1   **Isolation and Characterization of a *Myoviridae* phage that lyses two *Escherichia***

2   ***coli* pathotypes**

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ABSTRACT

The emergence of pathogenic bacteria with multiple drug resistances (MDR) and the

detrimental side effects to the microbiome from the overuse of antibiotics pose

significant risks to human health. Bacteriophage (phage) can be an alternative or

supplemental therapy to combat MDR infections. Phage can be isolated from

environmental reservoirs, such as wastewater, and used to target desired hosts,

including MDR bacterial pathogens. In this study, we isolate a *Myoviridae* phage from

Portland, Oregon, wastewater named *Escherichia virus PDX* that lyses

enteropathogenic (EPEC) and enteroaggregative (EAEC) *E. coli* strains*. Host

susceptibility assays, transmission electron microscopy, and genomic analysis

confirmed the bacteriolytic activity of *PDX* against these *E. coli* pathogens, while time-

kill assays demonstrate that *PDX* inhibited growth of both pathotypes in a dose-

dependent manner. Metagenomic sequencing of cultured fecal bacteria treated with

PDX revealed that alpha diversity of propagated fecal samples was not reduced in the

presence of the *PDX* phage.

IMPORTANCE

MDR bacterial infections are exceedingly difficult and expensive to treat, which can lead

to prolonged illness, disability, and even death. The need for antibiotic alternatives, or

supplements, warrants the consideration of using phage therapy in Western medicine.

Phage therapy offers the added benefit of lysing its specific hosts, while leaving healthy

microbial communities intact. EPEC and EAEC strains are associated with pediatric

acute gastroenteritis and chronic diarrhea, which can lead to stunted growth, life-

threatening dehydration, behavioral abnormalities, and a general failure to thrive. We

isolated and purified a strictly lytic phage and demonstrated selective, bacteriolytic

activity against EPEC and EAEC *E. coli* pathotypes, which supports the efficacy of

phage therapy in reducing pathogenic bacterial infections. Our data also suggest that

these pathogens can be eliminated by *PDX* with minimal microbiome dysbiosis.

INTRODUCTION

Enteropathogenic and enteroaggregative *E. coli* (EPEC and EAEC) cause diarrheal

diseases in infants and children and are endemic to Nigeria, other West African

countries, Asia, and South America (1). Current recommendations for the treatment for

EPEC and EAEC infections include the administration of fluoroquinolone antibiotics (2).

Consequently, increased antimicrobial resistances among bacterial pathogens over the

past decades have resulted in infections that fail to respond to frontline antibiotic

therapy, indicating that these particular pathovars have acquired a multidrug resistance

(MDR) phenotype (3). There has been a significant rise in EPEC and EAEC MDR

strains, and emergence of MDR in many other disease-causing bacteria, though few

novel antibiotic compounds have been developed during recent years (4).

One supplement, or alternative, to antibiotics that has been considered since

their discovery are bacteriophage (phage), viruses that infect and kill a bacterial host.

Recent estimates suggest that phage collectively comprise the most ubiquitous group of

microorganisms on Earth, with an estimated population exceeding 10^{31}, which out-

numbers the predicted population size of their bacterial hosts by a factor of ten (5). In

addition to the large population size, there is a great diversity of bacteriophage species;

recent publications estimate the existence of more than one million phage species (6, 7).

As a therapeutic agent, bacteriophage have been used successfully for treatment of

many bacterial pathogens, as exemplified in Poland (8). However, clinical research and

implementation of phage therapy in Western countries has been meager since the

development of antibiotics (6).

Few phage therapy clinical trials have been conducted in Western countries.

However, there have been two successful phage therapy applications as single dose

phage cocktails, which is a mixture of bacteriophage that target different pathogenic

bacteria. In one case, the phage cocktail was administered topically to burn victims in a

military hospital in Texas (9). The other successful Phase II clinical trial of phage

therapy was administered to patients suffering from chronic MDR *Pseudomonas*

aeruginosa ear infections (10). The study was terminated early as the treatment group

exhibited such impressive recoveries that the physicians wanted to be able to deliver

the phage preparation to the control group of patients to treat their infections. Three

patients enrolled in the study experienced full resolution of symptoms as determined by

both the study physicians and self-reporting. The results of these studies strongly

suggest that the efficacy of phage therapeutics is not the limiting factor in making such

applications available. Non-medicinal phage applications for agricultural products at risk

for contamination with known bacterial pathogens is also a booming area of phage

research. For example, a recent study demonstrated the efficacy of a phage cocktail to

reduce *Salmonella enteritidis* contamination in smoked and raw salmon tissue

preparations (11). Intralytix, a biotechnology company, has also received FDA approval

for administration of ListShield™, EcoShield™ and SalmoFresh™ for treating ready-to-

eat food to prevent foodborne illness (http://www.intralytix.com/index.php?page=faq).

Bacteriophage are ubiquitous in the environment, and sewage wastewater is a

rich resource for isolating potentially therapeutic phage. For phage isolation we used a

sequential scheme beginning with a laboratory strain of *E. coli* with sewage overlays

(see Figure 1). We show that the lytic *PDX* phage lyses pathogenic strains of EPEC and

a clinical isolate of EAEC. Our results indicate that the presence of *PDX* phage did not

correlate with reduction of the alpha diversity of cultured normal human feces by 16S

analysis, further demonstrating potential for this phage as a therapeutic against

diarrheal disease.

RESULTS

Phage Isolation and Characterization. Phages were isolated from clear plaques on

LB agar that formed against *E. coli* host strains when overlaid with raw sewage.

Escherichia virus PDX was initially isolated against *E. coli* MC4100 because the altered

LPS in laboratory strains allows for phage recognition of more conserved, core antigens

(12). The phage stock prepared from these plaques were further purified using the

sequential host isolation technique adapted from Yu *et al*., 2016 (13). Sequential host

isolation with EPEC and EAEC was used to enrich the stock in phages capable of

infecting all desired hosts (Fig. 1A). Five rounds of purification were carried out after the

sequential host isolation procedure until uniform 1 mm, circular plaques were observed

when overlaid on the EAEC host, to ensure that the stock was purified with the desired

phage (Fig. 1B). The high titer lysates for *Escherichia virus PDX* had a titer of 8.92×10^{12}

PFU/mL when propagated on EAEC. As a negative control, the phage was unable to

lyse a strain of *Bacillus subtilis* (ATCC #6051). To test how broadly *PDX* recognized

EPEC pathogens we found that the phage could lyse 9 and form plaques on 5 out of 20

clinical, diarrheal isolates from children living in the Seattle area (Table 1; (14)). Thus,

the *PDX* phage could be used to target some, but not a comprehensive set, of *E. coli*

pathogens.

In order to obtain a presumptive identification of *PDX*, we employed transmission

electron microscopy (TEM). Imagining revealed the phage belonged to the family

Myoviridae, identified by their canonical morphology: a small-isometric non-enveloped

head with a long contractile tail (Fig. 2; (15)). The head diameter of *PDX* was 76.4 ±

4.34 nm and the tail length was 114.0 ± 2.26 nm (n = 13) (Figs. 2ABC). Based on

morphological features and metrics obtained using TEM, we putatively identified *PDX* to

be a member of the *Myoviridae* family that infect *E. coli* (Fig. 2D).

To characterize the phage life cycle, we performed a one-step growth curve of

Escherichia virus PDX, infecting both EPEC and EAEC (Fig. 3). *PDX* infecting EAEC

had a shorter eclipse period, the time before the phage begin emerging from the

bacteria, than those infecting EPEC. At the 40-minute time point PFU/mL values were

2.40×10^6 and 1.70×10^5 for EAEC and EPEC, respectively ($P < 0.03$). *PDX* infecting

EAEC had a modestly greater relative virus count (PFU/mL) 100 minutes post infection

compared to EPEC, maximum concentrations reaching 3.60×10^6 PFU/mL and 2.57×10^6

PFU/mL for EAEC and EPEC, respectively. However, this difference did not reach

statistical significance ($P < 0.06$). Though able to infect both EPEC and EAEC, we

concluded that the *PDX* life cycle varied slightly when replicating in these two *E. coli*

pathotypes.

***PDX* Kill *E. coli* in a Dose Dependent Manner Without Disrupting Normal**

Microbiota. The bacteriolytic activity of *PDX* against EPEC and EAEC was measured in

a time-kill assay revealing a dose-dependent inhibition of bacterial growth. At a

multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 100, *PDX* severely suppressed growth of EPEC and

EAEC (Fig. 4). Bacteria that were not treated with phage showed normal sigmoidal

growth curves that match the expected growth rates for their respective strains. A dose

dependent relationship between MOI and point of infection was observed: at greater

MOI, infection occurred earlier than for lower MOI (Fig. 4). In many phage treatments,

an increase in bacterial growth was observed around 8-10 hours of incubation. This is

likely due to the emergence of mutant bacteria that are resistant to phage infection and

has been observed in other, similar studies (16, 17).

155   The *in vitro* efficiency of *PDX* infection in the presence of commensal fecal

bacteria was tested by anaerobically culturing streptomycin-resistant derivatives of

EPEC and EAEC with feces and treating with *PDX*. EPEC or EAEC bacteria were

enumerated via colony counts of the culture after ten hours incubation and revealed that

PDX suppressed growth of pathogens when co-cultured with commensal fecal bacteria.

PDX significantly reduced the EPEC population, from 6.0×10^3 to 17 CFU/mL, and only

slightly reduced the population EAEC compared to cultures not treated with phage, from

5.2×10^3 to 3.2×10^3 CFU/mL. This is consistent with the results of the time-kill assays

(Fig. 4), which show that high doses of phage at MOI of 100 results in inhibition of

bacterial growth. It is unclear why the population of EAEC was not more reduced, as

was the case for EPEC, though a mutant could have arisen in the streptomycin-resistant

EAEC population that was no longer sensitive to phage infection (Fig. 4).

The impact of phage treatment on bacterial diversity of cultured human feces

was investigated using 16S metagenomic sequencing analysis of cultures containing

fecal bacteria treated with phage (Fig. 5A). Alpha diversity analysis, a metric to measure

the diversity to compare samples' relative diversity, was used to quantify the differences

between samples. Samples with *PDX* added to human feces were among the most

diverse and showed increased diversity compared to feces alone (Fig. 5B). Samples

treated with *PDX* and EPEC or EAEC had higher alpha diversities than samples treated

with only EPEC and EAEC. The relatively lower alpha diversity of fecal samples treated

with pathogens alone is consistent with the findings of the pathogen enumeration assay,

which confirmed the presence of populations of streptomycin-resistant EPEC and EAEC

in their respective cultures. While it would be expected that the culture containing only

feces might have the highest alpha diversity, our results do not show this, perhaps due

to sample variation. Nonetheless, we concluded that the presence of the *PDX* phage in

the fecal cultures did not reduce alpha diversity when compared to feces alone.

Genomic and Phylogenetic Characterization. Multiple genome analyses and

annotation software programs were used to characterize the *PDX* genome (Fig. 6). We

annotated the genome looking for closely related phage species and their relevance to

other phage therapy applications, as well as for markers that might indicate lysogenic

activity (Table 2). The genome of *PDX* is 138,828 bp dsDNA a midsized genome for the

Myoviridae family of viruses. The GC content is 43%, which is comparable to other lytic

phages (FastQC Galaxy). We identified 206 putative coding domain sequences (CDS)

(PROKKA, ORFfinder), but no toxin-encoding or lysogenic genes, which are

characterized as any genes which contained the terms "integrase", "excisionase",

"recombinase", and "repressor" were identified in the genome when compared to the

NCBI BLAST database. Additionally, in a 20-standard amino acid (aa) search, a total of

6 putative tRNAs were predicted with open reading frames (ORFs) ranging from 72-88

bp in length (tRNAscan-SE). Virfam software uses the translated amino acid (aa) of

CDS from a phage genome as input and searches for homology to other structural

phage protein sequences deposited in the Aclame database. Based on the results of

the Virfam analysis, the head-neck-tail structure genome organization in *PDX* belongs

to the Neck Type One – Cluster 7 category (Fig. 7A). Neck Type One phage genomes

contain the following proteins: portal protein, Adaptor of type 1 (Ad1), Head-closure of

type 1(Hc1), Neck protein of type 1(Ne1), and tail-completion of type 1 (Tc1) (Fig. 7B).

Cluster 7 phage genomes are reported in Virfam to be strictly myophages with small

genome sizes and gene content (61-150 genes). However, it is noteworthy that the

genome of PDX contains 206 CDS, which is more than the other phage in this cluster in

the current Aclame database (Table 2). Cluster 7 myophages all infect Proteobacteria.

Cluster 7 phage genomes are organized such that there is a different gene order

compared to the canonical order that is observed in most clusters of the type 1 family

(Fig. 7B).

By BLAST analysis, the three genomes with the highest whole-genome

nucleotide identity match were *Escherichia coli* O157 typing phage 4 (98%), *Escherichia*

Phage JES-2013 (98%), and *Escherichia* Phage Murica. Murica is a *Myoviridae* phage

that shares a 97% nucleotide identity with *PDX*, is strictly lytic against enterotoxigenic

(ETEC), and is being researched as a potential treatment of contaminated food in lieu of

antibiotics [18]. *E. coli* O157 typing phage 4 is lytic against *E. coli* O157, which also had

a 99% amino acid identity with the *PDX* tail fiber proteins [19]. Phage JES-2013 is lytic

against *Lactococcus lactis* [20]. The putative tail fiber sequences from *PDX* had a 99%

amino acid identity with *Myoviridae Escherichia* phage V18 (Table S1). V18 was in a

successful prophylactic phage cocktail used in the prevention of traveler's diarrhea in

mice infected with 6 bacterial strains: *E. coli, Shigella flexneri, Shigella sonnei,*

Salmonella enetica, Listeria monocytogenes or *Staphylococcus aureus,* and Lac (-) *E.*

coli K-12 C600 [21]. Additionally, V18 phage was cited as having a broad host range

against ETEC, EAEC, and enterohaemorrhagic *E. coli* (EHEC). Host range data was

unavailable for the Slur16 *Myoviridae* phage, which shared 99% identity with the

putative PDX tail fiber proteins. However, Slur16 was isolated from dairy cow feces

using *E. coli* K-12 MG1655 as a host, suggesting that this phage is lytic against

pathogenic *E. coli* strains [22]. Overall, the phage that had the highest percent identity

with *PDX* tail fiber amino acid sequences were all strictly lytic *Myoviridae* against

various *E. coli* strains.

DISCUSSION

EPEC and EAEC infections in humans are endemic to underdeveloped regions of the world and are commonly isolated from stool samples of diarrheal patients living in these countries ((1)). The rise in MDR strains of EPEC and EAEC demand an alternative treatment (3), and in this study we identified and characterized a bacteriophage, *PDX*, and investigated its potential as a therapeutic agent to treat EPEC and EAEC disease. Our findings revealed that *PDX* is a good candidate for phage therapy based on its efficiency and specificity in killing pathogenic *E. coli*. Furthermore, the presence of *PDX* did not correlate with reduced alpha diversity of the microbiota when cultured with normal human feces (Fig. 5B). This is in stark contrast to the up to 40% reduction in gut microbiome alpha diversity observed in patients given ciprofloxacin, a fluoroquinolone commonly prescribed for *E. coli* infections (23).

Phage are generally thought to be present in the same environment as their bacterial hosts. However, we isolated the *PDX* phage, able to infect two pathotypes, from the wastewater treatment plant located in Portland, Oregon even though infections by EPEC and EAEC bacteria are rare in the Pacific Northwest of the United States. The phage isolated might also replicate in related *E. coli* host bacteria via the recognition of conserved receptors. However, to the initial point, these pathogens may be more common in the Pacific Northwest than initially thought because *PDX* was able to form plaques on 5 of 20 EPEC strains, clinical samples from children living in the Seattle area (see Table 1; (14)).

In order for phage to be used as an efficacious therapeutic agent they must be strictly lytic. Lysogenic phage, such as phage lambda, transfer bacterial genetic material

from one population to another upon infection and integration into the host genome.

This can lead to the transfer of antibiotic resistance genes and toxin encoding genes

between bacterial hosts (24). Several lines of evidence indicate that *PDX* is a lytic

phage. *PDX* was classified as a member of the strictly lytic (25) *Myoviridae*

bacteriophage family based on morphological characteristics from TEM imaging (Fig. 2).

Bioinformatic analysis of the head-neck structure CDS in the Virfam suite identified *PDX*

as belonging to the Neck Type One – Cluster 7 comprised only of members of the

myophage family (Fig. 7). Neither CI nor CI-associated genes that are responsible for

lysogeny in phage lambda were identified in the genome of *PDX*. Lastly, phage

induction, by treatment with Mitomycin C, did not induce *PDX* plaques in mutant

derivatives of EPEC and EAEC resistant to *PDX* infection (data not shown). Thus, we

concluded that the *PDX* phage was a member of the *Myoviridae* family having a strictly

lytic lifestyle.

The *PDX* genome is a midsized with 138,828 bp, compared to the 11,000 to

271,000 bp range found within the 547 complete *Myoviridae* genomes currently in the

NCBI database. Additionally, it is noteworthy that *PDX* has a higher putative CDS count

than any of the other members of Cluster 7 category in the Virfam and Aclame

databases.

One of the dangerous side effects of antibiotics is the drastic disruption of the

microbiome, or dysbiosis, due to the conserved nature of the drug targets. The

metagenomic analysis of fecal cultures treated with phage suggested that *PDX*

treatment did not significantly alter the community structure of the commensal

microbiome in feces cultured with *PDX*, in contrast to what occurs with antibiotic

treatment. We did observe, however, that the relative abundance of bacteria in the

Enterbacteriaceae family was reduced when comparing the feces and feces + *PDX*

samples in Figure 5. This suggested that some commensal bacteria belonging to this

family were targeted by *PDX*. Even so, bacteria in this family make up a small fraction of

human gut microbiomes, in most cases less than 1% of the population, and the overall

impact on the microbiota from treatment with *PDX* is predicted to be minimal. Phage

with a limited host range avoid the consequences of non-specific microbiome disruption,

and thus offer an alternative to antibiotic treatment against MDR, or even antibiotic

sensitive, EPEC and EAEC infections.

Future studies should investigate the efficacy of this phage, both in isolation and

in combination with other phage (a phage cocktail), in attenuating bacterial infections.

Though certainly not exhaustive, we did observe that *PDX* could form plaques,

indicating replication, in 5 out of 20 clinical isolates of EPEC from Northwest children

(Table 1). The use of phage cocktails would then allow for the broadening of serotypes

and pathotypes that can be targeted by phage therapy. Further, an *in vivo* approach

could utilize mice whose microbiomes have been "humanized", inoculating subjects with

phage susceptible bacteria and then treating subjects with varying titers and at different

times points post bacterial infection. Results would include monitoring virulence and

bacterial burdens. Notably, a recent study by Hodyra-Stefaniak and colleagues revealed

that the most important factors that determine the efficacy of a phage therapeutic agent

are: stage of bacterial pathogenesis, the bacterial population size at the time of

administration, the titer used, and the administration method (26). Just recently it was

announced that UC San Diego will launch The Center for Innovative Phage Applications

and Therapeutics (IPATH) to refine treatments and to bring them to market

(http://www.sciencemag.org/news/2018/06/can-bacteria-slaying-viruses-defeat-

antibiotic-resistant-infections-new-us-clinical). They hope to generate libraries of phages

and use cocktails for individual patients to treat MDR infections in order to meet FDA

approval challenges. Thus, our efforts and those of other researchers will be essential

for isolating therapeutic phages to be used against the increasing number of untreatable

bacterial infections.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bacterial Strains and Growth Conditions. Bacterial strains are listed in Table 1. All strains were grown in Lysogeny Broth (LB) at 37°C with shaking at 225 RPM or on LB agar at 37°C. All phage lysates were stored in SM gel buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl [pH 7.5], 0.1 M NaCl, 8 mM MgSO$_4$, 0.01% gelatin) at 4 °C, and warmed to room temperature for all experiments unless otherwise stated.

Phage Isolation and Propagation. Bacteriophage *PDX* was initially isolated from untreated (influent) sewage collected at the Portland Wastewater Treatment Plant on October 1, 2015. The raw sewage was filtered through a 0.2 µm filter (Corning, Corning NY) to remove bacteria. The filtered sewage was then added to host bacteria in liquid culture (Fig. 1A). Phage-host solutions were combined with 0.5% LB soft agar and overlaid on LB agar plates. Plates were then observed for the presence of plaques after overnight growth at 37°C. Clear, defined plaques of interest were isolated and transferred using a sterilized inoculating needle and agitation in 1 mL solution of lambda diluent (10mM Tris, pH 7.5; 10 mM MgSO$_4$). To obtain a high titer phage preparation, a crude lysate was generated. A clear *PDX* plaque was isolated and suspended in 1 mL of sterile lambda diluent. The phage suspension was combined with overnight culture of the bacterial host and incubated at 37°C with shaking at 225 RPM overnight. Next, chloroform was added to kill any remaining bacteria. This solution was centrifuged at 4°C at 4000 x g for 10 minutes to remove bacterial cells. Finally, the supernatant was recovered and treated with chloroform again to kill any remaining bacterial cells.

Several rounds of overlay purification were used to ensure lysate purity after sequential host isolation. From the final overlay of phage sequentially isolated from

MC4100, EPEC, and EAEC, five rounds of purification were carried out (Fig. 1B).

Several clearly defined plaques from the final overlay plate were picked using a sterile

inoculating needle and suspended in microcentrifuge tubes containing SM buffer. The

phage suspension was incubated at room temperature for 15 minutes to allow the

phage to diffuse through the medium, then filtered through a sterile 0.2-μm filter to

remove any bacteria that may have been transferred from the overlay plate. A host

susceptibility assay was performed as described below to test the ability of each

selected plaque to lyse MC4100, EPEC, and EAEC. This process was performed four

more times until uniform plaques were observed indicating pure phage suspension.

The final phage suspension was then propagated to make a purified high titer

lysate. Exponential EAEC with undiluted phage suspension was incubated in LB

overnight at 37°C. Bacteria were removed from the culture by centrifugation at 6,055 x

g, then the supernatant was sterile filtered with a 0.2 μm filter. The titer of the lysate was

determined by plating dilutions (10^{-2}-10^{-16}) using the EAEC overlay procedure described

previously. After overnight incubation, the plates were observed and the number of

plaque forming units per mL (PFU/mL) was calculated. The purified high titer lysate in

SM buffer was stored at 4°C.

Electron Microscopy. *PDX* was analyzed using transmission electron microscopy

(TEM). Purified high titer lysate was precipitated in 25% PEG 6000-8000 in 2.5M NaCl

and stored overnight at 4°C. Precipitated phage solutions were centrifuged at 4°C, 4000

x g for 10 minutes. The supernatant was removed and the phage pellet was suspended

in 40μL of 50 mM Tris, pH 7.4, 10 mM $MgSO_4$. Phage suspension was placed on

copper coated formvar grids and negatively stained with 1% uranyl acetate. Samples

were examined under a FEI Tecnai™ Spirit TEM system at an operating voltage of 120

kV (FEI, Hillsboro, OR). All transmission electron microscopy was performed at the

Multi-Scale Microscopy Core (MMC) with technical support from the Oregon Health &

Science University (OHSU)-FEI Living Lab and the OHSU Center for Spatial Systems

Biomedicine (OCSSB).

Host Susceptibility Assay. A host susceptibility assay, or spot test was utilized to

determine the host range of *PDX* (Table 1). Each LB agar plate was streaked with 3-4

spatially separated bacterial strains using a sterilized inoculating loop. A small volume

of purified lysate was pipetted on top of the center of each linear bacterial streak and

incubated overnight at 37°C. Host susceptibility was indicated by a clearing within the

streak of a given bacterial strain.

Growth Curves. To determine the growth kinetics of *PDX*, one-step growth curve

experiments were performed. LB liquid cultures of *E. coli* were grown to an OD600 of

0.6-0.7, when the cultures had reached mid to late exponential phase. Next, the

indicated purified phage lysate was added to the liquid culture tubes to infect the

bacteria with a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 0.01. The liquid bacterial culture and

phage lysate were incubated at room temperature for 10 minutes. Following the

incubation period, the solution was centrifuged at 8,000 x g for 10 minutes. The

supernatant was discarded and the pellet was re-suspended in LB to make the

absorption mixture. Immediately after re-suspension the absorption mixture was serially

diluted and plated with the bacterial host. The phage was incubated within a standard

plaque-overlay. This procedure was repeated at 20-minute time intervals for a total of

120 minutes. After 24 hours of incubation, the plaques on all the plates were recorded

and the PFU/mL was calculated. The titer over time (120 minutes) was plotted to obtain

a one-step growth curve. This experiment was repeated using EPEC and EAEC strains.

Time-Kill Assays. Bacterial density was measured over time to determine the course of

phage infection. Liquid cultures of EPEC and EAEC were incubated with *PDX*. The *in*

vitro lytic efficiency of the phage was examined at several MOIs. Wells of a flat-

bottomed 96-well microtiter plate were filled with 100 μl of inoculated double-strength LB

and 100 μL of purified lysate dilutions in SM buffer. Bacterial cultures were grown to late

exponential phase and diluted to 10^6 CFU/mL. *PDX* lysate was diluted to 10^5, 10^6, 10^7

or 10^8 PFU/mL, corresponding to MOIs of 0.1, 1, 10, and 100, respectively. Each

phage-host combination at specific MOIs was performed in triplicate wells, and each

experiment was performed three times. Controls for plate sterility, phage suspension

sterility, and bacterial growth without phage addition were also included. To prevent

between-well contamination by aerosolizing of bacteria, an adhesive transparent plate

cover was placed over the top of the plate. The plates were incubated at 37°C with

orbital shaking for 12 hours and OD at 600 nm was measured using a Microtiter Plate

Reader (Sunrise, Tecan Group Ltd., Austria) at 30-minute intervals.

Anaerobic Culture. Feces were collected from a 23-year-old male in Portland, Oregon

who had not taken antibiotics in the last 5 years. One gram of fresh feces was

suspended in sterile saline solution by vortexing and vigorous shaking. The fecal

suspension was then filtered through a sterile 1-mm mesh sieve twice to remove large

pieces of organic matter. The filtered fecal suspension was then concentrated by

centrifugation at 1500 x g for five minutes. The resulting fecal pellet was resuspended in

saline solution with 10% glycerol for a final concentration of 0.5g fresh feces/mL. Fecal

slurry was stored at -80°C.

Streptomycin-resistant (str^R) EPEC and EAEC were grown anaerobically under

100% CO_2 with fecal slurry and *PDX* using the Hungate method in M10 medium,

designed to mimic the nutrient, mineral, and pH content of the intestine [27]. Cultures

were inoculated to final concentrations of 0.7 mg/mL feces, 1.4 x 10^6 CFU/mL *E. coli,*

and 1.4x10^8 PFU/mL phage treatments. Cultures were incubated for 16 hours in a

stationary incubator at 37°C. DNA from these cultures was isolated for 16s rDNA

sequencing analysis after 16 hours of incubation.

Immediately prior to DNA extraction, a sample from each culture was plated to

enumerate the concentrations of str^R EPEC and EAEC in the anaerobic cultures. EPEC

and EAEC were distinguished from fecal bacteria by plating the culture on selective

media containing streptomycin. As a control, fecal samples were plated on LB agar with

streptomycin, and no growth was observed (data not shown). Dilutions from 10^{-1}-10^{-5}

were performed in a 96-well plate in sterile LB, then plated in triplicate 10-µL drops of

each concentration on LB-agar containing 100-µg/mL streptomycin. Plates were

incubated for 20 hours at room temperature and colonies were counted using a

dissection microscope.

For DNA isolation, bacteria were pelleted by centrifugation at 5000 x g for 10

minutes. The pellets were washed with phosphate buffer solution to separate whole

cells from lysed cell debris, then spun down at 5000 x g for 5 minutes. DNA from

Hungate cultures was extracted using a DNeasy Blood and Tissue kit (Qiagen,

Germantown, MD), with the protocol adapted according to manufacturer instructions for

bacteria.

16S Metagenomic Sequencing and Analysis. Genomic DNA was sent to the Oregon

State University Center for Genome Research and Biocomputing for multiplex

sequencing analysis using the Illumina MiSeq sequencing platform. The V3-V4 region of

the 16S rRNA gene was amplified and used to prepare a dual index library using the

Nextera XT library preparation kit. The analysis produced forward and reverse paired

end reads of 150 bp at a sequencing depth of 1 million reads. Sequence quality was

quantified using FastQC and demultiplexed.

Phage Genome Sequencing and Bioinformatics. To initiate genomic sequencing, a

high titer lysate was purified using CsCl gradients. Genomic phage dsDNA was

extracted using an Epicentre DNA Isolation kit according to manufacturer's instructions

(Madison, WI). The quantity, quality, and concentration of the extracted DNA was

analyzed utilizing a high-sensitivity assay of dsDNA with a Qubit 2.0 (Invitrogen, Grand

Island, NY). All library preparation and Illumina sequencing performed at MGH Genome

Core (Cambridge, MA). A diagram illustrating work flow for genomic analysis is

presented in Figure 6. Upon receiving the genomic sequences in FASTQ format, we

used the Galaxy platform to perform quality control and filtering processes on the raw

reads (28–30). The Trimmomatic Galaxy (v. 0.32.3) software was used to recognize the

distinct adaptors to distinguish and gather all the reads for one phage separately from

the other (31). The quality of the reads was analyzed with FastQC (v. 0.11.4) suite with

default settings. The quality of the assembly was assessed using Quality Assessment

Tool for genome assemblies (QUAST, v. 2.3), as it reports relevant assembly quality

metrics (32). Following assembly, we used NCBI BLAST, tRNAscan-SE, FastQC

Galaxy, and Virfam to annotate the functional regions of the genome assembly. The

putative coding sequences (CDS) were filtered for only those with known protein

functions produced by NCBI smart BLAST with identity above 95%.

Genes of interest in the genome annotations were compared to other similar

sequences in the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) database using

the Basic Local Alignment Search Tool (BLAST; v. 2.3.1) suite, specifically using the

blastp and tblastn tools with default settings (21, 33). The genome assemblies were

deposited in the GenBank database. All phylogenetic analyses were performed using

Virfam webserver, which performs homology searches against phage sequences

available in the Aclame database (34, 35).

Accession number. The genomic sequence of the *Escherichia virus PDX* was

deposited in GenBank under accession number MG963916.

 Figure Legends

Figure 1. Propagation and purification of polyvalent bacteriophages. (A) Phage stock

was introduced to liquid culture of hosts, MC4100, EPEC LRT9, and lastly EAEC strain

EN1E-0227, then enriched phages were collected. (B) For purification of polyvalent

bacteriophages one well-differentiated plaque from the propagation step was diffused in

SM buffer and isolated with multiple rounds of overlay plate assays using EAEC strain

EN1E-0227 as host until all plaques were morphologically uniform.

Figure 2. Transmission electron micrographs of bacteriophage *Eshericshia virus PDX*.

Samples were negatively stained with 1% uranyl acetate solution, prepared on a carbon

formvar grid, and were imaged at 120 kV on a FEI Tecan-i Spirit TEM system. The

arrow in (A) indicates the base plate. The arrows in (B) identify three putative tail fibers.

The image in (C) illustrates the small isometric, non-enveloped head with long

contractile tail, specific to the family *Myoviridae*. (D) illustrates *PDX* infecting EAEC, with

contractile tail, indicated by arrow, penetrating the outer membrane and periplasmic

space. Scale bars are as indicated.

Figure 3. One-step growth curve analysis of EAEC (A) and EPEC (B) infected by *PDX*

with an MOI of 0.01 for 120 minutes. Over the 120-minute infection period, bacterial

cultures were sampled, serially diluted and plated with a plaque-overlay procedure (see

Materials and Methods). After 24-hour incubation, the plaques were counted and the

titer (PFU/mL) was determined. Error bars represent the standard error of the mean. By

comparing the PFU/mL values at 40 min, the eclipse period was shorter for EAEC than

for EPEC when infected with *PDX* ($P < 0.04$).

Figure 4. Time-kill assay of EAEC (A) and EPEC (B) treated with *PDX*. In a 96-well

plate, exponential culture was inoculated with dilutions of *PDX* high titer lysate for MOI

(multiplicity of infection) ranging from 0.1, 1, 10 and 100. The plates were incubated at

37°C with orbital shaking for 12 hours and OD of 600 nm was measured using a

Microtiter Plate Reader (Tecan). Assays were performed in triplicate. Representative

data are presented.

Figure 5. Effect of phage treatment on bacterial community in human feces. (A)

Summary of taxa classified at the family level for fecal cultures with EPEC, EAEC and

PDX. The plot was generated based on OTU frequencies for each sample. OTUs were

assigned using a closed reference algorithm based on alignment of high throughput 16S

rDNA sequencing reads to reference genes in the Greengenes database. (B) Alpha

diversity of bacterial populations found in samples treated with feces, *PDX* and EPEC or

EAEC. Alpha diversity was calculated using the Choa1 algorithm in Qiita, which uses

the abundance of OTUs and number of different OTUs to determine a number

representing the samples relative diversity.

Figure 6. Bioinformatics workflow for the assembly, annotation and phylogeny of the

PDX genome. (A) Steps of the genome raw read processing. Names of programs used

appear in parenthesis; (B) Steps of the genome assembly; (C) Annotation of the

genome; (D) Genome assembly and annotation output; and (E) Phylogeny construction

using the Virfam program based on Aclame database.

*Only sequences with putative identity match of 95% were maintained for further

analysis.

Figure 7. Structural Protein Classification Analysis of *PDX*. (A) Tree representation of

PDX (black text in white box, lined red) classification among other *Caudovirales* phage,

constructed from a hierarchical agglomerative clustering procedure applied to a matrix

of similarity scores between pairs of phages (by combining HHsearch probabilities with

the percentage identity) and present in the Aclame database. The different branches of

the tree were sorted into 10 Clusters and are highlighted by different background colors.

The bacterial host(s) of the phages are listed for each Cluster in the legend at the

bottom of the figure. (B) Gene organization of *PDX* and other phage genomes that

belong to the Neck One – Cluster 7. The legend at the bottom indicates to which family

a protein belongs. (-) indicates the antisense DNA strand.

Table 1. *Escherichia coli* strains used in this study.

Strain	Genotype/ Serotype	Syndrome[1]	Spot Test Result[2]	Plaque Formation[3]	Source
EN1E-0227	EAEC O86:H27	D	+	+	(36)
LRT9	EPEC O11:abH2	U	+	+	(37)
MC4100	*F- araD139 Δ(argF- lac) U169 rpsL 150* StrR *relA1 flhD5301 deoC1 ptsF25 rbsR*	U	+	+	(38)
TB85A	0131:HN	CD	+	-	(14)
TB96A	075:HN	BD	+	+	(14)
TB135A	0128:H2	CD	-	-	(14)
TB156A	O55:H7	CD	-	-	(14)
TB171A	O125:H6	D, V	+	+	(14)
TB182A	O55:H7	CD	-	-	(14)
TB183A	O127:H40	D	-	-	(14)
TB204A	O96:HN	D, V, F	+	+	(14)
TB206A	O26:HN	BD	-	-	(14)
TB209E	O15:HN	CD	-	-	(14)
TB216A	O118:H8	D	-	-	(14)
TB220B	O153:HN	CD	+	+	(14)
TB227A	O8:H41	CD	-	-	(14)
TB269C	O145:HN	D, F	+	-	(14)
TB280A	O66:HN	CD	-	-	(14)

TB309A	O127:H2	CD	+	-	(14)
TB320A	ON:HN	BD, V	-	-	(14)
TB342C	O115:NM	CD	+	-	(14)
TB353E	ON:HN	CD	+	+	(14)
TB425B	ON:HN	CD	-	-	(14)

521 [1]*Key:* BD, bloody diarrhea; CD, chronic diarrhea; D, acute diarrhea; F, fever; U, details
522 unknown; V, vomiting.
523 [2]A plus sign indicates strain is killed by *Escherichia virus PDX.*
524 [3]A plus sign indicates *PDX* replicates (can form plaques on) the strain.

526 **Table 2.** Genomic analysis of *PDX*

Feature	Quantity
Size (bp)	138,828
GC content (%)	43
Coding domain sequences (CDS)	206
tRNAs	6

528 **Table S1.** NCBI BLAST results of bacteriophage with the highest whole genome
529 nucleotide percent identity to PDX.

	% Identity with PDX Genome[b]	E-Value[c]	Total Score[d] (max score 255600)	Accession Number
Escherichia Phage Murica	97%	0.0	40234	AKU44119.1
Escherichia coli O157 typing phage 4	98%	0.0	52649	AKE45376.1

Escherichia Phage JES-2013	98%	0.0	52649	YP_008530272.1

a: Default BLAST parameters used, with standard 20-amino acid search. *b*: With default
parameters, % identity is calculated by subtracting the number of bases and spacers from a
perfect identity match. *c:* Statistical test determining the probability that the significance of
alignment was due purely to chance. *d:* Under default settings, the BLOSUM62 scoring matrix
was used which subtracts 11 points for the existence of a gap with a 1-point deduction for each
gap extension made.

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A

Phage Stock

Phage stock is
incubated with
MC4100

Enriched phages
are isolated

Enriched phages
are incubated
with EPEC

Enriched phages
are isolated

Enriched phages
are incubated
with EAEC

Enriched phages are isolated
using a soft agar overlay assay

B

Single plaque isolated and diffused in buffer

Plaque is isolated further
using a soft agar overlay
assay with EAEC

x5

Purified phage stock
suspended in buffer

Lysate titer determined using
soft agar overlay assay with EAEC

o__Bifidobacteriales;f__Bifidobacteriaceae
o__Enterobacteriales;f__Enterobacteriaceae
o__Clostridiales;f__Ruminococcaceae
o__Clostridiales;f__Peptostreptococcaceae
o__Clostridiales;f__Lachnospiraceae
o__Clostridiales;f__Clostridiaceae
o__Clostridiales;f__
o__Lactobacillales;f__Streptococcaceae
o__Bacteroidales;f__Bacteroidaceae

Feces   Feces+PDX1   Feces+EPEC   Feces+EAEC   Feces+EPEC+PDX1   Feces+EAEC+PDX1

A

B

Felix 01 [Salmonella]

B054 [Listeria monocytogenes]

Aaphi23 [Acti. actinomycetemcomitans]

OP2 [Xanthomonas oryzae] (-)

Bcep781 [Burkholderia cepacia] (-)

Bcep43 [Burkholderia cepacia] (-)

Bcep1 [Burkholderia cenocepacia] (-)

BcepNY3 [Burkholderia cenocepacia] (-)

BcepB1A [Burkholderia cenocepacia] (-)

BcepF1 [Burkholderia ambifaria] (-)

F8 [Pseudomonas aeruginosa]

PDX [Escherichia coli]

Protein Superfamily — Major Capsid Protein | Portal | Terminase | Adaptor | Head closure | Tail completion | Neck | Major Tail Protein | Sheath

1	Firmicutes (all)
2	Firmicutes (all)
3	β+γ proteobacteria (all)
4	Actinobacteria (but one)
5	β+γ proteobacteria (but two)
6	β+γ proteobacteria (all)
7	β+γ proteobacteria (all)
8	β+γ proteobacteria (all)
9	β+γ proteobacteria (all)
10	Actinobacteria/Firmicutes