic and substrate-binding sites. For WaaY and ManB1, the complex with ATP or

GTP were predicted using AlphaFold3. For other proteins, potential binding sites were

predicted using AutoDock4.2.6

(28) with UDP-glucose or UDP-galactose as ligands, as appropriate for each enzyme's

function.

Electrostatic surface potentials were calculated using the Adaptive Poisson-Boltzmann

Solver (APBS) program.

All structural analyses and visualizations were performed using PyMOL (version 3.1.4.1).

Preparation of dried defatted bacterial cells

Dried defatted bacterial cells were prepared for LPS extraction. Bacterial cells were

cultured in 2 L of medium and harvested by centrifugation (4,800 rpm, 15 min, 4°C) in

four 500 mL centrifge tubes. From *E. coli* cultures, approximately 20 g of wet cells were

typically obtained. Cell pellets were washed by resuspension in 30 mL of 1× PBS and

collected by centrifugation (4,800 rpm, 15 min, 4°C) in 50 mL tubes.

The cells were then defatted through sequential washing steps. First, cells were

resuspended in 30 mL of 100% ethanol using a spatula, followed by centrifugation (4,800

rpm, 15 min, 4°C). This ethanol washing step was repeated until the cell pellet lost its

sticky consistency (typically three times), with the supernatant turning yellow. The pellet

was then washed once with 30 mL acetone, using gentle deceleration during

centrifugation to prevent pellet disruption. Finally, cells were washed with 30 mL of

hexane or diethyl ether.

The resulting pellet was dried under vacuum in a desiccator for 1-3 days. This process

typically yielded 4-5 g of off-white to white dried defatted bacterial cells from *E. coli*

cultures.

LPS structure analysis

LPS structure analysis of wild type and target receptor mutant strains was performed

using two methods: pathway analysis to predict the LPS synthesis pathway from retained

genes, and sodium deoxycholate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (DOC-PAGE) for

LPS structure analysis.

Pathway analysis: KEGG Mapper was used to map retained genes to known synthesis

pathways based on Kegg Orthology (KO) assignment results obtained using

BlastKOALA (29)·(30)·(31).

Structural analysis: To obtain LPS from bacterial cells, dried defatted bacterial cells were

first prepared. LPS extraction from dried defatted bacterial cells was performed using the

hot phenol-water extraction method (32). Extracted LPS was visualized by DOC-PAGE

followed by silver staining (33). Silver staining was performed using the Silver Stain MS

Kit (Fujifilm Wako, 299-58901, Osaka, Japan), with a modified sodium periodate

oxidation step between first and second fixative solutions (34). The gel was shaken in 10

times its volume of 1% w/v sodium periodate solution for 20 min, followed by three 5-

min washes with MilliQ water. As control samples for the LPS structure of TK001, LPS

extracted from the following strains was used: *Salmonella enterica* serovar Typhimurium

(Sigma; catalogue no. L6511), *Escherichia coli* O111:B4 (Sigma; catalogue no. L4130),

and various *S. enterica* serovars with different chemotypes (LPSs were extracted for

bacteria of kindly provided by Dr. Hajime Ikigai). For presentation in Fig. 1(c), lanes

from the original gel were rearranged for logical comparison without altering the relative

positions or intensities of the bands. The original, unedited gel images were included in

the supplementary materials (Fig. S3) for reference, ensuring transparency in the data

presentation.

Spot test using target receptor mutants

Each phage was serially diluted 10-fold up to 10^{-7} and spotted (1 μL) onto target

receptor mutant lawns (35). The efficiency of plating (EoP) of the mutants relative to the

wild type was calculated. Biological replicates were performed 3-7 times.

Spot test using the Keio collection

For the five *E. coli* phages (ΦWec187, 189, 191, 193, and 196) capable of infecting K-12

strains(10), spot tests were conducted using the Keio collection (NBRP, Japan), a

comprehensive gene knockout library (36)·(37). The EoP of Keio collection strains

relative to the wild-type BW25113 was calculated. The Keio collection strains used were

limited to those predicted to be related to the target receptors of ΦWec187, 189, 191, 193,

and 196 based on phage-resistant TK001 (Table S1). Biological replicates were

performed 3 times.

Whole genome construction of phages

Sequencing data were assembled using Velvet software (ver. 1.2.10) (38).

Phylogenetic tree based on tail fibers

Whole genome information of each phage was annotated using RAST, and tail fiber

sequences were extracted (39). Additionally, tail fibers of the closest relatives were

obtained by BLAST search of each phage's whole genome, and similar sequences were

extracted from the whole genomes of phages drawing these sequences. The obtained

sequences were translated into amino acids, and for each phage, the sequences were

artificially combined into a single sequence. A phylogenetic tree was constructed using

MEGA X with the Maximum-likelihood method and 1,000 bootstrap replicates (40).

Whole genome phylogenetic tree and similarity

The whole genome phylogenetic tree was created using Viptree (41). Furthermore,

phylogenetic analysis of the phages was conducted using vConTACT2 (42) with the

reference genome of 3503 phage (ProkaryoticViralRefSeq201) from vConTACT2, and

visualized using Cytospace v3.10.1 (43). The Average Nucleotide Identity (ANI) was

calculated using pyani (44). The parameters used were: pyani: anib and ANI calculator:

minimum identity 0%, with other parameters set to default.

Phage grouping based on physiological characteristics, tail fibers, and whole

genomes

Phages were grouped based on their physiological characteristics as previously reported. To improve the robustness of our previously proposed clustering method, we optimized the bacterial panel for host range evaluation by analyzing infection patterns of 58 phages (including phages previously reported in our previous study (15)) against 41 *Enterobacteriaceae* strains (Table S5). Using a greedy algorithm, we selected 16 strains that collectively maximized the discriminatory power while minimizing the number of strains required.

For data analysis, Gower distance was implemented instead of Euclidean distance to appropriately handle the mixed nature of our dataset, which contained both qualitative infection data (binary host range patterns) and quantitative measurements (continuous physiological parameters).

To objectively determine the optimal number of clusters, silhouette coefficient analysis was performed for all three grouping methods (physiological characteristics, tail fiber phylogenetics, and whole genome phylogenetics). For each potential number of clusters k (ranging from 2 to 9), we calculated the average silhouette coefficient across all phages in the dataset. The silhouette coefficient for each phage measures how similar it is to its own cluster compared to other clusters, with values ranging from -1 to 1. Higher values indicate better-defined clusters. The optimal number of clusters for each grouping method was determined as the value of k that maximized the average silhouette coefficient.

These analyses were performed using R (version 4.0.3) with the "cluster" and "factoextra" packages for silhouette calculations. Hierarchical clustering was performed using the 'complete' linkage method as previously reported (10).

Comparison of similarity between methods

Data analysis was performed using Python 3.9.12, with major packages including pandas

(1.4.2), numpy (1.22.3), and scikit-learn (1.0.2). The similarity between different

grouping methods and with target receptor-based grouping was evaluated using Adjusted

Rand Index (ARI). Label normalization was performed in the similarity evaluation to

improve the accuracy of comparison between methods. These analyses were executed on

Linux.

Acknowledgements

We extend our sincere gratitude to Midori Ishikawa and Hirohito Wakashima for

providing the LPS samples used as controls in our DOC-PAGE analysis. Their

contributions were crucial for our comparative study of *E. coli* LPS structures.

Specifically, we acknowledge:

Midori Ishikawa for isolating LPS from *S. enterica* serovar Typhimurium TV119 (Ra

chemotype) and *S. enterica* serovar Typhimurium SL733 (Rb$_1$ chemotype).

Hirohito Wakashima for isolating LPS from *S. enterica* serovar Typhimurium SL1034

(semi-rough chemotype), *S. enterica* serovar Minnesota SF1119 (RcP$^-$ chemotype), *S.*

enterica serovar Minnesota SF1121 (Rd$_1$P$^-$ chemotype), *S. enterica* serovar Minnesota

SF1118 (Rd$_2$ chemotype), and *S. enterica* serovar Typhimurium TA2168 (Re chemotype).

In addition to the previous acknowledgement of Matthew Imanaka for English language

editing on the initial version, we would like to thank Claude 3.7 Sonnet (Anthropic) for

its assistance in improving the English grammar and style of this revised manuscript.

FUNDING INFORMATION

This research was supported by a Waseda University Grant for Special Research Projects

(Project number: 2022C-160).

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