Title

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

phages through comprehensive receptor analysis

Running title

Phenotype, genomic, and receptor analysis of coliphages

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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 combined genomic analysis and lipopolysaccharide (LPS) structural analysis of phage-resistant *E. coli* strains to identify target receptors of the phages. 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. Notably, 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 into five identical groups. Meanwhile, classification based on target receptors placed them into six groups, which was very similar to the grouping pattern based on the three independent parameters described above. Our results suggest that phage phenotypes and genotypes are closely related to target receptor specificity and the physiological characteristics of *E. coli* phages. 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 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 quickly create effective phage cocktails without identifying the target receptors[9].

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

methodology.

The present study aimed to validate the proposed clustering method based on

physiological characteristics through detailed analysis of each phage's target receptor.

Furthermore, we compared this 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 previously proposed physiological clustering approach. These findings are expected

to contribute to rapid treatment decision-making in clinical settings and the

standardization of phage therapy.

Results

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

receptor mutant strains

Hybrid assembly resulted in two contigs for the whole genome of the *E. coli* TK001 wild-

type strain isolated from mouse feces. The total genome length was 4,779,140 bp with a

GC content of 50.79%. One of the two contigs was 145 bp long and was manually deleted

as it was deemed unnecessary for subsequent analyses.

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	variant part	description	mutation site in WT	mutation type
ΦWec172	R172	waaV	beta1,3-glucosyltransferase	3934566	Frame shift (A→.)
ΦWec174	R174	waaW	UDP-galactose--(galactosyl) LPS alpha1,2-galactosyltransferase	3935258	Frame shift (.→T)
ΦWec177	R177-1	waaV	beta1,3-glucosyltransferase	3934492	Frame shift (A→.)
ΦWec177	R177-2	waaV	beta1,3-glucosyltransferase	3934492	Frame shift (A→.)
		wecA	Undecaprenyl-phosphate alpha-*N*-acetylglucosaminyl 1-phosphate transferase	4108976	Frame shift (A→.)
ΦWec181	R181	waaT	LPS 1,2-glucosyltransferase	2178550-2178553	frame shift (CCTC→.)
		manB-1	Mannose-1-phosphate guanylyltransferase	3937043	Stop codon (C→T)
ΦWec186	R186	flhD	Flagellar transcriptional regulator FlhD	2021475	Stop codon (C→T)
		bcsG	Cellulose biosynthesis protein BcsG	3831107	Ser→Pro (A→G)
ΦWec187	R187	bcsG	Cellulose biosynthesis protein BcsG	3831107	Stop codon (C→T)
ΦWec188	R188	yhaH	Inner membrane protein YhaH	3405873-3405920	Frame shift*
ΦWec189	R189	nfrB	bacteriophage N4 adsorption protein B	576511	Stop codon (C→T)
		ompA	Outer membrane protein A	1046632-1046640	Frame shift (CACCAAAG→.)
ΦWec190	R190	waaG	UDP-glucose:(heptosyl)LPS alpha-1,3-glucosyltransferase	3940586	Stop codon (A→T)
ΦWec191	R191	nfrB	bacteriophage N4 adsorption protein B	576613	Asp→Ala (T→G)
		tolA	TolA	767756	Stop codon (C→T)
ΦWec193	R193	waaY	LPS core heptose(II) kinase RfaY	3936259	Glu→Gly (C→A)
ΦWec196	R196	waaY	LPS core heptose(II) kinase RfaY	3936259	Glu→Gly (C→A)

*: CGTGGTGGGCAGTTCAGTTCCGCCGCCTGCACGACACCGACCGCTCGG→.

. means missing

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

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 all strains; 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 S1). 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

160 absence of a *waaY* mutation.

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

	waaG	waaV	waaV	waaV wecA	waaW	waaY	waaY	waaT manB-1	fihD bcsG	yhaH	nfrB ompA	nfrB tolA	bcsG
Log(EoP)	R190	R172	R177-1	R177-2	R174	R193	R196	R181	R186	R188	R189	R191	R187
ΦWec187	ND	-0.2	-0.2	0.0	-0.4	ND	ND	-0.4	-0.2	0.0	0.0	-0.8	0.0
ΦWec189	ND	0.1	0.0	-0.1	0.0	ND	ND	-0.2	0.1	0.0	-2.2	ND	0.1
ΦWec191	ND	0.0	0.1	0.0	-0.1	ND	ND	0.1	0.0	0.3	-2.0	ND	0.4
ΦWec193	ND	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	ND	ND	0.1	0.2	0.3	-2.3	ND	0.2
ΦWec196	ND	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	ND	ND	0.3	0.3	0.3	-2.0	ND	0.1
ΦWec177	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	-0.2	-0.9	-0.3	-0.7	-0.7	-0.3
ΦWec174	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	-0.1	-0.5	0.1	-0.4	-0.3	-0.2
ΦWec172	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	-0.3	-0.4	-0.6	-0.3	0.0	-0.4	-0.5	-0.1
ΦWec179	ND	0.2	-0.1	-0.1	0.0	-0.1	-0.1	-7.0	ND	0.1	0.0	0.0	-1.0
ΦWec181	ND	-0.2	-0.2	0.0	-0.2	0.1	0.1	-5.6	ND	-0.1	0.1	-0.1	-0.9
ΦWec186	ND	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.3	0.2	-4.7	ND	0.2	0.2	0.2	-0.8
ΦWec188	ND	0.0	0.0	0.0	-0.2	0.2	0.0	ND	0.1	ND	0.3	0.0	-0.1
ΦWec190	ND	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.1	ND	0.1	ND	0.1	0.1	0.2

163 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.

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Table S1 Infectivity of K-12-infecting phages against Keio collection strains

Log(EoP)	ΔnfrB	ΔompA	ΔnfrA	ΔtolA	ΔtolB	ΔwaaG	ΔwaaF	ΔwaaR	ΔwaaO	ΔmanB-1	ΔflhD	ΔyhaH	ΔbcsG
ΦWec187	-1.9	0.0	-0.5	-0.3	-0.1	ND	ND	-0.1	-0.3	-0.1	-0.1	-0.1	0.1
ΦWec189	-3.4	-0.2	-3.3	0.1	0.0	ND	ND	-0.1	-0.1	0.0	0.1	-0.1	-0.2
ΦWec191	-1.2	-0.2	-1.3	-0.2	0.0	ND	ND	0.1	-0.1	0.1	0.0	-0.2	-0.1
ΦWec193	-3.6	-0.3	-3.3	-0.2	-0.3	ND	ND	-0.2	-0.2	-0.1	-0.2	-0.2	-0.3
ΦWec196	-3.6	0.1	-4.2	-0.3	0.1	ND	ND	0.0	-0.8	0.0	-0.2	-0.1	0.1

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Table 3 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	
ΦWec179	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	c
ΦWec181	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	
ΦWec186	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	
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	
ΦWec189	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	f
ΦWec191	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	
ΦWec193	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	
ΦWec196	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	

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

Comparison of target receptors with various classification methods

Our previous report suggested the possibility that grouping phages based on physiological

characteristics (using principal component analysis) could effectively cluster phages into

target receptors groupings/clusters. In this study, we conducted grouping based on

physiological characteristics, tail fiber phylogenetics, and phylogenetic analysis of whole

phage genomes, dividing the phages into three or five groups (Fig. 1, Table S2). When

grouped into three clusters, ΦWec179, 181, and 186 were classified differently depending

on the classification method (Fig. 1, Table S2). However, when divided into five clusters,

these phages were consistently grouped together regardless of the classification method

used.

The similarity between these groupings and the phage groups based on genes necessary

for infection was evaluated using four methods (Adjusted Rand Index (ARI), Normalized

Mutual Information (NMI), V-measure, and Fowlkes-Mallows Index). All evaluation

methods showed positive values for similarity with the classification based on target

receptors (Table 4).

The classification based on physiological characteristics and tail fibers (both divided into

three clusters) showed high similarity (ARI = 0.73) (Table 5). The classification based on

whole genomes (divided into three clusters) showed low to moderate similarity with other

classifications (ARI = 0.33-0.60), while classifications divided into five clusters generally

showed high similarity (ARI = 0.55-1.0), except for whole genome-based classification

which showed lower similarity (ARI = 0.35).

Fig. 1 Classification of phages using various methods

(a) Grouping based on physiological characteristics: lysis onset time, lysis duration time,

lytic spectrum against 17 bacterial strains, adsorption rate constant, burst size, and phage

yield after 1-day incubation. (b) Phylogenetic tree based on tail fiber genes. (c)

Phylogenetic tree based on whole genomes. Phages enclosed in green/blue/red squares

indicate that they are classified into the same cluster when divided into three groups.

Additionally, phage names of the same color indicate that they belong to the same group

when divided into five sub-groups in that grouping. The phylogenetic tree in (a) was

drawn following the statistical analysis conducted in our previous paper [9] without any

modifications.

Table S2 Classification results by each grouping

| | Physiological cluster | | Tail fiber cluster | | Whole genome cluster | |
	divided into three clusters	divided into five clusters	divided into three clusters	divided into five clusters	divided into three clusters	divided into five clusters
ΦWec172	P3-3	P5-4	T3-3	T5-5	W3-1	W5-1
ΦWec174	P3-3	P5-4	T3-3	T5-5	W3-1	W5-1
ΦWec177	P3-3	P5-4	T3-3	T5-5	W3-1	W5-1
ΦWec179	P3-3	P5-5	T3-1	T5-1	W3-3	W5-5
ΦWec181	P3-3	P5-5	T3-1	T5-1	W3-3	W5-5
ΦWec186	P3-3	P5-5	T3-1	T5-1	W3-3	W5-5
ΦWec187	P3-1	P5-2	T3-1	T5-2	W3-3	W5-3
ΦWec188	P3-1	P5-1	T3-1	T5-3	W3-3	W5-4
ΦWec189	P3-2	P5-3	T3-2	T5-4	W3-2	W5-2
ΦWec190	P3-1	P5-1	T3-1	T5-3	W3-3	W5-4
ΦWec191	P3-2	P5-3	T3-2	T5-4	W3-2	W5-2
ΦWec193	P3-2	P5-3	T3-2	T5-4	W3-2	W5-2
ΦWec196	P3-2	P5-3	T3-2	T5-4	W3-2	W5-2

Table 4 Similarity between various grouping methods and target receptor based grouping

Method	ARI	NMI	V-measure	Fowlkes-Mallows
P3	0.452327	0.709485	0.709485	0.72973
P5	0.730769	0.841091	0.841091	0.866667
T3	0.416051	0.64639	0.64639	0.703226
T5	0.730769	0.841091	0.841091	0.866667
W3	0.667742	0.821953	0.821953	0.833333
W5	0.730769	0.841091	0.841091	0.866667

Note: P, T and W indicate grouping based on physiological characteristics, tail fiber phylogeny, and whole genome phylogeny of phages, respectively, and the numbers 3 and 5 following these letters indicate division into 3 or 5 groups, respectively.

Table 5 Similarity between various methods

	P3	P5	T3	T5	W3	W5
P3		0.5882	0.7321	0.5882	0.6000	0.5882
P5			0.5455	1.0000	0.3529	1.0000
T3				0.5455	0.3304	0.5455
T5					0.3529	1.0000
W3						0.3529
W5						

Note: P, T and W indicate grouping based on physiological characteristics, tail fiber phylogeny, and whole genome phylogeny of phages, respectively, and the numbers 3 and 5 following these letters indicate division into 3 or 5 groups, respectively.

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 of the R1 type

(Fig. 2a)[10]. Variations in the R-core structure were suggested to arise from deficiencies in

the R-core synthesis pathway genes (Fig. 2b). 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. 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 compact O-antigen repeat unit in addition

to the R-core (Fig. 3a). Strains with mutations in genes unrelated to LPS synthesis showed

the same band pattern as TK001, indicating no change in LPS structure (Fig. 3b). In *waaV*

mutants (R172, R177-1, and R177-2), the upper band, O-antigen, completely disappeared.

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. 2 Prediction of LPS synthesis pathway in *Escherichia coli* TK001 strain by KEGG mapping

(a) R-core structure and related synthesis enzymes. (b) Predicted LPS structures of LPS-related gene mutants.

(a)

(b)

Fig. 3 Phenotypic confirmation of LPS extracted from each strain by DOC-PAGE

(a) Comparison of TK001 strain with known strains. "Smooth" is LPS from *Salmonella 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. "Rb" is Rb chemotype. "Rc" is Rc

chemotype. Purple highlights indicate the characteristic band pattern of TK001,

consisting of upper and lower bands. Red highlights indicate regions where the upper

band is absent. Orange and green highlights show the downward shift of the lower bands

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

distinct from the band marked by the green highlight. (b) Comparison between mutant

strains. The order has been rearranged for ease of viewing. Purple highlights indicate the

characteristic band pattern of TK001, consisting of upper and lower bands. Red highlights

indicate regions where the upper band is absent. Orange and green highlights show the

downward shift of the lower bands compared to the wild type. Blue highlights indicate

the presence of an additional band distinct from the band marked by the green highlight.

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. Moreover, current

receptor identification methods are time consuming and cannot be scaled. 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. In this study, we validated our previous clustering method based on

physiological characteristics of *E. coli* phages through detailed analysis of each phage's

target receptor.

Whole genome analysis revealed the LPS structure of the TK001 strain, and mutation

analysis of phage-resistant strains identified mutations in genes encoding flagellar

proteins, outer or inner membrane proteins, or LPS synthesis enzymes involved in the

structures recognized by each phage.

Furthermore, comparing classification methods based on physiological characteristics,

tail fiber phylogeny, and whole genome phylogeny showed that all methods exhibited

high correlation with target receptors when grouped into five clusters (ARI: 0.731). These

results suggest that phage classification based on phenotype or genotype reflects target

receptor specificity, supporting the validity of clustering based on physiological

characteristics as an effective method for reflecting differences in target receptors.

Phage classification methods

In this study, we compared three approaches for phage classification: physiological

characteristics, tail fiber phylogeny, and whole genome phylogeny. Comparison of these

methods with grouping based on target receptors showed that all methods performed

better than random classification (ARI > 0). Notably, when grouped into five clusters, all

methods showed high agreement (ARI: 0.731), indicating strong interchangeability

among these classification methods.

This high level of agreement suggests a close relationship between phage phenotype

(physiological characteristics), structural genes (tail fibers), and genetic background

(whole genome). It is particularly noteworthy that clustering based on physiological

characteristics showed high similarity with molecular phylogenetic classifications. This

implies that phage phenotypes strongly reflect genotypes, suggesting the possibility of

estimating genetic relationships of phages to some extent through relatively simple

analysis of physiological characteristics.

While there was a high level of agreement when grouping the phages into five clusters,

the agreement between methods decreased when phages were grouped into three clusters.

In particular, differences were observed in the classification of ΦWec179, 181, and 186

between physiological characteristic-based grouping and other methods. This result

suggests that each method may capture different aspects of phage characteristics. For

instance, physiological characteristics reflect functional aspects of phages such as host

range and growth dynamics, while tail fiber and whole genome analyses more directly

reflect genetic relationships. Therefore, using these methods complementarily may be

effective for a more comprehensive understanding of phage diversity.

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 may exist 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[11]. These results highlight the challenges in phage classification and functional

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

Nevertheless, this study demonstrated that clustering based on physiological

characteristics is an effective method that reflects phage target receptor specificity to

some extent. These findings contribute to the development of phage classification

research and provide an important foundation for the development of effective phage

therapy.

Phage target receptors

In this study, we were able to identify 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. 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. It is worth noting that mutations that shorten the R-core are known to destabilize the outer membrane, increasing susceptibility to external factors such as detergents and antimicrobial peptides. Gram-negative bacteria often activate compensatory pathways, such as the PhoPQ and PmrAB systems, to modify lipid A or the core oligosaccharide with charged non-stoichiometric substituents, thereby restoring membrane stability and reducing permeability[12,13]. Furthermore, it is known that mutation of a single LPS biosynthesis gene can lead to unexpected structural changes: Klein et al. observed 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[14]. This altered glycoform distribution affected LPS heterogeneity. These findings align with reports that even minor changes in the R-core structure can result in

complex physiological adaptations to maintain outer membrane integrity and resistance

to external factors. 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. Notably, although

ΦWec172, 174, and 177 were suggested to be similar in our previous report [9] due to their

common isolation source and timing, 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.

Particularly noteworthy 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.

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.

In conclusion, this study provides important insights into *E. coli* phage target receptors (Fig. 4) 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. Notably, we demonstrated that subtle chemical modifications of LPS, such as Heptose phosphorylation, are crucial for phage recognition. Furthermore, we found a high degree of agreement between classifications based on previously reported physiological characteristics, tail fiber phylogeny, and whole genome phylogeny when grouped into five clusters, suggesting a close relationship between phage phenotypes, specific structural genes, and overall genetic background. 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. Our use of *E. coli* TK001, a strain that shows enhanced growth during colitis, as a host strain further demonstrates the applicability of our approach to clinically relevant contexts. While our findings are based on *E. coli* phages, further studies about phages infecting other bacterial species are needed, in clinical settings where conventional receptor identification is impractical and rapid decision-making is crucial, these validated classification methods offer 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.

Table S3 ANI of phages

Fig. 4 Target receptors of each phage

Schematic representation of the target receptors for the studied phages. The diagram

illustrates the diversity of receptors including LPS components, membrane proteins, and

flagella. 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. However,

examination of the actual genome annotation revealed that TK001 possesses only the

waaT gene and not *waaR*. Boxed phages represent groups classified by physiological

characteristics, whole genome, or tail fiber phylogeny. Arrows extending from each phage

indicate their respective target receptors.

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[9].

Phage preparation

Thirteen phages were propagated using *E. coli* TK001 as the host through the 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

$MgSO_4 \cdot 7H_2O$, 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

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

442 *Liquid culture method*: Log-phase TK001 culture was diluted 100-fold, and 100 μL of

443 high-titer phage suspension ($>10^8$ PFU/mL, MOI > 10) was added. The mixture was

444 incubated at 37°C with shaking at 40 rpm in a compact rocking incubator (TVS062CA,

445 Advantec Toyo Co. Ltd., Tokyo, Japan). The emergence of resistant bacteria was

446 confirmed by turbidity curves the following day. The culture was centrifuged (9000 rpm,

447 5 min, 4 °C), and the pellet was washed with 1× phosphate-buffered saline (PBS). The

448 pellet was serially diluted in 1× PBS (1 mL), and 20 μL of each dilution was spotted onto

449 soft agar containing 100 μL of high-titer phage. Eight phage-resistant *E. coli* colonies

450 were isolated for each phage and purified by streak culture at least twice. Purified colonies

451 were inoculated into 1 mL of LB, cultured for 11 hours, and stored at -80 °C.

452 *Solid culture method*: 100 μL of overnight-cultured TK001 and 100 μL of high-titer phage

453 suspension ($>10^8$ PFU/mL) were added to soft agar and overlaid on agar plates. Four

454 colonies per phage (one for ΦWec190 and three for ΦWec193) were isolated the

455 following day and purified by streak culture at least twice. Purified colonies were

456 processed and stored as described in the liquid culture method.

457 Phage adsorption assay was used to select target receptor mutants from the acquired

458 phage-resistant strains. A mixture of overnight-cultured resistant strain (100 μL) and LB

459 (890 μL) was combined with phage suspension ($>10^7$ PFU/mL, 100 μL). Samples (10 μL)

460 were taken at 0- and 10-min post-phage addition, mixed with 990 μL SM buffer (pre-

461 added with 100 μL chloroform), and centrifuged (15,000 rpm, >2 min, 4 °C). The

462 supernatant (100 μL) and overnight-cultured TK001 (100 μL) were mixed in soft agar

463 and overlaid on agar plates. After overnight incubation, the unadsorbed ratio was

464 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.

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[15]. 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[9], spot tests were conducted using the Keio collection (NBRP, Japan), a

comprehensive gene knockout library[16,17]. 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 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")[18]. 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[19]. Annotation

of the resulting contigs was performed using prokka[20]. Basic statistical analysis of the

contigs was conducted using seqkit[21].

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[22]. Non-synonymous mutations were detected by comparing each resistant

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

nucdiff[23].

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 centrifuge 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[24,25,26].

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[27]. Extracted LPS was visualized by DOC-PAGE

followed by silver staining[28]. 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[29]. 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).

Principal component analysis (PCA) and clustering

539   PCA and clustering were performed as previously reported[9].

Whole genome construction of phages

541   Sequencing data were assembled using Velvet software (ver. 1.2.10)[30].

Phylogenetic tree based on tail fibers

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

sequences were extracted[31]. 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[32].

Whole genome phylogenetic tree and similarity

551   The whole genome phylogenetic tree was created using Viptree[33]. The Average

552   Nucleotide Identity (ANI) was calculated using pyani[34]. The parameters used were: pyani:

553   anib and ANI calculator: minimum identity 0%, with other parameters set to default.

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 of clustering results was

evaluated using Adjusted Rand Index (ARI), Normalized Mutual Information (NMI), V-

measure, and Fowlkes-Mallows Index. Label normalization was performed in the

similarity evaluation to improve the accuracy of comparison between methods. These

analyses were executed on Linux.

Statistical analysis

The data were analyzed using R (ver. 4.0.3) and its packages[35,36,37,38,39,40,41,42,43,44,45,46].

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