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3   **Multiple phase-variable mechanisms, including capsular polysaccharides, modify**

4   **bacteriophage susceptibility in *Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron***

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Abstract

A variety of cell surface structures, including capsular polysaccharides (CPS), dictate

interactions between bacteria and their environment including their viruses (bacteriophages).

Members of the prominent human gut Bacteroidetes characteristically produce several phase-

variable CPS, but their contributions to bacteriophage interactions are unknown. We used

engineered strains of the human symbiont *Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron*, which differ only in the

CPS they express, to isolate bacteriophages from two locations in the United States. Testing each

of 71 bacteriophages against a panel of strains that express wild-type phase-variable CPS, one of

eight different single CPS, or no CPS at all, revealed that each phage infects only a subset of

otherwise isogenic strains. Deletion of infection-permissive CPS from *B. thetaiotaomicron* was

sufficient to abolish infection for several individual bacteriophages, while infection of wild-type

B. thetaiotaomicron with either of two different bacteriophages rapidly selected for expression of

non-permissive CPS. Surprisingly, acapsular *B. thetaiotaomicron* also escapes complete killing

by these bacteriophages, but surviving bacteria exhibit increased expression of 8 distinct phase-

variable lipoproteins. When constitutively expressed, one of these lipoproteins promotes

resistance to multiple bacteriophages. Finally, both wild-type and acapsular *B. thetaiotaomicron*

were able to separately co-exist with one bacteriophage for over two months in the mouse gut,

suggesting that phase-variation promotes resistance but also generates sufficient numbers of

susceptible revertants to allow bacteriophage persistence. Our results reveal important roles for

Bacteroides CPS and other cell surface structures that allow these bacteria to persist despite

bacteriophage predation and hold important implications for using bacteriophages therapeutically

to target gut symbionts.

Introduction

The community of cellular microorganisms in the human intestinal tract is dominated by a diverse population of bacteria, with hundreds of different species typically coexisting within an individual[1,2]. Frequent diet changes, host immune responses and bacteriophage infections are among the many causes of intermittent perturbations to individual bacterial taxa. However, the microbial communities within individuals generally remain stable over long time periods[3], suggesting that bacteria have evolved strategies to survive these perturbations. One mechanism that may promote bacterial resilience is the ability of individual strains to produce multiple capsular polysaccharides (CPS), cell surface components that have been diversified in the genomes of gut-dwelling Bacteroidetes and several other phyla[4,5]. While previous work showed that CPS from *Bacteroides* and members of other phyla play roles in evading or modulating host immunity[6-10], the diversity of CPS synthesis loci in gut bacteria suggests that they could fill other roles[5,8,11,12].

The phylum Bacteroidetes—within which members of the genus *Bacteroides* are typically the most abundant Gram-negative gut symbionts in industrialized human populations[2,13]—provides excellent models to study persistence and competition mechanisms, including the roles and diversity of CPS. For example, the type strains of the well-studied species *Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron* and *Bacteroides fragilis* each encode 8 different CPS[14,15] and there is broad genetic diversity of *cps* loci among different strains within these species (e.g., 47 different *cps* biosynthetic loci were identified in just 14 strains of *B. thetaiotaomicron*)[8]. In *Bacteroides*, CPS structures appear to surround the entire bacterial cell[16,17] and the *cps* biosynthetic loci that encode these surface coatings are often under the control of phase variable promoters[8,15,18]. In conjunction with other regulatory mechanisms, phase variable CPS

expression generates phenotypic heterogeneity within an otherwise isogenic population that may

facilitate survival in the face of diverse disturbances[8,15,19,20].

Bacterial viruses or bacteriophages (herein, phages), like the bacteria on which they prey,

vary greatly across individual gut microbiomes and are even responsive to host dietary changes

and disease states[21-25]. Compared to gut bacteria, far less is understood about the phages of the

gut microbiome, especially the mechanisms governing phage-bacteria interactions. Specifically,

while phages that target several species of *Bacteroides* have been shown to exhibit species- or

strain-specificity[26-29], little is known about the molecular interactions that drive bacterial

susceptibility[30] or the mechanisms by which these bacteria persist despite an abundance of

phages in the gut. Given the observations that *Bacteroides* CPS are extremely variable, even

within members of a single species[8,11], and employ complex regulatory mechanisms that

diversify expression in members of a population[20], CPS are ideal candidates for modulating

Bacteroides-phage interactions.

Here, we tested the hypothesis that CPS mediate *Bacteroides*-phage interactions. We

employed a panel of engineered strains of the model symbiont *Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron* that

each constitutively expresses a different single CPS or none at all. While our results clearly

support the conclusion that individual CPS can either block or be required for phage infection,

they also reveal that *B. thetaiotaomicron* possesses additional phage-evasion strategies that

function in addition to CPS. For two different phages tested, CPS-independent survival involves

increased expression of phase-variable surface lipoproteins and altered expression of nutrient

receptors by the surviving bacteria. These phase-variable surface proteins may also encode

resistance mechanisms, an idea that is supported by increased resistance to several phages when

one of these lipoproteins is constitutively expressed experimentally. Our results provide a

mechanistic glimpse into the intricacy of bacterial-phage interactions that exist in the human gut

and provide a foundation for future work to leverage these interactions and to directly manipulate

the gut microbiome.

Results

Bacteriophages infect *B. thetaiotaomicron* in a CPS-dependent fashion

The genomes of human gut Bacteroidetes frequently encode multiple CPS[5], a

phenomenon that we explored in a phylogenetic context in currently available genomes of 53

different human gut species. The type strains of all but the *Prevotella* species searched encoded

between 2-13 CPS (mean = 4), suggesting that the ability to produce multiple CPS is typical and

some lineages have undergone substantial expansion of these surface structures (**Figure S1A**).

To test the hypothesis that *Bacteroides* CPS mediate interactions with phages, we isolated phages

that infect *B. thetaiotaomicron* VPI-5482 (ATCC 29148). To maximize our chances of collecting

phages that differ in their interactions with CPS, we used the wild-type strain that expresses 8

different CPS, which are each encoded by a different multi-gene *cps* locus and in some cases are

driven by phase-variable promoters (**Figure S1B**)[14], along with a panel of engineered strains

with reduced CPS expression. The latter included 8 single CPS-expressing strains (designated

"cps1" through "cps8")[8] and an acapsular strain in which all eight *cps* loci were deleted (Δcps)[31]

as independent hosts for phage isolation. Primary sewage effluent from two cities within the

United States (Ann Arbor, Michigan and San Jose, California; separated by approximately 3,300

kilometers) was used as the phage source (for further details on phage isolation, see *Methods* and

Table S1). All phages were plaque purified at least 3 times and high titer lysates generated for

each of the 71 phages. Plaque morphologies varied among the individual phages, ranging in size

from <1 mm to >3 mm and in opacity from very turbid to clear (**Figure S2**).

To determine if phages isolated on individual *B. thetaiotaomicron* hosts are restricted by

the particular CPS they express, we systematically tested each phage against each of the 10 host

strains (n=3). Hierarchical clustering of the host infection profiles revealed a cladogram with 3

main branches that each encompasses phages from both collection sites, although substantial

variation in host tropism exists for phages within each branch (**Figure 1**). Furthermore,

individual phages within each branch displayed a range of plaque morphologies (**Figures 1, S2**),

suggesting additional diversity in the collection that is not captured by this assay. Finally, host

range assays were robust when performed by different experimenters at different research sites

(**Figure S3**).

Phages in Branch 1 generally exhibited robust infection of the acapsular strain, although

3 of these phages did not form plaques on this host. Furthermore, phages in Branch 1 generally

exhibited robust infection on strains expressing CPS7 or CPS8 alone, although a separate subset

of 3 phages did not form plaques on the CPS8 expressing strain. Some Branch 1 phages also

displayed less efficient infection of other strains with the exception of cps4, which was not

infected by any phages in this group. Interestingly, ARB154 exclusively infected cps8, an

uncommon CPS among *B. thetaiotaomicron* strains that appears to be contained in a mobile

element[8]. Phages in Branch 2 generally exhibited robust infection of all strains except cps2, cps3

and cps4. However, subsets of this group were unable to infect cps1 or cps6. Finally, Branch 3

tended to exhibit strong infection of wild-type, *cps*1, cps2, and cps3, with some variations. Some

Branch 3 phages also exhibited the ability to infect the cps7 and acapsular strains but were the

only branch that poorly infected cps8. Most notably, a subset of phages on Branches 1 and 3

failed to infect the acapsular strain, suggesting that they require the presence of certain CPS for

infection. Taken together, the observed variations in phage infectivity provide support for our

hypothesis that these surface structures are important mediators of *B. thetaiotaomicron*-phage

interactions.

Elimination of specific CPS subsets alters bacterial susceptibility to phages

The differences in host infectivity described above suggest that there are distinct

mechanisms of phage adsorption to the bacterial surface, some of which are influenced by CPS.

Several phages robustly infect the acapsular strain, indicating that a capsule-independent cell

surface receptor mediates infection. These same phages each infect subsets of the single CPS-

expressing strains, suggesting that some "non-permissive" CPS block access to cell surface

receptors, while other "permissive" CPS fail to do so. For phages that do not efficiently infect the

acapsular strain, one or more CPS may serve as a direct phage receptor(s) or as a required co-

receptor.

To further define the roles of specific CPS during phage infection, we investigated a

subset of 6 phages (ARB72, ARB78, ARB82, ARB101, ARB105, and ARB25; marked in blue

text in Figure 1). All 6 of these phages infect wild-type *B. thetaiotaomicron* that variably

expresses its 8 different CPS and 5 of them (all on Branch 3) infect the acapsular strain poorly or

not at all (**Figure 1**). We first tested the hypothesis that some CPS are required as receptors or

co-receptors by deleting only the subsets of CPS biosynthetic genes encoding permissive

capsules based on our prior experiments with single CPS-expressing strains. For ARB72, which

most robustly infects the cps1 and cps3 strains, simultaneous elimination of both of these

capsules from wild-type *B. thetaiotaomicron* reduced infection below the limit of detection

(**Figure 2A**). Likewise, elimination of the most permissive CPS for the four other Branch 3

phages (ARB78, ARB82, ARB101 and ARB105) significantly reduced *B. thetaiotaomicron*

infection by these phages, in some cases in the presence of permissive CPS (**Figure 2B-E**).

For ARB25, which infects 7 of the 10 strains tested in our initial plaque assays (**Figure**

1), some single and compounded *cps* deletions significantly reduced infection rates or reduced

them below the limit of detection (**Figure 2F**). While individual deletion of four permissive CPS

(CPS1,6,7,8) led to partially reduced infection, so did single eliminations of either of two CPS

initially determined to be non-permissive (CPS3 and CPS4). Moreover, deletion of non-

permissive CPS4 in combination with deleting the *permissive* CPS1 completely eliminated

detectable infection suggesting more complicated regulatory interactions, which are known to

occur with *Bacteroides* CPS[19,20]. Interestingly, strains lacking CPS4 or CPS1/CPS4 compensated

by significantly increasing relative expression of the non-permissive *cps2* locus, which could

contribute to ARB25 resistance (**Figure 2G**).

A strain expressing only two of the non-permissive CPS (CPS2 and CPS3) could not be

detectably infected by ARB25 (**Figure 2F**, "2,3 only"). However, a strain expressing CPS2,3,4

regained some susceptibility (**Figure 2F**, "2,3,4 only"), indicating that when CPS4 is present it is

capable of mediating some infection by this phage, which is different than the observation made

in Figure 1 and is discussed further below. In contrast to sole expression of CPS2 and CPS3

promoting resistance to ARB25, deletion of the *cps2* and *cps3* loci led to dominant expression of

cps1 and *cps4* genes, which increased infection efficiency and led to the production of clearer

plaques (**Figure 2F-H**). Additional support for the idea that loss of CPS4 expression alone

modifies ARB25 susceptibility comes from plaque morphologies arising from infection of the

Δ*cps4* strain, which produced smaller and more turbid plaques, demonstrating that when

infection does occur it is less productive (**Figure 2H**). Additional experiments with another *B.*

thetaiotaomicron strain that encodes homologs of *cps2, cps5* and cps6 support the conclusion

that elimination of these permissive capsules reduces, in some cases, bacteria-phage interaction

(**Figure S4**). However, the exogenous presence of a stoichiometric excess of non-permissive

CPS2 (~10^9-fold more than phage) was not able to block the ability of ARB25 to infect the

acapsular strain, suggesting that non-permissive CPS do not inhibit phage infection *in trans*

(**Figure S5A**).

***B. thetaiotaomicron* acquires transient resistance to phage infection**

Interestingly, we observed that liquid cultures of the various *B. thetaiotaomicron* strains

infected with ARB25 or SJC01 did not show evidence of complete lysis after 36 hours of

growth, as determined by optical density at 600 nm (OD_{600}) (**Figures 3, S6A**). Previous reports

demonstrated that *B. fragilis*[28] and *B. intestinalis*[29] exhibited transient resistance to phage

infection that could be "reset" through removal of the phage from the culture, although the

underlying mechanism of this transient resistance was not determined. Based on these

observations, we sought to determine if similar transient resistance occurs with *B.*

thetaiotaomicron and if this resistance is dependent on CPS.

Growth curves of each of the CPS-expressing strains inoculated with live or heat-killed

ARB25 confirmed our initial host range assays, except, in contrast to the plate-based assays,

cultures containing the CPS4-expressing strain were sensitive to killing by this phage in liquid

culture, while cultures of the CPS6-expressing strain had no decrease in OD_{600} (**Figure 3**). In

these experiments, most strains that appeared to be susceptible via plaque assay exhibited an

initial lag in growth or a drop in OD_{600} after growth began. As expected, the *cps2* and *cps3*

strains did not exhibit any apparent growth perturbation by ARB25. While susceptible strains

initiated growth similarly to uninfected cultures and later showed loss of culture density, they

subsequently displayed either resumption of growth (wild-type, acapsular, cps1) that approached

the density achieved by uninfected controls or growth stagnation at an intermediate culture

density (cps4, cps5, cps7, cps8). The former observation suggested outgrowth of a resistant

subpopulation of bacteria and culture supernatants taken from ARB25 post-infected, wild-type *B.*

thetaiotaomicron still contained high phage titers when exposed to naïve bacteria, excluding the

possibility that the phages were inactivated (**Figure S5B**). The observation of growth stagnation

after initial loss of bacterial density suggests that a more complex equilibrium is achieved

between phage and resistant bacteria that prohibits either from becoming dominant. This

behavior was reproducible with 20 separate cultures of the cps4 strain (**Figure S6B**). A similar

correlation between plate-based assays and behavior in liquid culture was observed with SJC01,

a Branch 2 phage with an infection profile similar to ARB25 (**Figure S6A**). As expected from its

resistance to SJC01 in Figure 1, the cps3 strain showed no signs of disrupted growth, whereas

cps4, which was non-permissive for both ARB25 and SJC01 in plate-based assays, also showed

susceptibility in liquid culture.

We next determined whether strains that had survived or proliferated after exposure to

ARB25 retained resistance after removal of phage. In order to isolate phage-free bacterial clones,

we isolated individual colonies by sequentially streaking each twice from a subset of the cultures

that gained resistance to ARB25 (WT, acapsular, cps1 and cps4) as well as the inherently

ARB25-resistant cps2 strain. The majority of clones isolated using this process were free from

detectable phage (see *Methods*). We then re-infected each clone with live ARB25 and monitored

susceptibility by delayed growth or drop in the culture density as compared to infection with

heat-killed phage. As expected, the cps2 strain remained resistant. On the other hand, the

majority of clones (42/61 total, ~69%) derived from the other four strains regained susceptibility

(**Table S2**), suggesting that resistance to this phage is not predominantly caused by a permanent

genetic alteration.

Phage-resistant, wild-type *B. thetaiotaomicron* populations exhibit altered *cps* locus

expression

Given that CPS type is correlated with resistance to phage infection, we hypothesized that

wild-type *B. thetaiotaomicron* cells that are pre-adapted by expressing non-permissive capsules

would be positively selected in the presence of phage. To test this, we infected wild-type *B.*

thetaiotaomicron with ARB25 and monitored bacterial growth. Cultures treated with a high

multiplicity of infection (MOI ≈1) displayed similar growth kinetics as observed previously, with

an apparently resistant population emerging after 3-4 hours (**Figure 4A**). Interestingly, bacterial

cultures originating from different single colonies displayed variable growth kinetics, with the

growth of one clone barely delayed by treatment with live ARB25. Next, we measured if

infection with ARB25 resulted in altered CPS expression by the phage-resistant *B.*

thetaiotaomicron population. In support of our hypothesis, *B. thetaiotaomicron* exposed to heat-

killed phage predominantly expressed CPS3 and CPS4, which we typically observe *in vitro*.

Treatment with live ARB25 resulted in a dramatic loss of *cps*1 and *cps*4 expression with a

concomitant increase of expression of the non-permissive *cps*3 locus (**Figure 4B**). While

reduction in *cps4* expression did not correlate with increased *cps2* as observed with a Δ*cps4*

strain (**Figure 2G**), the high abundance of *cps3* expressing bacteria in the initial culture may

have enabled ARB25 to select for this population in the hours post-infection. Similar growth and

expression phenotypes occurred in cultures treated with a low (≈10^{-4}) MOI, but with higher

initial bacterial growth before a decline (**Figure S7**). Dirichlet regression (see *Methods*)

supported significant expression changes for the *cps1*, *cps3*, and *cps4* loci in response to ARB25

(p < 0.01 for experiments with both low and high MOI). Notably, the most resistant of the three

bacterial clones (as evidenced by faster outgrowth post-infection) in each of the two experiments

(low and high MOI) exhibited similar *cps* locus expression to the other clones after treatment

with live phage, but expressed lower levels of permissive *cps*1 and *cps4* and higher levels of

non-permissive *cps*3 in heat-killed phage treatment groups (**Figure S8**). This pre-existing

variation in CPS expression may contribute to the ability of some clones to resume growth more

rapidly after phage challenge because it was already skewed towards non-permissive CPS.

Multiple layers of phase-variable featuresequip *B. thetaiotaomicron* to survive phage

predation

The results described above support the idea that some individual cells in a *B.*

thetaiotaomicron population are pre-adapted to resist phage through expression of different CPS.

However, ARB25-infected acapsular *B. thetaiotaomicron* still grew significantly after initial

reduction by the phage (**Figure 3**) and most Δ*cps*-derived isolates after phage infection had

regained susceptibility (**Table S2**), suggesting it is also transient. To determine if additional

phage resistance mechanisms are involved, we performed whole genome transcriptional profiling

by RNA-sequencing (RNA-seq) to measure transcriptional differences between ARB25 post-

infected wild-type and acapsular *B. thetaiotaomicron*. As expected in wild-type, the

transcriptional profiles of bacteria surviving after ARB25 infection (n=3) were largely

characterized by alterations in CPS expression (**Figure 5A, Table S3a**). Among 83 genes that

exhibited significant expression changes ≥3-fold between *B. thetaiotaomicron* exposed to live

and heat-killed ARB25, 63 belonged to 4 *cps* loci, with permissive *cps1* and *cps4* decreased and

non-permissive *cps2* and *cps3* increased. Interestingly, two additional gene clusters encoding

different outer-membrane "Sus-like systems", which are well-described mechanisms in the

Bacteroidetes for import and degradation of carbohydrates and other nutrients[32,33], were also

decreased in post-infected bacteria. The central features of these systems are outer membrane

TonB-dependent transporters (similar to *E. coli* TonA, or **T on**e phage receptor **A**; the first

described phage receptor[34]), suggesting the possibility that the proteins encoded by these genes

are part of the receptor for ARB25.

In the transcriptome of acapsular *B. thetaiotaomicron* subjected to the same live and heat-

killed ARB25 treatments described above, 118 genes showed significant expression changes and

most of these (100, 85%) were upregulated (**Figure 5B, Table S3b**). One of the two Sus-like

systems (*BT2170-73*) that was decreased in ARB25-exposed wild-type was also decreased to

similar levels in acapsular *B. thetaiotaomicron*. Among the most highly upregulated genes (28

genes with $\geq$10-fold increase and an adjusted p-value $\leq$ 0.01) after ARB25 infection, 6 genes in

the well-characterized starch-utilization system (Sus)[32] were increased in post-infected cultures,

suggesting that surviving bacteria are exposed to and metabolize glycogen that is released from

lysed siblings. An additional 17 genes belong to 8 loci that encode predicted outer membrane S-

layer lipoproteins and OmpA β-barrel proteins. One of these (BT1927) was previously

investigated and found to be phase-variable and increase *B. thetaiotaomicron* resistance to

complement-mediated killing when locked in the "on" state[35]. The remaining S-layer clusters

share both syntenic organization and homology to this original S-layer gene cluster. Closer

scrutiny of the promoter regions upstream of the newly identified loci revealed that each is also

flanked by a pair of imperfect, 17 nucleotide palindromic repeats (**Figure 5C**). Three of these

repeats are identical to the repeats known to mediate recombination at the *BT1927* promoter[35].

The remaining 4 sequences only varied by the sequence of a trinucleotide located in the middle

of each imperfect palindrome (**Figure 5C**). Finally, amplicon sequencing of the promoter regions

using directionally-oriented primers supported the existence of the proposed recombination

events in 5 of the 7 newly identified loci, while two did not generate PCR products (**Figure S9**).

Among the remaining genes that were significantly up- or down-regulated in post

ARB25-infected acapsular *B. thetaiotaomicron*, there was an additional signature of genes for

which DNA recombination is involved in re-organizing expression of cell surface proteins.

Specifically, the expression of 3 of 4 genes in an operon (*BT1042-45*) involved in utilization of

host *N*-linked glycans[36,37] were expressed an average of 4.9-fold less in ARB25-infected

acapsular cells. Correspondingly, 5 genes in an adjacent operon (*BT1046-50*) with similar

arrangement and predicted functions exhibited an average of 11.9-fold increased expression.

Both of these operons have been previously linked to transcriptional regulation by a nearby

extra-cytoplasmic function sigma (ECF-σ), anti-σ factor pair, such that when the single ECF-σ

coding gene (*BT1053*) is deleted, the ability to activate the adjacent operons is eliminated[16].

Based on 1) the ARB25-dependent shift in gene expression described above; 2) the observation

that two genes encoding TonB-dependent transporters (*BT1040, BT1046*) appear to be truncated

at their 5' ends compared to *BT1042* (**Figure 5D**, **S10A**) and only the full-length BT1042

sequence harbors a required anti-σ contact domain[16]; and 3) the presence of a gene encoding a

putative tyrosine recombinase (*BT1041*) located in the middle of this locus, we hypothesized that

this gene cluster possesses the ability to undergo recombination at sites within the three TonB-

dependent transporter genes and that specific combinatorial variants are selected under phage

pressure.

To test this, we designed PCR primer pairs (**Figure 5D**, green dumbbells) to detect both

the originally annotated sequence orientation and 3 potential alternative recombination states

derived from either moving the full-length 5' end of *BT1042* to one of two alternative *susC*-like

genes or an internal rearrangement derived from recombination of two incomplete *susC*-like

genes (**Figure 5D**, variants 1-3). In support of our hypothesis, we were able to detect by both

PCR (**Figure 5E**) and amplicon sequencing (**Figure S10B**) the presence of all 5 predicted

alternative recombination states (**Figure 5D,E**), plus the 3 expected from the originally published

genome assembly[14]. In further support of our hypothesis, an insertion mutation in the associated

tyrosine recombinase-coding gene (*BT1041*) locked the corresponding mutant into the native

genomic architecture (**Figure 5E**). Further sequence analysis and tracking of single nucleotide

polymorphisms in the 5' ends of the three recombinationally active *susC*-like genes narrowed the

recombination site down to a 7 bp sequence that is flanked by an imperfect direct repeat (**Figure**

S10B). Thus, three separate operons that are under the transcriptional control of a single ECF-σ

regulator and are involved in utilization of host *N*-linked glycans, also undergo recombinational

shuffling. This strategy is similar to recombinational shufflons involving nutrient utilization

functions in *B. fragilis* [18,38]. One explanation is that these shufflons have evolved to subvert

phage infection by expressing alternate cell surface receptors that are involved in importing key

nutrients but are also targeted by phages. However, elimination of the genes spanning BT1033-

52 did not eliminate ARB25 infection in the acapsular strain, suggesting that an additional or

different receptor(s) exists. Interestingly, the BT1033-52 mutant exhibited variable plaquing

efficiency compared to the acapsular parent (**Figure S11**), suggesting that loss of these genes

might exert global effects that mediate susceptibility to ARB25.

To further understand the transcriptional response of *B. thetaiotaomicron* to phage

infection, we performed additional RNAseq experiments with ARB25 and the cps1 strain or with

a different Branch 2 phage, SJC01. Interestingly, the cps1 strain that is forced to express a

permissive capsule can also survive ARB25 infection (**Figure 3**) and mainly does so with

transcriptome alterations that involve increased expression of the S-layer proteins identified

above (**Figure S12A, Table S3c**). This suggests that, at least for CPS1, co-expression of capsule

and S-layer proteins may not be mutually exclusive. Wild-type bacteria infected with SJC01

exhibited similar alterations in CPS expression as were seen with ARB25 (**Figure S12B, Table**

S3d). In wild-type bacteria infected with SJC01, 61 of 67 differentially expressed genes

belonged to CPS1 and CPS4 (both downregulated) or CPS3 (upregulated), which is consistent

with the latter capsule being non-permissive for SJC01. As observed with ARB25, nutrient-

utilizing Sus-like systems were also down-regulated in SJC01-infected cells, including

previously described systems for ribose[39] and fungal cell wall α-mannan utilization[40]; notably,

these systems are different than those down-regulated in ARB25-exposed cultures. Finally, in

SJC01-infected acapsular cultures, expression of 4 of the 8 S-layer proteins was prominent, with

the *BT1927-25* locus being the most highly expressed feature (**Figure S12C, Table S3e**). An

interesting feature of this transcriptome was up-regulation between 6-16 fold of 2 genes

(*BT4014-13*) encoding predicted restriction endonucleases (**Figure S12D**). Closer examination

of this locus revealed a recombinase located upstream of *BT4014* and predicted 18 bp inverted

repeats flanking a near consensus promoter sequence that is oriented away from *BT4014* (*i.e.*,

"off") in the assembled genome. To test if this promoter undergoes DNA inversion, we designed

primers flanking the predicted recombination sites and performed PCR followed by amplicon

sequencing, which confirmed that expression of these genes is also under phase-variable control

(**Figure S12E**).

S-layer expression promotes resistance to multiple phages and is a prominent evasion

strategy *in vivo*

The gene encoding the canonical outer membrane S-layer protein (*BT1927*), and its

downstream genes (*BT1926-25*) were among the most highly activated in acapsular *B.*

thetaiotaomicron that had survived infection with either ARB25 or SJC01 (**Figures 5B, S12C**).

We therefore focused on the effects of these proteins on phage infection. Expression of these

genes can be locked into the "on" or "off" orientations by mutating the recombination site

upstream of the phase-variable promoter[35] and we re-engineered acapsular *B. thetaiotaomicron*

into these 2 expression states. Consistent with the hypothesis that the BT1927 S-layer promotes

phage resistance, acapsular S-layer "off" cells were more effectively inhibited by the presence of

live ARB25 relative to acapsular S-layer "on" cells (**Figure 6A**). The strength of this effect was

altered by the age of the colonies used for subsequent liquid culture experiments to test phage

infectivity (**Figure S13**), suggesting that other environmental factors alter the expression or

function of this S-layer. Testing of acapsular *BT1927* on/off strains that had been grown under

optimal conditions for ARB25 resistance revealed that constitutive expression of the BT1927 S-

layer promotes resistance to 3 additional phages from Branches 1 and 2 (**Figure 6B-D**). This

latter observation, in combination with previous findings that this S-layer promotes complement

resistance[35], suggests that BT1927 and perhaps the 7 other *B. thetaiotaomicron* S-layers

discovered here more broadly promote resistance to a variety of perturbations.

Based on our results, phase-variation of CPS, S-layers, nutrient receptors, and restriction

endonucleases are all selected for during phage predation. However, these same phase-variable

evasion mechanisms could also explain the previously described observation that *Bacteroides*

can co-exist with phage *in vitro* in the phenomenon termed "pseudolysogeny" [28,41]. We

hypothesized that if the phase-variable systems that promote resistance also spontaneously revert

some cells to a susceptible state, then the population could remain mostly resistant but generate a

enough susceptible bacteria to continuously propagate phage. To test this in an *in vivo* model

with high bacterial density and other features of the colonic environment, we colonized germfree

Swiss Webster mice separately with either wild-type or acapsular *B. thetaiotaomicron* for 7 days,

then introduced ARB25 by oral gavage. As expected, both bacterial populations reached a high

colonization level within 1 day, which was not noticeably perturbed upon addition of phage

(**Figure 6E**). ARB25 levels also rose to a high level shortly after introduction and both host

bacteria and phage remained present for more than 70 days of co-colonization. Interestingly,

while ARB25 levels initially dropped at least 10-fold in all mice between 2 and 4 days after

introduction and remained lower than the number of colonizing bacteria, these trends diverged

after 30 days with ARB25 levels becoming significantly higher at several timepoints in Δ*cps*.

Because it lacks the ability to evade ARB25 through alterations in CPS expression, we

further hypothesized that the Δ*cps* strain might be more prone to accrue mutations that promote

full resistance after several weeks of constant ARB25 pressure. To address this, we isolated *B.*

thetaiotaomicron clones from feces and cecal contents of each of the colonized mice and

subjected them to serial passage to ensure they were phage-free (see *Methods*). We then

measured the susceptibility of these isolates to ARB25 after 10 days of repeated, daily passage *in*

vitro (**Table S4**). Contrary to our hypothesis, all of the Δ*cps* clones had regained susceptibility to

ARB25, while 5/13 wild-type isolates remained resistant, suggesting that longer-term (perhaps

permanent) resistance can occur after prolonged exposure to ARB25 *in vivo*, but this requires the

presence of CPS.

Lastly, to determine which of the phase-variable resistance mechanisms are operative *in*

vivo after prolonged ARB25 exposure, we performed RNAseq on bacteria recovered from the

cecal contents of mice after 72 days of phage infection. Compared to the respective wild-type

and acapsular strains grown *in vitro* and exposed to heat-killed ARB25, many genes were

induced *in vivo* as expected based on previous studies of *B. thetaiotaomicron* adaptation to the

diet and host derived nutrient conditions in the gut[36,42,43]. Wild-type *B. thetaiotaomicron* that had

co-existed with ARB25 for 72d *in vivo* surprisingly exhibited lower expression of non-

permissive CPS3 (average 5-fold lower than uninfected wild-type grown *in vitro*). While

expression of non-permissive CPS2 was increased, so was expression of several permissive CPS

(CPS5, CPS6, CPS7 and CPS8, **Figure S12F**, **Table S3F**), which may have been influenced by

growth *in vivo*, which we have previously shown to be selective for *B. thetaiotaomicron*

expressing CPS4, CPS5 and CPS6[8]. While wild-type bacteria did not display dominant

expression of non-permissive CPS *in vivo* like they did in short-term infection experiments *in*

vitro, they did increase expression of 6 of the S-layer loci, while repressing one. Finally, the

phase-variable restriction endonuclease system identified in vitro in SJC01 infected cells was

also upregulated in wild-type and acapsular *B. thetaiotaomicron* after prolonged co-existence

with ARB25 *in vivo* (**Figure S12FG**).

As expected, acapsular *B. thetaiotaomicron* exhibited expression of some of its S-layers

after 72 days of ARB25 exposure *in vivo* (**Figure S12G, Table S3g**). However, most of the 8 S-

layers only showed modestly increased or reduced expression relative to *in vitro* grown *B.*

thetaiotaomicron after prolonged *in vivo* existence with ARB25 and just one of the S-layers

(BT1826) became dominant with 2,738-fold increased expression. This latter result suggests that

this protein may confer optimal ARB25 resistance in this particular strain background and *in vivo*

growth condition. Surprisingly, acapsular *B. thetaiotaomicron* displayed high expression of

another set of 3 genes (*BT0292-94;* increased 79-156-fold) and one of these genes BT0294

encodes a predicted lipoprotein of less than ~50% of the deduced size of the S-layer proteins.

Adjacent to this locus is a predicted recombinase. We were able to identify a near-consensus

promoter, assembled in the "off" orientation in the *B. thetaiotaomicron* genome, flanked by 18

bp repeats (**Figure S12D**). As with the newly identified S-layer proteins and restriction enzyme

system, combined PCR/sequencing demonstrated that this promoter is capable of undergoing

phase-variation (**Figure S12E)** bringing the total number of *B. thetaiotaomicron* phase-variable

features that show selection in response to phages to 19 members of 4 different functional groups

(CPS, S-layers, TonB-dependent transporters and restriction enzymes). Based on the results

described above, it is probable that this complex set of phase-variable functions equips *B.*

thetaiotaomicron with the versatility to optimally resist phage pressure, but also simultaneously

adapt to other environmental conditions such as nutrients and host immunity.

Discussion

Production of multiple phase-variable CPS is a hallmark of human gut Bacteroidetes

(**Figure S1A**). Previous work has revealed the importance of *Bacteroides* CPS in interactions

with the host immune system[7,8,44,45]. However, other biological roles for *Bacteroides* CPS have

remained unexplored. Using a panel of *B. thetaiotaomicron* strains that express individual CPS,

we tested a previously inaccessible hypothesis: that *Bacteroides*-targeting phage can be both

inhibited and assisted by the repertoire of CPS expressed by their host bacteria. Our data clearly

indicate that production of specific CPS is associated with alterations in phage susceptibility,

which is underscored by the observation that none of the 71 phages characterized here infect

every CPS-variant that we tested (**Figure 1**). Phage-mediated selection and interactions with the

host immune system help to explain both the extensive diversification of CPS structures in gut-

resident Bacteroidetes[8,11] and their complex phase-variable regulation within a given strain or

species[20]. Surprisingly, our results also reveal that additional phase-variable functions are

expressed by *B. thetaiotaomicron* during selection by phage, highlighting the diversity of

strategies in *Bacteroides* for surviving phage predation.

There are several mechanisms through which CPS could promote or prevent phage

infection[46]. First, CPS may sterically mask surface receptors to block phage binding, although

additional specificity determinants must be involved because no individual phage that infects the

acapsular strain is blocked by all *B. thetaiotaomicron* CPS. These specificity determinants could

be driven by CPS structure (physical depth on the cell surface, polysaccharide charge,

permeability) or be actively circumvented by the presence of polysaccharide depolymerases on

the phage particles, as has been described in other phage-bacterium systems (e.g., *E. coli* K1 and

phiK1-5[47]). Alternatively, certain permissive CPS could serve as obligate receptors[48] or more

generally increase the affinity of a phage for the bacterial cell surface. This latter type of

adherence to CPS might increase the likelihood that a phage would contact its receptor by

sustained interaction with the extracellular matrix. Some combination of these possibilities is

likely to explain the host range infection profile for the majority of the phages in this study.

Collectively, our observations provide the foundation for future mechanistic work, which will

begin with phage genome sequencing, aimed at understanding the physical and chemical

interactions that mediate infection of *B. thetaiotaomicron* and other *Bacteroides* by their phages.

Using ARB25 and SJC01 as representatives from our larger collection, we demonstrate

that infection with these single phages does not fully eradicate their target *B. thetaiotaomicron*

populations *in vitro* and *in vivo* (**Figures 3, 4, 6, S5-S7, S13**). Similar observations were

previously made with ΦCrAss001, a phage that infects *B. intestinalis*[29]. Specifically, though

ΦCrAss001 formed plaques on lawns of *B. intestinalis*, it failed to eradicate this bacterium in

long-term liquid culture. Given the roles of CPS in mediating *B. thetaiotaomicron*-phage

interactions, the outgrowth of a phage-resistant sub-population was especially surprising in the

context of acapsular *B. thetaiotaomicron*, revealing the existence of multiple phase-variable

surface proteins, at least one of which (*BT1927-26*) confers increased resistance to several

phages when constitutively expressed (**Figures 6A-D, S13**).

A previous study measured that only 1:1000 *B. thetaiotaomicron* cells in a phage-free

environment express the S-layer encoded by *BT1927*[35]. Given that ARB25 non-permissive CPS

can comprise up to 40% of the expressed capsule population (e.g., CPS3 in **Figure 4B**), the rapid

emergence of cells expressing alternative CPS could be explained by the pre-existing abundance

of non-permissive CPS. Resistant cells expressing S-layer may be less frequent and therefore

only emerge after longer periods of phage exposure, such as those that we observed *in vivo*. The

original *B. thetaiotaomicron* S-layer study also demonstrated that locking the invertible promoter

for the *BT1927* S-layer into the "on" orientation facilitated survival against complement-

mediated killing[35], suggesting the existence of orthogonal roles for this and related proteins.

Combined with our data on CPS-mediated phage tropism, our observations that the *BT1927*-

encoded S-layer confers resistance to some phages, that 7 other homologous systems are also

upregulated after exposure to ARB25, that a shufflon exists that harbors three recombinationally-

variable nutrient acquisition operons, and that additional phase-variable restriction enzyme and

surface protein systems exist in *B. thetaiotaomicron* collectively reveal that that there are at least

19 independent cellular functions in *B. thetaiotaomicron* that could contribute to surviving phage

predation by this species.

Phages are the most abundant biological entities in the gut microbiome[49] and interest in

the roles and identities of these gut-resident viruses is increasing as metagenomic sequencing

approaches are unveiling a more comprehensive view of their dynamics during health and

disease[21,22,25]. Although sequence-based approaches are powerful for describing the phages that

are present, they do not generate information on the definitive hosts or the mechanisms of

individual bacteria-phage interactions, which are likely to be elaborate. These limitations will

prohibit full dissection of the ecological interactions that phage exert on bacterial populations in

the gut. The approach taken here of isolating phages for a particular host of interest, with added

layers of detail like systematic variation of surface CPS when possible, will be an essential

complement to high throughput sequencing studies and will help build a foundation of

mechanistic gut bacterium-phage interactions.

This work, which primarily focuses on a single strain of *B. thetaiotaomicron*, points to

the existence of a very complex relationship between bacteria and phage in the gut microbiome.

Considering the possibilities that these interactions could vary over time, differ by host

species/strain, and evolve differently within individuals or regionally distinct global populations,

the landscape becomes even more complex. Given the diverse adaptive and counter-adaptive

strategies that have apparently evolved in the successful gut symbiont *B. thetaiotaomicron* and

its relatives, our findings hold important implications for the use of phages to intentionally alter

the composition or function of the gut microbiota. While a cocktail of multiple phages could

theoretically be harnessed together to elicit more robust alteration of target populations within a

microbiome, the complexity of host tropisms and bacterial countermeasures that exist for *B.*

thetaiotaomicron imply that a deliberate selection of complementary phage would be needed. If

effective phage cocktails need to be further tailored to individual microbiomes or elicit resistance

within individuals or populations similar to antibiotics, the prospects for effective gut

microbiome-targeted phage therapy could indeed become very complicated. Given these

considerations, our findings contribute an important early step towards building a deep

functional understanding of the bacterium-virus interactions that occur in the human gut

microbiome.

Methods

Bacterial strains and culture conditions

The bacterial strains used in this study are listed in **Table S5.** Frozen stocks of these

strains were maintained in 25% glycerol at -80˚C and were routinely cultured in an anaerobic

chamber or in anaerobic jars (using GasPak EZ anaerobe container system sachets w/indicator,

BD) at 37˚C in *Bacteroides* Phage Recovery Medium (BPRM), as described previously[50]: per 1

liter of broth, 10 g meat peptone, 10 g casein peptone, 2 g yeast extract, 5 g NaCl, 0.5 g L-

cysteine monohydrate, 1.8 g glucose, and 0.12 g $MgSO_4$ heptahydrate were added; after

autoclaving and cooling to approximately 55 °C, 10 mL of 0.22 µm-filtered hemin solution

(0.1% w/v in 0.02% NaOH), 1 mL of 0.22 µm-filtered 0.05 g/mL $CaCl_2$ solution, and 25 mL of

0.22µm-filtered 1 M Na_2CO_3 solution were added. For BPRM agar plates, 15 g/L agar was

added prior to autoclaving and hemin and Na_2CO_3 were added as above prior to pouring the

plates. For BPRM top agar used in soft agar overlays, 3.5 g/L agar was added prior to

autoclaving. Hemin, $CaCl_2$, and Na_2CO_3 were added to the top agar as above immediately before

conducting experiments. Bacterial strains were routinely recovered from the freezer stocks

directly onto agar plates of Brain Heart Infusion supplemented with 10% horse blood (Quad

Five, Rygate, Montana) (BHI-blood agar; or for the SJC phages used in **Figure 1**, on BPRM

agar), grown anaerobically for up to 3 days and a single colony was picked for each bacterial

strain, inoculated into 5 mL BPRM, and grown anaerobically overnight to provide the starting

culture for experiments (note that for the BT1927 S-layer protein experiment shown in **Figure 6**,

3 days of growth on BPRM medium was determined to promote the greatest phage resistance).

For the experiment described in **Figure 2G**, liquid cultures of *B. thetaiotaomicron* were

grown in BPRM using the pyrogallol method as described previously. Briefly, a sterile cotton

ball was burned and then pushed midway into the tube, after which 200 µL of saturated $NaHCO_3$

and 200 µL of 35% pyrogallol solution were added to the cotton ball. A rubber stopper was used

to seal the tubes, and tubes were incubated at 37 °C.

Bacteriophage isolation from primary wastewater effluent

The bacteriophages described in this study were isolated from primary wastewater

effluent from two locations at the Ann Arbor, Michigan Wastewater Treatment Plant and from

the San Jose-Santa Clara Regional Wastewater Treatment Facility. After collection, the primary

effluent was centrifuged at 5,500 rcf for 10 minutes at room temperature to remove any

remaining solids. The supernatant was then sequentially filtered through 0.45 µm and 0.22 µm

polyvinylidine fluoride (PVDF) filters to yield "processed primary effluent." Initial screening for

plaques was done using a soft agar overlay method[51] where processed primary effluent was

combined with 1 part overnight culture to 9 parts BPRM top agar and poured onto a BPRM agar

plate (e.g. 0.5 mL overnight culture and 4.5 mL BPRM top agar was used for standard circular

petri dishes [100 mm x 15 mm]). Soft agar overlays were incubated anaerobically at 37 ˚C

overnight. Phages were successfully isolated using three permutations of this assay (see **Table**

S1): (1) Direct plating, where processed primary effluent was directly added to overnight culture

prior to plating. (2) Enrichment, where 10 mL processed primary effluent was mixed with 10 mL

2XBPRM and 3 mL exponential phase *B. thetaiotaomicron* culture and grown overnight. The

culture was centrifuged at 5500 rcf for 10 minutes and filtered through a 0.22 µm PVDF filter.

(3) Size exclusion, where processed primary effluent was concentrated up to 500-fold via 30 or

100 kDa PVDF or polyethersulfone size exclusion columns. Up to 1 mL of processed primary

effluent, enrichment, or concentrated processed primary effluent was added to the culture prior to

adding BPRM top agar, as described above. To promote a diverse collection of phages, no more

than 5 plaques from the same plate were plaque purified and a diversity of plaque morphologies

were selected as applicable. When using individual enrichment cultures, only a single plaque was

purified.

Single, isolated plaques were picked into 100 µL phage buffer (prepared as an autoclaved

solution of 5 ml of 1 M Tris pH 7.5, 5 ml of 1 M MgSO4, 2 g NaCl in 500 ml with ddH$_2$O).

Phages were successfully plaque purified using one of two methods: (1) a standard full plate

method, where the diluted phage samples were combined with *B. thetaiotaomicron* overnight

culture and top agar and plated via soft agar overlay as described above or (2) a higher

throughput 96-well plate-based method, where serial dilutions were prepared in 96-well plates

and 1 µL of each dilution was spotted onto a solidified top agar overlay. This procedure was

repeated at least 3 times to purify each phage.

High titer phage stocks were generated by flooding a soft agar overlay plate that yielded a

"lacey" pattern of bacterial growth (near confluent lysis). Following overnight incubation of each

plate, 5 mL of sterile phage buffer was added to the plate to resuspend the phage. After at least 2

hours of incubation at room temperature, the lysate was spun at 5,500 rcf for 10 minutes to clear

debris and then filter sterilized through a 0.22 µm PVDF filter.

Phylogenetic analysis of human gut Bacteroidetes and enumeration of cps biosynthetic gene

clusters

Phylogenetic analysis was performed by creating a core gene alignment using a custom,

publicly available software package, cognac, written for R (version 3.6.1) with C++ integration

via Rcpp (version 1.0.3)[52]. Briefly, genbank files for the 53 isolates were parsed to extract the

amino acid sequences and orthologous genes were identified with cd-hit (version 4.7) requiring

at least 70% amino acid identity and ensuring that genes were of similar length[53]. The cd-hit

output was parsed and core genes were identified as those present in a single copy in all

genomes. Amino acid sequences were concatenated and aligned with MAFFT (v7.310)[53,54]. The

concatenated gene alignment was then used as the input for fastTree (version 2.1.10) to generate

an approximate maximum likelihood phylogeny[55]. The tree created from the core genome

alignment was then midpoint rooted and visualized using phytools (version 0.6.99) ape (version

5.3) R packages respectively[56,57].

To identify *cps* loci within each of the 53 genomes, previously annotated *cps* genes[8] from

the type strains of *B. thetaiotaomicron* VPI-5482 (**Figure S1B**), *B. fragilis* NCTC9343, and *B.*

vulgatus ATCC 8482 *cps* loci were used to identify pfam models that correspond to the glycosyl

transferases (GTs) they contain, which revealed pfam00534, pfam00535, pfam01755,

pfam02397, pfam02485, pfam08759, pfam13439, pfam13477, pfam13579, pfam13692, and

pfam14305. In addition, we searched for *upxY* and *upxZ* (pfam02357, pfam13614), and protein

tyrosine kinase (PTK; pfam02706.) Genes corresponding to these pfam modules were extracted

for the 53 genomes. In addition, because we found that a number of apparent *upxY/Z* homologs,

which were in species more divergent than the *Bacteroides* noted above, we performed an

additional search for homologous genes using the UpxY/Z amino acid sequences from the 3

species listed above. For this, we searched the Integrated Microbial Genomes (IMG) database

IMG genome BLASTp tool and an E-value cutoff of 1e-5. Each *cps* locus was confirmed by

visually comparing homologous genes within each gene locus neighborhood. Positive hits for the

presence of a *cps* locus were required to contain at least one GT, along with at least one Upx or

PTK homolog in the adjacent locus.

Quantitative host range assays

To accommodate the large number of phage isolates in our collection, we employed a

spot titer assay for semi-quantitative comparisons of infectivity on each bacterial strain. High

titer phage stocks were prepared on their "preferred host strain," which was the strain that

yielded the highest titer of phages in a pre-screen of phage host range (see **Figure 1, Table S1**).

Lysates were then diluted to approximately 10^6 PFU/mL, were added to the wells of a 96-well

plate, and further diluted to 10^5, 10^4, and 10^3 PFU/mL using a multichannel pipettor. One

microliter of each of these dilutions was plated onto solidified top agar overlays containing

single bacterial strains indicated in each figure. After spots dried, plates were incubated

anaerobically for 15-24 hours prior to counting plaques. Phage titers were normalized to the

preferred host strain.

Images of phage plaques

To document the morphologies of plaques formed by the purified phages, two sets of

plaque pictures were captured: the first set were taken with a Color QCount Model 530

(Advanced Instruments) with a 0.01 second exposure. Images were cropped to 7.5 mm^2 but were

otherwise unaltered. The second set of images were taken on a ChemiDoc Touch instrument

(BioRad) with a 0.5 second exposure. Images were cropped to 7.5 mm^2 and unnaturally high

background pixels were removed (Image Lab, BioRad) to facilitate viewing of the plaques. Both

sets of images are shown in **Figure S2**. Plaque images in **Figure S4** were taken on a ChemiDoc

Touch instrument (BioRad).

Incubation of ARB25 phage with extracted CPS

Approximately 50-100 PFU of ARB25 in 50 µL phage buffer were mixed with an equal

volume of H_2O or capsule (2 mg/mL) extracted by the hot water-phenol method (as described in

reference [8]) and incubated at 37 °C for 30 minutes. Samples were then plated on the acapsular

strain, and plaques were counted after 15-24 hours anaerobic incubation at 37 °C. Counts from

two replicates on the same day were then averaged, and the experiment was performed three

times. While the size of individual CPS2 polymers is unknown, an estimate of 1,000 hexose

sugars per molecule (180,000 Da) would be $9x10^{13}$ CPS glycans at 1mg/mL. If the CPS were

only 10% pure, incubation with 10^3 ARB25 PFU/mL was estimated to provide at least 10^9-fold

more CPS glycans than PFU.

Bacterial growth curves with phages

For growth curve experiments, 3 or more individual colonies of each indicated strain

were picked from agar plates and grown overnight in BPRM. Then, for experiments in **Figures**

3, **6**, **S6** and **S13** each clone was diluted 1:100 in fresh BPRM and 100 µL was added to a

microtiter plate. 10 µL of approximately $5*10^6$ PFU/mL live or heat-killed phage were added to

each well, plates were covered with an optically clear gas-permeable membrane (Diversified

Biotech, Boston, MA) and optical density at 600 nm (OD_{600}) values were measured using an

automated plate reading device (BioTek Instruments). Phages were heat killed by heating to 95

°C for 30 minutes, and heat-killed phage had no detectable PFU/mL with a limit of detection of

100 PFU/mL.

In **Figure S5B**, wild-type *B. thetaiotaomicron* was infected with live or heat-killed

ARB25, and bacterial growth was monitored via optical density at 600 nm (OD_{600}) on an

automated plate reader for 12 hours. At 0, 6.02, 8.36, and 11.7 hours post inoculation, replicate

cultures were vortexed in 1:5 volume chloroform, centrifuged at 5,500 rcf at 4 °C for 10 minutes,

and the aqueous phase was titered on the acapsular strain. No phages were detected in heat-killed

controls.

Generation of phage-free bacterial isolates and determination of their phage susceptibility

To isolate phage-free bacterial clones from ARB25-infected cultures (**Tables S2, S4**),

each culture was plated on a BHI-blood agar plate using the single colony streaking method.

Eighteen individual colonies were picked from each plate, and each of these clones was re-

isolated on a new BHI-blood agar plate. One colony was picked from each of these secondary

plates and was inoculated into 150 µL BPRM broth and incubated anaerobically at 37 °C for 2

days. Only one of the clones (a *cps*4 isolate) failed to grow in liquid media. To determine

whether cultures still contained viable phage, 50 µL of each culture was vortexed with 20 µL

chloroform, then centrifuged at 5,500 rcf for 10 minutes. 10 µL of the lysate was spotted on

BPRM top agar containing naïve acapsular bacteria and was incubated anaerobically overnight at

37 °C. Loss of detectable phage in the twice passaged clones was confirmed for most of the

clones (79/89, 89%) by the absence of plaques on the naïve acapsular strain.

To determine whether the resulting phage-free isolates were resistant to ARB25 infection,

each culture was diluted 1:100 in fresh BPRM, 100 µL was added to a microtiter plate, and 10

µL of either live or heat-killed ARB25 (approximately $5*10^6$ PFU/mL) was added. Plates were

incubated anaerobically at 37 °C for 48 hours, and OD_{600} was measured as described above.

Cultures were determined to be susceptible to ARB25 by demonstration of delayed growth or

drop in OD_{600} compared to heat-killed controls.

Measurement of* cps *gene expression

For **Figures 2G**, **4B**, and **S7**, overnight cultures were diluted into fresh BPRM to an

OD_{600} of 0.01. For **Figure 4B**, 200 µL of approximately 2×10^8 PFU/mL live phage or heat

killed phage were added to 5 mL of the diluted cultures. For **Figure S7**, 200 µL of approximately

2×10^5 PFU/mL live phage or heat killed phage were added to 5 mL of the diluted cultures.

Bacterial growth was monitored by measuring OD_{600} every 15-30 minutes using a GENESYS 20

spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific). Cultures were briefly mixed by hand before each

measurement. For determination of relative *cps* gene expression, cultures were grown to OD_{600}

0.6-0.8, centrifuged at 7,700 rcf for 2.5 minutes, the supernatant was decanted, and the pellet was

immediately resuspended in 1 mL RNA-Protect (Qiagen). RNA-stabilized cell pellets were

stored at -80 °C.

Total RNA was isolated using the RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen) then treated with the

TURBO DNA-free Kit (Ambion) followed by an additional isolation using the RNeasy Mini Kit.

cDNA was synthesized using SuperScript III Reverse Transcriptase (Invitrogen) according to the

manufacturer's instructions using random oligonucleotide primers (Invitrogen). qPCR analyses

for *cps* locus expression were performed on a Mastercycler ep realplex instrument (Eppendorf).

Expression of each of the 8 *cps* synthesis loci was quantified using primers to a single gene in

each locus (primers are listed in **Table S6**) and normalized to a standard curve of DNA from

wild-type *B. thetaiotaomicron*. The primers used were selected to target a gene specific to each

cps locus and were previously validated against the other strains that lack the target *cps* locus for

specificity[8]. Relative abundance of each *cps*-sepcific transcript was then calculated for each

locus. A custom-made SYBR-based master mix was used for qPCR: 20 µL reactions were made

with ThermoPol buffer (New England Biolabs), and contained 2.5 mM $MgSO_4$, 0.125 mM

dNTPs, 0.25 µM each primer, 0.1 µL of a 100 X stock of SYBR Green I (Lonza), and 500 U Hot

Start *Taq* DNA Polymerase (New England Biolabs). 10 ng of cDNA was used for each sample,

and samples were run in duplicate. A touchdown protocol with the following cycling conditions

was used for all assays: 95 °C for 3 minutes, followed by 40 cycles of 3 seconds at 95 °C, 20

seconds of annealing at a variable temperature, and 20 seconds at 68 °C. The annealing

temperature for the first cycle was 58 °C, then dropped one degree each cycle for the subsequent

5 cycles. The annealing temperature for the last 34 cycles was 52 °C. These cycling conditions

were followed by a melting curve analysis to determine amplicon purity.

Transcriptomic analysis of **B. thetaiotaomicron** *after phage infection*

730    Whole genome transcriptional profiling of wild-type and acapsular *B.thetaiotaomicron*

infected with live or heat-killed ARB25 or SJC01, or from *in vivo* samples, was conducted using

total bacterial RNA that was extracted the same as described above (Qiagen RNAEasy, Turbo

DNA-free kit) and then treated with Ribo-Zero rRNA Removal Kit (Illumina Inc.) and

concentrated using RNA Clean and Concentrator -5 kit (Zymo Research Corp, Irvine, CA).

Sequencing libraries were prepared using TruSeq barcoding adaptors (Illumina Inc.), and 24

samples were multiplexed and sequenced with 50 base pair single end reads in one lane of an

Illumina HiSeq instrument at the University of Michigan Sequencing Core. Demultiplexed

samples were analyzed using SeqMan NGen and Arraystar software (DNASTAR, Inc.) using

EdgeR normalization and >98% sequence identity for read-mapping. Changes in gene expression

in response to live ARB25 infection were determined by comparison to the heat-killed reference:

retained were genes with $\geq$ 3-fold expression changes up or down and EdgeR adjusted *P* value $\leq$

0.01. All RNA-seq data have been deposited in the publicly available NIH gene expression

omnibus (GEO) database as project number GSE147071.

PCR and sequencing of phase variable **B. thetaiotaomicron** *chromosomal loci*

746    We found that each of the 8 chromosomal loci shown in **Figure 5C** had nearly identical

301 bp promoter sequences, including both of the imperfect palindromes that we predict to

mediate recombination and the intervening sequence at each locus. While the 8 S-layer genes

and the 7/8 of the upstream regions encoding putative tyrosine recombinases (all but the BT1927

region) shared significant nucleotide identity and gene orientation, we were able to design

primers that were specific to regions upstream and downstream of each invertible promoter and

used these to generate an amplicon for each locus that spanned the predicted recombination sites.

After gel extracting a PCR product of the expected size for each locus, which should contain

promoter orientations in both the "on" and "off" orientations, we performed a second PCR using

a universal primer that lies within the 301 bp sequence of each phase-variable promoter and

extended to unique primers that anneal within each S layer protein encoding gene. Bands of the

expected size were excised from agarose gels, purified and sequenced using the primer that

anneals within each S layer encoding gene to determine if the predicted recombined "on"

promoter orientation is detected. (Note that the assembled *B. thetaiotaomicron* genome

architecture places all of these promoters in the proposed "off" orientation. We were able to

detect 6/8 of these loci in the "on" orientation in ARB25-treated cells by this method, **Figure**

S9). Similar approaches were used to determine the re-orientation of DNA fragments in the *B.*

thetaiotaomicron PUL shufflon shown in **Figure 5D** and restriction enzyme and additional

lipoprotein system shown in **Figure S12D**. For shufflon gene orientation, we used PCR primer

amplicons positioned according to the schematic in **Figure 5D** followed by sequencing with the

primer on the "downstream" end of each amplicon according to its position relative to the

shuffled promoter sequence. For a list of primers used see **Table S6**.

Construction of acapsular* B. thetaiotaomicron *S-layer 'ON' and S-layer 'OFF' mutants

Acapsular *B. thetaiotaomicron* S-layer 'ON' and 'OFF' mutants (Δcps BT1927-ON and

Δcps BT1927-OFF, respectively) were created using the Δtdk allelic exchange method[58]. To

generate homologous regions for allelic exchange, the primers BT_1927_XbaI-DR and

BT_1927_SalI-UF were used to amplify the BT1927-ON and BT1927-OFF promoters from the

previously-constructed BT1927-ON and BT1927-OFF strains[35] via colony PCR using Q5 High

Fidelity DNA polymerase (New England Biolabs). Candidate Δ*cps* BT1927-ON and Δ*cps*

BT1927-OFF mutants were screened and confirmed by PCR using the primer pair

BT1927_Diagnostic_R and BT1927_Diagnostic_F and confirmed by Sanger sequencing using

these diagnostic primers. All plasmids and primers are listed in **Tables S5** and **S6**, respectively.

Construction of **B. thetaiotaomicron** *mutants lacking one or more cps loci*

All publically available bacterial genomes in NCBI GenBank were queried via

MultiGeneBlast[59] to identify fully sequenced bacteria with *B. thetaiotaomicron* VPI-5482-like

cps loci. *B. thetaiotaomicron* 7330 was identified as having VPI-5482-like *cps2*, *cps5*, and *cps6*

loci. Mutants of strain 7330 lacking one or more *cps* loci constructed for this study (**Table S5**)

were created using the *tdk* allelic exchange method[58]. The *B. thetaiotaomicron* 7330 *tdk*- strain

was generated by UV mutagenesis by exposing a liquid culture of 7330 to 320 nm ultraviolet

light from a VWR-20E transilluminator (VWR) for 60 seconds and plating onto BHIS-Blood

agar supplemented with 200 micrograms/mL of 5-fluoro-2'-deoxyuridine (FUdR). All plasmids

and primers used to construct these strains are listed in **Tables S5** and **S6**, respectively.

Germfree mouse experiments

Germfree Swiss webster mice were gavaged with either wild-type or acapsular *B.*

thetaiotaomicron for 7 days of mono-colonization. After 7 days, mice were gavaged with 1M

sodium bicarbonate followed immediately by 2×10^8 PFU of ARB25 as previously described[24].

Feces were monitored for both colony forming units (CFU) or plaque forming units (PFU) every

7 days by plating fecal homogenates in SM buffer or fecal homogenate supernatant and serial

dilutions in SM buffer on BPRM top agar plates.

	Data representation and statistical analysis.

The heatmaps for **Figures 1** and **S3** and the dendrogram for **Figure 1** were generated in R

using the "heatmap" function. Other graphs were created in Prism software (GraphPad Software,

Inc., La Jolla, CA). Statistical significance in this work is denoted as follows unless otherwise

indicated: * p < 0.05; ** p < 0.01; *** p < 0.001; **** p < 0.0001. Statistical analyses other than

Dirichlet regression were performed in Prism. Dirichlet regression was performed in R using the

package "DirichletReg" (version 0.6-3), employing the alternative parameterization as used

previously[8,60]. Briefly, the parameters in this distribution are the proportions of relative *cps* gene

expression and the total *cps* expression, with *cps7* expression used as a reference since we

previously determined this *cps* to be poorly activated and not subject to phase-variable

expression[8]. The variable of interest used in **Figure 2G** is bacterial strain, whereas the variable

of interest used in **Figure 4B** is phage viability (live versus heat-killed phage). Precision was

allowed to vary by group given this model was superior to a model with constant precision, as

determined by a likelihood ratio test at significance level p < 0.05.

812
813	**Acknowledgements**
814
We thank Rey Honrada at the San Jose-Santa Clara Wastewater Treatment Plant and the staff at
the Ann Arbor Wastewater treatment plant for assistance in collecting primary sewage effluent
and Dylan Maghini for assistance in identifying shared *cps* loci between *B. thetaiotaomicron*
strains VPI-5482 and 7330. This work was funded by NIH grants (GM099513 and DK096023 to
E.C.M), an NIH postdoctoral NRSA (5T32AI007328 to A.J.H.), a Stanford University School of
Medicine Dean's Postdoctoral Fellowship (A.J.H.), the NIH Cellular Biotechnology Training
Program (N.T.P., T32GM008353) and NIH Bioinformatics Training Grant (R.C.,
T32GM070449).

823
824	**Author Contributions**
825
NTP, AJH, BDM, JOG, JJF, RWPG, and SS performed the experiments. NTP, AJH, JJF and
ECM designed the experiments, and analyzed and interpreted the data. RDC and ESS performed
whole genome phylogenetic analysis and JJF conducted the corresponding *cps* locus search. JLS
and ECM provided tools and reagents. NTP, AJH, JJF, and ECM prepared the display items.

NTP, AJH, JJF and ECM wrote the paper. All authors edited and approved the manuscript prior
to submission.
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1006

Figure Legends

Figure 1. Host range of *B. thetaiotaomicron* phages on strains expressing different CPS.

Seventy-one bacteriophages were isolated and purified on the wild-type, Δ*cps* (acapsular), or the

8 single CPS-expressing *B. thetaiotaomicron* strains. High titer phage stocks were prepared on

their "preferred host strain", which was the strain that yielded the highest titer of phages in a pre-

screen of phage host range and is listed next to each phage. Phages were then tested in a

quantitative host range assay. Phage titers were calculated for each bacterial host and normalized

to the preferred host strain for each replicate, 3 replicates averaged for each assay and the results

clustered based on plaquing efficiencies (see *Methods*). Images at the far right of the figure

illustrate the range of plaque morphologies of select phages from the collection (see **Figure S2**

for images of plaques for all phages). Several phages that are the subjects of additional follow up

studies are highlighted in blue text. Scale bar = 2mm.

1019

Figure 2. Infection of various CPS mutant strains by Branch 3 phages ARB72 (A), ARB78 (B),

ARB82 (C), ARB101 (D) and ARB105 (E) is inhibited by eliminating most or all of the

permissive CPS from wild-type *B. thetaiotaomicron*. Each phage was tested on the wild-type

strain, the acapsular strain, their respective preferred host strain (blue bars), and a set of bacterial

strains harboring selected *cps* locus deletions that correspond to their predetermined host range

(n = 6 replicates/phage). (F) Elimination of permissive CPS from Branch 2 phage ARB25

reduces infection, but complete reduction of infection only occurs in the context of deleting more

than one permissive CPS. The number of replicates (n=6-21) conducted on each strain is

annotated in parentheses next to the strain name. (G) Relative *cps* locus expression of the 8 *cps*

loci in the indicated strains. (H) Representative pictures of phage plaques on the indicated host

strains. The top row of images for each phage is unaltered; background and unnaturally saturated

pixels were removed from images in in the bottom row to facilitate plaque visualization. Scale

bar = 2mm. For panels A-F, significant differences in phage titers on the preferred host strain

were calculated via Kruskal Wallis test followed by Dunn's multiple comparisons test. * p <

0.05; ** p < 0.01; *** p < 0.001, **** p < 0.0001. For panel G, significant changes in *cps2*

expression were observed in Δ4 and Δ1,4 strains (p < 0.05 for each change, determined by

Dirichlet regression). In panels A-F, bars are drawn at the median and individual points shown.

In panel G, bars represent mean and error bars SEM, n=3.

1038

1039 **Figure 3.** Effects of ARB25 phage infection on growth of bacteria expressing different CPS. Ten

1040 strains: the wild-type (WT), the acapsular strain (Δ*cps*), or the eight single CPS-expressing

1041 strains were infected with either live or heat-killed ARB25. Growth was monitored via optical

1042 density at 600 nm (OD_{600}) on an automated plate reading instrument as described in *Methods* and

1043 individual growth curves for live and heat-killed phage exposure are shown separately.

1044

Figure 4. ARB25 infection of wild-type *B. thetaiotaomicron* causes altered *cps* gene expression.

Wild-type *B. thetaiotaomicron* was infected with live or heat-killed ARB25 at an MOI of ~1. (A)

Growth was monitored by measuring OD_{600} every 15-30 minutes and individual growth curves

for live and heat-killed phage exposure are shown separately (n=3). (B) *cps* gene transcript

analysis was carried out by qPCR. The end of the growth curve in panel A represents the point at

which cultures were harvested for qPCR analysis (i.e., the first observed time point where culture

surpassed OD_{600} of 0.6). Significant changes in *cps1*, *cps3*, and *cps4* expression were observed

between groups treated with live or heat-killed ARB25 (p < 0.01 for each, determined by

Dirichlet regression; bars represent mean and error bars SEM, n=3). Individual replicates for

high and low MOI experiments are displayed in **Fig. S8**.

1055

Figure 5. Infection of acapsular *B. thetaiotaomicron* selects for increased expression of multiple

phase-variable loci, whereas wild-type mostly alters CPS expression. (A) Wild-type *B.*

thetaiotaomicron was infected with ARB25 or was alternatively exposed to heat-killed (HK)

ARB25 and cultures were grown to OD_{600}=0.6-0.7. Cells were harvested and RNA-seq analysis

was carried out as described in *Methods* (n=3 independent experiments for each treatment

group). Transcript abundance was compared between live and HK treatments to generate fold

change (x axis), which is plotted against the adjusted P value (EdgeR) for each gene. (B)

Acapsular *B. thetaiotaomicron* was treated with ARB25 or HK ARB25 and fold change in

transcript abundance was calculated, as described in panel A. (C) Among the genes with

increased expression in post-infected acapsular *B. thetaiotaomicron*, 25 genes were part of 8

different gene clusters that encode predicted tyrosine recombinases along with outer membrane

lipoproteins and OmpA-like proteins. These gene clusters are shown. The number inside the

schematic for each gene represents the fold change in expression in ARB25-treated cells relative

to those treated with HK ARB25. Flanking the promoters of each of these loci are pairs of

imperfect, 17 nucleotide palindromic repeats. PCR analysis and amplicon sequencing of each

orientation of these 8 promoters revealed expected confirmation of changes in orientation to the

"ON" position in ARB25-exposed acapsular *B. thetaiotaomicron*, although we were unable to

quantify the on/off ratios due to high levels of sequence similarity between the 8 loci. (D)

Another chromosomal locus with signatures of phage-selected recombination was identified by

RNA-seq. Specifically, 3 of 4 genes in an operon (*BT1042-BT1045*) were significantly down-

regulated after exposure to phage and 5 genes in an adjacent operon (*BT1046-BT1051*) were up-

regulated. (E) PCR using oligonucleotides flanking direct repeats within the *BT1032-BT1053*

locus (green dumbbells, panel D) were used to demonstrate locus architecture in wild type *B.*

thetaiotaomicron and in a mutant lacking the tyrosine recombinase within this locus (*B.*

thetaiotaomicron ΔBT1041). All RNAseq data is provided in **Table S3a-g**.

1081

Figure 6. Expression of the BT1927 S-layer increases *B. thetaiotaomicron* resistance to four

different phages. Acapsular *B. thetaiotaomicron* S-layer 'ON' and 'OFF' mutants (Δ*cps*

BT1927-ON and Δ*cps* BT1927-OFF, respectively) were infected with (A) ARB25, (B) SJC01 C)

ARB19, or D) SJC03 in liquid culture. Growth was monitored via optical density at 600 nm

(OD_{600}) as described in *Methods* and individual growth curves for live and heat-killed phage

exposure are shown separately (n=3-6 per panel). (E) CFU (solid line) or PFU (dashed line) per g

Feces for each monocolonized Germ-free swiss webster mouse with either wild-type (blue) or

acapsular (Δcps; pink) *B. thetaiotaomicron* and challenged with ARB25 phage (*, p-value ≤ 0.05

student's t test).

1091

Figure S1. Diversification and structure of *cps* gene clusters in human gut Bacteroidetes. (A)

The genomes of 53 different human gut Bacteroidetes (predominantly named type strains) were

searched for gene clusters that contain two or more different protein families indicative of *cps*

loci (see *Methods*). The number of *cps* loci detected in each genome is shown in the context of

phylogenetic tree derived from the core genome of the 53 species used for this analysis; species

for which *cps* loci were not detected using our search criteria are marked with a red "X". Due to

gaps in several genomes, which often occur at *cps* loci, the numbers shown are likely to be an

underestimate. (B) Schematics of the 8 annotated cps loci in *B. thetaiotaomicron* VPI-5482,

which are singly present in the cps1-cps8 strains used in this study, or completely eliminated in

the acapsular strain. Genes are color coded according to the key at the bottom and additional

Pfam family designations are provided under most genes. The four main protein families used

for informatics analysis are marked with asterisks and highlighted in bold in the key.

Figure S2. Representative pictures of phage plaques for all phages in this study: (A) phages from

Ann Arbor (ARB); (B) phages from San Jose (SJC). The top row of images for each phage are

unaltered; background and saturated pixels were removed from images in the bottom row to

facilitate viewing of the plaques. Scale bar = 2 mm

Figure S3. Replication of a subset of host range assays of *B. thetaiotaomicron*-targeting phages

on strains expressing different CPS types. Ten bacteriophages isolated and purified on the wild-

type, acapsular, or the 8 single CPS-expressing strains were re-tested in a spot titer assay to

determine phage host range. 10-fold serial dilutions of each phage ranging from approximately

10^6 to 10^3 plaque-forming units (PFU) / ml were spotted onto top agar plates containing the 10

bacterial strains. Plates were then grown overnight, and phage titers were calculated. Titers are

normalized to the titer on the preferred host strain for each replicate. Each row in the heatmap

corresponds to a replicate for an individual phage, whereas each column corresponds to one of

the 10 host strains. One to three replicates of the assay were conducted for each phage by the two

lead authors (AJH and NTP). Assays were carried out at the same time, and each author used the

same set of cultures and phage stocks. For comparison, individual replicates from **Figure 1** are

included (marked with *).

Figure S4. Effects of eliminating permissive CPS from another *B. thetaiotaomicron* strain. (A) We identified *B. thetaiotaomicron* 7330[61] as the only sequenced and genetically tractable strain that contains VPI-5482-like *cps* loci (*cps2, cps5, and cps6*). We also observed that the Branch 2 phage SJC01did not yield productive infection in *B. thetaiotaomicron* 7330, but could partially clears lawns of *B. thetaiotaomicron* 7330 at high titers. This ability to clear established lawns is a previously described phenomenon known as "lysis from without[62]". (B) Deletion of permissive capsules (*cps2, cps5*, and *cps6*) either alone or in combination affects VPI-5482 infection by SJC01. (C) Deletion of *B. thetaiotaomicron* VPI-5482-like *cps* loci from *B. thetaiotaomicron* 7330 affects the "lysis from without" phenotype. While SJC01 plaques on WT *B. thetaiotaomicron* VPI-5482, it does not form plaques on wild-type *B. thetaiotaomicron* 7330. However, SJC01 does exhibit a "lysis from without" clearing phenotypes at high densities of phage (top two spots, made with 1 microliter of 1e8 and 1e7 PFU per mL, according to titers observed on wild-type VPI-5482). (D) *B. thetaiotaomicron* 7330 strains lacking *cps5* (with the exception of 7330 Δ*cps5* Δ*cps6*) show the lysis from without phenomenon less frequently than strains that have intact *cps5* (at least n=3 replicates per phage/host pair). For panel B, significant differences in phage titers on each mutant strain were compared to wild type via Mann-Whitney test, * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$, **** $p < 0.0001$.

Figure S5. Free CPS does not inhibit ARB25 infection when provided *in trans*. (A) ARB25 was incubated with purified CPS1 or CPS2 (1 mg/ml, an estimated 10^9 molar excess of CPS molecules to phage, see *Methods*) before plating on the acapsular strain, and plaques were counted after overnight incubation. Titers are normalized to mock (H_2O) treatment. No significant differences in titers were found compared to mock treatment, as determined by

Welch's t test (n=3 biological replicates, bars represent mean $\pm$ SEM). (B) Post ARB25-infected,

surviving cultures still contain infectious phages. Wild-type *B. thetaiotaomicron* was infected

with live or heat-killed ARB25, and bacterial growth was monitored via optical density at 600

nm (OD_{600}). At 0, 6.02, 8.36, and 11.7 hours post inoculation, replicate cultures were removed

and phage levels were titered (n=3 and individual replicate curves are shown). No phages were

detected in heat-killed controls. Note that the PFU/mL do not increase substantially after the

initial "burst" corresponding to decreased bacterial culture density prior to re-growth.

1152

Figure S6. Effect of CPS and phage infection on bacterial growth. (A) Ten strains: the wild-type

(WT), the acapsular strain (Δcps), or the eight single CPS-expressing strains were infected with

either live or heat-killed SJC01. (B) 20 different colonies of cps4 or cps5 strains were infected

with ARB25. Growth was monitored via optical density at 600 nm (OD_{600}) on an automated

plate reading instrument as described in *Methods* and individual growth curves for live and heat-

killed phage exposure are shown separately.

1159

Figure S7. Infection of wild-type *B. thetaiotaomicron* at a low multiplicity of infection and

subsequent effects on *cps* gene expression. (A) The wild-type (WT) strain was infected at a low

multiplicity of infection (MOI = 1 x 10^{-4}) of live or heat-killed ARB25, and bacterial growth was

monitored via OD_{600} (n=3 biological replicates and separate curves are shown). (B) RNA was

harvested from cultures after reaching an OD_{600} of 0.6-0.7, cDNA was generated, and relative

expression of the 8 *cps* loci was determined by qPCR (histogram bars are mean $\pm$ SEM of 3

biological replicates. Individual replicates are shown in **Fig. S8**).

Figure S8. Single replicates of *cps* expression in heat-killed versus live phage-treated *B.*

thetaiotaomicron. Relative *cps* transcript abundance in ARB25 infection experiments at high

MOI (A) and low MOI (B). In the high MOI experiment, replicate 2 showed higher starting

expression of the non-permissive CPS3 compared to others. In the low MOI experiment,

replicate 3 showed higher starting expression of the non-permissive CPS3. In both experiments,

post phage-exposed replicates displayed nearly identical CPS expression profiles characterized

by high expression of CPS3.

1174

Figure S9. Determination of phase-variable promoter switching for six loci encoding putative S-

layer proteins. The hypothesis that the promoters associated with seven newly identified *B.*

thetaiotaomicron S-layer like lipoproteins was validated using a PCR amplicon sequencing

strategy. Because of high nucleotide identity in both the regions flanking the 7 new loci, a nested

PCR approach was required to specifically amplify and sequence each site. In the first step, a

primer lying in each S-layer gene (**Table S5** "S-layer gene" primers) was oriented towards the

promoter and used in a PCR extension to a primer in the upstream recombinase gene (**Table S5**

"recombinase gene 3" primer). The products of this PCR were purified without gel extraction

and used in a second reaction with a nested primer that lies internal to the previous recombinase

gene primer (**Table S5** "recombinase 2" primer). The expected PCR products from this reaction,

which are ~1 kb and span promoter sequences in both the ON and OFF orientations, were

excised and used for an orientation-specific PCR using the original S-layer gene primer for each

site and a universal primer (green schematic) that was designed for each promoter and is oriented

to extend upstream of the S-layer gene (e.g., OFF orientation). Resulting products from this third

reaction, which should correspond to the ON orientation if a promoter inversion has occurred in

some cells, were obtained for 5/7 of the newly identified loci and the BT1927 S-layer locus as a

control. In all cases in which an amplicon and sequence were obtained, the expected

recombination occurred between the inverted repeat site proximal to the S-layer gene start (new

DNA junction), which would orient the promoter to enable expression of the downstream S-layer

gene. The sequences shown are the consensus between forward and reverse reads for each

amplicon. The putative core promoter -7 sequence is shown in bold/red text, the coding region of

each S-layer gene is shown in bold/blue text and the S-layer gene proximal recombination site is

noted and highlighted in bold/gold text. Note that the 5'-end of the sequenced amplicon was not

resolved for the BT2486 locus.

1199

Figure S10. Recombination between the genes BT1040, BT1042, and BT1046. (A) Pfam

domain schematics of the amino acid sequences of these three genes highlighting that BT1040

and BT1046, as originally assembled in the *B. thetaiotaomicron* genome sequence, lack

additional N-terminal sequences that are present on BT1042. (B) Sequencing of the 8 PCR

amplicons schematized in **Figure 5D**. Amplicons 1, 5 and 8 represent the original genome

architecture, while the others represent inferred recombination events that are validated here by

sequencing. The 5' and 3' ends of the BT1042, BT1040 and BT1046 genes are color-coded to

assist in following their connectivity changes after recombination. A series of single-nucleotide

polymorphisms (SNPs) present in BT1042, downstream of the proposed recombination site, are

highlighted in yellow. The transfer of these SNPs to a fragment containing the 5' end of BT1040

(Amplicon 4) was used to narrow the recombination region to the 7 nucleotide sequence

highlighted in red. Additional SNPs that are specific to the regions upstream of this

recombination site are shown in white text for each sequence.

Figure S11. The BT1033-52 locus does not affect susceptibility of acapsular *B. thetaiotaomicron*

to ARB25. Ten-fold serial dilutions of ARB25 were spotted onto lawns of *B. thetaiotaomicron*

Δ*cps* (n=5) and *B. thetaiotaomicron* Δ*cps* ΔBT1033-52 (n=5, n=3 independent clones each with

all 15 replicates shown individually). Plaquing efficiency was determined by normalizing plaque

counts on *B. thetaiotaomicron* Δ*cps* ΔBT1033-52 relative to plaque counts on *B.*

thetaiotaomicron Δ*cps* for each replicate. Statistical significance was determined using the

Mann-Whitney test.

1220

Figure S12. Whole genome transcriptional analyses of several additional *B. thetaiotaomicron*

strain and phage combinations. (A) Infection of the cps1 strain with ARB25, revealing a post-

infection response that is largely characterized by increased expression of S-layer/OmpA

proteins. (B) Infection of wild-type *B. thetaiotaomicron* with SJC01, revealing that, as with

ARB25/wild-type, the bacteria survive phage infection by mostly altering CPS expression.

Expression of the non-permissive CPS3 is prominently increased. (C) Infection of acapsular *B.*

thetaiotaomicron with SJC01, revealing that in the absence of CPS survival is mostly promoted

by increased S-layer/OmpA expression and expression of a newly identified, phase-variable

restriction enzyme system. (D) Gene schematic of the newly identified phase-variable restriction

enzyme system (top) and a lipoprotein contain locus (bottom) that is different from the 8 S-layer

loci also revealed in this study. The inverted repeat sequence that was determined to mediate

recombination in each locus is shown. (E) PCR analysis of the restriction enzyme system and

new lipoprotein promoter orientations with primers designed to detect phase variation from off to

on states. Amplicons were sequenced to confirm the re-orientation to the on orientation (not

shown). (F) Global transcriptional responses of wild-type *B. thetaiotaomicron* in the ceca of

mice after 72 d of co-existence with ARB25. Note that shifts in CPS expression are mostly

characterized by increases in permissive CPS, which may be dictated by growth *in vivo* selecting

for these capsules or against the non-permissive CPS3. Correspondingly, wild-type shows

increased expression of some but not all S-layer/OmpA systems and the phase-variable

restriction enzyme. (G) Global transcriptional responses of acapsular *B. thetaiotaomicron* in the

ceca of mice after 72 d of co-existence with ARB25. In the absence of CPS, surviving bacteria

show increased expression of only a subset of the identified S-layer/OmpA proteins, with

BT1826 expressed most dominantly, along with the newly identified BT0291-94 locus and

expression of the restriction enzyme system.

1245

Figure S13. ARB25 or SJC01 infection of the acapsular BT1927 locked on and off strains after

1, 2 or 3 days of growth on BPRM. Three separate colonies were picked each day, grown

overnight and used to setup infection cultures that were monitored for 24 hours in an automated

plate reader. Colonies picked after only 1 day show the least resistance to either phage when

BT1927 is locked on. After 2 days, resistance is increased and this continues to increase after 3

days, becoming almost complete (compared to HK controls for ARB25).

1252

Table S1. Phages used in this study and details on their isolation.

Table S2. Susceptibility of strains to infection by ARB25 after infection and passaging.

Table S3. Genes that are differentially regulated in post ARB25-infected wild-type and

acapsular *B. thetaiotaomicron*. Consists of sheets a.-g. corresponding to individual RNA-seq

comparisons.

Table S4. Resistance to ARB25 of wild-type and acapsular *B. thetaiotaomicron* strains after in

vivo existence with ARB25 for 72 days and 10 d of repeated culture/passage outside of the

mouse.

Table S5. Bacterial strains and plasmids used in this study.

Table S6. Primers used in this study.

1263

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

A. Wild-type *B. thetaiotaomicron*

Sus-like systems
CPS1
CPS4
CPS2
CPS3

adjusted P value vs log2 fold change (ARB25 / HK ARB25)

B. Acapsular *B. thetaiotaomicron*

Sus-like systems
BT1042-45 shufflon
S-layer/OmpA proteins
Starch/glycogen use
BT1046-50 shufflon

adjusted P value vs log2 fold change (ARB25 / HK ARB25)

C.

Genes	Arrangement (# in gene is ARB25/HK fold-change)	Recombination sequence
BT1926-29	115 / 148	5'-gttact **ttg** tag gtaac
BT1501-03	99 / 117	5'-gttact **tca** tag gtaac
BT1505-09	60 / 18 / 53	5'-gttact **ttg** tag gtaac
BT1511-13	5 / 15	5'-gttact **ctg** tag gtaac
BT1791-93	34 / 36	5'-gttact **ttg** tag gtaac
BT1826-27	46	5'-gttact **tgg** tag gtaac
BT2485-87	15 / 30	5'-gttact **ttg** tag gtaac
BT4481-79	27 / 55	5'-gttact **ttc** tag gtaac

OmpA-like   OM lipoprotein(s)   promoter   recombinase

D.

BT1032-53 locus published genome architecture:

BT1032-53 locus variant 1:

BT1032-53 locus variant 2:

BT1032-53 locus variant 3:

E.

MW (bp)   4   5   6   7   8
300
200
100
wild-type

MW (bp)   1   2   3   1   2   3
wild-type   ΩBT1041

Figure 6