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- 1 The lytic siphophage vB StyS-LmqsSP1 reduces Salmonella Typhimurium isolates on chicken 2
- skin
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21 Abstract

Phage-based biocontrol of bacteria is considered as a natural approach to combat food-borne 22 pathogens. Salmonella spp. are notifiable and highly prevalent pathogens that cause 23 24 foodborne diseases globally. In this study, six bacteriophages were isolated and further characterized that infect food-derived Salmonella isolates from different meat sources. The 25 26 siphovirus VB_StyS-LmqsSP1, which was isolated from a cow's nasal swab, was further 27 subjected to *in-depth* characterization. Phage-host interaction investigations in liquid medium showed that vB StyS-LmqsSP1 can suppress the growth of Salmonella spp. isolates at 37 °C 28 for ten hours and reduce the bacterial titer at 4 °C significantly. A reduction of 1.4 to 3 log 29 30 units was observed in investigations with two food-derived Salmonella isolates and one reference strain under cooling conditions using MOIs of 10^4 and 10^5 . Phage application on 31 chicken skin resulted in a reduction of about 2 log units in the tested Salmonella isolates from 32 the first three hours throughout a one-week experiment at cooling temperature and an MOI of 33 10⁵. The one-step growth curve analysis using vB StyS-LmqsSP1 demonstrated a 60-min 34 latent period and a burst size of 50-61 PFU/infected cell for all tested hosts. Furthermore, the 35 genome of the phage was determined to be free from genes causing undesired effects. Based 36 37 on the phenotypic and genotypic properties, LmqsSP1 was assigned as a promising candidate for biocontrol of Salmonella Typhimurium in food. 38

Importance: *Salmonella enterica* is one of the major global causes of foodborne enteritis in humans. The use of chemical sanitizers for reducing bacterial pathogens in the food chain can result in the spread of bacterial resistance. Targeted and clean label intervention strategies can reduce *Salmonella* contamination in food. The significance of our research demonstrates the suitability of a bacteriophage (vB_StyS-LmqsSP1) for biocontrol of *Salmonella enterica* serovar Typhimurium on poultry due to its lytic efficacy under conditions prevailing in food production environments.

46 Introduction

Salmonella (S.) enterica is one of the major global causes of foodborne enteritis in humans 47 (1). In 2018, it was the leading cause of notified foodborne outbreaks in the European Union 48 49 (EU), leading to more than 91,000 human cases of salmonellosis. Up to now, more than 2,500 servars of S. enterica have been notified (1), but foodborne outbreaks in the United States 50 and Europe are mainly caused by S. Enteritidis and S. Typhimurium (2, 3). The serovar 51 52 Entertidis is predominantly associated with chicken, whereas S. Typhimurium derives from a wide variety of food-animal sources, among them poultry, pig and cattle (2). The highest 53 prevalence of Salmonella-positive single samples in the EU was reported for poultry meat, 54 55 minced meat and meat preparations (2).

The use of chemical sanitizers and preservatives for reducing pathogenic bacteria in the food chain can result in the spread of bacterial resistance (4) and in the emergence of undesirable allergenic effects, generation of byproducts and negative impact on the environment (5). Due to these reasons, natural agents for biocontrol of pathogenic bacteria in foodstuff have gained further attention in recent years (6).

Bacteriophage-based biocontrol is considered as an alternative and natural intervention strategy for reducing bacterial contamination in food (7-9). While conventional strategies combat both pathogens and the commensal microflora indiscriminately, the use of phages allows a specific reduction in undesirable bacteria (9). Additionally, bacteriophages do not affect organoleptic properties such as flavor, color and/or aroma of the treated food products (9, 10).

67 Phage application in livestock before slaughter (pre-harvest) and in foods (post-harvest) is 68 permitted under FSIS Directive 7120.1 in the US (9, 11), and commercial phage preparations 69 have been approved as "Generally Recognized as Safe" (GRAS) for application in raw and 70 ready-to-eat meat and poultry products (9). In Europe, approval of phage products for food

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applications is still in the preparatory stage due to open regulatory and scientific issues (9, 12, 13). Further phage preparations are needed for reducing foodborne zoonoses and especially
multidrug-resistant pathogens. Since they can be produced by relatively easy and economical
processes (14), phages are a very suitable measure for this purpose especially in developing
countries (15, 16).

76 Phage application was investigated for biocontrol of S. enterica in different food products as 77 reviewed by Moye et al. (9). Studies on bacteriophage application for control of Salmonella in food products have shown promising results (6, 17-19). Some studies investigated the effect 78 of phages on chicken skin. However, only few studies determined the phage-based reduction 79 80 under practical conditions like temperatures of cooled storage and against Salmonella field isolates from food samples (17, 20, 21). These factors can have a high impact on the reduction 81 of target bacteria in commercial food production settings. Testing phages only against 82 83 laboratory strains and under laboratory settings that do not resemble conditions during food 84 production might thus lead to biased results and the selection of unsuitable phages (22, 23). For bacteriophage efficacy testing, phages should be tested under realistic conditions, using 85 strains most similar to those found on the targeted product (17, 21). Testing of phages in 86 87 commercial production plants is laborious, time-consuming and the results can sometimes hardly be interpreted due to the complexity of influencing factors. Additionally, these factors 88 89 might lead to scientific results that are hard to reproduce, and thus, cannot be extrapolated to other production plants or settings without further experimental analysis (24, 25). In vitro 90 models combining environmental factors of commercial food production settings with 91 92 controlled experimental conditions should be used to allow and extrapolation of the collected data. Cooling conditions and food-derived Salmonella isolates on food matrices need to be 93 used for testing lytic phage efficacy of promising candidates in vitro. It has been reported that 94 95 clinically or environmentally isolated Salmonella can show insensitivity against phage

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96 infection that suggest promising results on laboratory Salmonella and higher efficacy in 97 reduction experiments using laboratory strains compared to field isolates (17, 21). The former 98 study reported that meat-derived Salmonella isolates were less sensitive to phage infection 99 compared to laboratory strains (17). Killing of bacteria by phages can be achieved by different mechanisms, e.g., passive inundation or a lytic infection cycle resulting in phage progenies. 100 101 The first infection step of phage binding to the bacterial cell surface is important for both 102 mechanisms, and requires attachment of phages to the bacterial cell by specific recognition 103 between the phage's receptor binding protein at the tip of the phage tail and a receptor located 104 on the bacterial cell surface. If a multitude of phages bind to the bacterial cell, destabilization 105 can lead to destruction without production of phage progenies (lysis from without), which is 106 often referred to as passive inundation (26). On the other hand, injection of the phage's nucleic acids followed by production of structural proteins and phage morphogenesis may 107 108 lead to lysis of the bacterial cell, releasing a variable number of progenies. For this complex 109 process, several metabolic prerequisites are necessary and internal resistance mechanisms of the bacterial cell, destroying of the phage's nucleic acids or interfering with phage replication, 110 111 need to be absent. These prerequisites and the general layout of phage defense mechanisms in 112 bacteria may vary between strains from different environments (27). Relatively few studies 113 have investigated the efficacy of Salmonella phages using food-derived strains on food 114 matrices under cooling conditions (17, 20, 28).

The present study aims to isolate bacteriophages suitable for reducing *Salmonella* on poultry skin and to evaluate their efficiency as potential measures for biocontrol in commercial broiler meat production systems. Six *Salmonella*-specific phages were investigated regarding their host range on field isolates. Based on its broad host range, one of these phages, vB_StyS-LmqsSP1 (LmqsSP1), was selected for the analysis of morphological and genomic properties as well as burst size and latent period. For potential application purposes in the food chain, the

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lytic efficacy against different *Salmonella* isolates was determined at 37 °C and 4 °C on
chicken skin and in culture media.

123 **Results**

124 Six isolated phages form plaques on *Salmonella* isolates from meat products

125 Overall, ten bacteriophages were isolated from 52 investigated samples (Table 1). Nine 126 bacteriophages were recovered from fecal samples of chicken flocks located in different parts 127 of northern Germany, one bacteriophage was isolated from a nasal swab of a cow housed at 128 the University of Veterinary Medicine Hannover, Germany, while no phages originated from 129 cecal content of various commercial poultry flocks when using the Salmonella host strain LT2 130 for phage isolation or alone. Based on the higher stability and reliable replication under 131 laboratory conditions, six bacteriophages were selected for further examination, while the others were rejected due to their low concentration increase during propagation (< 10^6 132 133 PFU/mL after two propagations) and instability at 4 °C (Table 1).

The host range of the six phages was tested on 77 food-derived Salmonella isolates (Table 2) 134 135 representing 26 different serotypes derived from different food sources. Among these isolates, 60 were provided by the national reference laboratory on Salmonella, hosted at the German 136 137 Federal Institute for Risk Assessment (BfR, Berlin, Germany), 17 isolates originated from the 138 laboratory collection of the University of Veterinary Medicine Hannover, and two E. coli O157:H7 strains were obtained from the German collection of microorganisms and cell 139 140 cultures (Leibnitz Intstitute DSMZ, Braunschweig, Germany). Salmonella isolates S1 and S2 141 were characterized as monophasic S. Typhimurium. S1 was further identified as the most susceptible host, while S2 was very susceptible to four of the phages and exhibited a non-142 wildtype phenotype against ampicillin (minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) > 64 μ g/ml), 143 144 gentamicin (MIC 16 μ g/mL), sulfamethoxazole (MIC > 1024 μ g/mL) and tetracycline (MIC > 64 µg/mL). The Salmonella enterica subsp. enterica rough variant S17, which was O-antigen-145

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146 deficient, showed susceptibility towards all examined phages and exhibited phenotypic 147 resistance against ampicillin, chloramphenicol, ciprofloxacin, trimethoprim, sulfamethoxazole, and tetracycline. Efficient plaque production was shown on the Salmonella 148 149 spp. I rough variant S18 from poultry meat. Furthermore, the phage LmqsSP2 showed highly efficient plaque formation on the S. Livingstone isolate S21, while LmqsSP1 only showed a 150 weak lytic effect on this isolate. High plaque formation by LmqsSP2 was also observed on the 151 152 S. Typhimurium isolate S3 and the S. Derby isolate S29. Both LmqsSP1 and LmqsSP2 showed efficient plaque production on the Salmonella enterica subsp. enterica rough variant 153 154 S19. The efficiency of plating was calculated in relation to the plating efficiency on their host 155 strain S. Typhimurium LT2 as shown in Figure 1. The six phages showed lytic ability on 30 156 (LmqsSP1), 13 (LmqsSP3), 10 (LmqsSP2), eight (LmqsSP4) and five (LmqsSP5 and LmqsSP6) of the examined Salmonella isolates, covering 13 of 26 examined serotypes. The 157 158 phage LmqsSP1 expressed the broadest host range, covering 39 % of the investigated 159 Salmonella isolates and both tested E. coli strains. It showed a lytic effect on more than half 160 of the examined S. Typhimurium and Salmonella enterica subsp. enterica rough variants, 161 respectively. Furthermore, lysis by LmqsSP1 was observed on Salmonella serogroup B and 162 the serotypes Schwarzengrund, Saintpaul, Paratyphi B, Newport, Livingstone, Indiana, 163 Enteritidis, Derby, and Bovismorbificans. No lytic ability was observed on 47 of the 77 164 examined isolates (Figure 1). Based on its inhibitory effect on the broadest spectrum of Salmonella isolates, we selected the phage LmqsSP1 for further characterization and efficacy 165 166 testing at different temperatures and on food matrices.

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LmqsSP1 exhibited a morphology of the *Siphoviridae* family and forms plaques on lawns of food derived *Salmonella* isolates

The phage LmqsSP1 was isolated from the nasal swab of a cow and was classified asSiphovirus, based on its morphology with an average head width of 76 nm (standard deviation

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172 3), an average head length of 80 nm (standard deviation 4), and an average tail length of 191 nm (standard deviation of 3) (Figure 2B). LmqsSP1 produced clear plaques (Figure 2A) on S. 173 Typhimurium LT2 as well as on the three food-derived S. Typhimurium isolates S1, S2, and 174 175 S3, and low EOP with turbid plaques on the food-derived Salmonella isolates S4, S5, S6, and S7. On S. Typhimurium S1 and S2, LmqsSP1 showed an EOP of ≥ 1 , while on the isolate S3, 176 EOP was determined to be < 0.1 (Figure 1). 177

178 One-step growth curves show low variance of LmqsSP1 propagation on different susceptible *Salmonella* isolates 179

Growth experiments were performed using the S. Typhimurium strain LT2 and the food-180 181 derived isolates S1 and S2 as hosts (Figure 3). The latent period of LmqsSP1 was determined to be ~60 min in all tested isolates. The burst sizes were determined to be 50 PFU/cell 182 (ranging between 42 and 56 in the three experiments) in Salmonella strain LT2, 55 PFU/cell 183 184 (between 55 and 58 in the three experiments) in the food-derived isolate S1 and 61 PFU/cell 185 (between 52 and 80 in the three experiments) in the food-derived isolate S2 (Figure 3).

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187 Dose-dependent inhibition of bacterial growth at 37 °C

188 Results of tests on inhibiting growth of Salmonella populations at 37 °C demonstrated a 189 significant time- and dose-dependent effect of the phage (Figure 4). Even at an MOI of 190 0.0001, LmqsSP1 significantly inhibited bacterial growth compared to the control. Lower 191 optical density compared to the control was observed after 8.5 h in cultures with added phages and Salmonella LT2 (P = 0.04), after 6.5 h in cultures with field isolate S1 (P = 0.03) and 192 193 after 4.5 h in cultures with field isolate S2 (P = 0.03) (Figure 4). Higher MOIs resulted in 194 faster and more efficient inhibition of bacterial growth compared to lower MOIs. When 195 LmqsSP1 was applied at an MOI of 10, growth of *Salmonella* strain LT2 (P = 0.001) and of field isolates S1 (P = 0.05) and S2 (P = 0.009) was completely suppressed (Figure 4). 196 197 However, field isolate S2 showed regrowth after 7.5 h and reached an OD_{600} of 0.19 after 10 h

201 LmqsSP1 reduced the Salmonella titer in liquid cultures at 4 °C

When LmqsSP1 was inoculated into lysogeny broth (LB) containing approximately 10^3 202 203 CFU/mL of the respective Salmonella isolate or strain (MOI of 10^5), significant reductions 204 were observed after 24 h in all experiments. Compared to the control, a reduction of 3 log units was observed in isolate S1, 2.6 log units in isolate S2, and 1.8 log units in Salmonella 205 206 LT2 (Figure 5, significance level P < 0.0001 for all reductions). A higher bacterial density of approximately 10⁴ CFU/mL (MOI of 10⁴) resulted in significant reductions of 3 log units in 207 isolate S2, 2.6 log units in isolate S1, and 1.4 log units in Salmonella LT2 (Figure 5, 208 significance level *P* <0.0001 for all reductions). 209

Phage treatment significantly reduced the concentration of *Salmonella* isolates on chicken skin at 4°C

Salmonella contaminated chicken skin was treated with LmqsSP1 at an MOI of 10⁵ to 212 213 examine the efficiency and stability of the phage on food samples at cooling temperature for 214 one week. Results of this experiment are shown in Figure 6. Concentrations of Salmonella 215 LT2 and the food-derived isolates S1 and S2 on treated chicken skin samples were reduced by 216 more than 1.8 log units compared to the control after 3 h. After 24 h, bacterial counts on 217 phage-treated samples were reduced by 2.2 log units when containing the food-derived isolates S1 (P = 0.021) or S2 (P = 0.032) and by 1.9 log units on samples containing 218 Salmonella LT2 (P = 0.0007) (Figure 6). In subsequent experiments on phage susceptibility 219 220 of recovered Salmonella colonies from the tested skin pieces, no phage-resistant colonies 221 were observed. The numbers of plaques on the lawns from those colonies did closely 222 resemble those of the original strains or isolates (data not shown). A mean phage concentration of log_{10} 9.6 \pm 0.08 PFU/mL (mean \pm SD) was measured on chicken skin 223

contaminated with the food-derived *Salmonella* S1 and of $\log_{10} 9.5 \pm 0.18$ PFU/mL when contaminated with S2 after 24 h. A mean concentration of $\log_{10} 9.3 \pm 0.56$ PFU/mL was detected on the controls containing phages only. In the samples containing *Salmonella* LT2 and its control, mean phage concentrations of $\log_{10} 9.2 \pm 0.11$ PFU/mL and $\log_{10} 9.4 \pm 0.07$ PFU/mL were detected, respectively. The measured concentrations represented an increase in phage concentration of 51 % and 44 % during the experiments with S1 and S2 and a decrease of 51 % in the experiment with *Salmonella* LT2.

In an additional experiment, a lower MOI of 10 was used for treatment of contaminated skin pieces (2.5 x 10^4 PFU/cm²). No significant reduction in *Salmonella* counts was observed in this experiment (data not shown).

234 LmqsSP1 is a new member of the T5-like phages (*Tequintavirus* genus)

235 Whole-genome sequencing and *de novo* assembly of the extracted DNA from purified virions 236 resulted in a single contig of ~110 kb with an average coverage of 200 per consensus base. 237 Manual curation of the assembled consensus sequence resulted in a determination of a final 238 genome size of 109,938 bp. The LmqsSP1 genome exhibited a GC content of 38.8 %, which 239 was significantly lower than the GC content of its host bacteria (~52 %). Further DNA-240 alignments against available virus genomes of the GenBank database, conducted using 241 BLASTn of the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI), showed that the 242 Escherichia coli (E. coli) phages slur09 (total score: 1.478e+05; query cover: 87 %; E-value: 243 0.0; identity: 95.34 %; accession no.: LN887948.1), vB EcoS EASG3 (total score: 1.631e+05; query cover: 89 %; E-value: 0.0; identity: 95.13 %; accession no.: MK373799.1) 244 245 and vB_EcoS_HASG4 (total score: 1.620e+05; query cover: 89 %; E-value: 0.0; identity: 246 95.30 %; accession no. MK373797.1), exhibited a close relationship to LmqsSP1. However, 247 the phylogenetic analysis of the phages showed that despite their close relationship, LmqsSP1 248 clustered independently from slur09 and the almost identical phages vB_EcoS_EASG3 and

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vB_EcoS_HASG4 (Figure 7B and C). Nevertheless, due to the fact that all related phages
belong to the same taxonomical lineage (*Viruses; Caudovirales; Siphoviridae; Tequintavirus*(synonym T5-like viruses)), we suggest allocating LmqsSP1 to the same viral genus.

252 Further bioinformatic analysis revealed that the LmqsSP1 genome exhibited 161 putative 253 open reading frames (ORFs), 15 transfer RNAs (tRNAs) and 64 rho-independent transcription terminators (TTs) (Supplemental Material Dataset S1 and S2). Overall, many of the predicted 254 255 LmqsSP1 gene products showed a close relationship to gene products of phage T5, which represents the prototype and the most prominent member of the Tequintaviruses, or other 256 members of T5-like phages (Supplemental Material Dataset S1). In general, LmqsSP1 257 258 possesses the typical components of T5-like phages. An overview of the functional prediction 259 of the phage-encoded gene products is provided in Figure 7A. Overall, the majority of the gene products are organized in complex units (i.e., units for DNA metabolism and genome 260 261 replication lysis of the host cells and virion assembly), but some genes are localized far away 262 from their functional units. However, as this organization is in good agreement with other 263 members of T5-like phages (i.e., E. coli phages slur09 and EASG3, Figure 7C), the 264 delocalization of the genes might not affect their intended function or their concerted activity 265 (i.e. for the generation of virion particles). To assess the suitability of LmqsSP1 for biocontrol 266 or therapeutical applications, *in-depth* functional predictions of the individual gene products 267 were made. However, we found no gene product involved in a lysogenic behavior (i.e., 268 prophage repressor) and/or chromosomal integration (i.e., phage integrase), supporting the 269 assumption that LmqsSP1 only performs a lytic lifestyle. Furthermore, there was no 270 indication that any LmqsSP1 gene product might be associated with virulence or resistance 271 development. Nevertheless, some gene products showed a structural and functional 272 relationship to homing endonucleases (Supplemental Material Table S1). As the genes of 273 these nucleases are described as being mobile, copies of them can be scattered on a phage 274 genome and/or within its bacterial host. Genome analysis of DNA from the phage LmqsSP1

Applied and Environmental Microbiology after 90 consecutive inoculation cycles with Salmonella host strain LT2 revealed no changes

in its genomic traits and thus demonstrated distinct genome stability of the phage.

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278 Discussion

According to the World Health Organization (29), *Salmonella* is one of four key global causes
of diarrheal diseases, and approximately one million human cases caused by *Salmonella* spp.
in the United States are food derived (30).

282 As shown in Figure 1, the tested bacteriophages LmqsSP1, SP2, SP3, SP4, SP5 and SP6 were 283 able to form plaques on four of 76 food-derived Salmonella isolates with similar or higher 284 efficacy compared to the laboratory host strain LT2. LmqsSP1 showed a 10 to 100-fold 285 reduced plaque formation on 11 Salmonella isolates (Figure 1). On the tested food-derived 286 isolates, the Salmonella phages in this study showed a moderate range of lysed host bacteria, 287 which is comparable to the host range reported for other phages of the Siphoviridae family 288 (31, 32). Highly efficient plaque formation on a broad range of bacterial hosts is known to be 289 an uncommon feature among most phages, especially when bacterial field isolates are tested 290 (33). Thus, phages with different host ranges can be applied simultaneously to increase the 291 range of affected bacterial strains. This application of phage cocktails by adding phages with 292 different host ranges and receptors is especially recommended in commercial settings when 293 the number and susceptibility of bacterial pathogens cannot be determined prior to treatment. 294 Synergistic effects of phage cocktails containing different phages compared to single phages 295 were reported in previous studies (18, 34-36). Phages showing a narrow host range might be 296 especially suitable for targeted reduction of previously identified bacterial strains (37).

Mean burst sizes of LmqsSP1 on the three tested *Salmonella* were measured to be 50 to 61 PFU/cell. This is in accordance with results from previous studies (20, 38-40), while the measured latent periods of approximately 60 min were longer than previously reported for

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300 Salmonella-specific phages, which showed latent periods of 15-25 min (20, 38-40). However, 301 results were consistent with those from studies on the Salmonella-specific siphoviruses STm101, STm118 and PHB06 (19, 39). Comparable with LmqsSP1, STm118 showed a burst 302 303 size of 48 PFU/cell (39). A phage infecting S. Typhimurium that showed a latent period of 50 \pm 5 min was reported by Carey-Smith et al. However, this phage failed to lyse its host strain at 304 5 °C even when the MOI exceeded 10^4 (31). 305

306 A short latent period and a large burst size were suggested as indicators for highly efficient 307 phages (22). Nonetheless, the results showed that LmgsSP1 reduces the Salmonella concentration at 4 °C on chicken skin samples and in broth if a sufficient concentration of 308 309 phage was applied.

310 LmqsSP1 demonstrated a dose-dependent effect in broth, as shown in Figure 4. This is 311 consistent with the finding that bacterial reduction by LmqsSP1 on chicken skin was 312 dependent on its concentration. For a significant reduction of more than 1 log unit, other authors suggested that a minimum MOI of 10^3 or 10^4 is required (42, 43). 313

After 3 h at 4 °C, LmqsSP1 reduced food-derived salmonellae on chicken skin by 1.9 log 314 units. The reduction lasted for the entire storage time. To our knowledge, a limited number of 315 studies with conditions similar to our experiments have been published to date (40, 44-46). A 316 study using a siphovirus at a concentration of 10^7 PFU/mL at 4 °C on S. enterica 317 contaminated chicken skin found that it reduced Salmonella contamination by 2 log units 318 from day 1 to day 7 (44). However, another study using a myovirus at a concentration of 10^{10} 319 320 PFU/mL reduced S. Typhimurium contamination on chicken skin by only 1.2 log units from 6 321 h to 24 h after treatment (40). Other studies applying phages at cooling temperatures on 322 chicken skin detected reductions equal to or less than one log unit (45, 46). At a higher temperature of 8 °C, that allows for the growth of Salmonella, application of a siphovirus at a 323 MOI of 10⁴ on chicken skin resulted in a decrease in Salmonella by 3 log units after 24 h but 324

325 after seven days the reduction accounted for 2.43 log units only (20). Other studies applied phages on chicken meat instead of skin to test their efficacy at retail level. Two phages from 326 the Myoviridae family individually and as a cocktail decreased S. Enteritidis levels on chicken 327 breast by 1.5 and 2.5 log units after 1 h (34). Another phage at an MOI of 10⁴ caused a 328 reduction of about 1.7 log10 CFU/g in S. Typhimurium LT2 counts following 24 h of 329 treatment (28). A cocktail of a myovirus and a siphovirus eradicated S. Typhimurium and S. 330 331 Enteritidis within 15 min when chicken breast samples were wrapped in plastic coated with ~ 10^{12} PFU/mL (10^8 PFU/cm²), and this effectiveness remained stable for one week (47). 332 333 Complete elimination of S. Typhimurium and S. Enteritidis on chicken breast meat was also observed at lower MOIs of 10^4 to 10^2 from 3 h to 16 h after phage treatment when phage 334 cocktails were used (48, 49). However, other studies reported that S. Typhimurium and S. 335 Enteritidis populations were reduced by 0.53 and 1.39 log units only, after using a phage 336 337 cocktail on chicken breast meat in other studies (50). These results show that the food matrix 338 and temperature at which phages are applied can have a major impact on the observed 339 reduction level.

340 Phage concentrations on chicken skin after treatment in our study indicated that phage 341 numbers increased by $\log_{10} 0.3$ and 0.2 PFU/ml (51 % and 44 %), respectively during the experiments with S1 and S2 and decreased by log₁₀ 0.2 PFU/ml (minus 51 %) with 342 343 Salmonella strain LT2 compared to the controls. Considering the high MOI applied, this might indicate that reduction of the strain LT2 may have occurred by inundation without 344 345 phage replication. In the experiments with field isolates S1 and S2, replication occurred. The 346 resulting increase in total phage numbers exceeded the expected increase after one replication cycle in all available bacterial cells (10⁴ CFU/chicken skin 10,000-fold, based on the 347 determined burst size of the phages). However, considering the high number of spatial 348 349 segments on the chicken skin and the likely non-uniform distribution of phages and bacteria 350 in these segments (41), killing by phage inundation without phage replication and killing by a

351 phage infection that resulted in final phage progeny release might have occurred 352 simultaneously in different segments of the matrix. The outcome of the experiments might 353 thus be rather a result of the predominating process than of killing by either inundation or 354 productive phage infection (25).

In poultry meat production, processes are tightly connected and time intervals for treatment of 355 356 meat by using phages are limited. However, some studies reported that reduction in 357 Salmonella concentrations was dependent on extended times of incubation (36, 54, 55). The 358 characteristics of chicken skin include feather follicles, high fat content and large folded surfaces, providing protection for Salmonella from eradication by antimicrobial treatments 359 360 (41, 44, 51). The recovered colonies from treated skins were susceptible to LmqsSP1 and thus full reduction by the phages would have been expected if no protection by the matrix 361 362 occurred. In addition, the reducing effect on Salmonella load on chicken skin was 363 significantly smaller than in broth medium at the same temperature, indicating that the 364 efficiency of phages was negatively affected on chicken skin. Short periods of phage activity 365 may limit the efficiency of bacterial reduction under commercial conditions when lytic phage 366 infection is required for reduction (17). This practical aspect suggests that using a high titer of 367 bacteriophage is crucial for achieving efficient results by passive inundation or a combination 368 of lytic infection and passive inundation under commercial conditions of poultry meat 369 production. It has also been emphasized that a homogeneous application of phages is 370 necessary for a good coverage of all host bacteria present (20, 46, 52). To achieve this, an 371 appropriate spray equipment (46) and high volumes of liquid (52) have been recommended. 372 However, it has been proposed that phage application in chilling water at chicken slaughtering 373 plants could be more efficient than spraying (20). Whilst extended use of current chemical 374 treatments such as chlorine can lead to a decline in the organoleptic quality of the meat (45), 375 application of phages does not affect the organoleptic properties of chicken carcasses (9). The

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latter could, additionally increase the possibility of bacterial reduction through the mechanism
of passive inundation, particularly for low bacterial concentrations on chicken skin, and could
consequently restrict the emergence of BMIs throughout the process until use when followed
by refrigeration (53).

380 Results suggest that bacteriophage insensitive mutants did not occur after application of 381 LmqsSP1 under the applied conditions. However, while none of the investigated Salmonella 382 isolates recovered from phage-treated skin pieces after phage treatment showed reduced 383 susceptibility to LmgsSP1, all tested re-isolates from liquid culture were insensitive after an extended one-week incubation of LmqsSP1 with S. Typhimurium LT2 at 37 °C. Bacterial 384 385 growth and long storage, optimal nutrient supply and growth temperatures do not reflect conditions of practical application settings. These conditions might enhance the spread of 386 phage-resistant isolates due to an increased number of replication cycles compared to 387 388 practical settings or a short incubation period (27, 38). However, further research on 389 conditions favoring the occurrence of reduced phage-susceptibility and influencing the fitness of resistant isolates is urgently needed (27). After application on chicken skin, few sensitive 390 391 bacteria remaining after treatment with phages might result from the lacking adsorption of 392 phages to bacteria hidden in holes and pores in the chicken skin. This is in accordance with 393 other studies (9, 44, 52). In agreement with these results, growth of the tested Salmonella in 394 liquid medium at 37 °C was inhibited for a minimum 7.5 h without regrowth as shown in Figure 4. No isolates were recovered for susceptibility testing after this experiment, but results 395 396 indicate that resistance might only occur after prolonged incubation in liquid culture. In 397 contrast to these findings, regrowth was reported 5 to 8 h after significant reductions or briefly 398 after phage application in other studies (38, 56), and O'Flynn et al. detected bacteriophage insensitive mutants after 99% reduction of an S. Typhimurium strain by the commercial phage 399 400 Felix 01 (56). Bai et al. concluded that the rapid occurrence of bacteriophage resistance in

401 bacterial populations is a significant limitation for the efficacy of phage application (6).

402 However, findings of other studies were in accordance with our results (7, 44).

403

404 In conclusion, the fast and significant reduction in foodborne S. Typhimurium isolates in 405 liquid medium for 10 h without considerable bacterial regrowth and under conditions 406 resembling the situation in the food production chain on chicken skin, demonstrates that LmqsSP1 is a potential candidate for biocontrol of Salmonella in food. LmqsSP1 could be 407 408 used for the reduction of known Salmonella strains, in bacteriophage cocktails or in 409 combination with other techniques as a multi-hurdle approach. Based on the genome 410 sequence, the phage LmqsSP1 was assessed to be well suited for phage application, as no genes with undesired effects were identified. Some gene products showed a structural and 411 412 functional relationship to homing endonucleases. These gene copies might represent target sites for homologous recombination, potentially leading to genomic adaptions of the bacterial 413 host and/or the phage. Within our study, we found no indication of a genetic instability of the 414 415 phage genome that might be associated with potential changes of either its lytic activity or the 416 spectrum of the infected bacterial hosts. However, further long-time analyses are necessary to assess the genetic stability of the phage in detail. Based on the prevailing results from the 417 418 bioinformatics analysis, LmqsSP1 seemed to be suited for application issues.

419 Nonetheless, the presence of some mobile genes might influence the genetic stability of the 420 phage during successive or long-term usage. Up to now, there is no indication that the phage 421 sequence and/or the organization of the genes is significantly changed during *in vitro* 422 reduction tests. Further experiments are necessary to determine the genetic stability *in vivo*. In 423 general, members of the T5-like phages are broadly assigned as promising tools for biocontrol 424 or therapeutic applications against *E. coli*, *Salmonella*, and other bacteria (57-59).

425 Materials and Methods

426 Bacterial strains and growth conditions

The S. enterica subsp. enterica serovar Typhimurium strain LT2 was used for bacteriophage 427 detection and isolation. Host range analysis was conducted using 76 Salmonella isolates 428 429 originating from current food samples of different animal species (Table 2), S. Typhimurium host strain LT2 and two E. coli O157:H7 (DSM 19206 and DSM 17076). Host bacteria were 430 cultivated on blood agar (Columbia Agar with 5 % sheep blood, Thermo Scientific Inc., 431 432 Waltham, MA, USA) at 37 °C overnight for all experiments. Thereafter, one colony was used for a subsequent culturing in lysogeny broth (LB) (Carl Roth GmbH, Karlsruhe, Germany) 433 supplemented with CaCl₂ (at a final concentration of 1 mM/L) at 37 °C for 3 h for an 434 approximate optical density (OD_{600}) of 0.5. This early logarithmic culture was then used for 435 phage infection assays. 436

437 Bacteriophage isolation and propagation

The soft-agar overlay technique was used to detect *Salmonella*-specific phages from different
sample matrices. Out of 52 samples originating from different farms in northern Germany, the
majority were chicken feces (n=34) or cecal content of poultry (chickens (n=6), turkeys (n=2)
and Peking ducks (n=1)), while only nine samples were nasal swabs (n=5) and manure (n=4)
from cattle.

For sample preparation, ~6 g of each matrix was suspended for 1 min in 30 mL sodium 443 chloride-magnesium sulfate (SM) buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl, 8 mM magnesium sulfate, 100 444 445 mM sodium chloride, and 0.01% gelatin, pH 7.5) using a Turrax homogenizer (IKA-Werke 446 GmbH & Co. KG, Staufen, Germany). After overnight shaking in the refrigerator, the suspensions were centrifuged twice at 4 °C (4,000 x g for 20 min and 13,000 x g for 10 min). 447 448 The remaining supernatant was filtered through a 0.22 µm membrane filter (VWR International GmbH, Darmstadt, Germany). For phage isolation and purification, the S. 449 Typhimurium strain LT2 was cultured with the sample using soft-agar overlay technique as 450

Applied and Environmental Microbiology 451 described previously (60). Briefly, 100 μ L of the samples and 100 μ L of exponentially growing S. Typhimurium strain LT2 were added to 5 mL of LB soft agar (0.4% w/v agar 452 bacteriological, 2 mM CaCl₂), poured onto petri dishes containing LB agar (1.5% w/v agar 453 454 bacteriological, 2 mM CaCl₂) and incubated at 37 °C overnight. Phages were isolated and purified by a successive three-fold picking and plating procedure of single plaques. 455 Subsequently, phages were propagated to obtain concentrations of 10^9 to 10^{10} PFU/mL and 456 457 stored at 4 °C for further use. The phage titer was determined by plating 100 μ L of a 10-fold 458 serial dilution series of the phage suspension on S. Typhimurium LT2 using the soft-agar overlay technique. For testing phage genome stability, 100 µL of filtrated phage culture was 459 460 serially incubated with 100 µL of S. Typhimurium strain LT2 overnight culture for 24-72 h at 461 37 °C in 5 mL Mueller-Hinton broth. The phage filtrate of one incubation was used for the subsequent 90 consecutive incubation cycles. The final phage culture was used for phage 462 463 propagation and DNA extraction, sequencing and bioinformatics analysis as described below.

464 Host range and efficiency of plating (EOP)

465 Serial dilutions were spotted on soft-agar overlays to determine the relative efficiency of 466 plating as previously described by Kutter et al. (61). Briefly, the bacterial overlay agar was 467 prepared as described above using the food-derived Salmonella isolates, S. Typhimurium 468 strain LT2 and the *E. coli* strains without the addition of phages. Subsequently, 10 μ L of 10-469 fold serial dilutions of the purified phages were applied on these lawns. The plates were incubated at 37 °C for 24 h after the phage suspensions had been absorbed by the medium. 470 471 Each test was performed in triplicate. The sensitivity of the tested bacteria to the phages was 472 determined by counting the number of plaques in the spots. The relative efficiency of plating 473 (EOP) was defined as the phage titer on a given bacterial lawn divided by the maximum titer 474 observed on the original host S. Typhimurium strain LT2.

475 Negative-staining of phages

476 Thin carbon support films were prepared by evaporating a carbon thread onto a freshly cleaved mica surface (Bal-Tech SCD500). After cutting small pieces of mica (approximately 477 3 mm in length), the phages were negatively stained with 4% (w/v) aqueous uranyl acetate, 478 479 pH 5.0, in accordance with the method of Valentine et al. (62). In brief: Phages were adsorbed for 15-30 sec onto the carbon film, washed in TE buffer (10 mM TRIS, 1 mM EDTA, pH 6.9) 480 and picked up with a 300-mesh nickel grid, blotted dry on a filter paper and subsequently air-481 482 dried. Dried samples were examined in a TEM 910 transmission electron microscope (Carl 483 Zeiss Industrielle Messtechnik GmbH, Oberkochen, Germany) at an acceleration voltage of 80 kV. Images were taken at calibrated magnifications using a line replica. Images were 484 485 recorded digitally with a Slow-Scan CCD-Camera (ProScan, 1024x1024, Proscan Elektronische Systeme GmbH, Scheuring, Germany) with ITEM-Software (Olympus Soft 486 Imaging Solutions GmbH, Münster, Germany). 487

488 The head diameter and tail length were determined using Image J software version 1.51q and489 calculating the average size from a minimum of ten measurements.

490 **One-step growth experiments**

491 One-step growth experiments were performed as previously described by Hyman and Abedon (63) with some modifications. For this purpose, LmqsSP1 was incubated at 37 °C with the 492 493 Salmonella LT2 and the food-derived isolates S1 and S2. Briefly, the cultures of the host bacteria were grown to an OD_{600} of 0.5 and mixed with LmqsSP1 at a multiplicity of infection 494 (MOI) of 0.1. After allowing the phage to adsorb to the target bacteria for 10 min at room 495 temperature, samples were centrifuged at 1,300 x g for 4 min at 4 °C and the excess free 496 phages in the supernatant were discarded. The pelleted cells were suspended in fresh LB and 497 placed in a heating block at 37 °C for the duration of the experiment. Samples were 498 499 withdrawn and concentrations of phages in the samples were measured immediately at 5 or 10 500 min-intervals for up to 2 h. Experiments were performed in duplicate and were repeated three

times. The latent period and burst size were calculated as described previously (63).

502 Bacterial challenge tests - *in vitro* experiments at 37 °C

503 Growth inhibition experiments

504 Growth inhibition of S. Typhimurium LT2, and the food-derived isolates S1 and S2 was tested using the method described by O'Flynn et al. (56), with some modifications. Briefly, 505 506 bacterial cells were grown to a McFarland of 2.4 and diluted to McFarland 0.5 in fresh LB (approximately 10⁸ CFU/mL). Three hundred microliters of the aforementioned cultures and 507 of LmgsSP1 at concentrations of 10^3 to 10^9 PFU/mL were mixed in a 48-well microplate, and 508 509 after 10 min at room temperature, incubated in a TECAN SPARK® microplate reader (Tecan 510 Group AG., Männedorf, Switzerland) at 37 °C. Bacterial cultures inoculated with LB instead 511 of phages served as negative controls. The absorbance at 595 nm was measured every 10 min during a 10-h period. 512

513 Bacterial challenge tests - *in vitro* experiments at 4 °C and on chicken skin

514 Reduction experiments in vitro

To determine the efficacy of LmqsSP1 for the reduction of salmonellae at 4 °C, phages were 515 added to bacterial cultures in LB at an MOI of 10^4 and 10^5 CFU/mL. Briefly, exponentially 516 growing salmonellae (strain LT2 and the food-derived isolates S1 and S2) were diluted in LB 517 to a final concentration of 10^4 and 10^3 CFU/mL and 100 μ L of LmgsSP1 at a titer of 10^{10} 518 PFU/mL was added. The same amount of SM buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl, 8 mM magnesium 519 520 sulfate, 100 mM sodium chloride, and 0.01% gelatin, pH 7.5) was added instead of phage for 521 negative controls. The number of viable Salmonella cells was determined after incubation at 4 522 °C for 24 h by using the pour plate method in accordance with ISO 4833-1:2013 (64) with 523 slight modifications. In brief, LB agar (1.5 % agar, Carl Roth GmbH & Co. KG) was poured 524 into petri dishes containing 1 mL of serial dilutions of the samples. The agar plates were prepared in duplicate and incubated at 37 °C, and colonies were counted after 24 h. Each test 525 526 was performed three times.

To determine the efficacy of LmgsSP1 for reduction of salmonellae on chicken skin, the 528 529 experiments were carried out following the method described by Guenther et al. (52), with some modifications. Briefly, irradiated chicken skin pieces of 25 cm^2 (radiation in a Cobalt-60 530 Gamma irradiation facility 3000 at a dose of 13.77 kGy \pm 1) were inoculated with 100 µL of 531 the respective Salmonella isolate or strain at a concentration of 10⁵ CFU/mL on both sides, 532 aiming at an initial concentration of approximately 2×10^3 CFU/cm². Skin pieces were 533 534 incubated at 4 °C for 1 h, allowing the bacteria to adapt to the low temperature. Subsequently, 100 μ L of LmqsSP1 were applied to the skin pieces, aiming at a concentration of about 2.5 x 535 10⁸ PFU/cm². On the negative controls, 100 µL SM buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl, 8 mM 536 537 magnesium sulfate, 100 mM sodium chloride, and 0.01% gelatin, pH 7.5) was applied instead 538 of phages, and positive controls were treated with phages without Salmonella contamination. 539 One skin piece was used for confirming the sterility after incubation. Samples were incubated for one week at 4 °C in a refrigerator. An additional experiment with a phage concentration of 540 2.5×10^4 PFU/cm² was carried out for 48 h. The experiments were conducted in three 541 replicates for S. Typhimurium LT2 and repeated four times for the field isolates S1 and S2. 542

543 Concentrations of viable bacteria on the skin pieces were enumerated after 3 h, 24 h and 48 h 544 and after one week of storage, respectively. For this purpose, 20 mL SM buffer was added to 545 each skin sample in a sterile plastic bag and samples were shaken and squeezed for 2 min. A 1 546 mL aliquot of the suspension was serially diluted 1:10 and plated in duplicate on LB agar by 547 using the pour plate method. Plates were incubated for 48 h at 37 °C, and *Salmonella* counts 548 were enumerated after 24 h and 48 h.

549 Phage concentration on the skin pieces was determined after 24 h by using the soft-agar
550 overlay technique as described above. Briefly, samples derived from enumeration of bacteria

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551 were filtrated through 0.22 µm pore-size filters (VWR International GmbH, Hannover,

Germany) and serially diluted (1:10) in SM buffer and plated in duplicate on LB agar. 552

Bacterial resistance testing 553

554 To assess the phage-susceptibility among bacteria that had survived treatment with LmqsSP1 555 in the experiments on chicken skin, soft-agar overlay technique was used to verify plaque formation. Salmonella colonies were picked from LB agar and were plated with 100 µL of 556 serially diluted phage suspension containing up to 10^9 PFU/mL. Isolates were considered to 557 show reduced susceptibility when plaque formation was reduced by more than one 558 559 logarithmic unit compared to plaque formation on the original Salmonella isolate. Bacterial 560 resistance was tested after challenge tests and in a separate experiment after an extended 561 incubation period of 7 days in Mueller-Hinton broth with Salmonella LT2. After incubation, 562 dilutions of the culture were plated on LB-agar and 50 Salmonella isolates were picked and 563 examined for their susceptibility towards LmqsSP1 as described above for host range testing 564 but with only one replicate per isolate.

Extraction of phage DNA, whole genome sequencing and bioinformatics analysis 565

566 For DNA extraction, phage solution was prepared using a cesium chloride density gradient as 567 described previously (65), with some modifications. Subsequently, DNA was extracted by 568 using the Promega Wizard-Kit in accordance with the manufacturer's instructions (Promega GmbH, Walldorf, Germany). Briefly, 300 mL of phage lysate from a liquid culture in LB 569 containing about 10^9 PFU/mL was centrifuged for sedimentation of phages at 24,000 x g for 2 570 h at 10 °C (Avanti J-26S XP, Beckmann Coulter Inc., Brea, CA, USA). After removing the 571 572 supernatant, phage sediment was suspended overnight in 1.6 mL of SM buffer (50 mM Tris-573 HCl, 8 mM magnesium sulfate, 100 mM sodium chloride, and 0.01% gelatin, pH 7.5) on an 574 orbital shaker at 120 rpm and filtered through 0.22 µm pore size filters (Rotilabo syringe filter; Carl Roth GmbH & Co KG). Subsequently, the gradient was prepared by pipetting 500 575

576 μ L of four cesium chloride solutions at p = 1.6, 1.5, 1.4, and 1.3 sequentially into the bottom of a thinwall tube. Two milliliters of the phage suspension was layered on the top of the CsCl 577 gradient and tubes were subjected to ultracentrifugation in an Optima XPN-100 with an SW 578 579 60 Ti Rotor (Beckmann Coulter Inc.) at 165,100 x g and 4 °C for 2 h. Phage bands were collected and dialyzed against SM buffer overnight. The phage suspensions were treated with 580 10-fold reaction buffer (100 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5), 25 mM MgCl₂ und 1 mM CaCl₂, Thermo 581 582 Fisher Scientific Inc., Waltham, MA, USA), 0.2 mg/mL RNase A and 0.002 U/µL DNase I (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc. at 37 °C overnight, and DNA was extracted by using the 583 Promega Wizard-Kit in accordance with the manufacturer's instructions. Whole genome 584 585 sequencing of phage DNA was performed in-house at the German Federal Institute for Risk Assessment, Berlin, Germany (BfR). DNA-sequencing libraries were generated using the 586 Nextera XT DNA Library Flex Preparation Kit (Illumina Inc., San Diego, CA, USA) 587 588 according to the recommendations of the manufacturer. Short read, paired-end sequencing 589 was conducted on an Illumina MiSeq benchtop device using the MiSeq Reagent v3 600-cycle 590 Kit (Illumina). Long-read WGS was conducted using phage DNA on a MinIon device 591 (Oxford Nanopore, Oxford, UK). The raw reads from both short- and long-read sequencing 592 platforms were subjected to a hybrid assembly (unicycler, v.0.44). Initial annotation was 593 performed using the Pathosystems Resource Integration Center (www.patricbrc.org). For final 594 prediction of specific gene product functions BLASTp (NCBI) was used. Further basic sequence analyses and DNA alignments were carried out using DS Gene (Accelrys Inc., San 595 596 Diego, CA, USA). Prediction of genetic elements (i.e., ORFs, transcription terminators and 597 tRNAs) on the phage genome was conducted as described previously (66, 67).

598 Nucleotide sequence accession number

The complete nucleotide sequence of the *Salmonella* phage vB_StyS-LmqsSP1 was depositedin GenBank under the accession number MT577844.

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601 Statistical analysis. Bacterial concentrations of the groups were compared using paired t-test 602 with Bonferroni correction for detecting significant differences. Comparison of bacterial 603 numbers in treated groups and the control group was performed by using the Dunnet's test. 604 Analysis of trend in time was carried out using mixed models, considering time as the random 605 effect. All statistical analyses of bacterial challenge tests were performed using the R software 606 package version 3.5.3, and clustering (20) of bacteriophage host range was performed using 607 version 3.5.2.

608

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Phage	Sample	Animal	Propagation
isolate	type	origin ^a	(PFU increase)
LmqsSP1	nasal swab	cow	fast
LmqsSP2	feces	chicken	fast
LmqsSP3	feces	chicken	fast
LmqsSP4	feces	chicken	fast
LmqsSP5	feces	chicken	low^b
LmqsSP6	feces	chicken	low^b
LmqsSP7	feces	chicken	low^b
LmqsSP8	feces	chicken	low^b
LmqsSP9	feces	chicken	low^b
LmqsSP10	feces	chicken	low^b

788 TABLE 1 Origin and growth characteristics of isolated phages

789 ^{*a*}Samples originated from different farms in northern Germany

^bA sufficient concentration of $>10^6$ PFU/mL was not met after two production cycles

791

792 TABLE 2 Origin and serotype of food-derived Salmonella isolates

Salmonella isolate	Food sample	Animal origin	Serovar or -group
S1	minced meat	Pig	Typhimurium
S2	minced meat	Cattle, Pig	Typhimurium
	(mixed)		
S3	heart	Pig	Typhimurium
S4	meat	Pig	Typhimurium
S5	liver	Pig	Typhimurium
S6	minced meat	Cattle, Pig	Serogroup B
	(mixed)		
S7	meat	Deer	Saintpaul
S8	crust	Pig	Typhimurium
S9	meat	Poultry	Typhimurium
S 10	minced meat	Cattle, Pig	Derby
	(mixed)		
S11	meat	Poultry	Serogroup C
S12	minced meat	Cattle, Pig	Derby
	(mixed)		
S13	minced meat	Cattle, Pig	Typhimurium
	(mixed)		

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S14	minced meat	Pig	Typhimurium
S15	minced meat	Pig	Typhimurium
S16	meat	Turkey	Bovismorbificans
S17	minced meat	Pig	ssp. enterica. rough
			variant
S18	meat	Poultry	ssp. enterica rough
			variant
S19	minced meat	unknown	ssp. enterica rough
			variant
S20	meat	Poultry	ssp. enterica rough
			variant
S21	minced meat	Pig	Livingstone
S22	minced meat	unknown	Infantis
S23	meat	Poultry	Enteritidis
S24	meat	Poultry	Heidelberg
S25	meat	Poultry	Minnesota
S26	minced meat	Pig	Typhimurium
S27	meat	Poultry	ssp. enterica rough
			variant
S28	meat	Poultry	Kottbus
S29	meat	Pig	Derby
S 30	meat	Poultry	Infantis
S31	meat	Poultry	Minnesota
S32	minced meat	unknown	Typhimurium
S33	meat	Poultry	ssp. enterica rough
			variant
S34	meat	Poultry	Paratyphi B
S35	meat	Poultry	Enteritidis
S36	meat	Poultry	Montevideo
S37	meat	Poultry	Paratyphi B
S38	meat	Poultry	Heidelberg
S39	meat	Poultry	Heidelberg
S40	meat	Poultry	Heidelberg
S41	meat	Poultry	Paratyphi B
		20	

S42	meat	Poultry	Enteritidis
S43	meat	Poultry	Derby
S44	meat	Poultry	Newport
S45	minced meat	unknown	Typhimurium
			monophasic variant
S46	minced meat	Pig	Derby
S47	minced meat	Cattle, Pig	Muenchen
	(mixed)		
S48	minced meat	Cattle	Infantis
S49	minced meat	Pig	London
S50	meat	Poultry	Minnesota
S51	minced meat	Cattle	Coeln
S52	meat	Poultry	Hadar
S53	meat	Poultry	Paratyphi B
S54	meat	Poultry	Infantis
S55	meat	Poultry	Livingstone
S56	minced meat	Pig	Typhimurium
S57	meat	Poultry	Braenterup
S58	meat	Poultry	Schwarzengrund
S59	meat	Poultry	Newport
S60	meat	Poultry	Newport
S61	ground pork	Pig	Infantis
S62	ground pork	Pig	Typhimurium
			monophasic variant
S63	meat	Poultry	Minnesota
S64	meat	Poultry	Anatum
S65	meat	Poultry	Indiana
S66	meat	Poultry	Enteritidis
S67	meat	Poultry	Indiana
S68	meat	Poultry	Infantis
S69	ground pork	Pig	Typhimurium
S70	meat	Poultry	ssp. indica
S71	meat	Poultry	ssp. indica
S72	meat	Poultry	Infantis
		31	

S73	minced meat	unknown	Paratyphi B
S74	meat	Poultry	Saintpaul
S75	minced meat	Pig	Brandenburg
S76	ground pork	Pig	Derby

FIG. 1. Heatmap of phage host range; phages are displayed on the x-axis and bacterial isolates and strains on the y-axis; no lysis, at highest phage titer EOP < 0.001 with turbid plaques or inhibitory zone, EOP < 0.1, 0.1≤EOP< 1, 1≤EOP≤10, EOP>10. FIG. 2. (A) Plaques of the examined bacteriophage vB_StyS-LmqsSP1; scale bar represents 3 mm; (B) Transmission electron micrograph of negatively stained phage vB_StyS-LmqsSP1; scale bar represents 100 nm. FIG. 3. Growth of vB_StyS-LmqsSP1. One-step growth experiments at a multiplicity of infection of 0.1 using Salmonella LT2 (A) as well as the field isolates S1 (B) and S2 (C) as bacterial hosts. Each experiment was performed in triplicate. The highest concentration (PFU/mL) indicates the burst size (S) and double-headed arrows indicate the latent period (L). Error bars represent standard error of the mean. FIG. 4. Efficacy of the bacteriophage vB_StyS-LmqsSP1 in inhibiting growth of S. Typhimurium LT2 (A) and field isolates S1 (B) and S2 (C) at different MOIs in LB. Graphs represent mean values of optical density of Salmonella cultures infected with bacteriophage vB_StyS-LmqsSP1 from three experiments.

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821 FIG. 5. Efficacy of bacteriophage vB_StyS-LmqsSP1 in reducing S. Typhimurium LT2 (A), and field isolates 822 S1 (B) and S2 (C) in LB at 4 °C. Exponentially growing Salmonella cultures at concentrations of 10³ and 10⁴ 823 CFU/mL were inoculated with 109 PFU/ml vB_StyS-LmqsSP1. Gray bars indicate mean concentrations of 824 Salmonella in the control and white bars in the experiment. Experiments were performed in triplicate. Error bars 825 indicate the standard error mean (SEM). 826 827 828 829 FIG. 6. Efficacy of vB_StyS-LmqsSP1 in reducing S. Typhimurium LT2 (A) and field isolates S1 (B) and S2 830 (C) on chicken skin. Skin pieces were treated with phages at an MOI of 10⁵ and stored for one week at 4 °C. 831 Mean concentrations of Salmonella on treated skin pieces (triangles, solid lines) and controls (dots, dashed lines) 832 are presented as mean log₁₀ CFU/mL ± SEM of three (A) or four ((B), (C)) experiments. 833

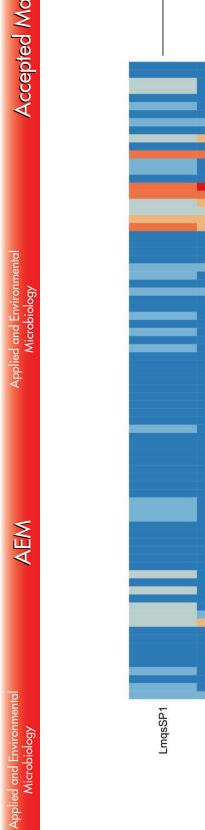
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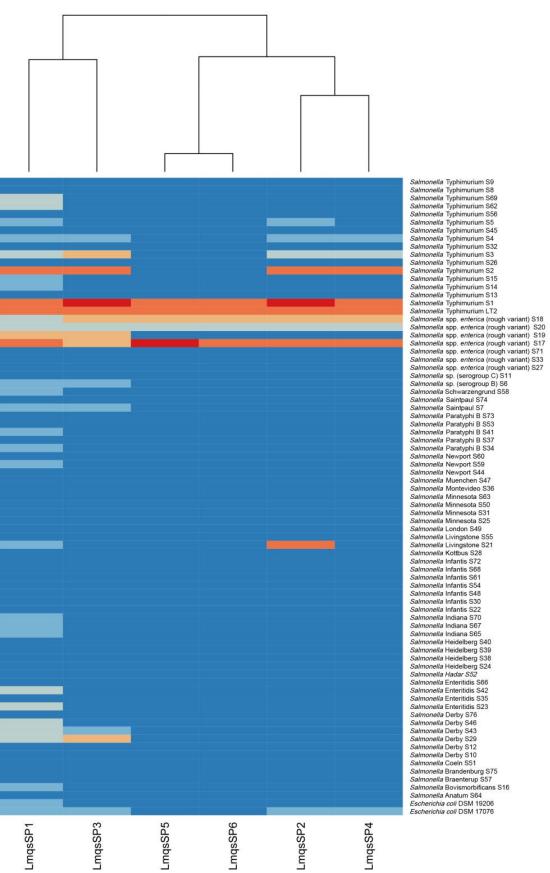
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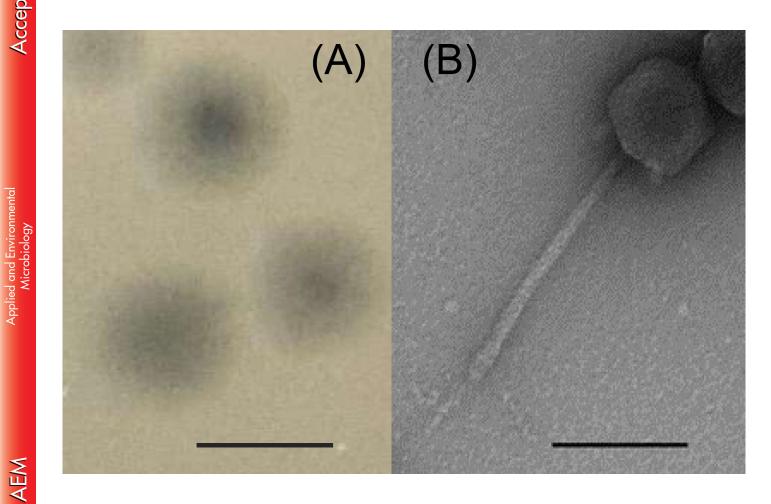
FIG. 7 vB_StyS-LmqsSP1 genome analysis and similarities to other phages (A) Genetic map of the examined
bacteriophage LmqsSP1. Putative genes are colored according to the predicted functions of their products. (B)
Phylogenetic analysis of LmqsSP1 and the related *E. coli* phages slur09, EASG3 and HASG4. (C) Agreement of
the genome organization of LmqsSP1 and the T5 like phages, slur09 and EASG3.

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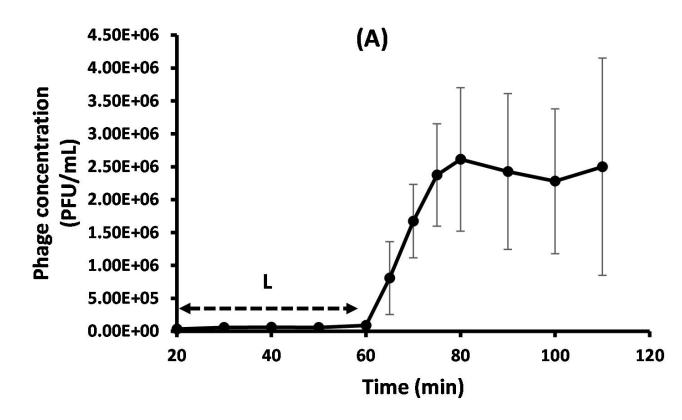
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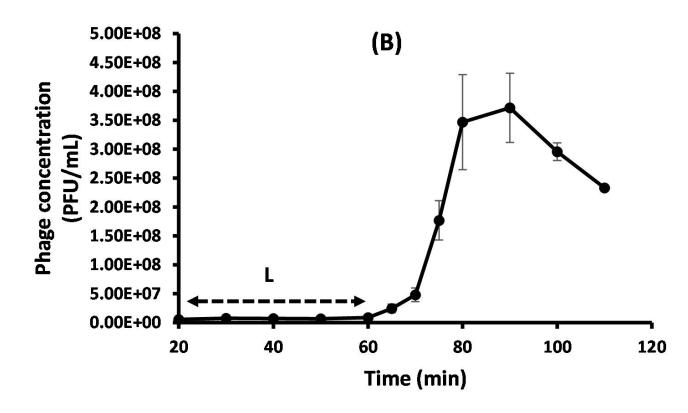




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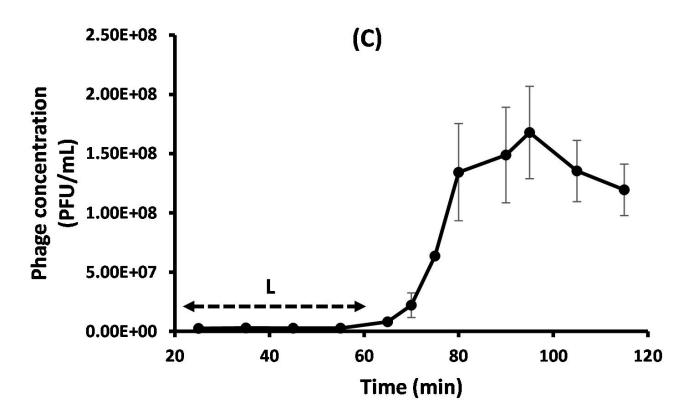


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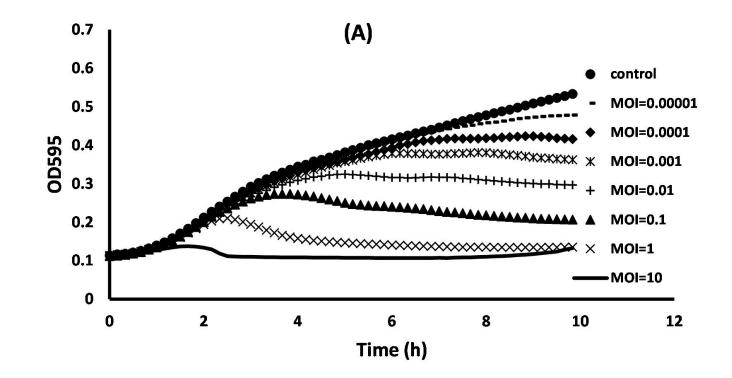
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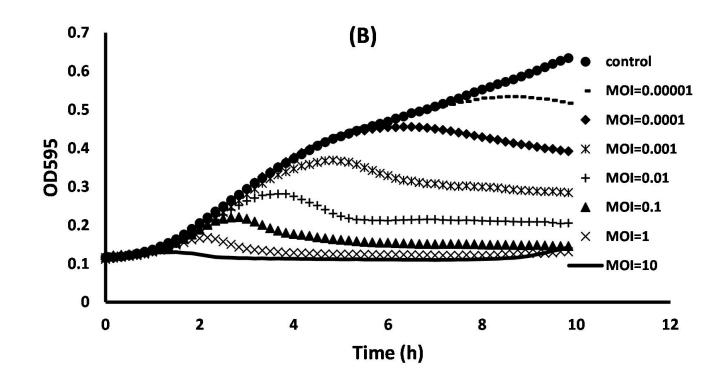
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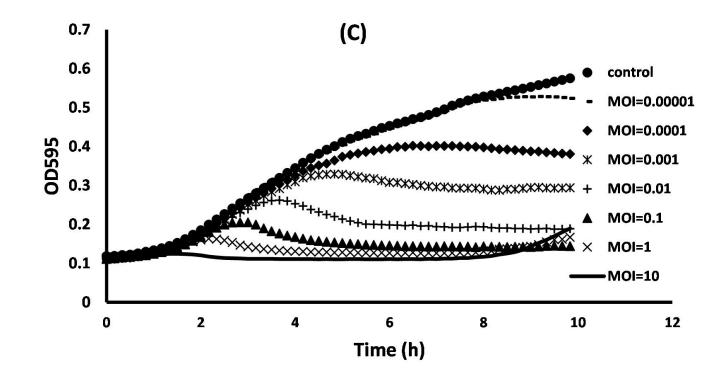


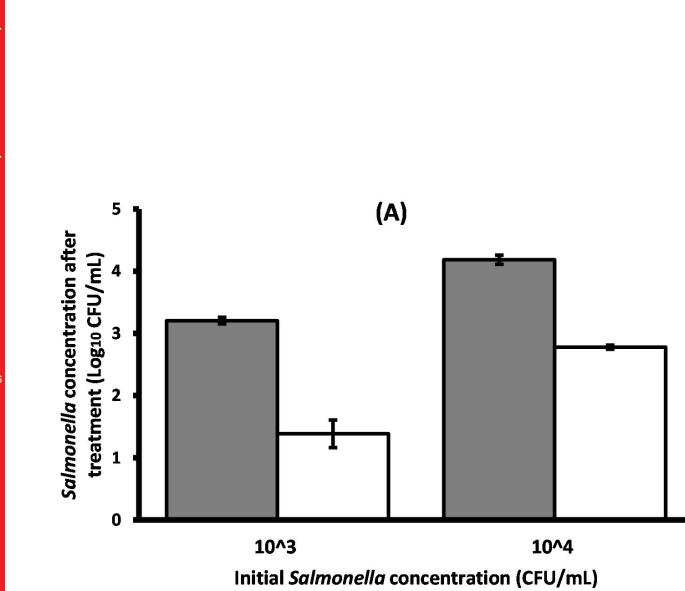
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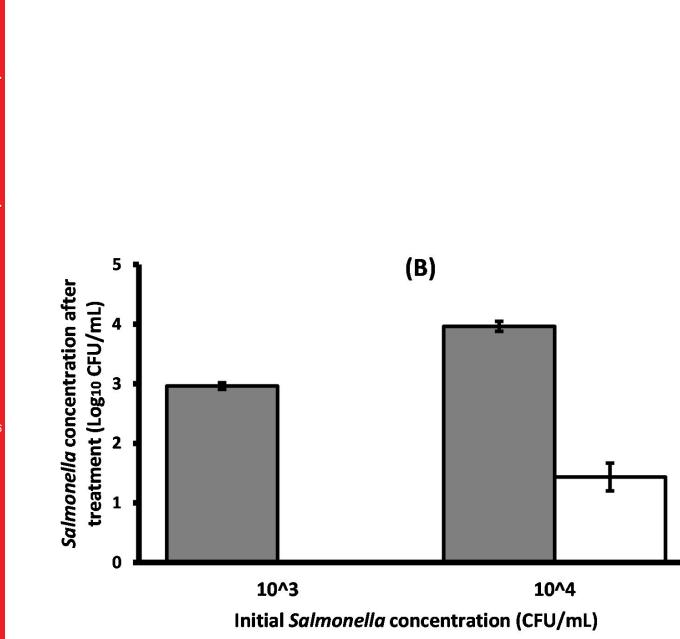
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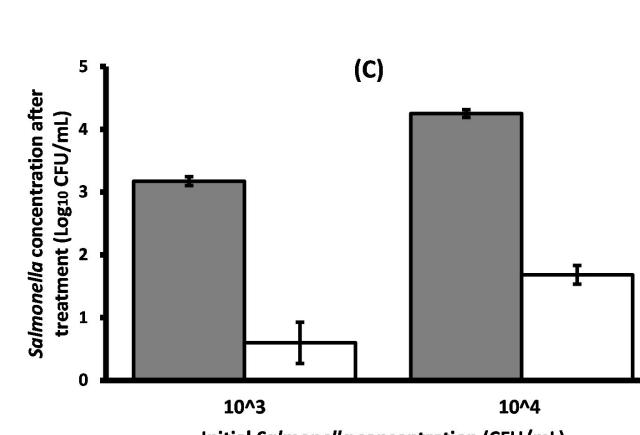






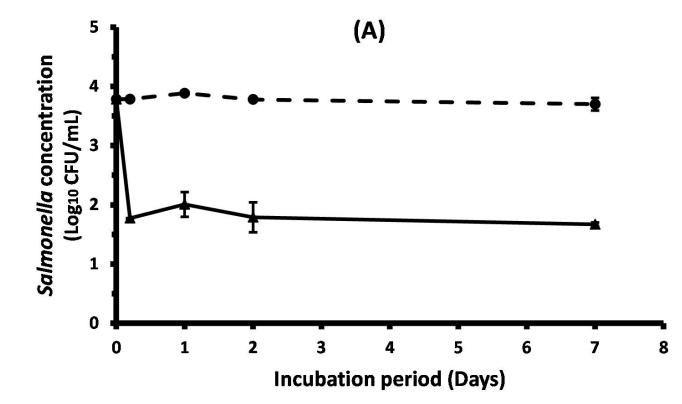






Initial Salmonella concentration (CFU/mL)

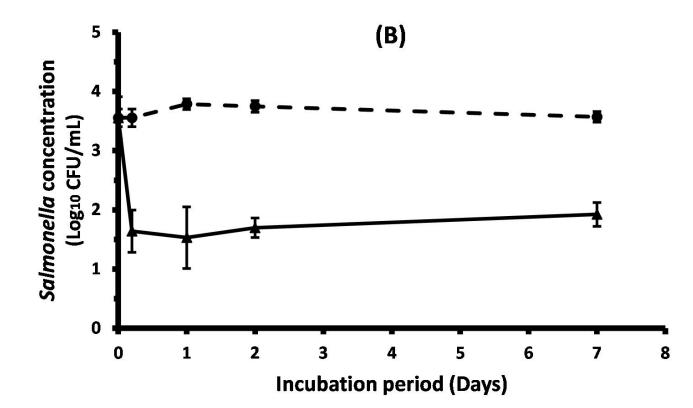
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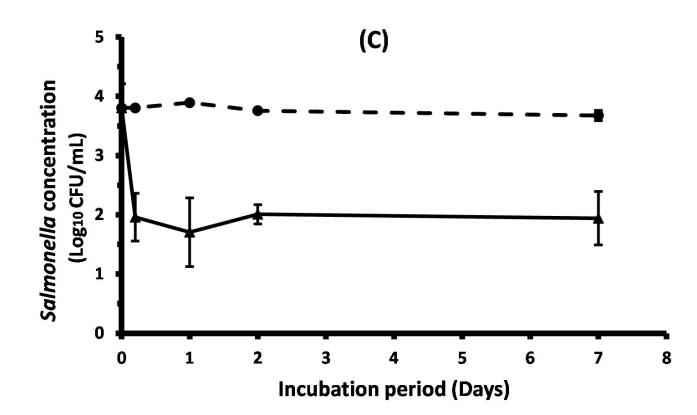
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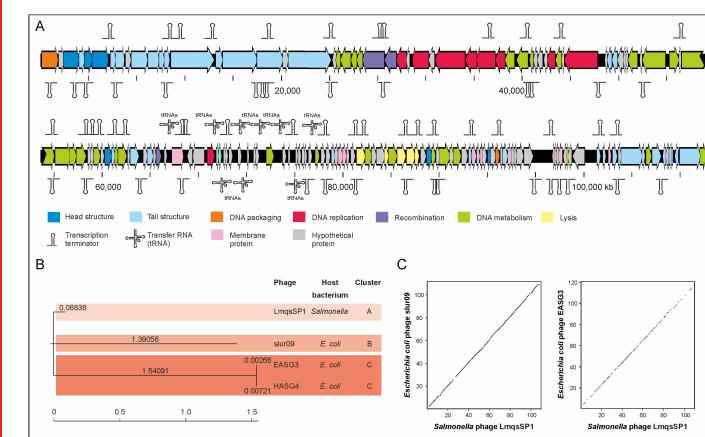
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