

TRIPARTITE INTERACTIONS BETWEEN BACTERIOPHAGES AND THEIR BACTERIAL AND MAMMALIAN HOSTS

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SUMMARY

Bacteriophages are obligate bacterial viruses capable of infecting and replicating only within their bacterial hosts. Yet this classical definition is limiting when we begin to consider bacteriophages within the broader context of their mammalian or eukaryotic hosts. Within this tripartite context bacteriophages may directly interact and influence their bacterial hosts, but they can further bind, enter, and stimulate the mammalian host directly. These interactions are largely unexplored and there exists an enormous potential for discovery of diver mechanisms, feedback loops, and symbioses within these tripartite contexts.

LINEAR RELATIONSHIPS

Picking up any undergraduate microbiology textbook you will find the definition of a ‘bacteriophage’ something akin to “*a virus capable of infecting and replicating only within bacterial cells*”. This description applies when considering the diverse array of interactions that bacteriophages (or simply phages for short) can have with their bacterial hosts. These interactions span the diversity of symbioses including strictly parasitic through to mutualism. While this definition is technically correct, it is limiting when considering bacteriophages in a broader context of tripartite symbioses. In these tripartite systems bacteriophages may indeed directly interact with their bacterial hosts, but they also interact with their mammalian or eukaryotic host through a diverse range of mechanisms (Figure 1). These interactions can include direction binding to eukaryotic cells, in a fashion similar to their bacterial host, yet without the injection of their

genetic material (Lehti et al., 2017). This was demonstrated by Lehti et al. showing that an *Escherichia coli* infecting bacteriophage that recognised a polysialic acid residue on its bacterial host could also target and bind the same residue on a eukaryotic neuroblastoma cell, triggering receptor mediated endocytosis and internalisation. Phages can also non-specifically adsorb or adhere to eukaryotic cell layers or their secretions (i.e. mucins) and be subsequently internalised through non-specific micropinocytosis events (Barr et al., 2013; Bichet et al., 2021a; Nguyen et al., 2017). Binding or directly adhering to cellular mucins may further elicit intracellular responses (Barr, 2017). This was demonstrated by Bloch et al. who characterised the interactions between phages and malignant tumour cells, showing that phages bound externally displayed mucins and inhibited the growth of these tumours (Bloch, 1940). Decades later, Dabrowska et al.

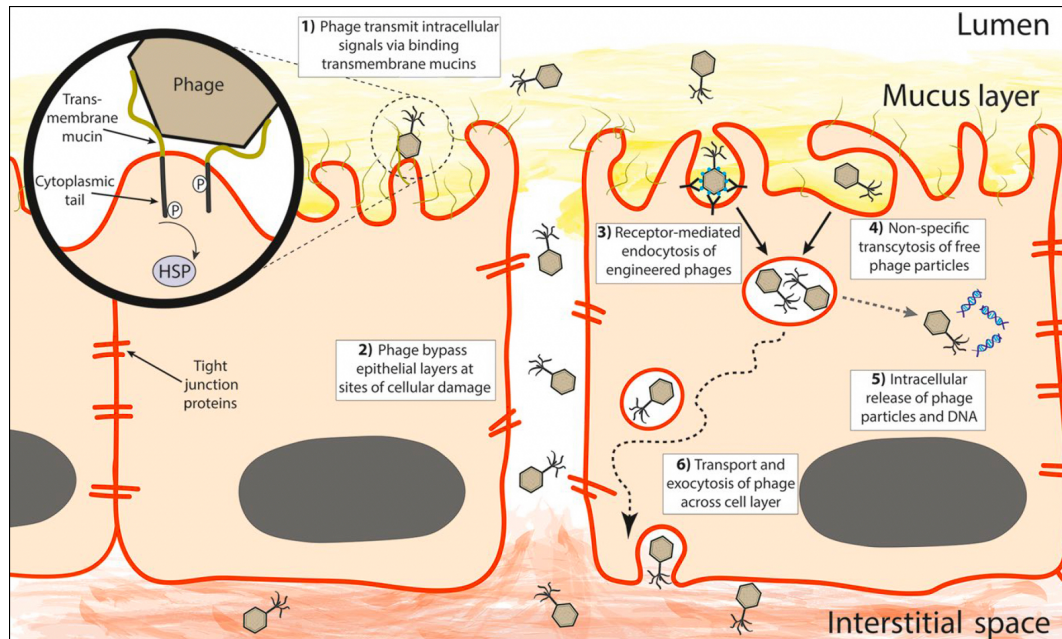


Figure 1: Bacteriophage interaction with the mammalian cell layer depicting the broad mechanism that phages can interact and stimulate the mammalian host directly. (Taken from Barr, 2017).

tested this observation, showing that T4 phages bound the membranes of cancer cells, attenuating tumour growth (Dabrowska et al., 2004a,b). Further, phages may indirectly stimulate or inhibit mammalian host cells and tissues through the production of auxiliary metabolic compounds encoded within their genomes and produced during either lytic or lysogenic infections of their bacterial hosts (Sanchez et al., 2015; Thompson et al., 2011). Indeed,

the diversity of auxiliary metabolic genes that phages encode is highly diverse, with the production of these compounds having potentially varied effects. As such, it is important that we consider bacteriophages as not only ‘viruses capable of infecting bacterial cells’ but also as diverse biological agents capable of interacting with and influencing their broader mammalian hosts.

TRIPARTITE SYMBIOSES

Here I will discuss the concept of tripartite symbioses whereby bacteriophages can both directly and indirectly interact with their bacterial and mammalian hosts. This description is set in place of the previously described linear model, where bacteriophages were limited to only direct interactions with their bacterial hosts and indirect

interactions with the mammalian host. Utilising this new tripartite model allows us to consider much broader affects those bacteriophages can have on larger symbiotic systems.

Taking the naturally-occurring phage populations residing within the human body we can consider the diversity of mechanisms by which they may

interact with both bacterial and mammalian hosts. In most cases, the mucosal surface is the first point of contact between the mammalian cell layer and phage populations that naturally reside within and upon it. Once there, bacteriophages can adhere to the mucosal surface (*Barr et al.*, 2013; 2015). By adhering, bacteriophages can find and infect the resident bacterial community with greater ease. Once past the mucosa, phages can directly access the cell surface and interact with the underlying cellular epithelium. It has been demonstrated that phages are even capable of crossing this epithelial cell barrier in the gut and gain direct access to the bloodstream (*Górski et al.*, 2006; *Nguyen et al.*, 2017). This non-specific transcytosis mechanism has been proposed to facilitate 31 billion bacteriophage transcytosis events across the human gut epithelial barrier every day (*Nguyen et al.*, 2017). Once within the circulatory system these ‘intra-body phages’ are able to gain access to all cells, organs and systems of the body (*Barr*, 2017). In fact it has been shown that some of these phages are even capable of crossing the blood-brain barrier – the most stringent biological barrier within the human body that even some small molecules and drugs fail to cross (*Geier et al.*, 1973).

This tripartite model of bacteriophage-bacterial-mammalian interactions has led to a wave of research that has highlighted the diverse and surprising ways that bacteriophages can interact with and influence mammalian cells and those of other higher vertebrates. Bacteriophages have been demonstrated to bind cellular receptors on the apical surface of epithelial cell layers, leading to the activation of signal transduction pathways and other cellular functions (*Lehti et al.*, 2017; *Singh and Hollingsworth*, 2006). These bacteriophage-cellular binding effects have been associated with increased mucus production, activation of anti-inflammatory responses, and even the aforementioned attenuation of tumour growth (*Dabrowska et al.*, 2004; *Van Belleghem et al.*, 2017). Further evidence suggests that phages are endocytosed by epithelial cells and trafficked throughout the endo-membrane system (*Lehti et al.*, 2017; *Nguyen et al.*, 2017). Once internalised, phages are encaged within membrane-bound vesicles. Once here, phage proteins and/or nucleic acids may be recognised by either cytosolic or endosomal membrane-bound receptors, triggering a broad host of cellular responses. But from where do these phages originate, and how can they build upon these tripartite models?

THE INTRA-BODY PHAGEOME

In a previous review article, I introduced and discussed the role of the ‘intra-body phageome’ (*Barr*, 2017). This phageome is proposed to originate from the highly diverse, expansive, and naturally occurring bacteriophage populations that are resident within the human gut. The gut microbiome plays an essential role in modulating our overall health and disease (*Scarpellini et al.*, 2015). While the bacterial component of the gut microbiome has

received considerable attention, comparatively little research and understanding has been provided to the gut viruses. Consisting overwhelmingly of bacteriophages, the gut virome is noted to contribute increasingly important roles in our overall health and well-being (*Clooney et al.*, 2019; *Gregory et al.*, 2020; *Liang et al.*, 2020; *Sutton and Hill*, 2019). Gut bacteriophages can directly predate upon and regulate gut bacterial populations. Further, gut

phages can indirectly influence gut bacterial populations through the opening of niche space, release of diverse metabolites, and in-direct modulation of inter-bacterial species competition (Hsu et al., 2019). There have been a number of studies investigating the role of gut bacteriophages in states of dysbiosis. As such it has been found that specific bacteriophage populations have been correlated with a range of inflammatory bowel diseases, such as Crohn's and Ulcerative Colitis (Norman et al., 2015; Clooney et al., 2019). Conversely, gut bacteriophages have also been linked with a number of beneficial implications, including a reported increase in cognitive function through the modulation of bacterial populations and the secretion of key neuro-transmitters in the gut, which were found to affect short-term memory in flies and mice, while correlations were seen within human cohorts (Maynertis-Percaxhs et al., 2022). As such, there is a growing body of evidence suggesting the potential health and disease benefits of these gut bacteriophages.

Importantly, these resident gut bacteriophage populations with their potential health and immune-modulatory affects are also the source for the 'intra-body phageome'. Here, gut bacteriophage populations interact with the epithelial cell layers of the large intestine and subsequently are internalised by non-specific macropinocytosis mechanisms (Bichet et al., 2021b; Nguyen et al., 2017). This was proposed to facilitate over 31 billion phage uptake and transcytosis events within an adult human every single day (Nguyen et al., 2017). Thus, there exists a large potential for resident gut bacteriophages to be continually internalised and trafficked into the 'classically-sterile' regions of the body. This allows for a low-level, constituent resident collection of naturally occurring gut bacteriophages that are interacting with the broader mammalian host cells, organs and systems. This broader tripartite system has incredible potential to modulate the mammalian host in diverse and largely as yet undiscovered ways.

PHAGE UPTAKE, DELIVERY AND ACTIVATION OF THE MAMMALIAN SYSTEM

The broader question when considering tripartite symbioses is 'why do bacteriophages interact with mammalian cells' and 'what potential response could they be mediating?' (Or, if you're proclivity is mammalian-centric, 'why do mammalian cells internalise bacteriophages and for what purpose?'). The answer to this question could be surprising, diverse, and unexpected. In fact, these interactions and their derivative effects may be so unexpected that it would be foolish to predict these entirely. Instead, we should look to the diversity of interac-

tions that the gut bacteria mediate and the process towards their discoveries. Here I will explore two potential mechanisms that bacteriophages can and may directly influence the mammalian host.

The first is through the triggering of pattern recognition receptors (PRRs). As bacteriophages contain either RNA or DNA genomes as part of their life cycle, the nucleic acid sensing of the mammalian cell could be triggered. Once bacteriophage particles are internalised by mammalian cells there exist two main mechanisms through which

their genomes could trigger PRRs (*Tan et al., 2018*). The first is through TLR9 receptors positioned within the endosomal structures. It has been shown that bacteriophage particles are endocytosed and trafficked through the endomembrane system (*Bichet, et al., 2021a; Nguyen et al., 2017*). If bacteriophage capsids are damaged or tail fiber structures triggered, then their genomic material could be exposed within the endosomes and lead to the activation of TLR9, whose downstream activation can stimulate Type I IFN response (*Sweere et al., 2019; Van Bellegheem et al., 2019*). Alternatively, if bacteriophage particles or their genomes escape these endomembrane vesicles, they may gain access to the mammalian cytosol. There the major innate immune sensor for nucleic acids is the cGAS/STING (cyclic GMP-AMO synthase/stimulator of interferon genes) pathway (*Tan et al., 2018*). When dsDNA fragments are detected by cGAS, a molecule of cGAMP will be produced and sent to the STING complex to activate the production of

cytokines like INF (*Blasius and Beutler, 2010*). These two pathways lead to signalling cascades that culminate in the production of inflammatory cytokines, leading to the induction of an antimicrobial state, activation of adaptive immunity, and eventual clearance of the triggering pathogen.

The second potential mechanism that bacteriophages could influence the mammalian cell is through direct protein-to-protein interactions. This could be initiated through bacteriophage capsid interactions with G-protein coupled receptors at the cell membrane (*Bosch et al., 2009*). Once activated these could lead to protein phosphorylation cascade within the cell that may activate a diverse array of mechanistic responses and modulation of cellular function (*Carraway et al., 2003; Lillehoj et al., 2004*). Mechanistically these two responses are diverse in both their activation and downstream signal cascades. Further experimental validation of if and how bacteriophages may interact with mammalian cells and the responses they induce are needed.

HYPOTHETICAL GENE POTENTIAL

A final hypothetical alternative for bacteriophage uptake and internalisation by mammalian cells is the potential for gene delivery and transduction. Once internalised, there exists the possibility for bacteriophages to deliver their genetic material into the mammalian cell allowing for the transcription and translation of virally encoded DNA by the eukaryotic cellular machinery – a process more broadly known as ‘transduction’ (*Merril, 1974; Tao et al., 2013*).

Bacteriophages have indeed been used as viral gene delivery vectors and nano-carriers, primarily due to their ease of use, capacity for nucleic acid packaging and their relative safety in

humans (*Karimi et al., 2016*). To accomplish this, a process known as ‘phage-display’ is used for the targeted delivery of phage-carried nucleic acids and proteins to specific mammalian cells (*Ivanenkov and Menon, 2000; Pranjol and Hajitou, 2015*). In this process bacteriophages are engineered to display ligands on their capsids that are complementary to mammalian cell surface integrins. Phage-displayed ligands then bind to these integrins and trigger receptor-mediated endocytosis of the bacteriophage particle on contact with the mammalian cell. These bacteriophage capsids can be recombinantly packaged with DNA, RNA, or proteins for the targeted delivery of genes and

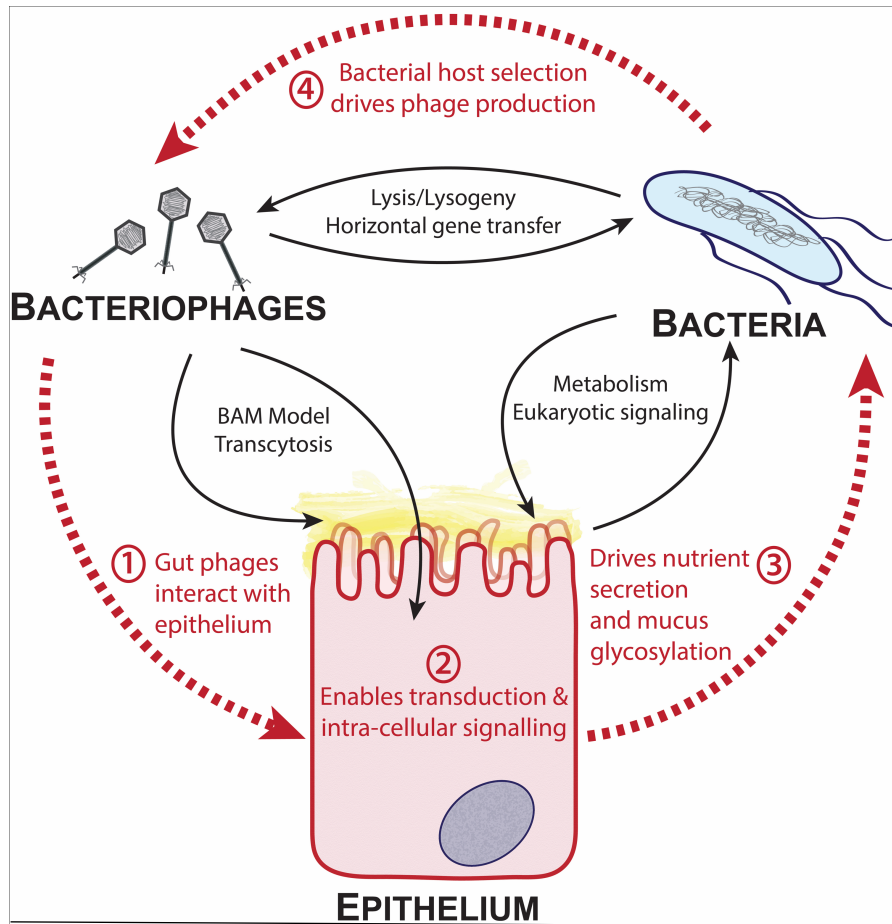


Figure 2: Model of tripartite symbioses in the human gut and the potential for the delivery and transduction of bacteriophage-encoded nucleic acid material to the mammalian cell. (Taken from Barr, 2019).

enzymes into the mammalian cells of interest. Using these approaches, engineered bacteriophage particles have successfully been used to transduce mammalian cells to correct metabolic deficiencies (*Geier et al., 1973; Merril et al., 1971*), elicit antibody response (*Tao et al., 2013*), and to deliver reporter genes or enzymes (*Poul and Marks, 1999*). These studies demonstrate the capacity for bacteriophage-encoded genetic material to be delivered to and transduce mammalian cells.

This leads to a major hypothesis as to whether the uptake and internalisa-

tion of naturally occurring bacteriophage populations within the human gut are capable of transduction (Figure 2). As these gut bacteriophages are known to be internalised and transcytosed at consistent levels (*Nguyen et al., 2017*) and studies have shown engineered bacteriophage particles can deliver and transduce cells (*Geier and Merril, 1972*) this mechanistic route for natural bacteriophage populations to transduce the mammalian host remains an open possibility.

When considering the enormous diversity of bacteriophage populations within the human gut and the large

hypothetical genes they encode – more commonly referred to as ‘viral dark matter’ – this is an intriguing hypothesis to explore further. A clear understanding of the cellular and molecular

interactions between these bacteriophage particles and mammalian cells will be required to elucidate any novel symbioses.

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