Phage-based microbiome manipulation elucidates interactions within community context

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Abstract

Testing microbial interaction hypotheses remains a major challenge in microbiome research. Bacteriophages have the potential to probe organism-organism interactions within complex microbiomes, yet are rarely used for this purpose. Here, we isolated nine narrow host range phages that replicate in several ecologically important *Variovorax* species. As *Variovorax* CL14 degrades the plant root-stunting hormone auxin, we used phages to eliminate *V.* CL14 from a rhizosphere consortium and reestablished the stunted root phenotype. We used three of the phages to deplete another *Variovorax*, SCN45, from complex communities to test correlation network-based hypotheses of thiamine interdependencies. Genome-resolved metagenomics revealed that specific taxa decreased in relative abundance following *Variovorax* depletion and could be rescued by thiamine supplementation. Thus, we confirmed thiamine production as the mechanistic basis for interdependence. These experiments lay the foundation for research that employs wildtype and engineered phages to test interaction hypotheses and for targeted microbiome manipulation.

Introduction

Microorganisms form the foundation of food webs, and profoundly influence the health of plants, humans, and other animals on a global scale. Yet microorganisms rarely function in isolation, and instead form complex communities in which a multitude of interactions shape its structure (Pacheco et al., 2019, Ma et al., 2020, Kost et al., 2023, Clegg & Gross, 2025).

Complex microbial communities have long been studied using metagenomics (Tyson et al., 2004), metatranscriptomics (Gilbert et al., 2008, Frias-Lopez et al., 2008), metaproteomics (Ram et al., 2005), and metabolomics (Segata et al., 2013), sometimes informed by stable isotope probing (Starr et al., 2018). Although these methods may generate hypotheses about organism interdependencies, our ability to test predicted interdependencies in a community context is extremely limited and largely restricted to highly specialized techniques (Pierce and Dutton 2022).

Microbial community models can infer the sum of all interactions (Skwara et al., 2023, Quinn-Bohmann et al., 2024), but lack of species-resolved mechanistic understanding limits our ability to engineer these systems. Metabolic models can predict interactions by incorporating microbial metabolic capacities (Dukovski et al., 2021), but this approach is primarily limited to co-cultures and simple synthetic communities. This motivates the search for approaches that can elucidate organism-organism interactions in complex microbial ecosystems.

Bacteriophages offer a highly targeted way to probe microbial interactions due to their inherent bacterial specificity and potent host-killing efficiency. Bacteriophages have been predominantly used as therapeutics to remove or deplete pathogenic and antibiotic resistant microorganisms (Buttimer et al., 2022; Thanki et al., 2022; Das et al., 2015, Strathdee et al., 2023; Liao et al., 2025). Bacteriophage can also be further engineered for improved host killing and broadened host range (Selle et al., 2020; Gencay et al., 2023).

Prior work has established that phage hold enormous potential for microbiome manipulation. Carlson et al. (2023) demonstrated that the ammonium-generating capacity of fresh-water enrichments could be altered through the use of applied bacteriophage. Li et al. (2022) demonstrated the depletion of a specific *E. coli* using T7 phage can modulate host phenotypes, specifically animal behaviour. While several studies have engineered phage for increased killing efficiency (Selle et al., 2020), depletion of antibiotic resistance encoding plasmids (Bikard et al., 2014) and modification of host range (Gencay et al., 2023).

Here, we isolated multiple lytic bacteriophages specific to a collection of *Variovorax* isolates, and used them to modulate microbiomes to test several predicted microbial interactions. Our findings demonstrate that phages can be used to probe microbial interactions in the context of complex microbial communities.

Results

Variovorax phage isolation

To isolate *Variovorax* phages capable of selectively killing *Variovorax SCN45* we extracted phage viromes from six rhizosphere and compost samples (Oakland, CA) and tested for infectivity against a panel of *Variovorax* strains (Methods). We isolated nine phages that can replicate in one or more *Variovorax* species. These double-stranded DNA phages ranged in genome size from 43 to 159 Kb and with GC contents of 53% to 66%. Based on protein homology, seven of these phages (all with ~50 kbp genomes) were grouped with other RefSeq phages (Fig. 1a) classified predominantly with *Siphoviridae* (now *Siphovirus*) and share a high degree of average nucleotide diversity (ANI) with each other (Fig. 1b). The remaining two phages clustered with *Myoviridae* and *Autographiviridae* families. Two *Siphoviridae* phages (bapic4 and V.45_iii) and the large *Myoviridae* phage (V.45_v66) showed strong lytic activity against *V.* SCN45 (Fig. 1e). V.45_v66, bapic4 and V.45_iii were shown by TEM to have *Siphovirus*-like morphology, consisting of an icosahedral head and long filamentous tails, similar to the well-known lambda phage (Fig. 1d). All nine of the isolated phages are predicted to be restricted to a lytic lifestyle based on the absence of integrase genes. There was very limited cross-reactivity of the phages between the different *Variovorax* strains (Fig. 1c) based on spot assays. Only one phage, V.45_66, was able to form plaques on multiple hosts - *V.SCN45* and *V. paradoxus DSM 645* (Fig. S1).

Figure 1. Characterization of nine isolated *Variovorax*-infecting bacteriophages. (a) Protein similarity network of phages deposited in RefSeq and those isolated in this study (black), with edges indicating a significant shared protein content. (b) Pairwise average nucleotide identity (ANI) between the nine isolated *Variovorax* phages. (c) Plaque assays demonstrate limited cross-reactivity of the nine phages across four different *Variovorax* strains, with filled circles representing the ability to plaque on a given host. These include *V.* SCN45, *V.* CL14, *V. boronicumulans* DSM 21722, *V. ginsengisoli* DSM 25185 and *V. paradoxus* DSM 645. (d) Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) of the SCN45-infecting phage, showing icosahedral heads and filamentous tails characteristic of Siphoviridae. (e) High titre phage stocks visualized by 10-fold dilution 1uL spot assays from 10^{-6} to 10^{0}. (f) Genome-wide fitness profiling (RB-TnSeq) for *V. SCN45* genes, following exposure to phage bapic4, identifies the Type IV pilus as the likely receptor used by the phage for infection. Phages V.45_66 and V.45_iii generated similar gene fitness results.

Variovorax SCN45 phages infect via chromosome-encoded type IV pilus

To identify loss-of-function gene disruptions that could confer *Variovorax* with increased fitness under phage infection we constructed an RB-TnSeq mutant library of *Variovorax* SCN45 and employed methods similar to Mutalik et al. (2020). The disruption of genes of the type IV secretion system (T4SS) were found to substantially enhance the fitness of *Variovorax* when incubated with each of its three phages (Fig. 1f). None of these T4SS gene knockouts were enriched in the no-phage controls, indicating that the addition of phage selected for these gene mutants through the elimination of susceptible mutants.

Evaluating Phage-Mediated Depletion in the *Arabidopsis-Variovorax-Arthrobacter* System

Finkel et al. (2020) demonstrated that *Variovorax CL14* mitigates a root stunting phenotype in *Arabidopsis* by consuming excess auxin secreted by *Arthrobacter* that leads to root stunting. To test whether such well-characterized interactions could be tested through phage-based manipulation, rather than conventional strategies, we hypothesized that a co-culture of the two organisms would result in a normal root phenotype but phage-mediated depletion of *V.* CL14 would result in the accumulation of auxin and cause a stunted root phenotype. We employed a phage cocktail of the Siphoviridae phage V.cl_11 and V.cl_23 to deplete *V.* CL14 from both pure cultures and co-cultures with *Arthrobacter CL28* inoculated onto *Arabidopsis thaliana*. Phage treatment led to the reintroduction of root stunting phenotype (Fig. 2).

Figure 2. Phage-mediated depletion of *Variovorax* from an *Arabidopsis*-inoculated synthetic community induces root stunting. (a) Model of root inhibition by the auxin-secreting *Arthrobacter* CL28, which reverts to a normal root phenotype when the auxin-degrading *Variovorax* CL14 is present. If the *Variovorax*-targeting phage cocktail (V_11, V_23) is effective in the rhizosphere, this would disrupt the interaction and the root would revert to stunted growth. (b) *Arabidopsis* primary root elongation with *Arthrobacter* CL28 causes a stunted root phenotype, which recovers with *Variovorax* CL14 co-culture. The addition of the *Variovorax*-targeting phage cocktail (V.cl_11, V.cl_23) to the co-culture of *Arthrobacter* CL28 and *Variovorax* CL14 recapitulates the root stunting phenotype observed in the presence of *Arthrobacter* alone. Letters above bars indicate the results of a Tukey post hoc test (α=0.05).

Development of stable enrichment communities

To perform community manipulation experiments it is critical to generate stable, reproducible consortia with reasonable complexity, ideally containing organisms that are predicted to be interdependent on other community members. This study leveraged inoculum from lab-scale bioreactors from which the *Variovorax SCN45* pure culture was previously isolated (Hessler et al., 2023). *Variovorax SCN45* overproduces thiamine in pure culture and was predicted to supply this essential vitamin to highly dependent thiamine auxotrophs in bioreactor communities based on ecological network analyses (Hessler et al., 2023). The thiamine auxotrophs that were

correlated with *Variovorax* had very few correlations with other thiamine-producing organisms,
suggesting a strong dependence.

We supplemented additional *Variovorax* SCN45 cells to increase its abundance in inoculum
consortia based on previous findings that initial ratios of organisms can affect the final steady
state community composition (Gao et al., 2021). The inoculum was then grown in minimal media,
supplemented with various carbon sources, and passaged every 48 hours for a total of seven
passages (Fig. 3a) and community compositions assessed. Four carbon sources were chosen
for ongoing experiments because the communities were reproducible (Fig. 3, S2). The
communities included *Leifsonia*, multiple Xanthomondales and several *Microbacterium*, taxa that
were predicted to depend on *Variovorax* for thiamine (Hessler et al., 2023).

Figure 3. Development of stable enrichment communities. (a) Schematic of Bioreactor-derived
inoculum preparation and enrichment passaging. (b) Communities supplemented with guar gum showed
reproducible compositions across technical replicates and demonstrated stability across multiple passaging
cycles using 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing. PCA was performed on robust centered log-ratio (rclr)
transformed ASV relative abundances, demonstrating the compositional (c) reproducibility and (d)
longitudinal stability were consistent across the cultures supplemented with arabinogalactan with guar gum,
guar gum alone, kojac gum, and locust bean gum.

Phage-mediated *Variovorax* depletion leads to broad community impacts

Following the passage of the day 8 communities, either the phage V.45_v66 or a cocktail of three *Variovorax* phages (V.45_v66, V.45_iii, and V.45_bapic4) was added to the communities (Fig. 4 a). The relative abundance of *Variovorax* in the guar gum enrichment was reduced from approximately 22% in the day 8 communities to 2.4% in the day 10 community but further recovered to 11% by day 12 (Fig. 3b). This pattern was consistent across all four communities (Fig. S2). There was minimal difference in the abundance of *Variovorax* between the single phage V.45_v66 and three-phage cocktail, except in the kojac gum- community, where the three-phage cocktail resulted in a lower *Variovorax* abundance (mean 4%) compared to the single V.45_v66 phage (mean 10%) following passage six (day 12).

The overall community structure was impacted by the addition of phages, as evidenced by a notable shift in the principal component two of the PCA (Fig. 4c-e) performed on log-normalized abundance data from amplicon sequencing data. Despite phage addition, community stability was re-established, both in terms of species composition (Fig. 3c-f) and optical density over subsequent passages (Fig. S3). Bacteria other than *Variovorax* that can produce thiamine did not proliferate following *Variovorax* depletion (Fig. 4f). There was no evidence that *Variovorax* phages interacted with non-target organisms that encode a Type IV secretion system (Fig. 4g).

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Figure 4. Phage-mediated *Variovorax* depletion across enrichment cultures. (a) Schematic adapted
from Figure 3, illustrating the introduction of phage to 2×10^4 plaque-forming units per mL (PFU/mL) on day
8 following passaging. (b) Genome-resolved metagenomics revealed a marked reduction of *Variovorax*
(pink) on day 10 post-phage. Principal component analysis (PCA) of log-normalized abundance data from
amplicon sequencing data (c) reveals a separation along PC1 driven by carbon source, while (d) PC2
captures the divergence from pre- and post-phage conditions, and (e) day of the experiment. The summed
relative abundance of all organisms encoding (f) a complete thiamine biosynthesis pathway and (g) a type
IV secretion system (excluding *Variovorax* from 100% relative abundance). Shown across three stages:
pre-phage addition (day 6 and day 8 communities), post-phage addition (day 10, 12, and 14 communities)
and post-phage communities supplemented with 10 mg/L thiamine (B1).
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Variovorax depletion confirms dependence of specific thiamine auxotrophs

We assessed which organisms exhibited statistically significant abundance changes between the
'pre-phage communities' (day six and day eight communities) and the communities following the
addition of phage (day 10, 12, 14 communities). After phage administration, we added thiamine
to the control enrichment communities to identify the organisms that were specifically reliant on
Variovorax for thiamine. Amplicon sequencing of the four enrichment cultures revealed that some

organisms that decreased in abundance following *Variovorax* depletion, and then increased
significantly in abundance following thiamine supplementation (Fig. 5a). These included a
Lysobacter (Xanthomonadales*)*, a *Leifsonia,* and microorganisms belonging to the family of
Microbacteriaceae (Fig. 5b). Genome-resolved metagenomics of the samples revealed that the
Leifsonia (Fig. S5), a *Microbacterium* and a *Stenotrophomonas* (Xanthomonadales) all lack a
complete thiamine biosynthesis pathway (Supplementary data).
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210 To determine if the association between *Leifsonia* species and thiamine-producing bacteria may
211 be more general, we assessed 32 *Leifsonia* genomes present in GTDB for the ability to synthesize
212 thiamine. We found only a single *Leifsonia* genome to have a complete pathway (Supplementary
213 data).

Figure 5. Previously identified organisms experimentally confirmed to rely on *Variovorax* for thiamine. (a) Amplicon sequence variants (ASVs) exhibiting significant changes in relative abundance between the pre- and post phage communities. Many ASVs increased in abundance following *Variovorax* depletion while others showed reduced abundance, and with a subset of these demonstrating recovery following the addition of thiamine. (b) Six ASVs corresponding to multiple *Microbacteria*, a *Leifsonia*, and a *Lysobacter* show a reduced abundance following the depletion of *Variovorax* but returned to near original levels with the supplementation of thiamine. (c) Closely related strains of these organisms appear in the correlation network that was initially used to predict *Variovorax* as a thiamine-producer and show correlations with *Variovorax* (Hessler et al., 2023).

SNPs enabled post-infection recovery of *Variovorax*

The *Variovorax* SCN45 genome is comprised of a 6.8 Mb chromosome and 1.2 Mb circular genetic element that is related to a *Variovorax paradoxus S110* sequence described as a "second chromosome" by Han et al. (2010). *Variovorax* SCN45 lacks CRISPR-Cas systems but encodes

235   24 PADLOC(v4.3.0)-predicted phage defence systems. We were unable to detect any deletions
236   of these genes, or of any genes (including those of the T4SS), in post-phage *Variovorax*
237   populations based on read mapping and gene abundances.
238
To seek evidence for mutations that could confer phage immunity in surviving *Variovorax*
populations, we monitored *Variovorax* single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) across the four
experiments. Before the introduction of phage, the majority of reads map to the reference genome
without SNPs. However, following phage addition, there is a marked increase in the
representation of SNPs and an increase in the number of SNP sites. In prephage communities
the majority of wildtype haplotypes are present at approximately 90% (indicating that at a given
SNP site, 90% of mapped reads support the wildtype base). However, following phage infection
the proportion of SNP sites with the wildtype haplotype reduces, demonstrating selection of new
or previously less abundant SNPs (Fig. 6a, S6).
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Although most SNPs post-phage infection were synonymous, a subset was not. To identify new
gene variants under strong selection, we identified regions of the genome with SNPs that were
closely spaced enough that linkage could be established. Some regions with high densities of
linked SNPs occurred in both the no-phage controls and post-phage populations (Fig. 6b) and
thus were likely beneficial under all conditions (Fig. 6c). These included genes related to aerobic
benzoyl-CoA catabolism, a type V secretion system, enoyl-CoA hydratase, and cell envelope
structural proteins. However, there was a single region of the *Variovorax* genome that showed
high SNP linkage density only in the post-phage populations. This locus encoded multiple
conjugal transfer proteins (Fig. 6c). Most importantly, we identified two non-synonymous SNPs in
the *trbE* conjugal transfer protein (homologous to *virB4*) within the P-loop domain which alters the
charge and hydrophobicity of this region of the protein.
260
To identify SNPs that were not close enough to other mutations to provide linkage, we recovered
all non-synonymous SNPs that increased in abundance by at least 30% in the post-phage
populations relative to the pre-phage and no-phage control populations. We identified 275 gene
variants found exclusively in post-phage populations (Supplementary data). Several were
associated with known phage defence systems including the retron XIII, Lamassu family, and
putative PDC-S02 defence systems. Most interesting were three SNPs detected in three or more
of the four communities. This group of genes included a filamentous haemagglutinin family outer
membrane protein, a redoxin/thioredoxin-like sensor protein associated with a fatty acid
biosynthesis operon, and a protein with domain of unknown function (DUF932). This DUF932
gene occurs within an integrated plasmid that encodes *parA*, *parB*, an integrase, a plasmid
transfer protein (*traI*), and a replication initiation protein (*repA*). Notably, multiple non-synonymous
SNPs occurred in the DUF932 protein, and these variants were exceptionally abundant,
exceeding 70% in the post-phage populations. In contrast, the *trbE* gene displayed non-
synonymous SNPs in 21-33% of reads from post-phage populations. Interestingly, the start codon
of this DUF932 gene was mutated to AAG (lysine) in 50-60% of each of the four populations. This
likely impacts translation initiation and results in truncation of the protein as the next in-frame AUG
codon occurs in position 66.
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Figure 6. Phage infection induces shifts in *Variovorax* populations and selects for consistent gene
variants. (a) Haplotype frequency distributions of *Variovorax* populations in the locust bean gum
communities shows the impact by phage application, with expansion of low abundance SNPs, followed by
return to pre-phage distributions. (b) Post-phage *Variovorax* populations show increased linked-SNP
density in a conjugative transfer gene operon, visualised by a heatmap. Linked-SNPs associated with three
16S rRNA genes have been removed for clarity. (c) A schematic illustrating different categories for selection
in day 12 communities. (d) Gene operons and AlphaFold-predicted protein structures showing consistent
mutation sites within the conjugal transfer protein TrbE and domain of unknown function within an integrated
genetic element.

Variovorax relies on its own thiamine biosynthesis in all enrichment cultures

To investigate genes important for *Variovorax* fitness in enrichment cultures (in the absence of
phage), we introduced the *Variovorax* SCN45 RB-TnSeq mutant library into each of the four
enrichment cultures (Fig. 7a). In all four of the communities, knockouts of multiple genes involved
in the biosynthesis thiamine (*thiC*, *thiG*, *thiE, purE* and *purK)* had a strong negative fitness impact
on *Variovorax* (See Fig. S6 for an overview of the pathway). These results indicate that in the four
enrichments, *Variovorax* was reliant on its own biosynthesis for thiamine and little extracellular
thiamine was likely available.

Rate of recovery of *Variovorax* populations correlates with reduced dependence on Type IV secretion system

Phage treatment reduced the abundance of *Variovorax* to approximately 3% in all day 10 post-phage communities, but *Variovorax* showed the fastest recovery in the guar and locust-bean gum communities over the following days (Fig. 7b). The *Variovorax* populations in these two communities (Fig. 7c, S5) had SNP concentrations close to pre-phage levels by day 14.

We amended enrichments with the RB-TnSeq mutant library to investigate the consequences of specific gene knockouts for *Variovorax* fitness in the four communities (in the absence of phages; Fig. 7a). In the guar and locust-bean gum communities the knockout of the T4SS was advantageous, based on selection for these genotypes. In contrast, these knockouts were mildly deleterious in the arabino-guar and kojac gum substrate-amended communities.

Figure 7. The rate recovery of *Variovorax* populations from phage infection corresponds to the fitness conferred by the type IV secretion system (T4SS). (a) Genome-wide fitness profiling (RB-TnSeq) for *V. SCN45* showing the fitness of gene-knockouts in each of the four communities (y-axis) versus in pure culture in R2A, rich media (x-axis), highlighting the type IV secretion system and thiamine biosynthesis genes. (b) Relative abundance of *Variovorax* is reduced to ~3% in all post-phage communities, with a gradual recovery over the following passages, again fastest in the guar and locust bean gum communities. (c) Genome-wide SNP sites in *Variovorax* populations increase immediately following phage infection (day 10) but decline to pre-phage levels, with the guar and locust bean gum populations recovering the fastest. Read mapping was normalized to 20x coverage for all *Variovorax* populations.

Discussion

Previously, networks constructed using organism abundance data allowed us to identify thiamine auxotrophs that were strongly correlated with *Variovorax* (SCN45) in the bioreactor communities

studied here (Hessler et al., 2023). Subsequently, we showed that *Variovorax* produces high
concentrations of extracellular thiamine in pure culture, however we did not verify that this
thiamine production was sustained within natural communities. To better explore possible
interdependence related to vitamin provision required experiments conducted in communities
from which *Variovorax* could be selectively removed, without directly impacting the rest of the
community. We hypothesized that highly targeted community manipulation could be achieved via
use of *Variovorax*-specific phages.
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To demonstrate the feasibility of testing organism-organism interactions using phage-mediated
Variovorax depletion, we leveraged the *Arabidopsis*-*Variovorax* CL14-*Arthrobacter* system first
characterized by Finkel et al. (2020) in which *V. CL14* mitigates root stunting in *Arabidopsis* by
degrading auxin produced by *Arthrobacter*. Following the addition of isolated phages V.cl_11 and
V.cl_23 to this co-culture, we observed a pronounced root-stunting phenotype, indicating that the
phages successfully depleted *Variovorax* CL14 (Fig. 2). These findings highlight the potential of
extending phage-mediated testing of microbe-microbe and microorganism-plant interactions to
rhizosphere microbiome manipulations for agricultural applications.
340
Next, we used three isolated *Variovorax* SCN45 phages to selectively deplete this *Variovorax*
from four enrichment communities and monitored the effects on the remaining community (Fig. 4,
5). The subsequent addition of thiamine facilitated the recovery of only a *Leifsonia*, a
Xanthomondales, and a *Microbacterium*, each lacking complete thiamine biosynthesis pathway.
This provides clear evidence that *Variovorax*-produced thiamine was supporting the growth of
these specific organisms in the communities and demonstrates the effectiveness of phage-
mediated knock-down experiments for capturing these metabolic interactions. Related, but non-
identical, strains of *Leifsonia*, *Microbacterium,* and the Xanthomondales were among a larger
group of organisms associated with *Variovorax* in the correlation network from which the thiamine-
exchange hypothesis was developed (Hessler et al., 2023).
351
Using a *Variovorax* SCN45 RB-TnSeq mutant library we found that disruptions in the *Variovorax*
type IV secretion system genes conferred phage immunity, indicating that the three phages tested
all infect via this complex. The T4SS is a common target for phage attachment and genome
injection (Russell 1995; Berry et al., 2011). One potential concern is that depletion of *Variovorax*
might occur following phage infection, yet decreased abundance of correlated organisms could
be due to toxicity following uptake of viral DNA via T4SSs. Countering this, we find that encoding
of a type IV secretion system was not a predictor of whether an organism decreased in abundance
following phage addition. Thus, we concluded that these phages could be used to directly identify
the organisms that are dependent on *Variovorax* SCN45 in the bioreactor consortia and the basis
of the dependence.
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Variovorax populations demonstrated partial to complete recovery from phage infection by the
end of the experiment. We were unable to identify any gene deletions, frameshift mutations or
non-synonymous SNPs in T4SS genes. However, by investigating genes with enriched non-
synonymous SNPs, we identified gene variants of the *TrbE* conjugal transfer protein in *Variovorax*
that arose following phage treatment. TrbE physically interacts with the T4SS and is a member of

the *VirB4* family of proteins responsible for substrate recruitment and transfer to the secretion
channel of T4SS (Li et al., 2018; Redzej et al., 2022). We observed two non-synonymous SNPs
within the P-loop domain of this protein which is responsible for ATP binding and hydrolysis. We
speculate that the *trbE* mutations interfere with the functioning of the T4SS required for phage
infection.
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In addition to *trbE* variants, we observed non-synonymous SNPs in a small-protein-coding
(DUF932) gene within a putative integrated plasmid in all phage-treated *Variovorax* populations.
Although the precise role of this gene is unclear, its consistent selection after phage application
strongly suggests involvement in phage defence. The blocking of phage entry by resident mobile
genetic elements, including phage, is well-documented (Kliem & Dreiseikelmann, 1989; Berry and
Christie, 2011; Kamruzzaman et al., 2022; Johnson et al., 2022; Taylor et al., 2024; Rivard et al.,
2024;). For example, the *pVII* minor capsid protein in *Pseudomonas* phage *Pf4*, interacts directly
with the host *PilC* protein, responsible for T4SS assembly in *Pseudomonas*, rendering it inactive
and preventing phage superinfection (Wang et al., 2022). We suspect that *Variovorax* developed
phage resistance through both chromosomal and mobile element-mediated modulation of the
T4SS. These mutations are likely to have existed within the *Variovorax* populations prior to phage
application and highlight the role of population variation in surviving phage infection.
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The addition of a single or multiple phages showed little difference in *Variovorax* depletion or its
rate of recovery. This absence of additive effects has been observed in other studies (Pyenson
et al. 2024), including efforts to remove *Ralstonia* from tomato plants (Franco Ortega et al., 2024).
In our study, this may have occurred to all three *Variovorax*-targeting phages infecting via the
same receptor. In future studies, the use of multiple phages targeting different receptors would
likely be beneficial, as has been shown in phage-therapy research treating bacterial infections in
humans (Yoo et al., 2024). However, complete bacterial removal is rare and, in clinical cases, has
required the simultaneous use of antibiotics (Pirnay et al., 2024). Notably, in the *Ralstonia*-
infected tomato plant studied by Wang et al. (2019), the addition of phages resulted in the
enrichment of taxa that naturally suppressed the growth of *Ralstonia* through antibiotic production.
These studies suggest that phage application alone is unlikely to remove target bacterium long-
term, and that additional ecological or therapeutic pressures are required to sustain suppression
of the target organism. However, as we show here, even partial and temporary depletion of
populations is useful to test interaction hypotheses.
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Variovorax recovered at variable rates following phage treatment, with communities in which
T4SS knockouts conferred positive fitness exhibiting the fastest recovery. Prior work has shown
that community composition can substantially impact phage-host dynamics (Blazanin and Turner,
2021; Alseth et al. 2019). Phage susceptibility can also be strongly influenced by the natural
variation in physiology of genetically identical cells, such as cell size (Schenk & Sieber, 2019) and
receptor protein copy numbers (Chapman-McQuiston & Wu, 2008; Igler et al., 2022). This leads
us to hypothesize that community- and environmental selection against T4SS expression in
Variovorax in the guar and locust bean gum communities could have led to reduced presentation
of this complex by *Variovorax*, thereby limiting infection by our phages targeting this system. The
observed variation in *Variovorax* recovery highlights how community context could impact phage

infection, and may be an important area of research for the application of phage-based
microbiome manipulations.
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Here, we establish the basis of specific microbe-microbe interactions in natural enrichment-based
communities by isolating and using phages to selectively deplete a member of interest. This
approach addresses a critical challenge in microbial ecology by easily enabling the direct testing
of interaction hypotheses within natural consortia, including interactions involving taxa that are
otherwise difficult to culture or manipulate. This method is scalable, cost-effective and uses
standard microbiology techniques without requiring specialized equipment. Although suitable
phage isolation does require the isolation of the microorganism of interest, future integration of
phage engineering with advances in protein design (Pacesa et al., 2025) may circumvent this
current limitation. Overall, phage-based approaches represent valuable tools for understanding
the structure of microbial communities and offer promising avenues for microbiome engineering.

Methodology

Bacterial inoculum preparation

Variovorax was grown overnight from a single colony in R2A media. 100 mLof planktonic phase
cells were recovered from two bench-scale thiocyanate-degrading bioreactor systems, from which
Variovorax was initially isolated a year prior. Flocculated particles were allowed to settle to the
bottom of the container for 30 min and the top 50 mLwere carefully removed. 10 mLof bioreactor
planktonic phase were added into 50 mLfalcon tubes. 5 mLof *Variovorax* overnight culture was
added to this falcon tube. 15 mLof 50% glycerol was then added and mixed by swirling and
inverting each tube. 200 uL of each culture were distributed into cryo tubes, frozen in liquid
nitrogen, and stored at -80C. This approach was based on previous inoculum ratio testing
experiments (Gao et al., 2021), which demonstrated that a higher abundance of a member in the
inoculum improves its chances of establishing within the community.

Community passaging

Inoculum glycerol stocks were thawed on ice and gently mixed by pipetting. 50 uL of glycerol
stock was added to 10 mLof M9 minimal media in quadruplicate supplemented with 50 ug/L
cycloheximide, 10 mg/L pantothenic acid, and a trace metal solution described by Watts et al.
(2019). Culturing was performed using four independent technical replicates to provide
robustness for statistical tests. The electron donors used were 0.2 g/L of kojac gum, locust bean
gum, guar gum, and combined 0.1 g/L guar gum and 0.1 g/L arabinogalactan. Under each
electron donor condition, following inoculation, cultures were incubated at 30C for 48 hours with
shaking at 140 rpm. Cultures were passaged using 200 uL of spent medium into 10 mLof fresh
media. This was repeated every 48 hours for a total of seven passages over 14 days. This
culturing protocol was heavily informed by Goldford et al. (2018). The glycerol stocks were then
used to inoculate fresh tubes followed by two passages as described above. At each passage
step, 8 mLof culture were centrifuged at 10,000 X g for 10 minutes and cell pellets were frozen at

-80C for subsequent DNA extraction. 200 uL of spent medium was used to perform OD
measurements using a 96-well plate reader at 600 nm.

Virome preparations

Three sources of viromes were collected: (i) soils, (ii) composts and (iii) and thiocyanate-
degrading bioreactors. Briefly, approximately 10 grams of soil or compost were collected in falcon
tubes and incubated with 25 mLof SM buffer with shaking for one hour. In the case of bioreactor
viromes, biofilm material was removed from the bioreactors using serological pipettes and
subjected to metal bead beating on a vortex at maximum speed for ten minutes to disrupt the
biofilm. For all three types of viromes, the particulate matter was then allowed to settle for 30
minutes before the supernatant was removed and centrifuged at 10,000 X g for 10 minutes and
the supernatant then passed through a 0.22 um filter.

Phage liquid enrichment

Bacteria were grown overnight from single colonies in 10 mLof R2A media and incubated at 30C
at 160 rpm. Cultures were back diluted into fresh R2A containing 2 mM MgCl2 and 2 mM CaCl2
to an OD600 of 0.03-0.05. Cultures were allowed to grow until reaching an OD600 of 0.15-0.3.
Subsequently, 100 uL of viromes were then added to the tubes and the cultures were incubated
for a further 24 hours. The cultures were then sampled and cells were removed by centrifugation
at 10,000 X g for 10 minutes. This supernatant served as the virome for the next round of
enrichment. This process was repeated for a total of five enrichments.

Phage isolation: Plaque assays

Plaque assays were performed on the *Variovorax* strains *V.* SCN45, *V.* CL14, *V. boronicumulans*
(DSM 21722), *V. ginsengisoli* DSM 25185 and *V. paradoxus* DSM 645. These strains were grown
overnight from single colonies in 10 mLof R2A media and incubated at 30C at 160 rpm. Cultures
were back diluted into fresh R2A to an OD600 of 0.03-0.05. Cultures were allowed to grow until
reaching an OD600 of 0.15 - 0.3. Subsequently, 100uL of log-phase cells were added to 20 uL of
0.2 um filter-sterilized viromes and incubated at RT for 10 minutes. These were mixed with 50C
R2A (2 mM MgCl2 and 2 mM CaCl2) 0.5% top agar and plated onto R2A 1.5% bottom agar plates.
Plates were incubated at 30C for 48 hours and inspected for plaques. Plaques were picked using
sterile 100 uL tips into 100 uL of SM buffer.

Phage genome sequencing, assembly and annotation

DNA from phage suspensions were extracted using Zymo Quick-DNA viral kits using
manufacturers instructions. Extracted DNA was then Illumina shotgun sequenced on a Novaseq
using 150PE reads with a 300 bp insert size and yielding 1 Gbp per sample. Viral genomes were
assembled using Metaviral-Spades (Antipov et al., 2020) and extended using COBRA (Chen et
al., 2024). The genomes were then annotated using vogDB (Trgovec-Greif et al., 2024), Pfam
(Bateman et al., 2004) and KEGG (Kanehisa & Goto, 2000) hidden Markov models using
hmmscan. Protein sharing of the nine phage and Refseq and was performed using Vcontact2

(Bin-Jang et al., 2019). Phage genome ANI was determined using Vclust (Zielezinski et al., 2024;
https://github.com/refresh-bio/vclust).

Transmission electron microscopy (TEM)

490   Virus particles were visualized using a FEI Tecnai T12 Transmission Electron Microscope at an
491   accelerating voltage of 80 kV. Carbon-coated copper grids were charged in a vacuum chamber
492   followed by application of 5 uL of virus suspension and allowed to dry. The grids were washed
493   with deionised water three times before negative staining in 1.0 % ammonium acetate for 60s.
494   Grids were allowed to air dry before being visualized.
495

Arabidopsis inoculation and co-cultures with *Variovorax* CL14, *Arthrobacter* CL28, and V.cl_11+V.cl_23 phage for root length phenotyping

Arabidopsis thaliana Col-0 seeds were surface-sterilized in 50% bleach for 20 min with 0.05%
Tween 20 for 20 min, removing all bleach and rinsing five times in sterile water. Sterile seeds
were stratified in the dark for 2 to 3 days at 4°C. A nylon mesh filter with 100 micron pore size
was cut to fit on the 100 mm x 100 mm square petri dish as previously described (Cole et al.
2017). After stratification, ~7 seeds were placed on the mesh filter on 1.0MS, 0.5% sucrose, 0.6%
phytagel plates and grown under long day conditions for 7d (16-h light/8-h dark regime at 22-°C).
Bacteria strains preparation: *Variovorax* CL14 and the root growth inhibiting strain *Arthrobacter*
CL28 were streaked on agar plates from glycerol stocks, a single colony was transferred to 3 mL
liquid R2A media and grown overnight. Cultures were gently pelleted then washed twice with 10
mM MgCl2, normalizing the volume of each culture to OD600 = 1, then adjust to OD600=0.04
before spreading 50 μl on each plate (Full MS, 0.6% phytagel without sucrose. Full MS was used
instead of 1/2X as previously described to maintain the required Mg and Ca concentrations for
optimal phage lysis (2mM)). To prepare the phage inoculation, 5 ul of a phage cocktail
(Siphoviridae phage V.cl_11+V.cl_23; $1x10^4$ PFU/uL each) was diluted in 500 uL 20 mM MgCl2
and 100 ul of this solution was spread onto each plate. After the plants grew 7d, the mesh was
transferred to each of the bacteria and phage inoculated plates and returned to the growth
chamber vertically grown in short day conditions (16-h dark/8-h light regime at 22°C). Plates were
imaged 10 days after transfer. Primary root length was measured using ImageJ software, first
setting the scale to the grid on the plate (13 mm) before measuring primary root elongation for
each plant. There were three replicate plates (containing n≥5 plants each) for each control and
treatment: uninoculated, no bacteria + V11/V23 phage, *Variovorax* CL14, *Arthrobacter* CL28,
Variovorax CL14 + *Arthrobacter* CL28, *Variovorax* CL14 + *Arthrobacter* CL28 + V11/V23 phage.

Phage-perturbed community experiments

Stable communities were grown on selected carbon sources and exposed to *Variovorax*-specific
phages (V45_v66, or a three-phage cocktail of V45_v66, V.45_iii, and V.45_bapic4) 8 hours after
the passaging of the day 8 communities (ie. following passage 5), using 50 uL of 4×10^4 PFU/uL
each per 10 mLculture. Experiments were conducted in quadruplicate with a no-phage control

included for comparison. The final varied condition involved the presence or absence of 10 mg/L
thiamine, administered at the time of phage addition and maintained during subsequent
passages.

DNA extraction, amplicon and shotgun sequencing

Genomic DNA was extracted from cell pellets using the Qiagen DNeasy PowerSoil Pro Kit
according to the manufacturer's instructions. V4-V5 16S rRNA gene amplicons were generated
by PCR using primers 515F (GTGNCAGCMGCCGCGGTAA) and 926R
(CCGYCAATTYMTTTRAGTTT) and cycling conditions 95C 10 min, 72C 90s, 50C 60s, 72C 90s
for 30 cycles and a final extension at 72C for 10 min. PCR products were cleaned using Ampure
XP magnetic beads. PCR products were sequenced by Innovative Genomic Institute's Next
Generation Sequencing Core on an Illumina MiSeq instrument using a read length of 2 x 150 bp
with approximately 50,000 reads per sample. Generated amplicon sequencing data was
processed yielding ASVs as performed by Kust et al. (2023). Whole genome community library
preparation and shotgun sequencing was performed by Novogene. Paired-end Illumina libraries
were prepared from genomic DNA with an insert size of 350 bp and sequenced on an Illumina
Novaseq producing approximately 6 Gbp of raw sequencing data per sample. The *Variovorax*
isolate was subsequently sequenced using PacBio long-read sequencing at 60x coverage, to
generate two circular chromosomes.

Metagenomic Read Processing, Assembly and binning

Illumina 150 PE reads from community shotgun sequencing were processed as documented in
the ggKbase data preparation pipeline (https://ggkbase-help.berkeley.edu/overview/data-
preparation-metagenome/). Reads were processed using BBtools (Bushnell 2020) and sickle
(Joshi and Fass, 2011), and were then assembled using IDBA-UD (Peng et al., 2012). Open
reading frames (ORFs) were predicted using Prodigal V2.6.3 (Hyatt et al., 2010). Contigs were
binned using CONCOCT (Alneberg et al., 2013), Maxbin2 (Wu et al., 2016), MetaBat2 (Kang et
al., 2019), and VAMB (Nissen et al., 2021). The best bins per sampled were selected using DAS
tools (Sieber et al., 2018) and a final non-redundant genome set across all enrichment
communities and the previously published thiocyanate bioreactor genome set found at
https://ggkbase.berkeley.edu/SCN_92/organisms was selected using dRep (Olm et al., 2017) at
95% ANI.

Microbial genome annotation, classification and strain analysis

Microbial genomes were then annotated using hmmscan against Pfam (Bateman et al., 2004)
and KEGG (Kanehisa & Goto, 2000) databases and were taxonomically classified using GTDB-
tk (Chaumeil et al., 2020). All read mappings were performed with bowtie2 (Langmead et al.,
2012). Genome coverage and relative abundance across samples were determined using coverm
(Aroney et al., 2025). Genome-genome correlation was determined using Fastspar (Watts et al.,
2019) which implements the Sparcc algorithm (Friedman et al., 2012). *Variovorax* strain analysis
was performed using inStrain (Olm et al., 2021) and the PacBio assembled *Variovorax* genome.
Phage defence systems were predicted in the *Variovorax* genome using padlock (Payne et al.,

2022, https://padloc.otago.ac.nz/padloc/). Protein structure predictions were performed using
Alphafold3 (Abramson et al., 2024. https://alphafoldserver.com/)

Statistical analyses

Distributions in organism abundances were compared by two-sample t-test assuming unequal
variance was performed using the ttest_ind function of the scipy.stats Python package. The
abundance of ASVs was calculated excluding the abundance of *Variovorax* contributing to 100%
abundance. Relative abundance data were normalized by robust centered log-ratio (rclr)
transformation using the decostand function from the vegan R package (Oksanen et al., 2001).
Principal component analysis (PCA) was performed on the normalized abundance data using the
prcomp function in R to visualize variation in community composition across samples.

RB-TnSeq library construction

A DNA-barcoded *mariner* transposon mutant library of *Variovorax* SCN45 was generated as
described previously (Wetmore et al., 2015; Thorgersen et al., 2021). Briefly, an *E. coli* strain
(WM3064) carrying the transposon vector library pHLL250 was conjugated with wild-type
Variovorax SCN45 at a 1:1 ratio on LB agar plates supplemented with diaminopimelic acid (300
uM) for 6 hours. Post conjugation, the transformants were plated onto R2A agar plates containing
50 µg/ml kanamycin. Several thousand *Variovorax* colonies were scraped and collected into a
tube before being resuspended in 100 mL of R2A with Kanamycin and incubated at 30 C for 6
hours. Glycerol stocks (15%) were made and stored at -80C. Cells from the final mutant library
were pelleted through centrifugation and their DNA extracted and sequenced by TnSeq-like
Illumina sequencing protocol.

RB-TnSeq library incubations

A 2 mLmutant library glycerol stock was thawed and inoculated into 25 mLof R2A with 50 ug/ml
kanamycin and incubated at 30°C with shaking until cells entered mid log phage (approximately
8 hours). Four tubes of 2 mLof culture, termed time zero controls, were then recovered and cells
pelleted by centrifugation and frozen at -80°C. The remaining cultured cells were then washed
twice in relevant media (M9 media without carbon source or R2A) with spins at 3000g for 3
minutes. The cells were resuspended in media and inoculated into relevant or culture to a final
OD600 of 0.02. The cultures were grown in 10ml glass tubes and incubated at 30 °C with shaking.
(i) For phage-challenge experiments 10 uL of phage (4×10^4 PFU/ul) were added to the libraries
after 4 hours of subsequent incubation and allowed to incubate for a total of 24 h. (ii) For
community incubations, cultures were passaged every 48 h for four passages. Cells were
recovered from four replicate cultures by centrifugation and stored at -80 °C. Genomic DNA was
then extracted from the stored cell pellets and PCR and sequencing by BarSeq performed as
described previously (Wetmore et al., 2015).

Data availability

The contigs representing the *Variovorax* genome assembled by PacBio can be found under
bioproject PRJNA1212206 genome accessions CP179718-CP179720. The assembled genomes
of the isolated phage have been deposited in GenBank under accession numbers PV558788 -
PV558796. The reads associated with these genomes and assemblies can be found under
accession numbers SRR33449703 - SRR33449695. The 16S rRNA amplicon sequencing data
can be found under Bioproject PRJNA1254325, under accession numbers SRR33264975 -
SRR33264785. Shotgun sequencing can be found under bioproject PRJNA1254232, including
reads (SRR33436150-SRR33436076), assemblies (SAMN48138949 - SAMN48139025), and
novel MAGs (SAMN48122594 - SAMN48122609). These MAGs can also be found on ggkbase
https://ggkbase.berkeley.edu/Phage_treated_Variovorax_enrichments_dereplicated_MAGs/ and
MAGs detected in this study that had been previously published can be found on ggkbase
https://ggkbase.berkeley.edu/SCN_92/.
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Supplementary materials

Figure S1. Plaque morphology from spot assays performed on *Variovorax* species with the nine isolated *Variovorax* phages. Only phage V45_66 was able to plaque on more than one host.

992
993 **Figure S2**. Genome-resolved metagenomics reveals consistent reduction in the relative abundance in
994 Variovorax across all four enrichment cultures following phage application. The 16 most abundant
995 organisms per enrichment culture recovered are shown.

Figure S3. The optical density (600nm) of the 48 hour old communities following inoculation and each subsequent passage. All communities show a sharp reduction between day 2 and day 4 communities but then reach a stable state from day eight onwards.

1007
1008 **Figure S4.** *Leifsonia* MAG relative abundance is consistent with the ASV data. The abundance of this MAG
1009 is shown across the four carbon source enrichment cultures before phage addition (day 6 and day 8
1010 communities), following phage infection (day 10, day 12, day 14 communities), and following phage
1011 infection with supplementation of thiamine.
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1016   **Figure S5.** Haplotype frequencies associated with phage exposure to each of the four enrichment
1017   communities and their no-phage controls.

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1019 **Figure S6.** Thiamine biosynthesis pathway illustrating the multiple routes for the production of the thiazole
1020 and pyrimidine moieties of thiamine. Adapted from https://www.kegg.jp/ (Kanehisa & Goto, 2000).
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