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1	Membrane lipid renovation in Pseudomonas aeruginosa - implications for phage
2	therapy?
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17 Summary

18 Pseudomonas aeruginosa is an important Gram-negative pathogen with intrinsic resistance 19 to many clinically used antibiotics. It is particularly troublesome in nosocomial infections, 20 immunocompromised patients, and individuals with cystic fibrosis. Antimicrobial resistance 21 (AMR) is a huge threat to global health, with a predicted 10 million people dying from resistant 22 infections by 2050. A promising therapy for combatting AMR infections is phage therapy. 23 However, more research is required to investigate mechanisms that may influence the efficacy 24 of phage therapy. An important overlooked aspect is the impact of membrane lipid remodelling 25 on phage binding ability. P. aeruginosa undergoes changes in membrane lipids when it 26 encounters phosphorus stress, an environmental perturbation that is likely to occur during 27 infection. Lipid changes include the substitution of glycerophospholipids with surrogate 28 glycolipids and the over-production of ornithine-containing aminolipids. Given that membrane 29 lipids are known to influence the structure and function of membrane proteins, we propose 30 that changes in the composition of membrane lipids during infection may alter phage binding 31 and subsequent phage infection dynamics. Consideration of such effects needs to be urgently 32 prioritised in order to develop the most effective phage therapy strategies for P. aeruginosa 33 infections.

35 **1.** The importance of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* as a pathogen

36 Pseudomonas aeruginosa is a Gram-negative opportunistic pathogen. It is a major pathogen 37 in hospitals, being found on various surfaces and in water supplies with the potential to infect 38 immunocompromised and vulnerable patients (Kizny Gordon et al., 2017; Gellatly and 39 Hancock, 2013). Common infection sites for *P. aeruginosa* include burns and wounds, the 40 urinary tract, bloodstream and the lungs (Morin et al., 2021). P. aeruginosa is especially 41 associated with lung infections in those patients with cystic fibrosis (CF) and chronic 42 obstructive pulmonary disease (Welp and Bomberger, 2020). In Europe, around 41% of adults 43 with CF have chronic P. aeruginosa infection (Orenti et al., 2022) which is associated with 44 increased morbidity and mortality (Jurado-Martín et al., 2021).

45 CF is a genetic disease caused by mutations in a chloride ion channel present in the 46 membranes of cells of the lungs, gut and pancreas (Scoffone et al., 2017). This causes 47 abnormally thick mucus, which is difficult to clear from the lungs. As a result, pathogens that 48 get into the lung are not cleared, leading to infection. Respiratory disease is the main cause 49 of death in people with cystic fibrosis (Martin et al., 2016). Lung infections in CF patients 50 caused by *P. aeruginosa* begin as recurrent, intermittent infections, but, as time goes on, they 51 progress to become chronic infections (Folkesson et al., 2012; Maldonado et al., 2016). There 52 is evidence that an undetected reservoir of P. aeruginosa exists in the nasal sinuses of 53 supposedly recovered patients, and it is from this reservoir that their lungs become re-infected 54 (Hansen et al., 2012). The chronic inflammatory response to persistent P. aeruginosa infection 55 leads to serious damage to lung tissue (Folkesson et al., 2012). As a result, individuals with 56 CF have a much lower life expectancy than the general population, with babies born in the UK 57 in 2020 expected to live to a median age of 47 (Keogh et al., 2019). This is comparable to a 58 European study which showed that the median survival age for patients in the European Cystic 59 Fibrosis Patients cohort is 51.7 (McKone et al., 2021).

P. aeruginosa infections of CF lungs persist despite high levels of antimicrobial therapy
 given to infected individuals. One of the contributing factors for this is that *P. aeruginosa* possesses several intrinsic antimicrobial resistance (AMR) mechanisms (Jurado-Martín *et al.*,

63 2021; Moradali et al., 2017), along with other adaptations to the CF lung environment detailed 64 later in this review. *P. aeruginosa* possesses a Gram-negative outer membrane that is highly 65 impermeable, restricting the entry of antibiotics into the cell. If antibiotics do penetrate this 66 barrier, it possesses genome-encoded efflux pumps that can expel antibiotics (Shigemura et 67 al., 2015; Dreier and Ruggerone, 2015). Further mechanisms of AMR can be acquired by 68 horizontal gene transfer from other bacterial species or spontaneous mutation (Breidenstein 69 et al., 2011) with examples including β -lactamases (Llanes et al., 2013; Pang et al., 2019) or 70 quinolone resistance genes (Araujo et al., 2016; Cavalcanti et al., 2015). During infection P. 71 aeruginosa also forms biofilms, which are aggregates of cells within an extracellular matrix of 72 exopolysaccharides, extracellular DNA, and proteins. These structures increase both 73 resistance to antibiotics and to the host immune system (Pang et al., 2019; Billings et al., 2013; 74 Taylor et al., 2014).

75 Due to the multitude of AMR strategies employed by *P. aeruginosa*, treatment with 76 antimicrobial therapy has become significantly less effective across the world (Al-Orphaly et 77 al., 2021). As such, the World Health Organisation (WHO) has now recognised that 78 carbapenem-resistant P. aeruginosa is a global threat to human health (WHO, 2017), 79 highlighting the importance of identifying alternative treatment strategies for P. aeruginosa 80 infections, such as phage therapy. The focus of this review is to highlight the challenges posed 81 to phage therapy in light of the recent discovery of lipid renovation in the physiological 82 adaptation of *P. aeruginosa* to phosphorus limitation during infection (Jones et al., 2021). 83 Thus, we briefly discuss current understanding of the P. aeruginosa lipid membrane as well 84 as the status of *P. aeruginosa* phage research, including the isolation of novel phages and 85 characterisation of their receptors. However, readers are also encouraged to consult excellent 86 recent reviews on AMR mechanisms (Pang et al., 2019), cystic fibrosis (Rossi et al., 2021; 87 Malhotra et al., 2019) and membrane lipids (Kondokova et al., 2015; Sohlenkamp and Geiger, 88 2016), which will only be briefly touched upon where relevant in this review.

89

90 2. *P. aeruginosa* membranes and their lipids

91 The *P. aeruginosa* outer membrane, like in other Gram-negative bacteria, is asymmetric 92 (**Figure 1**), with the inner leaflet comprising largely glycerophospholipids (GP) and the outer 93 leaflet containing a high concentration of lipopolysaccharide (LPS). LPS has three 94 components: the lipid A anchor, which sits within the membrane, the core oligosaccharide, 95 which is attached to lipid A, and the O oligosaccharide, or O antigen, which is attached to the 96 core oligosaccharide (Needham and Trent, 2013).

97 The lipid A moiety is made up of hydrophobic acyl chains linked to a backbone 98 glucosamine dimer by ester or amide bonds. The number of acyl chains can vary depending 99 on the species and environmental conditions, but in *P. aeruginosa* there are typically four acyl 100 chains (Maldonado et al., 2016). Lipid A is recognised by Toll-like receptor 4 (TLR4)-MD2, 101 which triggers an inflammation response in order to try and clear the bacteria (Ciesielska et 102 al., 2021). Some *P. aeruginosa* strains have no O antigen in their LPS, and this is known as 103 "rough-type" LPS (whereas LPS with O antigen is "smooth") (Maldonado et al., 2016). All 104 components of the LPS can undergo modification under different conditions. For example the 105 removal, addition, or modification of phosphate groups on LPS can alter the charge of the 106 membrane, influencing susceptibility to cationic antimicrobial peptides (CAMPs) (Powers and 107 Trent, 2018).

108 Besides LPS, the main lipids in membranes of *Pseudomonas* species are GP, of which 109 the most common are phosphatidylethanolamine (PE), phosphatidylglycerol (PG), cardiolipin 110 (CL), and phosphatidylcholine (PC) (Table 1) (Kondakova et al., 2015). PE and PG make up 111 the vast majority of GP in the membrane, but during stationary phase growth CL can 112 accumulate to up to 10% of all GP (Kondakova et al., 2015). Different lipid species have 113 different charges and functions within the membrane (Sohlenkamp and Geiger, 2016). PE, the 114 most abundant GP in Pseudomonas membranes is zwitterionic at pH 7 (Sohlenkamp and 115 Geiger, 2016), and is important in maintaining membrane structure by increasing lateral 116 pressure and introducing curvature stress (Kondakova et al., 2015). PE is also a precursor to 117 a number of essential biological molecules such as diacyl glycerol (DAG), fatty acids, 118 phosphatidic acid (PA) and LPS (Gibellini and Smith, 2010). At pH 7 PC is also zwitterionic,

119 whereas PG and CL are both anionic. PG can form intermolecular H bonds within the 120 membrane (Zhao *et al.*, 2008), which is important for membrane stability. CL is synthesised 121 by the condensation of two PG molecules and plays a role in the formation of dynamic protein-122 lipid membrane domains with high curvature, such as at sites of bacterial division 123 (Mileykovskaya and Dowhan, 2005).

Modifications to membrane lipids can occur in response to environmental conditions (Geiger *et al.*, 2010; Klein *et al.*, 2009). An example of this is the addition of amino acids (**Figure 1**), such as the addition of lysine to PG to form lysyl-PG, which has been observed in *P. aeruginosa*, and can increase resistance to CAMPs (Geiger *et al.*, 2010). PG can also be modified with alanine in *P. aeruginosa* under acidic growth conditions, which can increase resistance to certain antimicrobials e.g. Cr^{3+} , and the osmolyte sodium lactate (Klein *et al.*, 2009).

131 Under low phosphate conditions *P. aeruginosa* upregulates the *olsBA* operon which 132 synthesises the phosphate-free ornithine lipid (OL) (Lewenza et al., 2011; Jones et al., 2021). 133 We have recently shown that under phosphorus-limited conditions P. aeruginosa substitutes 134 membrane phospholipids with the non-phosphorus containing glyceroglycolipids 135 monoglucosyldiacylglycerol (MGDG) and glucuronic acid diacylglycerol (GADG) (Table 1). 136 The synthesis of glyceroglycolipids in *P. aeruginosa* is carried out by a two-step pathway, 137 involving a metallophospholipase PIcP and two glycosyltransferases, denoted Agt1 and Agt2 138 (Jones et al., 2021). P. aeruginosa has been shown to upregulate the olsBA operon, plcP, 139 agt1, and agt2 upon interaction with human epithelial cells (Frisk et al., 2005; Chugani and 140 Greenberg, 2007), and in sputum samples from CF patients P. aeruginosa upregulates olsBA 141 and agt2 (Rossi et al., 2018). Low phosphate levels can also occur in the serum post-142 operatively or following major burns and is associated with worse clinical outcomes (Sadot et 143 al., 2019; Loghmani et al., 2010). Hypophosphatemia is especially prevalent in intensive care 144 units (Chen et al., 2021). Therefore, studying the response of P. aeruginosa to low phosphate 145 levels is important to understanding its infection biology.

147 **3.** Adaptation of *P. aeruginosa* to the CF lung environment

148 Most new P. aeruginosa infections that occur in individuals with CF come from the 149 environment, rather than from the lungs of other infected individuals (Yang et al., 2011). On 150 entry to the lung, P. aeruginosa needs to adapt to complex and variable micro-environments 151 in order to survive (Folkesson et al., 2012; Garg et al., 2017). Pressures encountered include 152 osmotic stress due to the presence of high viscosity mucus, varying oxygen levels, and 153 reactive oxygen and nitrogen species produced by the inflammatory response (Winstanley et 154 al., 2016; Sommer et al., 2020; Bhagirath et al., 2016). CF patients will also likely be being 155 treated long term with a variety of antibiotics (Winstanley et al., 2016), which by definition 156 presents a challenge to *P. aeruginosa*. Bacterial adaptation involves several key strategies, 157 including modification of lipid A, changes in membrane lipid composition and the formation of 158 biofilms (Needham and Trent, 2013; Frisk et al., 2005; Yang et al., 2011).

159 Soon after colonisation of the CF airway, lipid A of *P. aeruginosa* is modified through 160 both the addition of the positively charged amino sugar residue aminoarabinose and the 161 addition of palmitate (Figure 1)(Ernst et al., 2007). Aminoarabinose alters the charge of lipid 162 A, increasing resistance to innate immune elements including CAMPs and complement. The 163 addition of the fatty acid palmitate (Figure 1) is catalysed by the PagP enzyme which is under 164 the control of the PhoPQ regulatory system (Thaipisuttikul et al., 2015). The addition of 165 palmitate increases membrane integrity and decreases TLR4 activation (Needham and Trent, 166 2013). Another modification under the control of PhoPQ is the removal of the 3-position fatty 167 acid by PagL, which has been shown to occur in P. aeruginosa (Ernst et al., 2006). Under-168 acylation of lipid A is known to lower the inflammatory response (Di Lorenzo et al., 2015). P. 169 aeruginosa can also add secondary acyl chains to the fatty acids of lipid A (Maldonado et al., 170 2016).

P. aeruginosa cells in the early stage of infection have complete O antigens, but those from chronic lung infections in CF patients have a rough LPS phenotype, with short or no Oantigens (**Figure 1**) (Maldonado *et al.*, 2016). Loss of the O-antigen seems to confer an advantage as it is immunogenic, and therefore cells lacking it will be less likely to be detected

and destroyed by the immune system. However, cells lacking the O-antigen are also lessvirulent (Kintz and Goldberg, 2008).

Adapting to the CF lung environment also involves changes to membrane lipids (Naughton *et al.*, 2011; Frisk *et al.*, 2005). The cardiolipin synthase gene has been shown to be upregulated in *P. aeruginosa* during chronic infection of the CF lung (Naughton *et al.*, 2011), indicating increased proportions of CL in the membrane. Addition of amino acids to phospholipids may also occur during infection (see section 2), and can increase resistance to CAMPs, bacteriocins, and antibiotics.

183 Another lipid which is altered in infection is OL. In low phosphate environments (e.g. 184 Gao et al., 2004), or on interaction with the lung epithelium (Frisk et al., 2005; Chugani and 185 Greenberg, 2007), the percentage of OLs in the membrane massively increases (Figure 1). 186 With increased levels of OLs the charge and hydrophobicity of the membrane changes and 187 the susceptibility of P. aeruginosa to CAMPs and antibiotics is reduced. Binding of 188 macrophages is lessened, and biofilm formation is enhanced (Kim et al., 2018b). It has been 189 shown that OLs decrease the expression of two macrophage enzymes involved in 190 inflammation (Kim et al., 2018b). Together, this suggests that increased OL contributes to the 191 persistence of *P. aeruginosa* in chronic infection.

192 Interestingly, our own recent data suggests that membrane lipid renovation in P. 193 aeruginosa in response to phosphorus stress during lung infection also confers elevated 194 resistance to antimicrobial peptides. Indeed, these surrogate glyceroglycolipids increase 195 resistance to polymyxin B in P. aeruginosa as well as recombinant Escherichia coli strains 196 overexpressing glyceroglycolipids (Jones et al., 2021). This newly discovered lipid renovation 197 strategy could potentially play an important role in the adaptation of *P. aeruginosa* during lung 198 infection. Analysis of metatranscriptomic datasets from sputum samples taken from CF 199 patients showed overproduction of PlcP and Agt, two of the key enzymes responsible for the 200 formation of the glyceroglycolipids MGDG and GADG (Figure 1) (Jones et al., 2021), as well 201 as alkaline phosphatase PhoA, suggesting *P. aeruginosa* is experiencing phosphorus 202 limitation during lung infection.

203 In the CF lung, biofilm formation can also provide protection for *P. aeruginosa* against 204 phagocytosis, antibiotics, antibodies, osmotic stress and oxidative stress (Yang et al., 2011). 205 Accumulation of mutations which lead to mucoidy and biofilm formation are seen in P. 206 aeruginosa in CF patients (Ernst et al., 2006), alongside the upregulation of genes important 207 for biofilm formation (Rossi et al., 2020). When biofilms initially form they have a higher 208 diversity of fatty acids in their phospholipids than planktonic cells, and the amount of branched 209 fatty acid chains is increased. However, as the biofilm ages, the diversity decreases again, 210 and they become more like planktonic bacteria again (Benamara et al., 2014). This may be 211 because the biofilm cells are preparing to become planktonic again to seek out a new place 212 to form a biofilm.

213 The chronic use of antibiotics in patients with CF may also impact the membrane lipids 214 of *P. aeruginosa*. Cationic peptides can cause clustering of anionic lipids in the membrane, 215 with CL segregating into domains in the presence of CAMPS (Epand et al., 2016). Polymyxin 216 B, an antibiotic of last resort against *P. aeruginosa*, has been shown to cause lipid exchange 217 between the inner and outer membrane of Gram-negative bacteria (Berglund et al., 2015; 218 Clausell et al., 2007; Yu et al., 2015). Polymyxins (Polymyxin B and Colistin) work by binding 219 to LPS and disrupting the outer membrane, therefore resistance to them usually involves 220 modification of LPS (Mohapatra et al., 2021). The lipid A moieties of polymyxin-resistant P. 221 aeruginosa are modified with aminoarabinose, and the membrane lipid profiles are 222 significantly different from the wild type (Han et al., 2018).

223

4. Phages infecting *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and phage therapy

Bacteriophages (or phages) are viruses that infect bacteria, and can be found in any natural environment where bacteria are found (Dion *et al.*, 2020). Phages infecting *Pseudomonas* are widely obtained with ~780 phage isolated and sequenced to date (May, 2022) (Cook *et al.*, 2021). They span the diversity of known phage types from ssDNA phages (*Invovidiae*) and RNA phages (*Leviviridae*) to the more common dsDNA phages (*Myoviridae, Podoviridae, Siphoviridae, Autographviridae, Ackermannviridae*). Trials in animals have shown positive

231 outcomes from using phage therapy against P. aeruginosa infections. Mouse (Waters et al., 232 2017; Morello et al., 2011) and zebrafish (Cafora et al., 2019) models of cystic fibrosis have 233 shown significantly improved survival rates and reduced bacterial load, as have mouse models 234 of other forms of P. aeruginosa infection (McVay et al., 2007; Watanabe et al., 2007). A 235 strength of phage therapy is its ability to target and significantly clear P. aeruginosa biofilm 236 biomass (Fong et al., 2017; Waters et al., 2017), where antibiotics largely fail. In rats, phages 237 have been shown to have a synergistic relationship with the antibiotic ciprofloxacin, resulting 238 in 10,000 times more bacterial clearance than either treatment alone (Oechslin et al., 2017). 239 Human case reports have demonstrated clearance of *P. aeruginosa* using phage therapy in 240 urinary tract infections, lung infections, infection of an aortic graft, bacteraemia, and more (see 241 **Table 2**). Wright et al., 2009 demonstrated the safety and efficacy of phage therapy for ear 242 infections caused by *P. aeruginosa* in a randomised, double-blind, placebo-controlled phase 243 I/II clinical trial (Wright et al., 2009). In another such trial, Jault et al., 2019 investigated a 244 phage cocktail to treat burn wounds infected with *P. aeruginosa*. However, due to a drop in 245 phage titre after manufacturing, patients were given the cocktail at 4-5 orders of magnitude 246 lower than intended, which did not show efficacy (Jault et al., 2019). Recent trials and case 247 studies of the use of phage therapy to treat P. aeruginosa infections in humans are 248 summarised in Table 2.

249 In order to infect a bacterium, a phage first binds to its receptor on the bacterial cell 250 surface. The receptor is often a type of lipid-anchored polysaccharide or a membrane protein 251 (Chaturongakul and Ounjai, 2014). Some phages are extremely specific to a single species 252 or strain of bacteria, while others can have a broader host range, and hence the receptor plays 253 an important role in dictating the host range of the phage (de Jonge et al., 2019). While some 254 mechanisms of phage binding are well-characterised e.g. the binding of phage T4 to E. coli 255 (Brzozowska et al., 2018; Washizaki et al., 2016), there is much that is still not known. One 256 particular aspect is how phage binding is affected by the altered membrane lipid composition 257 of its host, if/when this occurs during the infection process, which may alter the orientation,

structure or function of a phage receptor. We consider this next with specific regard to *P*.
 aeruginosa infections and the development of effective phage therapy strategies.

There are at least 50 *P. aeruginosa* phages which have had their receptors characterised (**Figure 2**; **Supplementary Table 1**). Most of the *P. aeruginosa* phage receptors are either the type IV pilus or LPS, but at least one phage uses outer membrane porin M (OprM) as its receptor (Chan *et al.*, 2016). There are undoubtedly far more membrane proteins and structures that are used as phage receptors on the surface of *P. aeruginosa*, as only a small proportion of known *P. aeruginosa* phages have a receptor identified.

266

5. The impact of the lipid environment on phage receptors and phage therapy

268 As phage receptors are either membrane proteins, polysaccharides or other membrane 269 structures (Silva et al., 2016), their presence will most likely be influenced by their lipid 270 surroundings. The changes to lipids that occur in P. aeruginosa during adaptation to the CF 271 lung environment, described earlier, including LPS modifications and the production of non-272 phosphate lipid classes, are very likely to have an impact on membrane properties. As detailed 273 below, the lipid environment of membrane proteins has an important influence on their 274 structure and function. Notably, one major mechanism of phage resistance is through changes 275 to phage receptors, such as masking, removing or modifying them (Olszak et al., 2017). This 276 highlights how even small changes in the receptor can prevent phage binding, and therefore 277 phage infection.

278 There are certainly precedents that changes in membrane lipids can affect their 279 interaction with membrane proteins (for a summary, see Table 3). For example, the 280 membrane protein aquaporin Z (AqpZ), a tetrameric water efflux channel in *E. coli*, was shown 281 to be stabilised by membrane lipids, especially by CL (Figure 1). Further experiments showed 282 that CL modulates the function of ApgZ (Laganowsky et al., 2014). The lipid 283 phosphatidylinositol was found to bind to and stabilise the mechanosensitive channel of large 284 conductance (MscL) greater than other lipids, although all lipids tested stabilised MscL to 285 some extent (Laganowsky et al., 2014). AmtB, a trimeric E. coli ammonia channel, is stabilised

286 by CL and PG. Stabilisation of the protein increases linearly with the amount of these lipids 287 added. Further investigation showed that AmtB has selectivity for PG-like head groups. AmtB 288 contains a loop which forms a lipid-binding site with PG or CL, through hydrogen bonds, a 289 water bridge and hydrophobic interactions (Laganowsky et al., 2014). The translocon is a 290 complex of proteins which translocate proteins across the inner membrane of Gram-negative 291 bacteria. It includes transmembrane proteins SecYEG, and cytoplasmic protein SecA, which 292 binds to SecYEG in the process of translocation (Ryabichko et al., 2020). SecYEG requires 293 CL for its stability and efficient function as a high affinity binder of SecA. The interaction of the 294 positively charged N-terminus of SecA with negatively charged membrane lipids primes it allosterically for binding to SecYEG (Ryabichko et al., 2020). PG binds to outer membrane 295 296 porin F (OmpF), which is made up of three pore channels, and stabilises it in an open 297 conformation. Binding also promotes the opening of closed pores and enhances ion transport 298 activity. OmpF preferentially binds PG over zwitterionic lipids, such as PC (Liko et al., 2018). 299 OmpF is conserved as a phage receptor across many different bacterial hosts and phage 300 types, including phage Yep-phi (family Autographiviridae, genus Berlinvirus) that infects 301 Yersinia pestis (Zhao et al., 2013), phage vB YenM TG1 (family Straboviridae, genus Tegunvirus) that infects Yersinia enterocolitica, phages fPS-2 and fPS-90 (family 302 303 Straboviridae, genus Tequatrovirus) that infect Yersinia pseudotuberculosis, phage T2 (family 304 Straboviridae, genus Tequatrovirus) and vB EcoM IME281 (family Straboviridae, genus 305 Dhakavirus) that infect Escherichia. It is therefore possible that changes to the levels of PG in 306 the outer membrane could cause conformational changes in OmpF, altering phage adsorption. 307 OmpF has also been shown to contain a number of LPS binding sites, forming complexes with 308 a variable number of LPS molecules (Figure 1). Mutation of one of these binding sites 309 prevented LPS binding and stopped OmpF forming a trimer in vivo (Arunmanee et al., 2016). 310 Interactions between the LPS layer and membrane proteins are likely to be important in the 311 impermeability of the outer membrane (Arunmanee et al., 2016).

313 The potassium channel KcsA selects for anionic lipids in its core, and these lipids are 314 important for the potassium-conducting function of the protein (Contreras et al., 2011). The 315 interactions between negatively charged phospholipids and positively charged amino acids 316 may help to guide the orientation of membrane proteins (Contreras et al., 2011). An example 317 of this is the interaction of lactose permease (LacY) with the anionic lipids PG and CL in E. 318 coli. The N-terminal helical bundle of LacY can be completely inverted, have a mixed topology, 319 or a fully native topology as the percentage of the zwitterionic PE in the membrane compared 320 to the anionic PG and CL is increased from 0% to 70%. This change in conformation happens 321 due to changes in lipid ratios both at the time of LacY insertion into the membrane, and after 322 insertion (Vitrac et al., 2013).

323 The presence of aminoacyl phospholipids may also affect the rigidity, fluidity and 324 permeability of the membrane. The presence of aminoacyl phospholipids in vesicles has been 325 shown to stabilise the bilayer and alter peptide binding behaviour (Slavetinsky et al., 2017). 326 Ordinarily, magnesium cations bridge adjacent LPS molecules. Under magnesium-deficient 327 growth conditions, outer membrane protein H (OprH) is upregulated and becomes a major 328 part of the P. aeruginosa outer membrane (Edrington et al., 2011). OprH contains multiple 329 LPS interaction sites allowing it to interact with multiple LPS molecules at once and facilitating the formation of cross-links. In turn, these cross-linkages between LPS molecules increase its 330 331 stability and decrease membrane permeability (Edrington et al., 2011). OprH is genetically 332 linked to the PhoPQ regulatory system, where the two-component system is upregulated in 333 response to magnesium deficiency. LPS alterations, such as the aminoarabinose and 334 palmitate additions, are also regulated by the PhoPQ system. OprH may have a higher affinity 335 for LPS when these modifications are present (Edrington et al., 2011).

These examples demonstrate the importance of membrane lipids in the structure and function of membrane proteins and LPS, both of which can be receptors for *P. aeruginosa* phages. Therefore, when *P. aeruginosa* undergoes lipid renovation in response to phosphorus limitation during infection, this will likely have an impact on membrane properties. Comparing the proteomes of wild-type *P. aeruginosa* and a *plcP*-deletion mutant, both under phosphorus

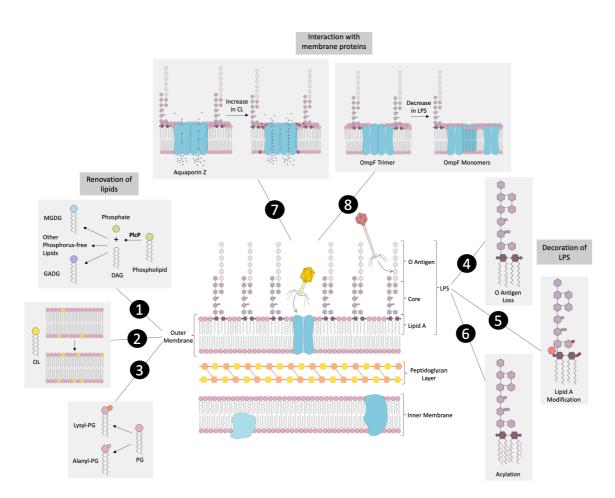
341 limitation, revealed several membrane proteins to be differentially expressed depending on 342 the ability to remodel lipids (Jones et al., 2021). This included PilC, a membrane porin (OpdP), 343 and an outer membrane receptor (FptA) (Jones et al., 2021). From these data it is thus 344 conceivable that changes in membrane lipids may have subsequent knock-on effects for 345 phage therapy. This could be due to an impact on general membrane properties following lipid 346 remodelling, or due to direct interactions with a particular protein. As a proof-of-concept, we 347 have observed that phage adsorption efficiency can indeed be affected by lipid remodelling in 348 response to phosphorus limitation (R. Lyon unpublished data).

349 In conclusion, we argue that it is important to better understand the relationship 350 between the environment, the bacterial cell surface and the subsequent impact on phage 351 receptors and phage absorption. This further links to how changes in membrane lipid 352 composition in response to phosphorus limitation during lung infections may affect the efficacy 353 of phage therapy. Certainly, problems have been encountered translating the success of 354 phage therapy in the laboratory to success in clinical trials (Valente et al., 2021). While this is 355 likely to be the result of many confounding factors, one of these could be the influence of the 356 changing lipid makeup of the bacterial membrane and its subsequent impact on phage 357 receptors. We propose that considering both the native lipid environment and the lipid 358 remodelled membrane while developing a phage cocktail will be important in increasing the 359 likelihood of success of phage therapy when treating *P. aeruginosa* lung infections.

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- 361

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366

Figure 1. Changes to the outer membrane during *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*infection of its host.

369 The outer membrane is asymmetric with a large proportion of the outer leaflet being 370 made up of LPS. (1) In low phosphate conditions the enzyme Phospholipase C (PIcP) 371 removes the phosphate group from phospholipids to leave diacylglycerol (DAG), from 372 which non-phosphorus-containing lipids such as MGDG and GADG can be formed (Jones et al., 2021). (2) In normal growth conditions ornithine lipid (OL) accounts for 373 374 2-15% of total lipids, but during low phosphate conditions, or interaction with lung 375 epithelium, the OL level increases (Kim et al., 2018b). (3) P. aeruginosa has been 376 shown to modify its membrane lipids through addition of amino acids. PG can be 377 modified with alanine or lysine, which can increase resistance to antimicrobials (Geiger 378 et al., 2010; Klein et al., 2009). (4) P. aeruginosa cells from chronic lung infections in people with CF have little or no O antigen on their LPS (Maldonado et al., 2016). (5) LPS 379

380 is also modified by addition of the positively charged aminoarabinose and 381 phosphoethanolamine to the lipid A part of the molecule (Edrington et al., 2011). (6) Acyl chains are also added to lipid A such as the fatty acid palmitate, and secondary acyl 382 383 chains can be added to the fatty acids. The 3-position fatty acid may also be removed 384 (Maldonado et al., 2016). (7) Cardiolipin (CL) stabilises Aquaporin Z, a tetrameric water 385 efflux channel, and also increases the transport of water through the channel (Laganowsky et al., 2014). (8) Outer membrane porin F (OmpF) contains LPS binding 386 387 sites and forms complexes with LPS molecules. Mutation of one of these sites 388 prevented LPS binding and stopped OmpF forming a trimer (Arunmanee et al., 2016).

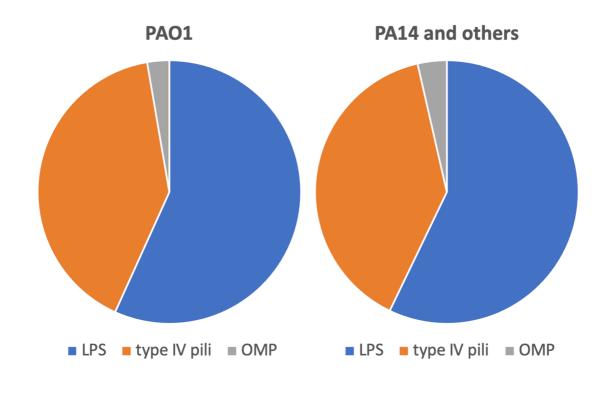


Figure 2 Studies showing known phage receptors in *P. aeruginosa* strain PAO1 (left
panel, n=36), PA14 and others (right panel, n=27). LPS, lipopolysaccharides; OMP,
outer membrane proteins. Studies used in this analysis are shown in Supplementary
Table 1.

Table 1. Characteristics of major membrane lipids found in *P. aeruginosa*.

Lipid	Structure	Charge at pH 7
Phosphatidylethanolamine (PE)	$+H_3N$ O P O O R_1 O R_2 O R_1 O R_2 O R_1 O R_2 R_2 O R_2 R_2 $R_$	Zwitterionic
Phosphatidylglycerol (PG)	HO O O O O R_1 O R_2 O R_2 O O R_1 O R_2 O O O R_2 O	Anionic
Cardiolipin (CL)	$HO \longrightarrow O \longrightarrow O = H_1$ $HO \longrightarrow O \longrightarrow R_2$ $O \longrightarrow O \longrightarrow R_2$ $O \longrightarrow O \longrightarrow R_3$ $O \longrightarrow R_4$	Anionic
Phosphatidylcholine (PC)	$\begin{array}{c} H_3C \underbrace{CH_3}_{V+} O \\ H_3C \\ H_3 \\ CH_3 \\ O \\ CH_3 \\ O \\ $	Zwitterionic
Monoglucosyl diacylglycerol (MGDG)	$HO \rightarrow O \rightarrow O \rightarrow O \rightarrow HO \rightarrow O \rightarrow O \rightarrow O \rightarrow O \rightarrow O $	Neutral
Glucuronic acid diacylglycerol (GADG)	$HO \rightarrow O \rightarrow O \rightarrow O \rightarrow HO \rightarrow O \rightarrow O \rightarrow HO \rightarrow O \rightarrow O$	Anionic
Ornithine lipid (OL)	$\begin{array}{c} O \\ O \\ HN \\ HN \\ O \\ HN \\ HN \\ HN \\ HN$	Zwitterionic

Table 2. Phage therapy trials for *P. aeruginosa* infection.

Phase	Infection site	Phage used	In conjunction with antibiotics?	Background	Result	Reference
Case report	Urinary tract	Eliava Institute Pyophage #051007	Yes, meropenem and colistin	Previous treatment with antibiotics alone had not been successful.	No <i>P. aeruginosa</i> detected after 10 days treatment. None detected a year later.	Khawaldeh <i>et al.</i> , 2011
Case report	Aortic graft/blood (bacteraemia)	Phage OMKO1	Yes, ceftazidime	Repeated infections after an aortic graft over the course of 3 years despite antibiotic use.	Cultures taken from aortic graft showed no <i>P. aeruginosa</i> , patient has not had any repeat infections.	Chan <i>et al.</i> , 2018
Case report	Heart/blood (bacteraemia)	Two phages which exhibited lytic activity against the patient's isolate	Yes, meropenem, tobramycin and polymyxin B	Infant with multiple health conditions experienced <i>P. aeruginosa</i> infection after an operation on the heart. Patient was allergic to multiple antibiotic categories.	Blood cultures after phage therapy were sterile, but infection returned on cessation of phage administration.	Duplessis <i>et</i> <i>al.</i> , 2018
Phase I/II trial	Ear	Six phages (BC- BP-01 to BC- BP-06,15 NCIMB deposit numbers 41174–41179)	No	Randomised, double-blind, placebo- controlled Phase I/II clinical trial in 24 patients with antibiotic-resistant ear infections.	<i>P. aeruginosa</i> counts significantly lower in the phage treated group along with significant improvement in clinical indicators.	Wright <i>et al.</i> , 2009
Phase I/II trial	Burn wound	A cocktail of 12 natural lytic anti- <i>P. aeruginosa</i> bacteriophages	No	Randomised, controlled, double-blind Phase I/II clinical trial with 25 patients with infected burn wounds.	Phage reduced bacterial counts, but less than the standard treatment. Phage titres dropped after manufacturing, giving a daily dose of 10-100 PFU/mL, around 5- 6 log lower than intended. This may be the reason for the lack of success with the phage.	Jault <i>et al.</i> , 2019
Case report	CF lung	Pyophage preparation administered by nebulizer	Partially, tetracycline	Child with CF with a <i>P. aeruginosa</i> and <i>S. aureus</i> infection. Infection had not responded to other treatment. Bacteria	After 3 rounds of phage therapy, the final one in conjunction with tetracycline, no <i>P. aeruginosa</i> or <i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> could be	Kutateladze and Adamia, 2008

				became more sensitive to certain antibiotics after phage treatment.	found in sputum. Phage therapy is repeated dependent on pathogen levels.	
Case report	Burn wound	Not stated	Yes, ceftazidime	A patient with <i>P. aeruginosa</i> -infected burn wounds which did not respond to antibiotics.	After 3 days, no <i>P. aeruginosa</i> could be isolated from wounds. Unclear whether phage, antibiotics, or the combination was responsible for the improvement.	Marza <i>et al.</i> , 2006
Phase I trial	Venous leg ulcers	WPP-201 cocktail	No	39 patients with ulcers were treated for 12 weeks with either phage or a saline control.	No adverse events recorded. No significant difference in frequency of adverse events, or in rate or frequency of healing.	Rhoads <i>et al.</i> , 2009
Case report	Wound, blood (bacteraemia)	BFC1 cocktail	No	Wound colonised with multidrug resistant <i>P. aeruginosa</i> , leading to colistin-only-sensitive <i>P. aeruginosa</i> septicaemia. Patient developed acute kidney injury due to the infection and colistin, so therapy was stopped. Patient went into a coma and was treated with intravenous phage as all other treatment options had ran out.	Immediately blood cultures became negative, and fever disappeared. After a few days kidney function recovered. Wounds remained infected which caused further episodes of sepsis which were treated with antibiotics.	Jennes <i>et al.</i> , 2017
Case report	CF lung	AB-PA01 cocktail	Yes, azithromycin, ciprofloxacin, colistin, doripenem, linezolid, piperacillin- tazobactam and vancomycin	Patient developed multidrug resistant <i>P. aeruginosa</i> pneumonia, and colistin- induced renal failure. The infection was not responding to antibiotics.	Pneumonia clinically resolved, colistin was discontinued, there was a return to baseline renal function, supplemental oxygen requirements were reduced, and there was no recurrence of <i>P. aeruginosa</i> pneumonia or CF exacerbation within 100 days of treatment. Patient underwent successful bilateral lung transplant 9 months later.	Law <i>et al.</i> , 2019
Case report	Knee prosthesis and femur	Not stated	Yes, gentamicin, clindamycin, colistin, meropenem and ceftazidime	Extensively drug resistant <i>P. aeruginosa</i> isolated from knee prosthesis.	No <i>P. aeruginosa</i> detected on days 3, 4, or 5 of phage treatment. 10 months later there were no signs of infection.	Tkhilaishvili <i>et</i> <i>al.</i> , 2019

Case report	Lung	AB-PA01 and Navy phage cocktails	Yes, piperacillin- tazobactam, tobramycin and colistin	2 lung transplant recipients with multidrug-resistant <i>P. aeruginosa</i> .	Clinical improvement seen in both patients compared to antibiotics alone. <i>P. aeruginosa</i> did return in both patients, but in patient two did not return for two months. In both cases isolates showed increased susceptibility to several antibiotic classes.	Aslam <i>et al.</i> , 2019
Case report	Heart	PA5, PA10	No	Prosthetic infection after aortic arch replacement. Many bacterial species, including <i>P. aeruginosa</i> . Conventional antibiotic therapy had not been successful.	Bacteria no longer detected and phage therapy was stopped. 17 days later developed <i>P. aeruginosa</i> and <i>E. coli</i> infection. However, second <i>P. aeruginosa</i> may have been independent of the first infection.	Rubalskii <i>et</i> <i>al.</i> , 2020
Case report	Wound	PA5, PA10	No	<i>P. aeruginosa</i> infection of sternal wound abscesses after double lung transplant. Conventional antibiotic therapy had not been successful.	Wound healed and no <i>P. aeruginosa</i> could be detected.	Rubalskii <i>et</i> <i>al.</i> , 2020

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401 The studies in this Table were found by searching *"Pseudomonas* phage trial" in Pubmed for the last 15 years and all the results

402 that described using phage as a therapy for *P. aeruginosa* infection were included.

Table 3. Summary of examples of membrane lipids and lipopolysaccharides interacting with membrane proteins

404

Lipid	Membrane Protein	Nature of Interaction	Bacteria Observed in	Reference
CL	Aquaporin Z	Stabilise and modulate function	E. coli	Laganowsky <i>et al.</i> , 2014
CL	Ammonium channel AmtB	Stabilise	E. coli	Laganowsky <i>et al.</i> , 2014
CL	SecYEG of translocon complex	Stabilise and modulate function	E. coli	Ryabichko <i>et al.</i> , 2020
PG; LPS	Outer membrane porin F (OmpF)	Stabilise in open conformation, enhance ion transport activity; strong interaction with LPS	E. coli	Liko <i>et al.</i> , 2018; Arunmanee et al., 2016
PG	Ammonium channel AmtB	Stabilise	E. coli	Laganowsky <i>et al.</i> , 2014
PI	Mechanosensitive channel of large conductance	Stabilise	E. coli	Laganowsky <i>et al.</i> , 2014
Anionic lipids	Potassium channel KcsA	Important in potassium- conducting function	Streptomyces lividans	Contreras <i>et al.</i> , 2011
LPS	Membrane porin OprH	OprH shows strong interaction with LPS	P. aeruginosa	See Supplementary Table 1

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761	List of abbreviation	ons
762	AMR	Antimicrobial resistance
763	CAMP	Cationic antimicrobial peptide
764	CF	Cystic fibrosis
765	CL	Cardiolipin
766	DAG	Diacyl glycerol
767	GP	Glycerophospholipid
768	Kdo	3-deoxy-d- <i>manno</i> -oct-2-ulosonic acid
769	LPS	Lipopolysaccharide
770	OL	Ornithine lipid
771	PA	Phosphatidic acid
772	PC	phosphatidylcholine
773	PE	Phosphatidylethanolamine
774	PG	Phosphatidylglycerol
775	PlcP	Phospholipase C
776	TLR4	Toll-like receptor 4