

1 **Functional diversity increases the efficacy of phage combinations**

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5 Abbreviations: Type IV Pilus (T4P); Lipopolysaccharide (LPS)

6 **Abstract**

7 Phage therapy is a promising alternative to traditional antibiotics for treating bacterial
8 infections. Such phage-based therapeutics typically contain multiple phages, but how the
9 efficacy of phage combinations scales with phage richness, identity and functional traits is
10 unclear. Here, we experimentally tested the efficacy of 827 unique phage combinations
11 ranging in phage richness from 1 to 12 phages. The efficacy of phage combinations increased
12 with phage richness. However, complementarity between functionally diverse phages allowed
13 efficacy to be maximised at lower levels of phage richness in functionally diverse
14 combinations. These findings suggest that phage functional diversity is the key property of
15 effective phage combinations, enabling the design of simple but effective phage therapies that
16 overcome the practical and regulatory hurdles that limit development of more diverse phage
17 therapy cocktails.

18 Introduction

19 Bacterial killing by lytic phages regulates bacterial turnover in microbial communities,
20 influencing bacterial community dynamics in both environmental and clinical settings [1, 2].
21 Phage diversity is predicted to exceed that of their hosts by up to 10 times [3], and may vary
22 between communities just metres apart [4]. A survey of phages able to infect *Pseudomonas*
23 *aeruginosa*, a commonly multi-drug resistant opportunistic pathogen [5], across 4 continents
24 identified 7 distinct phage groups with lytic activity against 87% of clinical bacterial strains
25 tested [6], and novel phage taxa are continually being discovered [7, 8]. This diversity of
26 phages offers a promising alternative to antibiotics for treating bacterial infection where rates
27 of antibiotic resistance are rapidly rising [9–11]. Multiple phages are often combined for
28 therapeutic use to improve the range of hosts which can be targeted. However, more diverse
29 combinations pose greater regulatory hurdles as individual phages and interaction effects
30 must be assessed [12–14]. While developing efficient, low diversity phage combinations would
31 be highly practical, it is unclear which rationale one should use to design such combinations.

32 The relationship between biodiversity and ecosystem functioning (i.e., the collective activity of
33 a community) is usually positive [15]. Increasing species richness has been shown to improve
34 the function of microbial communities by two distinct mechanisms [16, 17]. Firstly, if species
35 perform different ecological roles, then greater species richness can deliver higher community-
36 level performance due to functional complementarity, through filling more of the available
37 niche space [16, 18]. Secondly, more diverse communities are more likely to contain highly
38 performing taxa simply by chance, leading to a positive relationship between diversity and
39 function due to species identity effects [16, 17]. On the other hand, functional redundancy
40 among species in a community can lead to diminishing returns of further increasing species
41 richness, resulting in a saturating relationship between richness and function [19–21]. These
42 counteracting effects suggest that high phage efficacy could be attained by low richness
43 phage combinations, provided that these contain functionally different and non-redundant
44 phages. Such combinations would have practical benefits in terms of reducing the

45 manufacturing and regulatory challenges posed by higher order phage combination therapies
46 [13, 14, 22].

47 For phages, lytic infection of a bacterial host depends on adsorption to the host outer
48 membrane and evasion of host phage defence systems once within the cell [23]. Binding to
49 specific bacterial cell-surface receptors for adsorption is therefore a key functional trait for
50 phages. Phage combinations targeting higher numbers of receptors could be considered
51 functionally diverse and more efficacious by reducing competition among phages for shared
52 adsorption sites. Such phage combinations could also limit resistance evolution via cell
53 surface modification since this would likely require multiple mutations [24–26], that often
54 impose additive fitness costs [27].

55 By applying the principles of biodiversity-ecosystem functioning to the design of phage
56 therapies, we sought to determine the relative importance of phage species richness,
57 functional diversity and identity effects on the efficacy of phage combinations. We used twelve
58 *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* phages including phages targeting either lipopolysaccharide (LPS)
59 or Type IV pilus (T4P) for adsorption to result in 827 unique phage combinations with differing
60 levels of species richness and degrees of functional diversity. These combinations included
61 all possible single, pairwise and 3-member communities, 264 different 4- and 6-member
62 communities and the full 12-member community. We show that phage richness had a
63 saturating relationship with efficacy (defined as the suppression of bacterial growth), and that
64 highly efficacious but low richness phage combinations could be designed provided that they
65 had high functional diversity, *i.e.*, the constituent phages targeted multiple distinct adsorption
66 receptors. Together, these results suggest that ecological complementarity plays a key role in
67 determining the efficacy of phage combinations.

68 **Materials and methods**

69 *Phage combination design and community assembly*

70 A panel of 12 lytic *P. aeruginosa* phages were used to build phage combinations of varying
71 phage community species richness. The adsorption receptors of all phages has previously
72 been characterised [28]; 4 phages adsorb via T4P, and 8 via LPS. In total, we assembled 827
73 different phage combinations, ranging from single phage (12), all possible 2- and 3-member
74 communities (66 and 220 respectively), a random partition of 4- and 6-member communities
75 (264 of each), to the full 12-member community. A random partition design was used to select
76 4 and 6-phage communities which equally represent all phage strains across both richness
77 levels (as described previously [29]).

78 Phage stocks were amplified to equal densities ($\sim 8.9 \times 10^{10} \pm 1.0 \times 10^{11}$ pfu/ml) using the
79 susceptible bacterial host *P. aeruginosa* PAO1, isolated by filtration (0.22 μ m) and stored at
80 4°C. To limit human error, master plates of phage communities were assembled in deep 96
81 well plates using a liquid handling robot (epMotion® 5070, Eppendorf, Germany) in triplicate.
82 Equal volumes (and densities) of each phage were added to give a final volume of 120 μ l per
83 phage community.

84 *Measuring the efficacy of phage combinations*

85 We determined efficacy of phage combinations as their ability to suppress growth of the
86 susceptible host, *P. aeruginosa* PAO1. Bacterial replicates were inoculated from three single
87 colonies into 6ml KB and grown overnight at 37°C with shaking at 180rpm, before diluting 100-
88 fold into assay plates containing 120 μ l of KB. Phage communities were transferred from the
89 master plates (15 μ l per well) to give a multiplicity of infection of approximately 100 phage per
90 bacterial cell (actual MOI $\sim 80.4 \pm 20.2$ with initial bacterial density of $\sim 9.6 \times 10^7 \pm 1.1 \times 10^7$). Optical
91 density (absorbance at 600nm; Abs_{600}) was measured immediately, then after static 24h
92 incubation at 37°C. Phage combination efficiency was measured as reduction in bacterial
93 growth in the presence relative to the absence of phage, as 'Efficacy' (Eq 1; [30]).

$$94 \quad Efficacy = 1 - \frac{[Abs_{600}(t=24h) - Abs_{600}(t=0h)]_{phage+}}{[Abs_{600}(t=24h) - Abs_{600}(t=0h)]_{phage-}} \quad (1)$$

95 For each phage combination, the phage with the highest independent Efficacy value was
96 considered as the best constituent phage (*i.e.*, measured when Diversity = 1; matched by
97 replicate to the phage combination). These values were used to calculate transgressive
98 overyielding, D_{max} (Eq. 2; [31]), which is a measure that describes the efficacy of a community
99 relative to its most efficient member, such that a value of 0 indicates equal efficacy and values
100 above 0 indicates that the community was more effective.

$$101 \quad D_{max} = \frac{Efficacy_{combination} - Efficacy_{best}}{Efficacy_{best}} \quad (2)$$

102 *Statistical analysis*

103 The relationship between phage strain richness and efficacy was analysed using a previously
104 described linear model method designed to separate significant factors affecting biodiversity-
105 ecosystem functioning [29]. Phage richness and functional diversity (*i.e.*, number of different
106 receptor targets) were included as interacting main effects, alongside other main effects of
107 receptor targets (*i.e.*, presence of LPS and/or T4P targeting phages), phage identity (including
108 pairwise and higher order interactions between phages as separate main effects) and non-
109 linear effects of phage richness. Due to the saturating relationship between phage richness
110 and efficacy, we also fitted a non-linear asymptotic exponential model to the data. Model
111 parameters were determined using the nonlinear least squares function in R [32], and
112 compared to equivalent linear models using Akaike Information Criterion (AIC).

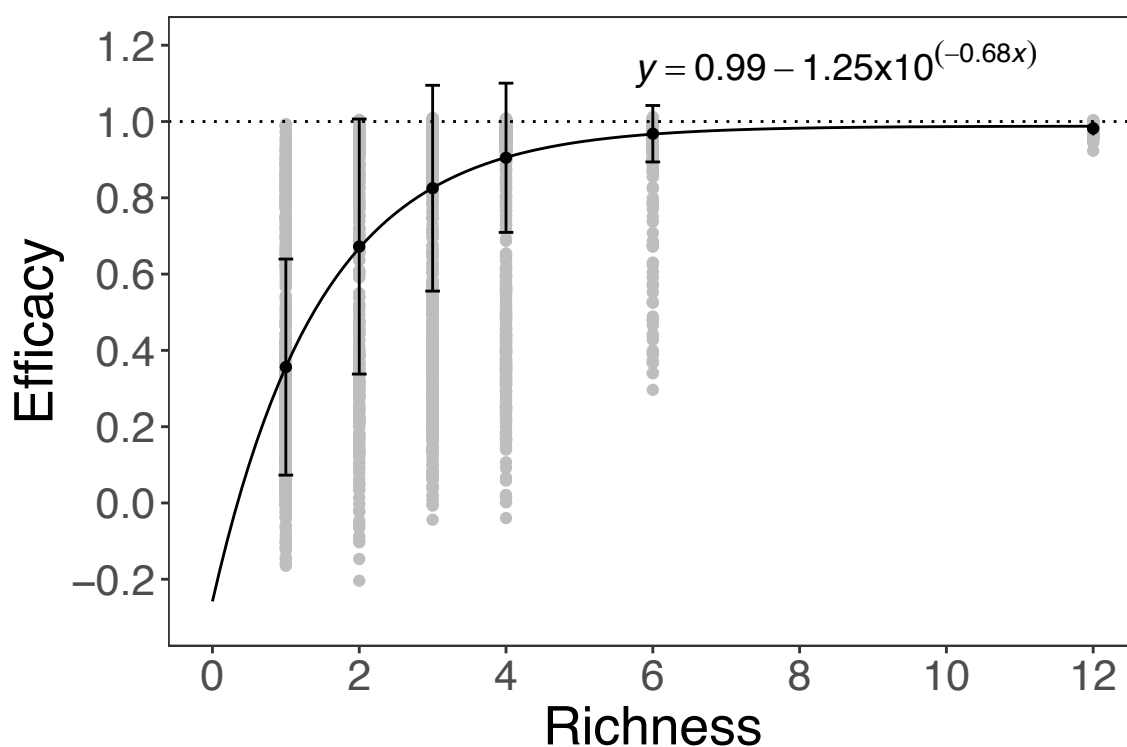
113 The effects of richness, functional diversity and phage identity on transgressive overyielding
114 were also analysed using a linear model. Significant interaction terms between functional
115 diversity and richness, functional diversity and phage identity, and pairwise interactions
116 between phages were included in the model. Here, receptor target was excluded from the
117 model as it was not significant. Non-linear richness was included as an explanatory variable,
118 and best fit of regression models (linear versus decaying exponential model) were assessed

119 by AIC to fit regression curves to the plotted data. All analyses were performed in R (version
120 3.5.2; [32]).

121 Results

122 *Diminishing returns of increasing phage richness on phage combination efficacy*

123 The efficacy of phage combinations, measured as their ability to reduce bacterial growth,
124 increased with phage community richness (*i.e.*, number of phage strains). However, phage
125 richness explained only 30% of variation in efficacy (Figure 1; linear model_{efficacy}: $F_{1,5740}=2497$,
126 $p<0.0001$, $R^2=0.303$). Non-linear models explained a greater proportion of the variation: the
127 relationship between richness and efficacy was best explained by an asymptotic exponential
128 model where the asymptote was reached when bacterial growth was completely suppressed
129 (Figure 1; AIC_{linear model} = 205; AIC_{asymptotic model} = -1190). This suggests that there were low
130 richness phage combinations that were as effective as the highest richness phage
131 combination, whose efficiency could not be improved with additional phages, likely due to
132 functional redundancy among the constituent phage strains.

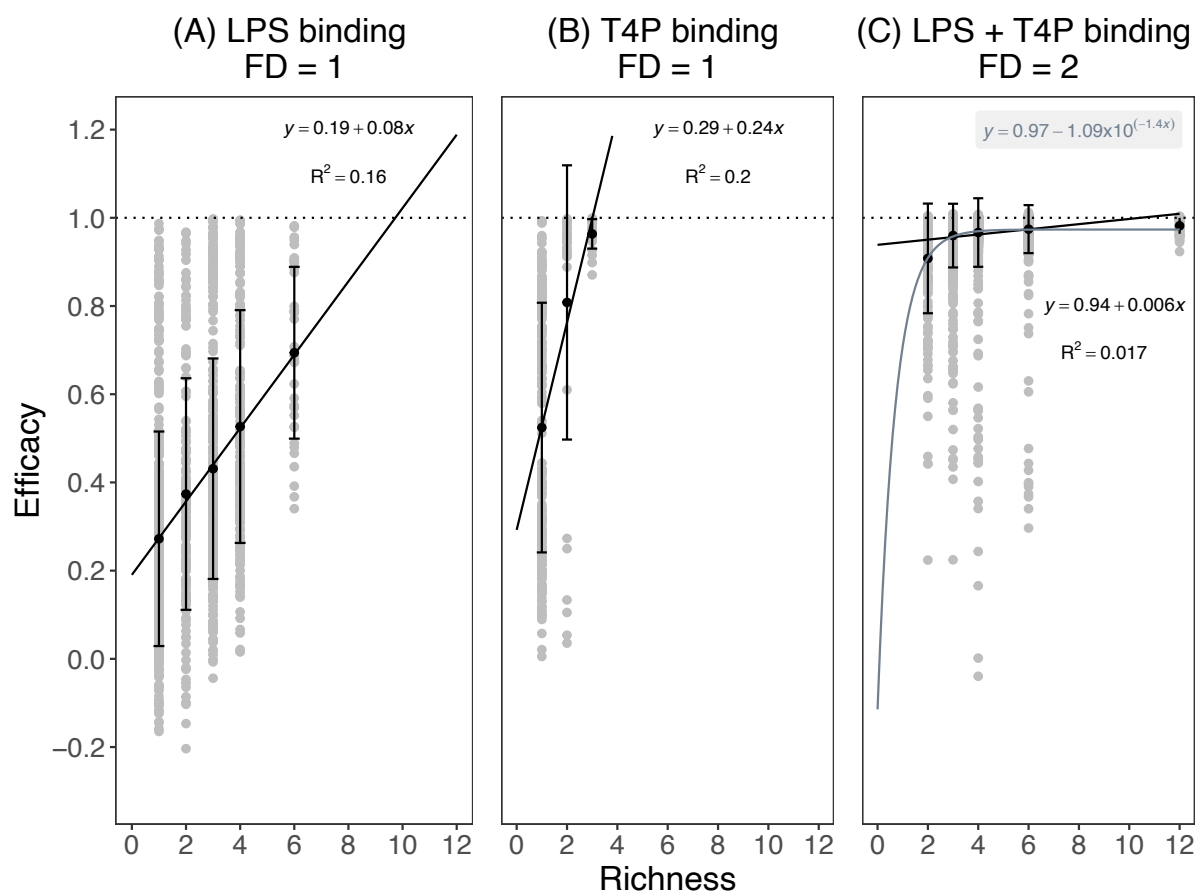


134 **Figure 1. Saturating relationship between the efficacy and richness of phage**
135 **combinations.** Efficiency of phage combinations measured as mean efficacy (\pm s.d.) of
136 bacterial growth suppression in the presence of phage relative to phage-free growth, raw data
137 in grey. The dashed line at 1 indicates complete suppression of bacterial growth by the phage
138 community. An asymptotic exponential with the equation shown was fit to the data using a
139 non-linear least squares model.

140 *Increased phage functional diversity improves phage combination efficacy*

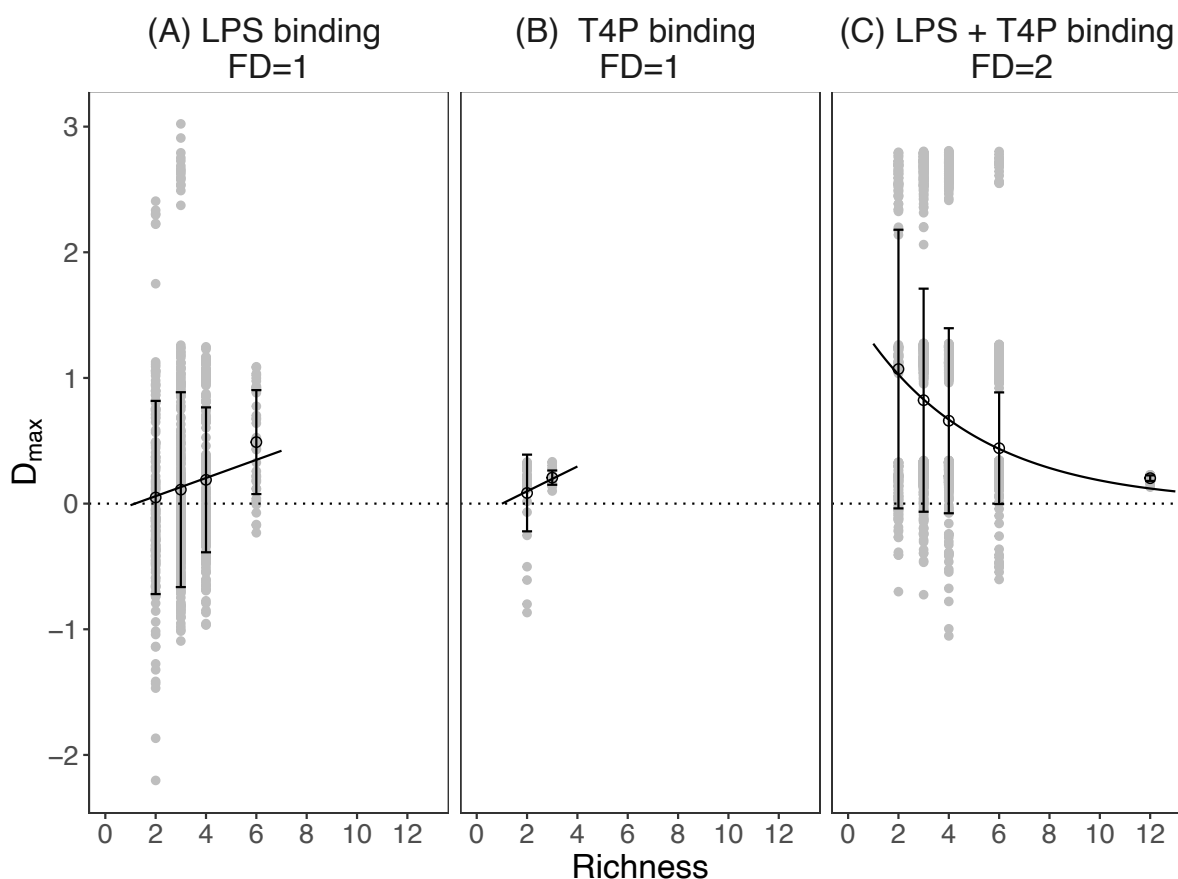
141 Including functional diversity (FD), in terms of the receptor targeted by the phage, in the model
142 explained substantially more of the observed variation in efficacy: phage functional diversity
143 and strain richness together accounted for \sim 70% of the variation in efficacy (Figure 2; linear
144 model_{efficacy}, main effects of phage diversity and functional diversity and their interaction:
145 $F_{3,5738}=4476$, $p<0.0001$, $R^2=0.701$). Phages targeting T4P contributed more to efficacy than
146 LPS-binding phages, such that combinations containing only T4P-binding phages
147 outperformed combinations containing only LPS-binding phages (Figure 2A+B; linear
148 model_{efficacy}, coefficient of T4P-binding phages: $t=11.16$, $p<0.0001$; coefficient of LPS-binding
149 phages: $t=(-)24.57$, $p<0.001$). Functionally diverse combinations containing phages targeting
150 both LPS and T4P receptors showed a saturating relationship between efficacy and phage
151 richness and completely suppressed bacterial growth at lower levels of phage diversity than
152 combinations targeting only a single receptor (Figure 2C). Phage identity accounted for only
153 \sim 3% of the remaining variation in efficacy (linear model_{efficacy}: $F_{12,5730}=15.45$, $p<0.0001$).
154 Consistent with stronger complementarity effects at higher functional diversity, we observed
155 greater transgressive overyielding for high compared to low functional diversity combinations
156 (Figure 3; linear model_{Dmax}, $F_{1,5740}=498.7$, $p<0.0001$). Moreover, transgressive overyielding
157 was stronger at lower phage richness levels for high but not low functional diversity
158 combinations (Figure 3, linear model_{Dmax}, richness $F_{1,5740}=31.1$, $p<0.0001$; interaction:
159 functional diversity * richness $F_{3,5738}=136$, $p<0.0001$). Together these data suggest that

160 although the presence of certain phage strains could influence efficacy, functional diversity
161 was the strongest predictor, leading to high efficacy even in low richness phage combinations.



162

163 **Figure 2. Functional diversity increases efficacy of phage combinations.** Efficacy of
164 phage combinations with low functional diversity (FD = 1), where all phage target either LPS
165 (A) or Type IV pilus (B), and phage combinations with high functional diversity (FD = 2) which
166 include phages targeting both the LPS and Type IV Pilus (C). Efficacy is measured as
167 suppression of bacterial growth by phages relative to phage-free populations; mean values (\pm
168 s.d.) are shown in black, with raw data in grey to show distribution of data points. The dashed
169 line indicates the theoretical maximum reduction (*i.e.*, no bacterial growth detected). Linear
170 regression equations relate to relationship between phage richness (x) and efficacy (y); note
171 that for (C), an asymptotic exponential model (shown in grey) better explains this relationship
172 (AIC_{linear model} = 205; AIC_{asymptotic model} = -1190).



173

174 **Figure 3. Degree of transgressive overyielding is determined by phage functional**

175 **diversity.** Transgressive overyielding, D_{max} , describes the efficacy of phage combinations

176 relative to the best constituent phage as a monoculture. Phage combinations either target

177 one receptor (FD = 1; A, LPS binding; B, T4P binding) or include phages targeting LPS and

178 targeting T4P (FD = 2; C, LPS + T4P binding). Mean values (\pm s.d.) are shown in black, with

179 raw data in grey to show distribution of data points; regression lines were fit either as a linear

180 model (A-B) or an exponential degradation model (C).

181 **Discussion**

182 To enable rational design of phage therapy combinations, it is important to understand the key

183 factors which determine a phage combination's efficacy in suppressing bacterial growth.

184 Applying concepts from the analysis of ecological biodiversity-ecosystem function

185 relationships, we compared the relative contributions of phage richness, phage identity and

186 functional diversity in determining the efficacy of phage combinations. We observed a

187 saturating relationship between phage richness and efficacy, consistent with diminishing
188 returns of increasing richness due to functional redundancy among phages at higher richness
189 levels. Correspondingly, phage combinations with higher functional diversity, in terms of the
190 number of cell surface receptors targeted for phage adsorption, were more effective at
191 suppressing bacterial growth and were able to do so at lower levels of phage richness (e.g.,
192 2-3 phages) than low functional diversity combinations. Functionally diverse phage
193 combinations targeting different adsorption receptors displayed higher transgressive
194 overyielding and stronger complementarity at low levels of phage richness, achieving up to 3-
195 fold higher efficacy than their best constituent phage even for combinations of just two phages.
196 Together, our data suggest that functional diversity is the most important determinant of the
197 efficacy of phage combinations.

198 By maximising functional diversity, phage combinations can be optimised for bacterial killing
199 at low strain diversity, thus reducing the regulatory hurdles of preparing more complex
200 therapeutic combinations [13, 14, 22]. Functional complementarity between phages targeting
201 different adsorption receptors is likely to have two key benefits: Firstly, decreased competition
202 for binding sites to adsorb to the bacterial cell may lead to increased lysis. Secondly,
203 functionally diverse phage combinations are more likely to suppress resistance evolution. The
204 majority of resistance mutations arising against our phage panel target the genes encoding
205 the bacterial cell surface receptors (LPS and T4P; [28, 33]), and as such, promote cross-
206 resistance to alternative phages which adsorb to the same receptor. In contrast, resistance to
207 a functionally diverse phage combination is likely require multiple independent resistance
208 mutations (e.g. modification of each adsorption target; [33]) which will co-occur in the same
209 cell with far lower probability.

210 In addition to increasing efficacy against a single bacterial genotype, higher functional diversity
211 may also prove beneficial in more complex scenarios. For example, functionally diverse phage
212 combinations are likely to be able to target a broader diversity of bacterial genotypes. This
213 could be particularly relevant in treatment of chronic infections, where the bacterial populations

214 typically undergo extensive evolutionary diversification (e.g., in response to host-pathogen
215 interactions) [34, 35]. This can lead to altered expression of common phage receptor targets,
216 including modification and even loss of LPS components and T4P [36–38], which can reduce
217 susceptibility to phage infection [39, 40]. Essentiality of different cell-surface receptors across
218 environments may explain differences in observed efficacy between phages targeting different
219 adsorption receptors. Phage combinations targeting a broader range of cell surface receptors
220 will be more likely to be able to infect and clear such host-adapted bacterial populations.

221 In this study, functional phage diversity was limited to two cell surface receptor targets, but
222 further increases in the diversity of receptors targeted by phage combinations is likely to lead
223 to further increases in their efficacy. Examples of other *P. aeruginosa* cell surface receptors
224 used for phage adsorption include, outer membrane porins [41] and other membrane
225 anchored proteins such as TonB-dependent receptors, which can be involved in iron-
226 siderophore uptake [24, 42]. An additional limitation of this study is that we did not test a strain
227 encoding a CRISPR-Cas immunity system [43]. Inducible resistance mechanisms may be
228 preferentially selected *in vivo* because of their lower fitness costs compared to surface
229 receptor modification mutations [44]. Unlike surface modification resistance mutations,
230 CRISPR-mediated resistance is likely to promote different cross-resistance interactions
231 between phages mediated by their genetic similarity rather than their receptor target for
232 adsorption. This suggests that whilst functional diversity of phage strains is necessary to limit
233 the evolution of cross-resistance via surface modification, maximising genetic diversity could
234 be important to limit cross-resistance via sequence-based resistance mechanisms such as
235 CRISPR-Cas, restriction modification or other recently discovered phage defence systems
236 [45].

237 To conclude, our findings suggest that maximising functional diversity is a simple and effective
238 rule for designing high efficacy, low richness phage combinations overcoming the regulatory
239 hurdles associated with preparation of complex phage cocktails.

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