1 2 3 Multiple phase-variable mechanisms, including capsular polysaccharides, modify 4 bacteriophage susceptibility in Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron 5 6 \*Nathan T. Porter<sup>1</sup>, \*^Andrew J. Hryckowian<sup>2</sup>, Bryan D. Merrill<sup>2</sup>, Jaime J. Fuentes<sup>1</sup>, Jackson O. 7 Gardner<sup>2</sup>, Robert W. P. Glowacki<sup>1</sup>, Shaleni Singh<sup>1</sup>, Ryan D. Crawford<sup>3</sup>, Evan S. Snitkin<sup>1</sup>, Justin L. Sonnenburg<sup>2</sup>, and ^Eric C. Martens<sup>1</sup> 8 9 10 <sup>1</sup>Department of Microbiology and Immunology, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI 48109, 11 USA 12 <sup>2</sup>Department of Microbiology and Immunology, Stanford University School of Medicine, 13 Stanford, CA 94305 14 <sup>3</sup>Department of Computational Medicine and Bioinformatics, University of Michigan, Ann 15 Arbor, MI 48109, USA 16 17 18 \* These authors contributed equally to this work 19 ^ Correspondence to: andrew.hryckowian@gmail.com, emartens@umich.edu 20

#### **Abstract**

21

22

23

24

25

26

27

28

29

30

31

32

33

34

35

36

37

38

39

40

41

42

43

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 phasevariable 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 phasevariable 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

44

45

46

47

48

49

50

51

52

53

54

55

56

57

58

59

60

61

62

63

64

65

66

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<sup>1,2</sup>. 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<sup>3</sup>, 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<sup>4,5</sup>. While previous work showed that CPS from *Bacteroides* and members of other phyla play roles in evading or modulating host immunity<sup>6-10</sup>, the diversity of CPS synthesis loci in gut bacteria suggests that they could fill other roles<sup>5,8,11,12</sup>. The phylum Bacteroidetes—within which members of the genus *Bacteroides* are typically the most abundant Gram-negative gut symbionts in industrialized human populations<sup>2,13</sup>—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<sup>14,15</sup> 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)<sup>8</sup>. In Bacteroides, CPS structures appear to surround the entire bacterial cell<sup>16,17</sup> and the cps biosynthetic loci that encode these surface coatings are often under the control of phase variable promoters<sup>8,15,18</sup>. 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<sup>8,15,19,20</sup>.

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<sup>21-25</sup>. 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<sup>26-29</sup>, little is known about the molecular interactions that drive bacterial susceptibility<sup>30</sup> 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<sup>8,11</sup>, and employ complex regulatory mechanisms that diversify expression in members of a population<sup>20</sup>, 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**

90

91

92

93

94

95

96

97

98

99

100

101

102

103

104

105

106

107

108

109

110

111

112

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

The genomes of human gut Bacteroidetes frequently encode multiple CPS<sup>5</sup>, 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**)<sup>14</sup>, along with a panel of engineered strains with reduced CPS expression. The latter included 8 single CPS-expressing strains (designated "cps1" through "cps8")<sup>8</sup> and an acapsular strain in which all eight cps loci were deleted  $(\Delta cps)^{31}$ 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**).

114

115

116

117

118

119

120

121

122

123

124

125

126

127

128

129

130

131

132

133

134

135

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<sup>8</sup>. 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, cps1, 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

159

160

161

162

163

164

165

166

167

168

169

170

171

172

173

174

175

176

177

178

179

180

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 nonpermissive 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<sup>19,20</sup>. 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  $\Delta cps4$  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<sup>9</sup>-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 (OD600) (**Figures 3, S6A**). Previous reports demonstrated that B. fragilis<sup>28</sup> and B. intestinalis<sup>29</sup> 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 *cps*2 and *cps*3 strains did not exhibit any apparent growth perturbation by ARB25. While susceptible strains

205

206

207

208

209

210

211

212

213

214

215

216

217

218

219

220

221

222

223

224

225

226

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,  $\sim$ 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

227

228

229

230

231

232

233

234

235

236

237

238

239

240

241

242

243

244

245

246

247

248

249

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  $\approx$ 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 heatkilled phage predominantly expressed CPS3 and CPS4, which we typically observe in vitro. Treatment with live ARB25 resulted in a dramatic loss of cps1 and cps4 expression with a concomitant increase of expression of the non-permissive cps3 locus (Figure 4B). While reduction in cps4 expression did not correlate with increased cps2 as observed with a  $\Delta cps4$ 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 ( $\approx 10^{-4}$ ) MOI, but with higher

251

252

253

254

255

256

257

258

259

260

261

262

263

264

265

266

267

268

269

270

271

272

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 cps1 and cps4 and higher levels of non-permissive cps3 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 features equip 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  $\triangle cps$ -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 postinfected 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

274

275

276

277

278

279

280

281

282

283

284

285

286

287

288

289

290

291

292

293

294

295

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<sup>32,33</sup>, 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 one phage receptor A; the first described phage receptor<sup>34</sup>), 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 heatkilled 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 >10-fold increase and an adjusted p-value < 0.01) after ARB25 infection, 6 genes in the well-characterized starch-utilization system (Sus)<sup>32</sup> 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 Slayer 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<sup>35</sup>. 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

297

298

299

300

301

302

303

304

305

306

307

308

309

310

311

312

313

314

315

316

317

318

repeats are identical to the repeats known to mediate recombination at the BT1927 promoter<sup>35</sup>. 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<sup>36,37</sup> 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- $\sigma$ ), anti- $\sigma$  factor pair, such that when the single ECF- $\sigma$ 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- $\sigma$  contact domain<sup>16</sup>; 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 TonBdependent transporter genes and that specific combinatorial variants are selected under phage pressure.

320

321

322

323

324

325

326

327

328

329

330

331

332

333

334

335

336

337

338

339

340

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 sus C-like genes or an internal rearrangement derived from recombination of two incomplete sus C-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<sup>14</sup>. 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 sus C-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- $\sigma$ 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* <sup>18,38</sup>. 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.

342

343

344

345

346

347

348

349

350

351

352

353

354

355

356

357

358

359

360

361

362

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, nutrientutilizing Sus-like systems were also down-regulated in SJC01-infected cells, including previously described systems for ribose<sup>39</sup> and fungal cell wall  $\alpha$ -mannan utilization<sup>40</sup>; 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

364

365

366

367

368

369

370

371

372

373

374

375

376

377

378

379

380

381

382

383

384

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<sup>35</sup> 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 Slayer 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<sup>35</sup>, suggests that BT1927 and perhaps the 7 other *B. thetaiotaomicron* S-layers discovered here more broadly promote resistance to a variety of perturbations.

386

387

388

389

390

391

392

393

394

395

396

397

398

399

400

401

402

403

404

405

406

407

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" <sup>28,41</sup>. 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  $\Delta cps$ . Because it lacks the ability to evade ARB25 through alterations in CPS expression, we further hypothesized that the  $\Delta cps$  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  $\Delta cps$  clones had regained susceptibility to

409

410

411

412

413

414

415

416

417

418

419

420

421

422

423

424

425

426

427

428

429

430

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<sup>36,42,43</sup>. Wild-type B. thetaiotaomicron that had co-existed with ARB25 for 72d in vivo surprisingly exhibited lower expression of nonpermissive 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<sup>8</sup>. 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**

431

432

433

434

435

436

437

438

439

440

441

442

443

444

445

446

447

448

449

450

451

452

453

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<sup>7,8,44,45</sup>. 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

455

456

457

458

459

460

461

462

463

464

465

466

467

468

469

470

471

472

473

474

475

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 gutresident Bacteroidetes<sup>8,11</sup> and their complex phase-variable regulation within a given strain or species<sup>20</sup>. 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<sup>46</sup>. 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<sup>47</sup>). Alternatively, certain permissive CPS could serve as obligate receptors<sup>48</sup> 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

477

478

479

480

481

482

483

484

485

486

487

488

489

490

491

492

493

494

495

496

497

498

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  $\Phi$ CrAss001, a phage that infects B. intestinalis<sup>29</sup>. 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<sup>35</sup>. 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 complementmediated killing<sup>35</sup>, suggesting the existence of orthogonal roles for this and related proteins. Combined with our data on CPS-mediated phage tropism, our observations that the BT1927encoded 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<sup>49</sup> 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<sup>21,22,25</sup>. 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<sup>50</sup>: 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<sub>4</sub> 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<sub>2</sub> solution, and 25 mL of 0.22 μm-filtered 1 M Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> solution were added. For BPRM agar plates, 15 g/L agar was added prior to autoclaving and hemin and Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> 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<sub>2</sub>, and Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> 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

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<sub>3</sub> 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  $\mu$ m and 0.22  $\mu$ m polyvinylidine fluoride (PVDF) filters to yield "processed primary effluent." Initial screening for plaques was done using a soft agar overlay method<sup>51</sup> where processed primary effluent was

569

570

571

572

573

574

575

576

577

578

579

580

581

582

583

584

585

586

587

588

589

590

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<sub>2</sub>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  $0.22~\mu m$  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)<sup>52</sup>. 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<sup>53</sup>. 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)<sup>53,54</sup>. The concatenated gene alignment was then used as the input for fastTree (version 2.1.10) to generate an approximate maximum likelihood phylogeny<sup>55</sup>. 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<sup>56,57</sup>.

To identify *cps* loci within each of the 53 genomes, previously annotated *cps* genes<sup>8</sup> 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<sup>6</sup> PFU/mL, were added to the wells of a 96-well plate, and further diluted to 10<sup>5</sup>, 10<sup>4</sup>, and 10<sup>3</sup> 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<sup>2</sup> 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<sup>2</sup> 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  $\mu$ L phage buffer were mixed with an equal volume of H<sub>2</sub>O or capsule (2 mg/mL) extracted by the hot water-phenol method (as described in reference <sup>8</sup>) 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

660

661

662

663

664

665

666

667

668

669

670

671

672

673

674

675

676

677

678

679

680

681

682

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<sup>6</sup> 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<sub>600</sub>) 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<sub>600</sub>) 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 reisolated 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 cps4 isolate) failed to grow in liquid media. To determine

whether cultures still contained viable phage, 50  $\mu$ L of each culture was vortexed with 20  $\mu$ L chloroform, then centrifuged at 5,500 rcf for 10 minutes. 10  $\mu$ L 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<sup>6</sup> PFU/mL) was added. Plates were incubated anaerobically at 37 °C for 48 hours, and OD<sub>600</sub> was measured as described above. Cultures were determined to be susceptible to ARB25 by demonstration of delayed growth or drop in OD<sub>600</sub> 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<sub>600</sub> of 0.01. For **Figure 4B**, 200 μL of approximately 2 x 10<sup>8</sup> 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 x 10<sup>5</sup> PFU/mL live phage or heat killed phage were added to 5 mL of the diluted cultures. Bacterial growth was monitored by measuring OD<sub>600</sub> 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<sub>600</sub> 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.

707

708

709

710

711

712

713

714

715

716

717

718

719

720

721

722

723

724

725

726

727

728

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<sup>8</sup>. 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<sub>4</sub>, 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

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

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.

752

753

754

755

756

757

758

759

760

761

762

763

764

765

766

767

768

769

770

771

772

773

774

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  $\Delta cps$  BT1927-OFF, respectively) were created using the  $\Delta tdk$  allelic exchange method<sup>58</sup>. 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<sup>35</sup> via colony PCR using Q5 High

776

777

778

779

780

781

782

783

784

785

786

787

788

789

790

791

792

793

794

795

796

797

Fidelity DNA polymerase (New England Biolabs). Candidate  $\Delta cps$  BT1927-ON and  $\Delta cps$ 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<sup>59</sup> 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<sup>58</sup>. 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 2x10<sup>8</sup> PFU of ARB25 as previously described<sup>24</sup>. 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 <sup>8,60</sup>. 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. 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.

#### Acknowledgements

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).

## **Author Contributions**

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.

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

## References

- 834 1 Eckburg, P. B. *et al.* Diversity of the human intestinal microbial flora. *Science (New York, N.Y.)* **308**, 1635-1638, doi:10.1126/science.1110591 (2005).
- Qin, J. *et al.* A human gut microbial gene catalogue established by metagenomic sequencing. *Nature* **464**, 59-65 (2010).
- Donia, M. S. *et al.* A systematic analysis of biosynthetic gene clusters in the human microbiome reveals a common family of antibiotics. *Cell* **158**, 1402-1414, doi:10.1016/j.cell.2014.08.032 (2014).
- Coyne, M. J. & Comstock, L. E. Niche-specific features of the intestinal bacteroidales. *Journal of bacteriology* **190**, 736-742, doi:10.1128/jb.01559-07 (2008).
- Neff, C. P. *et al.* Diverse Intestinal Bacteria Contain Putative Zwitterionic Capsular Polysaccharides with Anti-inflammatory Properties. *Cell host & microbe* **20**, 535-547, doi:10.1016/j.chom.2016.09.002 (2016).
- Peterson, D. A., McNulty, N. P., Guruge, J. L. & Gordon, J. I. IgA response to symbiotic bacteria as a mediator of gut homeostasis. *Cell host & microbe* **2**, 328-339, doi:10.1016/j.chom.2007.09.013 (2007).
- Porter, N. T., Canales, P., Peterson, D. A. & Martens, E. C. A Subset of Polysaccharide Capsules in the Human Symbiont Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron Promote Increased Competitive Fitness in the Mouse Gut. *Cell host & microbe* **22**, 494-506.e498, doi:10.1016/j.chom.2017.08.020 (2017).
- Round, J. L. *et al.* The Toll-like receptor 2 pathway establishes colonization by a commensal of the human microbiota. *Science (New York, N.Y.)* **332**, 974-977, doi:10.1126/science.1206095 (2011).
- Shen, Y. *et al.* Outer membrane vesicles of a human commensal mediate immune regulation and disease protection. *Cell host & microbe* **12**, 509-520, doi:10.1016/j.chom.2012.08.004 (2012).
- Patrick, S. *et al.* Twenty-eight divergent polysaccharide loci specifying within- and amongst-strain capsule diversity in three strains of Bacteroides fragilis. *Microbiology* (*Reading, England*) **156**, 3255-3269, doi:10.1099/mic.0.042978-0 (2010).
- Porter, N. T. & Martens, E. C. The Critical Roles of Polysaccharides in Gut Microbial Ecology and Physiology. *Annual review of microbiology* **71**, 349-369, doi:10.1146/annurev-micro-102215-095316 (2017).
- Pasolli, E. *et al.* Extensive Unexplored Human Microbiome Diversity Revealed by Over 150,000 Genomes from Metagenomes Spanning Age, Geography, and Lifestyle. *Cell* **176**, 649-662 e620, doi:10.1016/j.cell.2019.01.001 (2019).
- Xu, J. *et al.* A genomic view of the human-Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron symbiosis. Science (New York, N.Y.) **299**, 2074-2076, doi:10.1126/science.1080029 (2003).
- Krinos, C. M. *et al.* Extensive surface diversity of a commensal microorganism by multiple DNA inversions. *Nature* **414**, 555-558, doi:10.1038/35107092 (2001).

- Martens, E. C., Roth, R., Heuser, J. E. & Gordon, J. I. Coordinate regulation of glycan degradation and polysaccharide capsule biosynthesis by a prominent human gut symbiont. *The Journal of biological chemistry* **284**, 18445-18457, doi:10.1074/jbc.M109.008094 (2009).
- Hsieh, S. *et al.* Polysaccharide Capsules Equip the Human Symbiont <em>Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron</em> to Modulate Immune Responses to a Dominant Antigen in the Intestine. *The Journal of Immunology*, ji1901206, doi:10.4049/jimmunol.1901206 (2020).
- Kuwahara, T. *et al.* Genomic analysis of Bacteroides fragilis reveals extensive DNA inversions regulating cell surface adaptation. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* **101**, 14919-14924, doi:10.1073/pnas.0404172101 (2004).
- Chatzidaki-Livanis, M., Coyne, M. J. & Comstock, L. E. A family of transcriptional antitermination factors necessary for synthesis of the capsular polysaccharides of Bacteroides fragilis. *Journal of bacteriology* **191**, 7288-7295, doi:10.1128/jb.00500-09 (2009).
- Chatzidaki-Livanis, M., Weinacht, K. G. & Comstock, L. E. Trans locus inhibitors limit concomitant polysaccharide synthesis in the human gut symbiont Bacteroides fragilis.

  Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 107, 11976-11980, doi:10.1073/pnas.1005039107 (2010).
- Duerkop, B. A. *et al.* Murine colitis reveals a disease-associated bacteriophage community. *Nature microbiology*, doi:10.1038/s41564-018-0210-y (2018).
- Manrique, P. et al. Healthy human gut phageome. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 113, 10400-10405, doi:10.1073/pnas.1601060113 (2016).
- Minot, S. *et al.* The human gut virome: inter-individual variation and dynamic response to diet. *Genome research* **21**, 1616-1625, doi:10.1101/gr.122705.111 (2011).
- Reyes, A. *et al.* Viruses in the faecal microbiota of monozygotic twins and their mothers.

  Nature **466**, 334-338, doi:10.1038/nature09199 (2010).
- Norman, J. M. *et al.* Disease-specific alterations in the enteric virome in inflammatory bowel disease. *Cell* **160**, 447-460, doi:10.1016/j.cell.2015.01.002 (2015).
- Booth, S. J., Van Tassell, R. L., Johnson, J. L. & Wilkins, T. D. Bacteriophages of Bacteroides. *Reviews of infectious diseases* 1, 325-336 (1979).
- Cooper, S. W., Szymczak, E. G., Jacobus, N. V. & Tally, F. P. Differentiation of
   Bacteroides ovatus and Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron by means of bacteriophage. *Journal* of clinical microbiology 20, 1122-1125 (1984).
- Keller, R. & Traub, N. The characterization of Bacteroides fragilis bacteriophage recovered from animal sera: observations on the nature of bacteroides phage carrier cultures. *The Journal of general virology* **24**, 179-189, doi:10.1099/0022-1317-24-1-179 (1974).
- 914 29 Shkoporov, A. N. *et al.* PhiCrAss001 represents the most abundant bacteriophage family 915 in the human gut and infects Bacteroides intestinalis. *Nature communications* **9**, 4781, 40i:10.1038/s41467-018-07225-7 (2018).
- 917 30 Puig, A., Araujo, R., Jofre, J. & Frias-Lopez, J. Identification of cell wall proteins of Bacteroides fragilis to which bacteriophage B40-8 binds specifically. *Microbiology* 919 (*Reading, England*) 147, 281-288, doi:10.1099/00221287-147-2-281 (2001).

- Rogers, T. E. *et al.* Dynamic responses of Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron during growth on glycan mixtures. *Molecular microbiology* **88**, 876-890, doi:10.1111/mmi.12228 (2013).
- Cockburn, D. W. & Koropatkin, N. M. Polysaccharide Degradation by the Intestinal Microbiota and Its Influence on Human Health and Disease. *Journal of molecular biology* **428**, 3230-3252, doi:10.1016/j.jmb.2016.06.021 (2016).
- 925 33 Martens, E. C., Koropatkin, N. M., Smith, T. J. & Gordon, J. I. Complex glycan 926 catabolism by the human gut microbiota: the Bacteroidetes Sus-like paradigm. *The* 927 *Journal of biological chemistry* **284**, 24673-24677, doi:10.1074/jbc.R109.022848 (2009).
- 928 34 Braun, V. FhuA (TonA), the career of a protein. *Journal of bacteriology* **191**, 3431-3436, doi:10.1128/jb.00106-09 (2009).
- Taketani, M., Donia, M. S., Jacobson, A. N., Lambris, J. D. & Fischbach, M. A. A Phase-Variable Surface Layer from the Gut Symbiont Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron. *mBio* **6**, e01339-01315, doi:10.1128/mBio.01339-15 (2015).
- 933 36 Martens, E. C., Chiang, H. C. & Gordon, J. I. Mucosal glycan foraging enhances fitness 934 and transmission of a saccharolytic human gut bacterial symbiont. *Cell host & microbe* **4**, 935 447-457, doi:10.1016/j.chom.2008.09.007 (2008).
- 936 37 Briliūtė, J. *et al.* Complex N-glycan breakdown by gut Bacteroides involves an extensive enzymatic apparatus encoded by multiple co-regulated genetic loci. *Nature microbiology* 4, 1571-1581, doi:10.1038/s41564-019-0466-x (2019).
- Nakayama-Imaohji, H. *et al.* Identification of the site-specific DNA invertase responsible for the phase variation of SusC/SusD family outer membrane proteins in Bacteroides fragilis. *Journal of bacteriology* **191**, 6003-6011, doi:10.1128/jb.00687-09 (2009).
- 942 39 Glowacki, R. W. P. *et al.* A Ribose-Scavenging System Confers Colonization Fitness on the Human Gut Symbiont Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron in a Diet-Specific Manner. *Cell host & microbe* **27**, 79-92.e79, doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chom.2019.11.009 (2020).
- Cuskin, F. *et al.* Human gut Bacteroidetes can utilize yeast mannan through a selfish mechanism. *Nature* **517**, 165-169, doi:10.1038/nature13995 (2015).
- 947 41 Lwoff, A. Lysogeny. *Bacteriol Rev* **17**, 269-337 (1953).
- 948 42 Bjursell, M. K., Martens, E. C. & Gordon, J. I. Functional Genomic and Metabolic 949 Studies of the Adaptations of a Prominent Adult Human Gut Symbiont, Bacteroides 950 thetaiotaomicron, to the Suckling Period. *Journal of Biological Chemistry* **281**, 36269-951 36279, doi:10.1074/jbc.M606509200 (2006).
- 952 43 Sonnenburg, J. L. *et al.* Glycan Foraging in Vivo by an Intestine-Adapted Bacterial Symbiont. *Science (New York, N.Y.)* **307**, 1955-1959, doi:10.1126/science.1109051 (2005).
- Donaldson, G. P. *et al.* Gut microbiota utilize immunoglobulin A for mucosal colonization. *Science (New York, N.Y.)* **360**, 795-800, doi:10.1126/science.aaq0926 (2018).
- 958 45 Mazmanian, S. K., Liu, C. H., Tzianabos, A. O. & Kasper, D. L. An immunomodulatory 959 molecule of symbiotic bacteria directs maturation of the host immune system. *Cell* **122**, 960 107-118, doi:10.1016/j.cell.2005.05.007 (2005).
- 961 46 De Sordi, L., Lourenço, M. & Debarbieux, L. The Battle Within: Interactions of Bacteriophages and Bacteria in the Gastrointestinal Tract. *Cell host & microbe* **25**, 210-218, doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chom.2019.01.018 (2019).

- Tomlinson, S. & Taylor, P. W. Neuraminidase associated with coliphage E that specifically depolymerizes the Escherichia coli K1 capsular polysaccharide. *Journal of virology* **55**, 374-378 (1985).
- 967 48 Gupta, D. S. *et al.* Coliphage K5, specific for E. coli exhibiting the capsular K5 antigen.
  968 *FEMS Microbiology Letters* **14**, 75-78, doi:10.1111/j.1574-6968.1982.tb08638.x (1982).
- 969 49 Barr, J. J. et al. Bacteriophage adhering to mucus provide a non-host-derived immunity.

  970 Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 110,

  971 10771-10776, doi:10.1073/pnas.1305923110 (2013).
- Tartera, C., Araujo, R., Michel, T. & Jofre, J. Culture and decontamination methods affecting enumeration of phages infecting Bacteroides fragilis in sewage. *Applied and environmental microbiology* **58**, 2670-2673 (1992).
- 975 51 Araujo, R. *et al.* Optimisation and standardisation of a method for detecting and enumerating bacteriophages infecting Bacteroides fragilis. *Journal of virological methods* 977 93, 127-136 (2001).
- 978 52 Eddelbuettel, D. & François, R. Rcpp: Seamless R and C++ Integration. *Journal of Statistical Software* **40** (2011).
- 980 53 Fu, L., Niu, B., Zhu, Z., Wu, S. & Li, W. CD-HIT: accelerated for clustering the next-981 generation sequencing data. *Bioinformatics* **28**, 3150-3152, 982 doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/bts565 (2012).
- Katoh, K., Misawa, K., Kuma, K. & Miyata, T. MAFFT: a novel method for rapid multiple sequence alignment based on fast Fourier transform. *Nucleic Acids Res* **30**, 3059-3066, doi:10.1093/nar/gkf436 (2002).
- 986 55 Price, M. N., Dehal, P. S. & Arkin, A. P. FastTree: computing large minimum evolution 987 trees with profiles instead of a distance matrix. *Mol Biol Evol* **26**, 1641-1650, 988 doi:10.1093/molbev/msp077 (2009).
- 989 56 Paradis, E. & Schliep, K. ape 5.0: an environment for modern phylogenetics and evolutionary analyses in R. *Bioinformatics* **35**, 526-528, doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/bty633 (2019).
- 992 57 Revell, L. J. phytools: an R package for phylogenetic comparative biology (and other things). . *Methods in Ecology and Evolution* **3**, 217-223 (2012).
- 58 Koropatkin, N., Martens, E. C., Gordon, J. I. & Smith, T. J. Structure of a SusD homologue, BT1043, involved in mucin O-glycan utilization in a prominent human gut symbiont. *Biochemistry* **48**, 1532-1542, doi:10.1021/bi801942a (2009).
- 997 59 Medema, M. H., Takano, E. & Breitling, R. Detecting sequence homology at the gene cluster level with MultiGeneBlast. *Mol Biol Evol* **30**, 1218-1223, doi:10.1093/molbev/mst025 (2013).
- 1000 60 MJ, M. DirichletReg: Dirichlet Regression in R. (2015).
- Wu, M. *et al.* Genetic determinants of in vivo fitness and diet responsiveness in multiple human gut Bacteroides. *Science (New York, N.Y.)* **350**, aac5992, doi:10.1126/science.aac5992 (2015).
- 1004 62 Abedon, S. T., Kuhl, S. J., Blasdel, B. G. & Kutter, E. M. Phage treatment of human infections. *Bacteriophage* 1, 66-85, doi:10.4161/bact.1.2.15845 (2011).

## Figure Legends

1007

1009

1010

1011

1012

1013

1014

1015

1016

1017

1018

1019

1020

1021

1022

1023

1024

1025

1026

1027

1028

1029

1030

**Figure 1**. Host range of *B. thetaiotaomicron* phages on strains expressing different CPS. Seventy-one bacteriophages were isolated and purified on the wild-type,  $\Delta cps$  (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 prescreen 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. 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

1032

1033

1034

1035

1036

1037

1038

1039

1040

1041

1042

1043

1044

1045

1046

1047

1048

1049

1050

1051

1052

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  $\Delta 4$  and  $\Delta 1,4$  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. Figure 3. Effects of ARB25 phage infection on growth of bacteria expressing different CPS. Ten strains: the wild-type (WT), the acapsular strain ( $\Delta cps$ ), or the eight single CPS-expressing strains were infected with either live or heat-killed ARB25. Growth was monitored via optical density at 600 nm (OD<sub>600</sub>) on an automated plate reading instrument as described in *Methods* and individual growth curves for live and heat-killed phage exposure are shown separately. **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  $\sim 1$ . (A) Growth was monitored by measuring OD<sub>600</sub> 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<sub>600</sub> 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

1054

1055

1056

1057

1058

1059

1060

1061

1062

1063

1064

1065

1066

1067

1068

1069

1070

1071

1072

1073

1074

1075

Dirichlet regression; bars represent mean and error bars SEM, n=3). Individual replicates for high and low MOI experiments are displayed in Fig. S8. **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-

1077

1078

1079

1080

1081

1082

1083

1084

1085

1086

1087

1088

1089

1090

1091

1092

1093

1094

1095

1096

1097

1098

regulated after exposure to phage and 5 genes in an adjacent operon (BT1046-BT1051) were upregulated. (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**. 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 (Δcps BT1927-ON and  $\triangle cps$  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). **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

1100

1101

1102

1103

1104

1105

1106

1107

1108

1109

1110

1111

1112

1113

1114

1115

1116

1117

1118

1119

1120

1121

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 wildtype, 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<sup>6</sup> to 10<sup>3</sup> 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 \*).

1123

1124

1125

1126

1127

1128

1129

1130

1131

1132

1133

1134

1135

1136

1137

1138

1139

1140

1141

1142

1143

1144

Figure S4. Effects of eliminating permissive CPS from another B. thetaiotaomicron strain. (A) We identified B. thetaiotaomicron 7330<sup>61</sup> 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<sup>62</sup>". (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  $\triangle cps5$   $\triangle cps6$ ) 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<sup>9</sup> 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<sub>2</sub>O) treatment. No significant differences in titers were found compared to mock treatment, as determined by

1146

1147

1148

1149

1150

1151

1152

1153

1154

1155

1156

1157

1158

1159

1160

1161

1162

1163

1164

1165

1166

Welch's t test (n=3 biological replicates, bars represent mean ± 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<sub>600</sub>). 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. Figure S6. Effect of CPS and phage infection on bacterial growth. (A) Ten strains: the wild-type (WT), the acapsular strain ( $\Delta$ cps), 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<sub>600</sub>) on an automated plate reading instrument as described in *Methods* and individual growth curves for live and heatkilled phage exposure are shown separately. 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 =  $1 \times 10^{-4}$ ) of live or heat-killed ARB25, and bacterial growth was monitored via OD<sub>600</sub> (n=3 biological replicates and separate curves are shown). (B) RNA was harvested from cultures after reaching an OD<sub>600</sub> of 0.6-0.7, cDNA was generated, and relative expression of the 8 cps loci was determined by qPCR (histogram bars are mean + SEM of 3 biological replicates. Individual replicates are shown in Fig. S8).

1168

1169

1170

1171

1172

1173

1174

1175

1176

1177

1178

1179

1180

1181

1182

1183

1184

1185

1186

1187

1188

1189

**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. Figure S9. Determination of phase-variable promoter switching for six loci encoding putative Slayer 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.

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.

1214

1215

1216

1217

1218

1219

1220

1221

1222

1223

1224

1225

1226

1227

1228

1229

1230

1231

1232

1233

1234

1235

**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  $\Delta cps$  (n=5) and B. thetaiotaomicron  $\Delta cps$   $\Delta BT1033-52$  (n=5, n=3 independent clones each with all 15 replicates shown individually). Plaquing efficiency was determined by normalizing plaque counts on B. thetaiotaomicron  $\Delta cps$   $\Delta BT1033-52$  relative to plaque counts on B. thetaiotaomicron Δcps for each replicate. Statistical significance was determined using the Mann-Whitney test. **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 postinfection 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

1237

1238

1239

1240

1241

1242

1243

1244

1245

1246

1247

1248

1249

1250

1251

1252

1253

1254

1255

1256

1257

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. 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). **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.

Figure 1

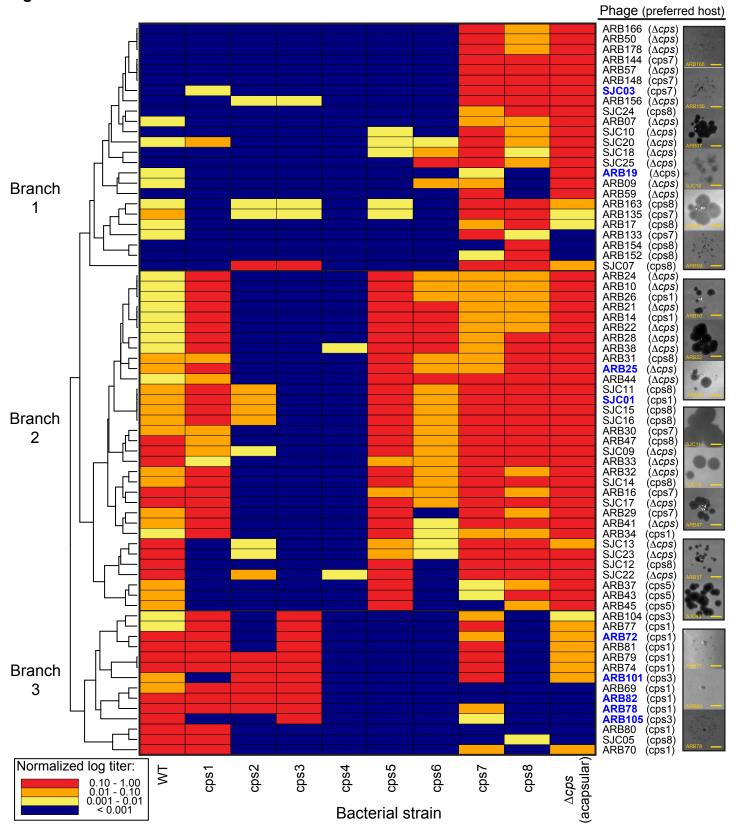
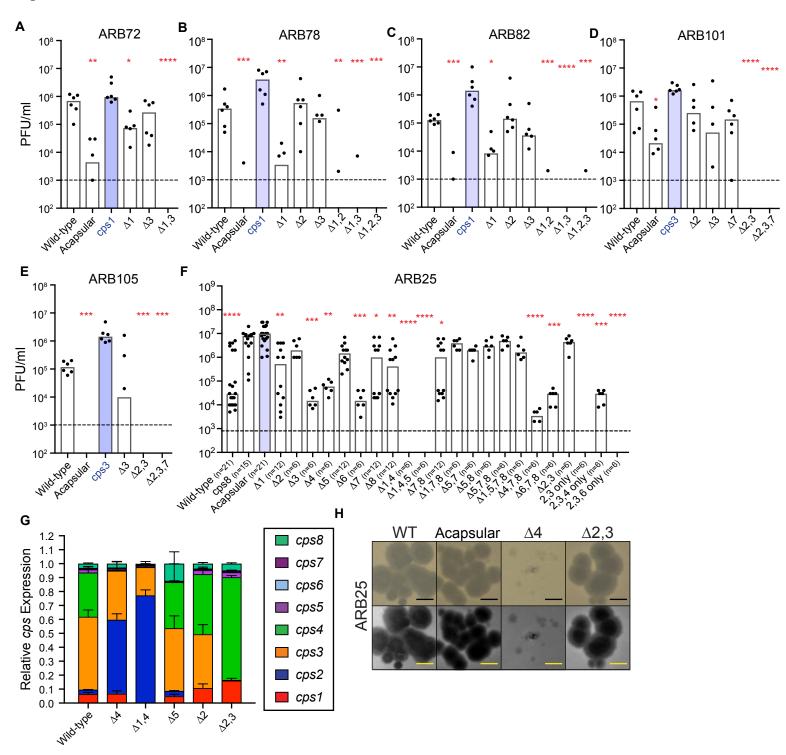


Figure 2



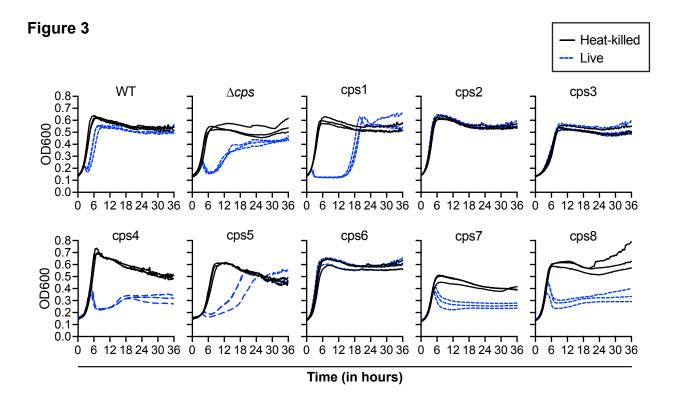


Figure 4

