

VINÍCIUS DA SILVA DUARTE

**USO DO BACTERÍÓFAGO vB_EcoM-UFV13 COMO
POTENCIAL AGENTE ANTIMASTÍTICO EM VACAS
LEITEIRAS**

Tese apresentada à Universidade Federal de Viçosa, como parte das exigências do Programa de Pós-Graduação em Microbiologia Agrícola, para obtenção do título de *Doctor Scientiae*.

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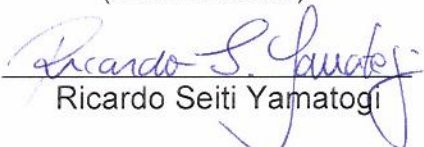
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Dedico este trabalho aos meus pais Adalberto e Maria, minhas irmãs Larissa e Franciele, minha querida família e aos bons e velhos amigos.

“É junto dos bão que a gente fica mió!”
(Guimarães Rosa, Grande sertão:
Veredas)

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SUMÁRIO

RESUMO	viii
ABSTRACT	x
1. Introdução Geral	1
1.1. Pecuária leiteira no Brasil	1
1.2. Mastite bovina	2
1.3. Tratamentos para mastite bovina	3
1.4. Bactérias causadoras da mastite bovina e a formação de biofilme ...	4
1.5. Bacteriófagos e a fagoterapia	4
2. Objetivo geral	7
3. Objetivos específicos	7
4. Referências	8
Manuscrito 1	13
1. Introduction	15
2. Materials and methods	17
2.1 Bacteriophage vB_EcoM-UFV13	17
2.1.2 Morphology analysis	18
2.2 Biofilm assays	18
2.2.1 Strains and growth conditions	18
2.2.2 Biofilm cell count	19
2.2.3 Scanning electron microscopy	20
2.2.4 Statistical analysis	20
2.3 Genome analysis	21
2.3.1 Genome extraction	21
2.3.2 Genome sequence	21
2.3.3 Bioinformatic analysis	22
3. Results	22
3.1 Isolation and morphological characterization	22
3.2 Biofilm assays	23
3.3 Genome analysis	24
4. Discussion	32
5. Conclusion	37
6. References	38
Manuscrito 2	44

1. Introduction	47
2. Materials and methods.....	49
2.1. vB_EcoM-UFV13 isolation and purification.....	49
2.2. Bioinformatic analysis	50
2.3. vB_EcoM-UFV13 structural protein analysis	51
2.4. Physiological features.....	52
2.4.1. pH stability	53
2.4.2. Thermal stability	53
2.4.3. Viral ability to propagate in different temperatures	53
2.4.4. Osmotic shock effect	53
2.4.5. Antiviral resistance	54
2.4.6. Organic solvent effect.....	54
2.5. Animal model and immune response.....	54
2.5.1. <i>Escherichia coli</i> 30 strain.....	54
2.5.2. <i>E. coli</i> -induced mastitis in mouse	55
2.6. Histological analysis	56
2.7. Statistical analysis	57
3. Results and discussion	57
3.1. vB_EcoM-UFV13 genome analysis	57
3.2. Viral protein analysis.....	65
3.3. Physiological features.....	66
3.4. <i>E. coli</i> -induced mastitis mouse model.....	69
4. Conclusion	73
5. References.....	74
CONCLUSÃO GERAIS.....	85
ANEXOS	86
ANEXO 1	87
ANEXO 2 – Supplementary Material “A <i>T4virus</i> prevents biofilm formation by <i>Trueperella pyogenes</i> ”	90
ANEXO 3 – Supplementary Material “Genomic analysis and immune response in a murine mastitis model of vB_EcoM-UFV13, a potential biocontrol agent for use in dairy cows.”	95

RESUMO

DUARTE, Vinícius da Silva, D.Sc., Universidade Federal de Viçosa, abril de 2018. **Uso do bacteriófago vB_EcoM-UFV13 como potencial agente antimastítico em vacas leiteiras.** Orientador: Sérgio Oliveira de Paula. Coorientadores: Hilário Cuquetto Mantovani, Cynthia Canedo da Silva, Denise Mara Soares Bazzolli e Roberto Sousa Dias.

A atividade leiteira no Brasil sofreu profundas transformações nos últimos anos no que diz respeito, principalmente, ao aumento da produtividade com um custo de produção cada vez menor. Para que tal resultado seja alcançado, o animal é invariavelmente desafiado a atender altos índices zootécnicos. Dentro do manejo sanitário, a mastite bovina ainda é a principal causa de perdas econômicas para produtores de leite, estimado em \$ 533 bilhões de dólares em todo o mundo. A *Escherichia coli* é responsável pela maioria dos casos de mastite ambiental (40%), enquanto que *Trueperella pyogenes* é um dos principais agentes causadores de mastite em novilhas no período seco. Embora a terapia com antimicrobianos convencionais seja a mais utilizada nos rebanhos, o uso de bacteriófagos como instrumento no controle de patógenos na Veterinária tem ganhado destaque. Neste trabalho, buscamos avaliar o uso do bacteriófago vB_EcoM-UFV13 (UFV13) contra estes dois importantes patógenos causadores de mastite bovina. Em um primeiro estudo, investigamos o uso do fago UFV13 na prevenção da formação do biofilme de *T. pyogenes*, um dos principais fatores de virulência apresentado por este micro-organismo. Empregando-se duas diferentes metodologias (cristal violeta e contagem de células sésses), observou-se que somente a multiplicidade de infecção 10 apresentou redução, estatisticamente significativa, do biofilme formado. A análise das proteínas estruturais do vírus UFV13 revelou um repertório de proteínas com domínio hidrolase (*Virion-Associated Peptidoglycan Hydrolases* – VAPGHs) que potencialmente estão envolvidas no processo de adesão e desenvolvimento do biofilme. No segundo estudo, examinamos o fago UFV13 em termos genômico, a sua estabilidade em diferentes condições adversas, além da sua atividade contra *E. coli* em camundongos fêmeas lactantes. Estas análises revelaram que o vírus UFV13 é oriundo de uma recente infecção mista com *Shigella phage* Shfl2. Além disto, sua administração intramamária provocou uma redução de

10 vezes na carga bacteriana total, além de induzir a produção de citocinas pró-inflamatórias como IL-6 e TNF- α . Após esses estudos, a completa caracterização do fago UFV13 o torna um possível candidato para controle da mastite bovina no gado leiteiro.

ABSTRACT

DUARTE, Vinícius da Silva, D.Sc., Universidade Federal de Viçosa, April, 2018. **Use of the bacteriophage vB_EcoM-UFV13 as potential antimastitic agent in dairy cattle.** Adviser: Sérgio Oliveira de Paula. Co-advisers: Hilário Cuquetto Mantovani, Cynthia Canedo da Silva, Denise Mara Soares Bazzolli and Roberto Sousa Dias.

The dairy activity in Brazil has undergone profound changes in recent years, mainly due to the high productivity with a low production cost. To this condition be achieved, animals are invariably challenged to meet high zootechnical rates. Within sanitary management, bovine mastitis is still the leading cause of economic loss for dairy farmers, estimated at \$533 billion worldwide. *Escherichia coli* is responsible for most cases of environmental mastitis (40%), while *Trueperella pyogenes* is one of the main agents causing mastitis in heifers on the dry off period. Although conventional antimicrobial therapy is the most used in cattle, the use of bacteriophage as a tool to control pathogens in Veterinary has been investigated. In the first study, the use of the bacteriophage vB_EcoM-UFV13 (UFV13) in the prevention of the biofilm formation by *T. pyogenes*, one of its main virulence factors, was evaluated. Based upon two different approaches (crystal violet and sessile cell counting), it was observed that only the multiplicity of infection (MOI) 10 presented a statistically significant reduction. Analysis of the structural proteins revealed a repertoire of hydrolase viral proteins (Virion-Associated Peptidoglycan Hydrolases - VAPGHs) that are potentially involved. In the second study, the phage UFV13 was evaluated in genomic terms and its activity against an *E. coli* strain in mastitis mouse model. These analysis revealed that UFV13 virus originates from a recent mixed infection with Shigella phage Shfl2. In addition, its intramammary administration caused a 10-fold reduction in bacterial load. The production of proinflammatory cytokines such as IL-6 and TNF- α was also observed. After these studies, the complete characterization of the UFV13 phage makes it a possible candidate for control of bovine mastitis in dairy cattle.

1. Introdução Geral

1.1. Pecuária leiteira no Brasil

A atividade leiteira no Brasil sofreu profundas transformações nos últimos anos no que diz respeito, principalmente, ao aumento da produtividade com um custo de produção cada vez menor. Para que tal resultado seja alcançado, o animal é invariavelmente desafiado a atender altos índices zootécnicos (Lemos et al., 2003; Faria & Corsi, 1993).

De acordo com a Companhia Nacional de Abastecimento (FAGUNDES, 2017), o Brasil é o quinto maior produtor mundial de leite com projeção para ultrapassar a China nos próximos anos (Tabela 1). Deve-se dar destaque para a região Sul, atual líder nacional, que ultrapassou em produção a região Sudeste, todavia, o Estado de Minas Gerais ainda é o maior produtor brasileiro.

Tabela 1. Produção mundial de leite de vaca (países selecionados) 2011 a 2016 em 1.000 toneladas.

País/Bloco	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016 ¹	2017
UE (28)	139.000	140.100	146.500	150.200	152.000	152.500
EUA	91.010	91.277	93.485	94.620	96.343	98.339
Índia	55.500	57.500	60.500	64.000	68.000	72.000
China	32.600	34.300	37.250	37.550	35.700	35.000
Brasil	32.304	34.255	35.124	35.000	34.650	34.997

Fonte: Companhia Nacional de Abastecimento (CONAB), conjuntura mensal para o mês de Abril de 2017 (Adaptado).

Nesta atividade, os manejos nutricional, genético e sanitário, devem estar em consonância e qualquer alteração em um deles pode levar ao insucesso do produtor. Mesmo detentor do terceiro maior rebanho do mundo, atrás apenas da Índia e da União Europeia, o Brasil ainda possui animais com baixa produtividade (1.709 litros de leite por vaca/ano), abaixo da média mundial (2.200 litros/vaca/ano)(IBGE, 2017).

1.2. Mastite bovina

Dentro do manejo sanitário, a mastite bovina (conceituada abaixo) ainda é a principal causa de perdas econômicas para produtores de leite, estimado em \$ 533 bilhões de dólares em todo o mundo (Thomas et al., 2015; Shaheen et al., 2016). Destes, 70% são perdas de leite no transcorrer da lactação (período em que o animal está produzindo e secretando leite), 14% dos custos é devido ao descarte prematuro dos animais, 8% com tratamento médico ou outros custos veterinários, 7% ocasionado pela baixa produção de leite e 1% com outros (Shaheen et al., 2016). Além das questões financeiras, é relevante destacar a significância do leite e derivados na saúde pública, visto que a matéria-prima de má qualidade é potencial veículo de patógenos.

Conceitualmente, a mastite bovina pode ser classificada em:

- Mastite clínica – presença de edema, hipertermia, fibrosamento da glândula mamária, dor à palpação e alterações visuais no leite como grumos, pus e sangue (Coser et al., 2012);
- Mastite subclínica – alterações na composição do leite, como aumento de Contagem de Células Somáticas (CCS) e variações nos teores de sólidos totais, acarretando menor tempo de prateleira (Coser et al., 2012);
- Mastite contagiosa – classificação devida à forma como ocorre a transmissão dos micro-organismos envolvidos, que se dá por meio de retireiros e ordenhadeiras, por exemplo (Coser et al., 2012);

Mastite ambiental – micro-organismos presentes nas fezes, solos, camas, por exemplo, oportunamente são capazes de provocar infecções que levam, na grande maioria das vezes, ao quadro de mastite clínica (Coser et al., 2012). Micro-organismos virais, fúngicos e bacterianos podem estar envolvidos no estabelecimento da doença, contudo deve-se acrescentar o papel do ambiente e as características inerentes ao animal como partes na etiologia da doença, o que a torna multifatorial (Coser et al., 2012; Shaheen et al., 2016).

Hoje, mais de 150 espécies de bactérias são isoladas de úberes com mastites, entretanto *Staphylococcus aureus* é o principal agente etiológico envolvido em casos de mastite contagiosa (40-70%), enquanto que

Escherichia coli é responsável pela maioria dos casos de mastite ambiental (40%) (Thomas et al., 2015; Shaheen et al., 2016). Já *Trueperella pyogenes*, antigo *Arcanobacterium pyogenes*, é um dos principais agentes causadores de mastite em novilhas no período seco, (Radostits et al., 2007; Ruegg, 2010; Domingues et al., 2008).

1.3. Tratamentos para mastite bovina

O tratamento para a mastite bovina ocorre, basicamente, em dois momentos dentro do ciclo de lactação do animal: produção de leite e período seco, definido aqui como o período em que o animal sai da linha da ordenha 60 dias antes do parto com o intuito de permitir a involução da glândula mamária. No primeiro momento, micro-organismos causadores da mastite clínica são os principais responsáveis pelos episódios de tratamentos com antibióticos que possuem curto tempo de ação local, visto que é necessário o retorno do animal à linha de ordenha para comercialização do leite produzido. Já a terapia vaca seca é realizada, principalmente, em um período de 30-60 dias pré-parto, caracterizada pela não produção de leite e involução da glândula mamária. Nessa terapia são utilizados antibióticos de longotempo de ação local e com espectro para bactérias causadoras de mastites subclínicas, pois casos clínicos são raros neste período (Crispie et al., 2004).

Embora a terapia com antimicrobianos convencionais seja a mais utilizada nos rebanhos (Thomas et al., 2015; Shaheen et al., 2016), sua eficácia depende de fatores como:

- Apresentação da doença (clínica ou subclínica);
- Extensão da lesão tecidual provocada na glândula mamária;
- Patógeno envolvido (infecção mista ou não);
- Resposta local ao medicamento;
- Padrão de sensibilidade ao antibiótico;
- Seleção de antimicrobianos com propriedades farmacológicas ideais;
- Adequações da dose e do intervalo de aplicação.

1.4. Bactérias causadoras da mastite bovina e a formação de biofilme

Dentre os fatores de virulência bacterianos capaz de levar ao uso refratário de antibióticos está a habilidade de formar biofilmes. Biofilmes são comunidades bacterianas densas e pluricelulares aderidas (forma sésil de vida) a uma superfície (biótica ou não). Os componentes mínimos de um biofilme são os micro-organismos, a matriz extracelular - Substância Polimérica Extracelular (SPE) e a superfície de crescimento (Donlan, 2002).

Este modo de crescimento abriga e protege os micro-organismos em ambientes hostis, como a presença de antimicrobianos, de bacteriófagos e de componentes do sistema imune. Esta forma de crescimento induz a expressão gênica diferenciada das células bacterianas que estão livres no ambiente, o que modifica o metabolismo e estabelece uma nova forma de desenvolvimento (Donlan, 2002).

A capacidade dos micro-organismos causadores da mastite bovina em formar biofilme é responsável pela baixa eficiência dos antibióticos e o aumento das recidivas da doença (infecção crônica no hospedeiro), mesmo em animais que apresentam baixa contagem de células somáticas (CCS), como macrófagos e queratinócitos, por exemplo, o que os torna reservatórios e disseminadores de patógenos causadores da doença (Gomes et al., 2016; Shaheen et al., 2016).

1.5. Bacteriófagos e a fagoterapia

Considerando-se as limitações expostas acima, além dos crescentes relatos de bactérias multi-drogras resistentes (BMDRs), diversos produtos foram desenvolvidos nos últimos anos com o intuito de diminuir ou abolir o uso de antibióticos como fitoterápicos, homeopáticos, bacteriocinas e coquetéis fágicos (Gill et al., 2006; Pieterse and Todorov, 2010; Aubry et al., 2013; Izabella et al., 2018).

Tendo em vista o uso de bacteriófagos como instrumento no controle de patógenos, é observado um difuso crescimento dos mesmos nos últimos anos, principalmente no que se refere a avaliações *in vitro* e *in vivo* em vacas

de leite (Porter et al., 2016; Dias et al., 2013; Sulakvelidze, 2011; Gill et al., 2006; Merrill et al., 2003).

Descobertos por Twort em 1915, os vírus procarióticos infectam membros dos domínios *Bacteria* (bacteriófagos ou fagos) e *Archaea* (archeovírus), possuem estrutura análoga a de outros vírus, consistindo em um ácido nucléico envolto por capsídeo de origem proteica, complexado ou não por um envelope lipoprotéico (Merrill et al., 2003). Os procariotos são hospedeiros fundamentais, dotados de receptores específicos para que esses vírus possam adsorver e replicar seu material genético (Ackermann & Prangishvili, 2012).

Existem fagos de DNA ou RNA, com diferentes formas e tamanhos. Cerca de 96% dos bacteriófagos descritos são pertencentes à ordem *Caudovirales*, que engloba as famílias *Siphoviridae*, maior representante (11 subfamílias, 100 gêneros), *Myoviridae* (6 subfamílias, 41 gêneros), *Podoviridae* (3 subfamílias, 41 gêneros) e, mais recentemente, a família *Ackermannviridae* (2 subfamílias) (ICTV, 2011). Baseado na forma do capsídeo, as famílias *Myoviridae*, *Siphoviridae* e *Podoviridae* apresentam três morfotipos cada uma: A1, A2 e A3 para *Myoviridae*, B1, B2 e B3 para *Siphoviridae* e C1, C2 e C3 para *Podoviridae* (Adams et al., 2017). Os outros 4,0% constituem fagos poliédricos, filamentosos e pleomórficos (Ackermann & Prangishvili, 2012).

São descritos vírus que infectam membros de 16 gêneros do domínio *Archaea*, principalmente hipertermófilos e halófilos, e que infectam 179 gêneros bacterianos, sendo maioria membros dos filos *Firmicutes* e γ -*Proteobacteria* (Ackermann & Prangishvili, 2012)

Os fagos são uma alternativa natural ao uso de defensivos agrícolas e antibióticos, não tóxico, economicamente viável e que podem ser isolados de praticamente qualquer ambiente, como solo, água, leite oceânico, esgoto e trato gastrointestinal dos animais (Ashelford et al., 2000; Gorski et al., 2003). A atividade antibacteriana dos fagos possui vantagens sobre os antibióticos: alta especificidade (Sulakvelidze, 2011); replicação no local da infecção (Smith & Huggins, 1982); ausência de efeito colateral (Sulakvelidze, 2011); bactérias resistentes a determinados bacteriófagos permanecem suscetíveis a outros fagos e o isolamento de novos fagos contra tais bactérias é

relativamente rápido, podendo ser montado um coquetel de bacteriófagos contra vários isolados microbianos (Chopra et al., 1997).

A aplicação da fagoterapia, tornou-se disseminada por Felix d'Herelle no início do século XX no tratamento da febre tifóide em aves, disenteria por *Shigella* em coelhos e disenteria bacilar (shigelose) em humanos (Merril et al., 2003). Diversos trabalhos têm demonstrado a importância da terapia como alternativa ao uso de antibióticos em diversos gêneros bacterianos. Por exemplo Biswas e colaboradores recuperaram camundongos que foram inoculados com cepas de *Enterococcus faecium* resistentes à vancomicina com uma única injeção de bacteriófagos específicos contendo 3×10^8 Unidades Formadoras de Placas (UFP) ,(Biswas, 2002). Outros exemplos de patógenos que podem ser controlados pela utilização de fagos são: *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (Soothill, 1994), *Staphylococcus aureus* (Matsuzaki et al., 2003; Dias et al., 2013) e *Acinetobacter baumannii* (Soothill, 1992). Bacteriófagos também foram utilizados no tratamento de patógenos intracelulares (*Mycobacterium avium* ou *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*), doenças bacterianas em peixes e, até mesmo, em fitopatógenos do tomate (Merril et al., 2003). Recentemente, nos Estados Unidos, o FDA (*Food and Drug Administration*) consentiu o uso de fagos para o controle de *Listeria monocytogenes*, cuja contaminação ocorre durante a manipulação do alimento (Golkar et al., 2014).

Merril et al. (2003) relataram que o estudo apenas qualitativo sobre a eficácia da fagoterapia é um dos principais entraves ao uso comercial de fagos. A grande maioria dos países ocidentais requer certificação farmacêutica baseada em estudos de eficácia farmacocinética em animais e humanos para que sejam liberados comercialmente. Os princípios farmacocinéticos dos fagos podem diferir entre eles, o que requer análises virais individuais (Golkar et al., 2014).

Nas décadas de 20 e 30, a empresa Norte Americana Eli Lilly & Co. chegou a comercializar produtos em géis a base de fagos específicos para *Staphylococcus* spp. como "Staphylo jel", contudo a falta e a falha de estudos clínicos, preocupações teóricas e o ofuscamento com o uso dos antibióticos foram alguns dos motivos do abandono da fagoterapia nos Estados Unidos e na Europa Ocidental no século XX (Merril et al., 2003).

Dois países atualmente fazem uso da fagoterapia na Europa: Georgia e Polônia. Adicionalmente, o *Wound Care Center in Lubbock*, Texas, Estados Unidos, conduz fase de testes clínicos com fagos para *P. aeruginosa*, *S. aureus* e *E. coli* (<http://www.phagetherapycenter.com>). Contudo, apesar do pequeno número de países que fazem uso de bacteriófagos, diversas empresas já disponibilizam comercialmente a aplicação de fagos em diversas áreas (Tabela 2 – ANEXO 1).

2. Objetivo geral

Aqui, buscamos avaliar o efeito do vírus UFV13 na formação do biofilme produzido por *T. pyogenes* e a sua aplicação em modelo animal contra *E. coli* causadora de mastite clínica.

3. Objetivos específicos

- Avaliar o efeito do fago UFV13 em inibir a formação do biofilme por *T. pyogenes* usando-se as multiplicidades de infecção 0,1, 1 e 10;
- Predição de proteínas estruturais do vírus UFV13 com domínio hidrolase;
- Análise genômica do bacteriófago UFV13;
- Estabilidade do vírus UFV13 à condições adversas (e.g. pH, temperatura e detergentes);
- Resposta imune ao fago UFV13 utilizando-se camundongos fêmeas lactantes como modelo animal.

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Manuscrito 1

A *T4virus* prevents biofilm formation by *Trueperella pyogenes*
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1 *A T4virus prevents biofilm formation by Trueperella pyogenes*

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25

26 **Abstract**

27 *Trueperella pyogenes* is an opportunistic pathogen of many animal species. It
28 causes economic losses worldwide, mainly through mastitis, metritis and endometritis
29 in dairy cows. The ability of this bacterium to form biofilms is implicated in chronic
30 infections through hampering immune system recognition and antibiotic penetration.
31 Since it is difficult to eradicate *T. pyogenes* infections with antibiotics, phage therapy
32 presents itself as a non-toxic, effective and economically viable alternative. The
33 present study evaluated the use of the bacteriophage vB_EcoM-UFV13 (UFV13) in
34 the prevention of *T. pyogenes* biofilm development. Based upon two different
35 approaches (crystal violet and sessile cell counting) we observed that only a
36 multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 10 showed a statistically significant reduction in
37 biofilm formation. Although the exact mechanisms of biofilm disruption and cell-
38 adhesion inhibition have not been determined, genome sequence analysis of the
39 *Escherichia* phage UFV13 revealed a repertoire of virion-associated peptidoglycan
40 hydrolases (VAPGHs). The present study presents new findings regarding the
41 disruption of biofilm formation of a Gram-positive bacterium. Subsequent
42 transcriptomic and proteomic research will help us to understand the exact interaction
43 mechanisms between UFV13 and *T. pyogenes*.

44

45 **Keywords:** *Trueperella pyogenes*, mastitis, metritis, *T4virus*, biofilm, VAPGHs,
46 virus, depolymerase.

47

48 **1. Introduction**

49 Bovine mastitis is of considerable economic importance worldwide, leading to
50 financial losses of up to two billion dollars annually in the USA alone when all

51 etiological agents are considered (Federman et al., 2016; Jost and Billington, 2005;
52 Donlan, 2002). While of polymicrobial origin, two bacteria, *Escherichia coli* and
53 *Trueperella pyogenes* (formerly known as *Arcanobacterium pyogenes*) are of
54 particular relevance. In uterine infections, *E. coli* prepares the uterine environment for
55 the establishment of *T. pyogenes* (Wagener et al., 2014). The latter bacterium is a
56 Gram-positive, rod-shaped, non-motile, non-spore-forming opportunistic pathogen
57 with a broad range of virulence factors (Jost and Billington, 2005). It infects many
58 animal species, however its ability to cause diseases such as mastitis and metritis in
59 dairy cows is relevant to our research.

60 Little is known about the *in vivo* gene expression of the major virulence factor
61 from *T. pyogenes*, pyolisin (PLO), but its expression is related to biofilm formation
62 and it is positively regulated, in stationary phase, by response regulator PloR (Jost and
63 Billington, 2005). Zhao et al. (2013) observed that 94.4% of *T. pyogenes* isolated from
64 abscesses of the forest musk deer (*Moschus berezovskii*) were able to form biofilms.
65 Olson et al. (2002) showed that *T. pyogenes*, isolated from bovine pneumonia, was
66 highly resistant to a broad spectrum of antibiotics when the cells were in the sessile
67 phase, whereas in the planktonic phase, *T. pyogenes* cells were susceptible to a large
68 number of antibiotics. In addition, an increased number of multi-drug resistant strains
69 have been observed (Golkar et al., 2014), which makes the development of new
70 antimicrobials of great interest to veterinarians and dairy farmers.

71 Bacteriophages are non-toxic, effective and economically viable alternatives to
72 antibiotics and have already been used therapeutically (Dias et al., 2013). Another
73 alternative is the use of bacteriophage parts, like holins (which form pores in bacterial
74 membranes), endolysins (at least four distinct enzyme types involved in phage
75 peptidoglycan-degrading activity) and virion-associated peptidoglycan hydrolases

76 (VAPGHs). The high specificity of VAPGHs suggests their utility as enzybiotics
77 leading to the lysis of Gram-positive cells (Abouhmad et al., 2016). Despite the
78 increasing number of sequenced phage genomes in the NCBI Genome database,
79 genomes of phages for *Trueperella* species are still unavailable.

80 Searching for alternative therapies to treat mastitis and control *T. pyogenes*, this
81 study evaluated the use of the *Escherichia* phage vB_EcoM-UFV13 (UFV13) (Duarte
82 et al., 2016), to disrupt *T. pyogenes* biofilms. We performed a biofilm assay at different
83 multiplicities of infection (MOI) and analyzed UFV13 genome in terms of virion-
84 associated peptidoglycan hydrolases (VAPGHs) seeking to understand the possible
85 mechanisms involved in biofilm disruption.

86

87 **2. Materials and methods**

88 **2.1 Bacteriophage vB_EcoM-UFV13**

89 **2.1.1 Sample standardization and viral isolation**

90 The bacteriophage UFV13 was isolated from samples collected from the Viçosa
91 sewerage system, Minas Gerais, Brazil (Dias et al., 2013; Sambrook et al., 2001).
92 Briefly, these samples were centrifuged at 12,000xg at 4 °C for 15 min and the
93 supernatant was firstly filtered in a 0.45 µm pore-size PES membrane followed by a
94 second filtration through a 0.22 µm filter (Millipore, Billerica, MA, USA). 100 µL of
95 the viral suspension was incubated (37 °C, 30 min) with 900 µL of logarithmic phase
96 (O.D ~ 0.7) *Escherichia coli* 30 culture to allow for phage adsorption. This *E. coli*
97 strain was isolated from dairy cows with clinical mastitis and kindly provided by
98 EMBRAPA Dairy Cattle (Juiz de Fora, Minas Gerais, Brazil). The mixture was then
99 plated using the standard soft agar overlay technique and incubated overnight at 37 °C.
100 The lysis plates were harvested from plates, propagated and purified by a three-step

101 chromatography protocol (desalting – anion exchange – desalting columns) (Äkta
102 chromatography system, GE Healthcare Life Sciences). The viral titre was determined
103 using a well-established protocol (Sambrook et al., 2001). Stocks were added to the
104 phage collection of the Laboratório de Imunovirologia Molecular (LIMV) at
105 Universidade Federal de Viçosa (UFV).and kept at 4 °C.

106 **2.1.2 Morphology analysis**

107 To analyze virus morphology, 10 µl of viral suspension was placed into a
108 FormVar[®]-coated grid and incubated at room temperature for 5 min. Following this,
109 excess liquid was removed using blotting with a filter paper aid. The phage particles
110 were negatively contrasted with 2% of uranyl acetate for 20 sec. The grids were then
111 visualized using a Zeiss EM 109 electron microscopy at 250,000x magnification.
112 Electron microscopy was conducted at Núcleo de Microscopia e Microanálise (NMM)
113 at UFV. Images were analyzed using ImageJ (Abràmoff et al., 2004; Schneider et al.,
114 2012) to measure the length and diameter of viral capsid. vB_EcoM-UFV13 was
115 classified according to criteria established by the International Committee on
116 Taxonomy of Viruses (ICTV).

117

118 **2.2 Biofilm assays**

119 **2.2.1 Strains and growth conditions**

120 A biofilm formation assay was performed using *T. pyogenes* lineage 3934 that
121 was kindly provided by the curator, Dr. Maria Aparecida Vasconcelos Paiva Brito, of
122 the “Agribusiness Interest Microorganisms Collection of Embrapa Dairy Cattle” (Juiz
123 de Fora, Brazil). It was grown on Brain Heart Infusion Agar (BHI) supplemented with
124 5% defibrinated sheep’s blood and maintained at 37 °C for 48 h in a 5% CO₂

125 atmosphere. Single colonies were cultivated on BHI broth and incubated at 37 °C with
126 vigorous shaking during the exponential growth phase (OD_{600nm} 0.1 (~10⁶ CFU/ml)).

127 The ability of *T. pyogenes* to form biofilms was assessed on 96-well microtiter
128 plate following the method described by Weiss-Muszkat et al. (2010). Control wells
129 contained 200 µL of *T. pyogenes* culture at a final concentration of 10⁵ CFU/ml and
130 treated groups received the same bacterial concentration and distinct viral dilutions in
131 order to get the multiplicity of infection (MOI) 10, 1 and 0.1.

132 The bacterial population density (OD_{600nm}) was measured using a Multiskan™
133 GO Spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific, EUA) after incubation at 37 °C, for 24 h.
134 Culture medium was then discarded, and the wells washed twice with phosphate-
135 buffered saline (PBS; NaCl 0.13 M, KCl 2mM, Na₂HPO₄ 9mM, KH₂PO₄ 1 mM, pH
136 7.2) to remove unattached cells. Adherent cells were stained with 0.1% (w/v) crystal
137 violet (CV) for 30 min at room temperature. Afterward, wells were washed four times
138 with PBS and air dried for one hour. The bound dye was dissolved in 250 µL ethanol-
139 acetone (80:20 v/v) and after 30 min of room temperature incubation, 200 µL of sample
140 was collected and transferred to a new plate for absorbance measurement (Abs_{590nm}).

141 **2.2.2 Biofilm cell count**

142 In order to establish if phage infection reduced the number of planktonic and
143 sessile cells, viable cell counts were performed. For planktonic cell counting, a serial
144 ten-fold dilution was performed in saline buffer and 100 µL aliquots were spread on
145 BHI Agar supplemented with 5% defibrinated sheep's blood, maintained at 37 °C for
146 48 h in a 5% CO₂ atmosphere.

147 Sessile cells were recovered and measured as described by Asséré et al. (2008),
148 with some modifications. Briefly, pegs were broken and transferred to microcentrifuge
149 tubes filled with saline buffer (0.9% w/v) and placed into a sonication bath at 47 kHz,

150 for 15 min. Detached cells were diluted, plated and incubated as described for
151 planktonic bacteria.

152 **2.2.3 Scanning electron microscopy**

153 Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) was performed on MBEC (*Minimum*
154 *Biofilm Eradication Concentration*) Assays™ pegs (Innovatech, Edmonton, AB,
155 Canada), according to the company's instructions. Groups were arranged as described
156 in the item 2.2.1, however only the MOI 10 was used as the treated group.

157 After incubation (37 °C, 24 h), the recovered MBEC pegs were washed twice
158 with 0.2 M PBS buffer pH 7.2; and fixed with 2.5% (v/v) glutaraldehyde at room
159 temperature for 2 h. The pegs were dehydrated in an increasing ethanolic gradient
160 (30% to 100% v/v), for 10 min at each step, with three repetitions at the highest
161 concentration. Afterward, critical point drying was performed on a BAL-TEC model
162 030 Critical Point Dryer (BAL-TEC AG Föhrenweg, Balzers, Liechtenstein),
163 metallized with gold and, finally, analyzed using Leo 1430 VP scanning electron
164 microscope at Núcleo de Microscopia e Microanálise (NMM) with an accelerating
165 voltage 20 kV.

166

167 **2.2.4 Statistical analysis**

168 All assays were performed in triplicate and statistical significance was
169 evaluated by one-way ANOVA using GraphPad Prism program (GraphPad Software,
170 La Jolla CA USA).

171

172 **2.3 Genome analysis**

173 **2.3.1 Genome extraction**

174 Viral suspension was concentrated by adding polyethylene glycol 8000 (PEG-
175 8000) 10% (w/v) and kept at 4 °C, for at least 12 h. After this time, the suspension was
176 centrifuged 12,000xg (15 min, 4 °C) and the pellet suspended in SM buffer (5.8 g/L
177 NaCl, 2.0 g MgSO₄·7H₂O, 50 ml Tris-HCl 1M, 5 ml gelatin 2%, pH 7.5). An equal
178 volume of chloroform was added and after a brief agitation, it was centrifuged
179 (4,500xg, 15 min, 4 °C) until phase separation. The aqueous phase was discarded, and
180 the viral DNA was extracted using the proteinase K phenol/chloroform method, as
181 described by Sambrook et al. (2001). The DNA concentration was estimated
182 spectrophotometrically using a NanoDrop 2000c (Thermo Scientific, EUA).

183 The viral genome size was estimated by PFGE in a 1% (w/v) low-melting-point
184 agarose gel in 0.5X TBE buffer (TBE 1X: Tris 0.89 M, borate 0.89 M and EDTA 0.02
185 M) for 14 hours at 6 V/cm and 14 °C, with a switch time of 5 to 10 sec. The gel was
186 stained for 20 min with ethidium bromide (0.5 µg/ml).

187 **2.3.2 Genome sequence**

188 The UFV13 genome was sequenced with paired-end reads using Illumina
189 HiSeq 2500 by Macrogen (Seoul, Korea). The sequenced reads were analyzed using
190 DNASTAR Lasergene Genomics Suite (Madison, WI, USA). *De novo* assembling was
191 performed using SeqMan NGen12 software and gaps were closed with SeqMan Pro
192 software. *Escherichia* phage UFV13 genome was opened to be collinear with *Yersinia*
193 *phage* PST and the open reading frames (ORFs) were predicted and functionally
194 annotated using MyRast software (Overbeek et al., 2014).

195 2.3.3 **Bioinformatic analysis**

196 To understand the mechanism involved in biofilm reduction, the phage genome
197 was analyzed looking for enzymes that could act on exopolymers present in biofilm
198 structure. Two different approaches were used in order to identify viral hydrolases:
199 Viral proteins considered as hydrolases were identified with PHYpred (Ding et al.,
200 2016) and forwarded to HyPe for identification and classification (Sharma et al.,
201 2016).

202 Motifs conserved in the viral protein sequences were identified using the Pfam
203 database (Finn et al., 2016), Phyre2 (Kelley et al., 2015), Swiss-model (Biasini et al.,
204 2014) and Batch Web CD-Search Tool (Marchler-Bauer et al., 2013). The alignments
205 were performed using ClustalW2 multiple alignment tool and edited on Sequence
206 Manipulation Suite (Stothard, 2000).

207

208 **3. Results**

209 **3.1 Isolation and morphological characterization**

210 *Escherichia* phage UFV13 was isolated from samples collected from the
211 Viçosa sewerage system (Minas Gerais, Brazil) following three single plaque platings
212 to ensure that a single virus was isolated. After phage purification, stocks showed a
213 titer of 1.0×10^8 PFU/ml, and these were used for all subsequent assays.

214 Phage plaque formed in double-layer agar showed a 1 mm clear lytic zone with
215 a surrounding halo (Supplementary Figure 1A), which is indicative of phage-derived
216 enzymes able to destroy bacterial envelopes (Jurczak-Kurek et al., 2016). Virion
217 morphological analysis revealed that this phage belongs to the *Caudovirales* order,

218 *Myoviridae* family, morphotype A1
219 (Supplementary Figure 1B) with a total
220 length of 102 nm and an isometric capsid
221 (72 nm in length and width).

222 3.2 Biofilm assays

223 Using the standard crystal violet
224 (CV) assay, we were able to detect a
225 statistically significant reduction in biofilm
226 formation (Figure 1) but only at a MOI of 10,
227 followed by a decrease in the final absorbance
228 value after the incubation period
229 (Supplementary Figure 2).

230 In order to quantify sessile and
231 planktonic populations, culturable
232 populations were recovered from MBEC pegs

233 by ultrasound and plated, along with the floating cells. No statistically significant
234 reduction was observed for planktonic cells in either MOIs (Figure 2), which indicates

235 that the virus UFV13 is not able to infect or
236 lyse *T. pyogenes*. In fact, there were no
237 significant changes in viral titre after 24 h of
238 incubation (Supplementary Figure 3). In
239 relation to the biofilm cell count, only MOI
240 10 was statistically significant ($P \leq 0.05$) in

241 reducing *T. pyogenes* cell-adhesion (Figure 3), which corroborates with the CV assay.

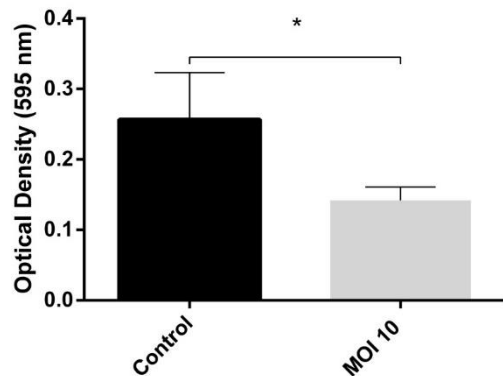


Figure 1. Biofilm formation by *T. pyogenes* in the presence of the *Escherichia* phage UFV13 using CV assay as a method. Only MOI 10 is shown (* $P \leq 0.05$).

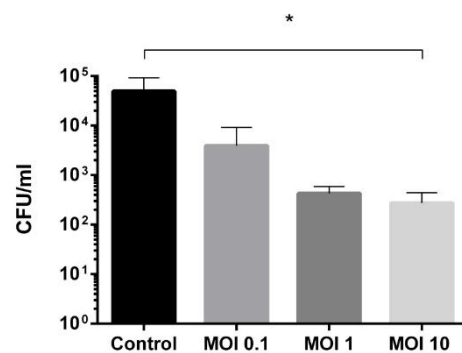


Figure 2. *T. pyogenes* planktonic cell count. Statistically significant differences were not observed between control and treated groups (MOIs 0.1, 1 and 10).

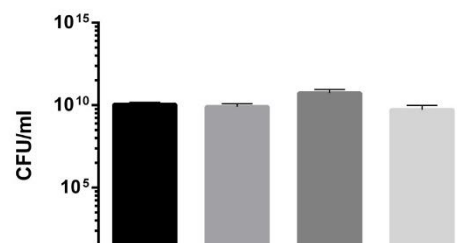


Figure 3. *T. pyogenes* sessile cell count. A statistically significant difference was observed using only MOI 10 (* $P \leq 0.05$).

242 The scanning electron microscopy
243 (SEM) approach was employed to confirm
244 the previous results obtained by CV and
245 sonication bath assays. SEM showed a
246 decrease in cell adhesion using either the
247 higher MOI, which we can see in Figure 4
248 where a diffuse biofilm formation is
249 observed in the control group (Figure 4A),
250 or it was possible to observe growth only
251 at the air-liquid interface in the treated
252 group (Figure 4B).

253 3.3 Genome analysis

254 A genome size of nearly 170 kb
255 (Supplementary Figure 4) was estimated
256 by PFGE. DNA sequencing and assembly resulted in a single contig of 165,772 bp
257 (570-fold coverage), with an average GC content of 34.8%. It displays high similarity
258 to the genomes of *Shigella* phage Shf12 and *Yersinia* phage PST (data not shown).

259 In order to investigate UFV13 genetic capability to produce putative VAPGHs,
260 the genome was annotated revealing 269 ORFs, of which 48 were identified as virion
261 proteins. Hydrolase domains were predicted in eight of these proteins (ORFs 31, 124,
262 153, 157, 160, 188, 245 and 246) using a compilation of two computational tools
263 (PHYpred and HyPe). These proteins are homologs to protein Soc.1 from *Shigella*
264 phage Shf12 and some *Escherichia* phage T4 proteins: internal head protein 3 (IP3),
265 baseplate lysozyme (gp5), baseplate wedge components (gp7, gp10 and gp25), hinge
266 connector of tail fiber proximal connector (gp36) and tail fibers (gp37).

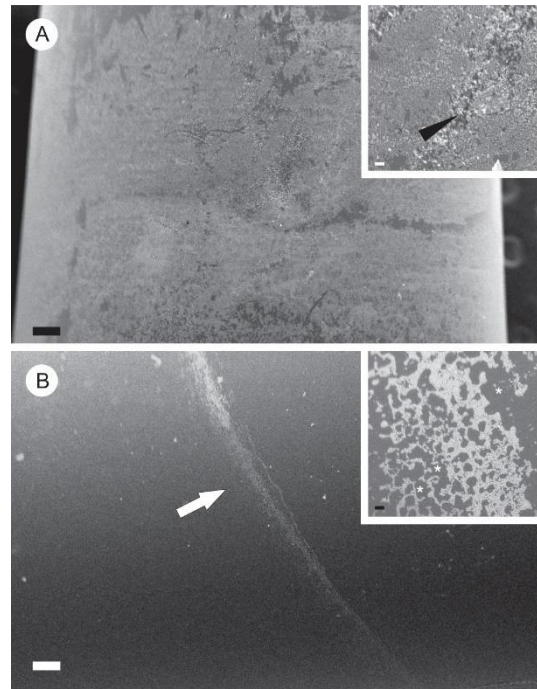


Figure 4. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) – A. Diffuse bacteria growth and biofilm formation by *T. pyogenes* (control). The major detail (arrowhead) shows extracellular matrix formation. B – Bacterial growth only at air-liquid interface when the phage UFV13 is added (arrow white). It is possible to observe in detail failures in the cellular layer as well as an absence of extracellular matrix (asterisks). Bars on figures A and B measure 200 μm and the detail bar value is 10 μm.

267 Based on their substrate specificity, five proteins (Soc.1, gp5, gp10, gp25 and
268 gp37) were grouped as N-acetylmuramoyl-L-alanine amidases, one classified as
269 peptidase (IP3), one as an enzyme that acts on the peptidoglycan chain (gp36) and one
270 unclassified as amidase (gp7) (Table 1).

271 To identify conserved protein domains, three different servers (Pfam, Phyre2
272 and Swiss-model) were utilized (Table 2). An absence of domain information was
273 verified for three viral proteins (Soc.1, IP3 and gp7) when Pfam

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292 **Table 1. Eight vB_EcoM-UFV13 virion proteins with hydrolase domain were identified and categorized according their sites of**
 293 **action. Accession number, when available, is shown in parenthesis.**

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ORF	*E-value	**Amidase class	Feature	
31	0.99	A	Cell wall hydrolase/autolysin	295
124	0.99	B	Peptidase (AIW13235.1)	296
153	0.97	A	Cell wall hydrolase CwlJ	297
157	0.92	E	LD-carboxypeptidase family protein	298
160	0.83	A	N-acetylmuramoyl-L-alanine amidase family	299
188	0.64	A	N-acetylmuramoyl-L-alanine amidase CwlD (AIY73246.1)	300
245	0.92	C	Membrane-bound lytic murein transglycosylase D (AGE87472.1)	301
246	0.99	A	N-acetyl-anhydromuranmyl-L-alanine amidase (AGE87562.1)	302

* E-value was obtained from PHYpred;

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** Classification according to HvPe software.

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307 **Table 2. 8 of 48 gene-encoding virion structural proteins with hydrolase domain were aligned using three different databases.**

308 **ORF31 displayed also a sugar-binding domain.**

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ORF	Pfam		Phyre			Swiss-Model		
	Template information	E-value	Template information	Confidence (%)	Identity (%)	Template information	GMQE (0 – 1)	Identity (%)
31	*	-	Soc.1 (ccl2 lectin)	40.60	42.00	Hematopoetic Cell Kinase, SH3 domain	0.33	18.42
124	*	-	Hydrolase (<i>Vibrio cholerae</i>)	16.70	48.00	Apaf-1 related killer DARK	0.09	15.00
153	Phage_lysozyme (PF00959.18)	1.7e-27	gp5	100.00	99.00	Tail-associated lysozyme	0.98	99.13
157	*	-	baseplate wedge protein gp7	100.00	100.00	Baseplate wedge protein gp7	0.99	98.52

Phyre confidence represents the probability (from 0 to 100) that the match between vB_EcoM-UFV13 protein and template is a true homology. GMQE is the Swiss-Model global quality estimation and has a range from 0 to 1. Asterisk means an absence of template information.

			Baseplate					
160	T4 gp9/10-like (PF07880.10)	2.8e-10	structural protein gp10	100.00	100.00	Baseplate wedge protein gp10	0.99	99.34
188	Gene 25-like lysozyme (PF04965.13)	1.7e-16	gp25 (hydrolase tail lysozyme)	100.00	98.00	Baseplate wedge protein gp25	0.97	98.47
245	T4 gp36 PF03903.12	1.8e-10	Large tail fiber protein p34	30.30	31.00	Hyaluronidase, phage associated	0.05	25.58
246	Peptidase_S74 (PF13884.5)	2.0e-12	gp37 (l-shaped tail fiber protein)	99.20	21.00	Endo-N-acetylneuraminidase	0.03	19.00

311 was used. However, interestingly, results for Soc.1 were found when Phyre2 and
312 Swiss-model were adopted. Soc.1 shows an identity with a sugar-binding domain of
313 the CCL2 lectin and with the SH3 domain of hematopoietic cells. Interestingly, SH3
314 domain is also found as a component of the B30 lysin of the streptococcal phage B30,
315 as described by Schmelcher et al. (2015). Once a hydrolase domain was predicted in
316 Soc.1, we also investigated the canonical Soc of the *T4virus*, which is identical to a
317 hypothetical protein of the Gram-positive *Clostridioides difficile* and other T4 related
318 phages (Supplementary Figure 5).

319 Alignment was performed in order to verify the identity of two lysozyme-
320 associated proteins (gp5 and gp25) and the distal component of the long tail fiber
321 (gp37) with some related T4-like viruses. Figure 5 shows that the *Escherichia* phage
322 UFV13 possesses, in terms of length and identity, gp5 and gp25 with high similarity
323 to Shf12, ime09, T4 and phiD1. Investigating only the endopeptidase S74, the figure 6
324 reveals that UFV13 shares the same amino acid sequence with *Shigella* virus Shf12
325 and *Escherichia* phage Ime09. Nevertheless, nine conserved amino acids were
326 identified when *E. coli* K1 and *B. subtilis* phage GA-1 have been included.
327 Interestingly, eight amino acids were common between the viruses UFV13, Shf12,
328 Ime09 and GA-1.

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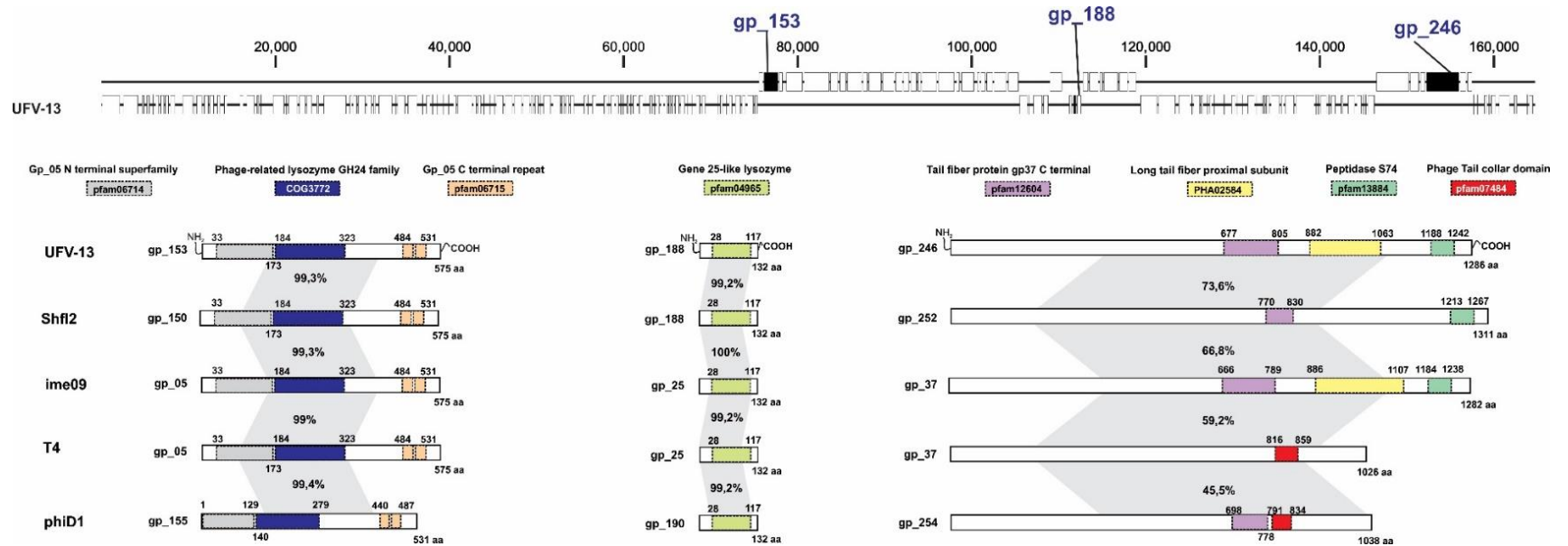
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Figure 5. Comparative analysis of three virion-associated peptidoglycan hydrolases (VAPGHs) identified (ORFs 153, 188 and 246) with other T4 viruses (Shf12, ime09, T4 and phiD1). Different identities were seen only for the gp37 (ORF 246) associated with the serine endopeptidase S74.

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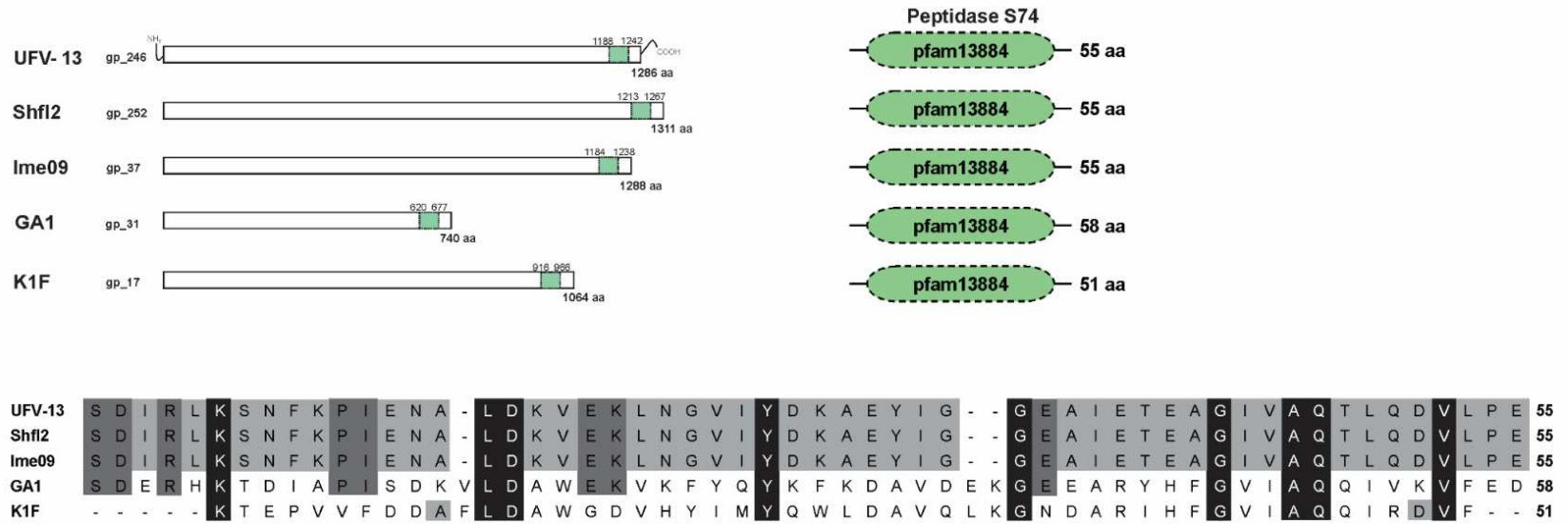


Figure 6. *Escherichia* phage UFV13 peptidase S74 comparison analysis using Gram-negative (*Shigella* phage Shfl2, *Escherichia* phages Ime09 and K1F) and Gram-positive (*Bacillus subtilis* phage GA-1) viruses. Gray scale shows amino acid conservation among the viruses.

352 **4. Discussion**

353 Urban sewage is a well-known environmental source of bacterial viruses, mainly
354 due to high bacterial biodiversity, making it possible to discover new virus types with
355 interesting features. Phage plaque formed by *Escherichia* phage UFV13 in double-
356 layer agar (Supplementary Figure 1A) shows viral enzymes that act on the bacterial
357 cell envelope as described by Jurczak-Kurek et al. (2016) for the phage vB_Pae575P-
358 4, able to lyse biofilm-forming *P. aeruginosa* strains. After propagation, the ion
359 exchange chromatography method and viral titration successfully provided a
360 homogeneous purified viral sample (10^8 PFU/ml). Capsid values found for the virus
361 UFV13 allow its classification in the *Caudovirales* order, *Myoviridae* family
362 (morphotype A1) (Ackermann, H. W. & Prangishvili, 2012) (Supplementary Figure
363 1B).

364 Considering the importance of *T. pyogenes* for dairy health, we evaluated the
365 capability of the phage UFV13 to prevent biofilm formation by *T. pyogenes* employing
366 three different approaches. The standard crystal violet assay was able to detect a
367 statistically significant reduction in biofilm formation of *T. pyogenes* by the phage
368 UFV13 only at the multiplicity of infection (MOI) 10 (Figure 1). Interestingly, the
369 final optical density (after 24 h) was lower in the treated group MOI 10 ($P \leq 0.05$) even
370 without a reduction in the planktonic cell count, as discussed below (Supplementary
371 Figure 3). This was probably due to morphological changes, alterations in the cell size
372 (Supplementary Figure 6) or compound production that potentially affected the final
373 optical density.

374 Measuring culturable populations of sessile and planktonic cells, the phage
375 UFV13 was shown as as capable of preventing biofilm formation without altering the

376 final planktonic cell count (Figure 2) keeping the same viral titration (Supplementary
377 Figure 3) for both multiplicities of infection (MOIs), indicating that *T. pyogenes* is not
378 susceptible to this virus. In relation to the biofilm cell count, only MOI 10 was
379 statistically significant ($P \leq 0.05$) at reducing *T. pyogenes* cell-adhesion (Figure 3),
380 which corroborates the CV assay. Qualitative observation of the biofilm formed by *T.*
381 *pyogenes* in the absence (control) and presence (treatment) of the phage UFV13 was
382 assessed using SEM. Diffuse cell colonization was observed (Figure 4A) in the control
383 group with extracellular polymeric substance (EPS) production. Conversely, when
384 MOI 10 was used (Figure 4B) growth was noted only at the air-liquid interface, failures
385 in the cellular layer and absence of EPS production.

386 According to Bergey's Manual of Systematic Bacteriology, *Actinomyces* genus
387 displays rhamnose such as whole-cell sugars (peptidoglycan type V) and the presence
388 of FimA, the major fimbrial subunit. Both structures are *T4virus* receptors and could
389 be involved in a primary recognition and attachment of the virus UFV13 (Rakhuba et
390 al., 2010). Abedon (2011) describes how the phage's ability to adsorb the host cell is
391 MOI and receptor dependent, which explains the results found for MOI 10 instead
392 MOIs 1 and 0.1.

393 From the genome analysis, eight structural viral proteins and one lytic protein
394 were highlighted and could be implicated in the biofilm disruption of *T. pyogenes* by
395 vB_EcoM-UFV13, as Soc.1. The small outer capsid protein (Soc) is considered an
396 auxiliary virus protein that acts as a clamp to stabilize the capsid at the end of the
397 process of viral particle assembly and it is associated with the virus surviving in
398 adverse conditions (Qin et al., 2010). Interestingly, Soc.1 and Soc.2, two related capsid
399 genes found in bacterial viruses T2, T6 and *Shigella virus* Shf12 were observed for
400 UFV13. Although the role of Soc.1 and Soc.2 are not well-established, the presence of

401 these two proteins indicates a mixed infection with *Shigella virus* Shf12 and the
402 occurrence of a process analogous to intron homing, where *segF* is substituted for
403 *soc.1* and *soc.2* during a recombinational event (Belle et al., 2002). Indeed, *segF* was
404 not observed for the phage UFV13. In this study, Soc.1 analysis revealed the presence
405 of two domains, one being considered a sugar-binding site homolog for the monomeric
406 Ccl2 lectin which binds to 1,3-fucosylated N-glycan structures (Schubert et al., 2012)
407 and a cell wall hydrolase one (Tables 1 and 2). Interestingly, Soc of UFV13 has shown
408 high sequence similarity with one identified in *Clostridioides difficile*, a Gram-positive
409 bacteria, (Supplementary Figure 5) and another *T4virus*, leading to possible
410 acquisition due to an interaction between the *T4virus* and a precedent Gram-positive
411 host across evolution.

412 In the UFV13 genome, lysozyme T4 (T4lyz) and gp5 encode a glycoside
413 hydrolase with both classified as belonging to family 24 according to the
414 Carbohydrate-Active Enzymes database (CAZy) (Lombard et al., 2014). As shown in
415 the figure 5, *Escherichia* phage UFV13 displays T4lyz and gp25 with high identity
416 when compared to related *T4virus* Shf12, ime09, T4 and phiD1. The bactericidal
417 property of the T4lyz against Gram-positive and negative bacteria was assessed by
418 Abouhmad et al. (2016). Cell viability reductions of 97.5%, 99.96% and 95% were
419 observed, respectively, for *Micrococcus luteus* (lysodeikticus), *Escherichia coli* and
420 *Pseudomonas mendocina*.

421 In the present study, two proteins that are involved on the baseplate composition
422 (gp25 and gp10) were classified as N-acetylmuramoyl-L-alanine amidases (LytA).
423 The presence of this amidase class is not strictly related to bacterial processes such as
424 cell wall biosynthesis and cellular division, but the presence of homologous *lytA*-like

425 genes was demonstrated in both temperate viruses *Streptococcus pneumonia* (ϕ HER
426 and ϕ B6) and *Bacillus subtilis* 168 prophage SP β (Romero et al., 2004).

427 Results revealed that UFV13 internal protein 3 (IP3) was classified as a murein
428 endopeptidase (similarity with *Vibrio tubiashii* ATCC19109) and showed 48%
429 identity with a hydrolase from *Vibrio cholerae*, while gp7 and gp36 were, respectively,
430 classified as a LD-carboxypeptidase protein and a membrane-bound lytic murein
431 transglycosylase D (homology with *Cronobacter sakazakii* SP291). Interestingly,
432 ORF 245 also showed an identity (25.58%) with a hyaluronidase associated with
433 bacterial virus, an enzyme especially found in prophages that have *Streptococcus*
434 *pyogenes* and *Streptococcus equi* as their hosts (Latka et al., 2017).

435 Another interesting result is related to the UFV13 long tail fiber protein gp37.
436 This protein is a distal half-fiber segment that together with gp34, gp35 and gp36, is
437 involved in T4 long tail fiber composition, with its domain 11 (D11) being responsible
438 for host recognition (Bartual et al., 2010). In this study, gp37 from the virus UFV13
439 showed the presence of Peptidase S74 domain, which was similar to other *T4viruses*
440 (Figure 6). Peptidase S74 domain is found in an endosialidase protein of bacterial
441 viruses able to infect the polysialic acid (polySia)-encapsulated *Escherichia coli* K1
442 and also identified in *Bacillus subtilis* phage GA-1 (Stummeyer et al., 2005). Indeed,
443 results showed that nine amino acids are conserved when UFV13 Peptidase S74 is
444 aligned with *E. coli* K1 and *B. subtilis* phage GA-1 sequences. According to Bartual
445 et al. (2010), T4 tail fiber genes are under constant evolutionary pressure to acquire
446 specific receptor-binding determinants that allow the infection of new hosts even if
447 they are considered taxonomically distant, which is provided by a framework for
448 mutations that confers this plasticity, however the presence of this conserved amino

449 acid in different phages with specific and distinct hosts shows the importance of this
450 residue for protein functionality.

451 Roach and Donovan (2015) showed that polysaccharide depolymerases like
452 endorhamnosidases, endosialidases, alginate lysases and hyaluronidases are identified
453 only in viruses that belong to the order *Caudovirales* and have a role in disrupting
454 biofilms allowing the phage to bind itself tightly to the cell surface so that the injection
455 can occur.

456 Considering this possible interaction between UFV13 VAPGHs and *T. pyogenes*
457 cell-wall components, we hypothesize that biofilm disruption can be explained by
458 bacterial metabolism changes as described elsewhere, and/or direct enzyme action on
459 biofilm structure. Fallico et al. (2011) have shown in *Lactococcus lactis* subsp. *lactis*
460 IL1403 a general molecular cell wall response (membrane stress proteins, d-
461 alanylation of cell wall lipoteichoic acids and proton motive force maintenance) to
462 recover it from the lytic virus c2 infection. Fernández et al. (2017) also demonstrated
463 bacterial metabolism shifting when the chimeric protein CHAPSH3b was used
464 (hydrolase HydH5 associated with lysostaphin cell wall binding domain) in controlling
465 biofilm development of *S. aureus* by the downregulation of protein-encoding genes
466 for bacterial autolysins, mainly due to AtlA, a related biofilm protein.

467 Although the *Escherichia* phage UFV13 is not able to infect *T. pyogenes*, it can
468 act in biofilm disruption. Based on proteins identified in the UFV13 genome, we
469 believe that the uncommon number of VAPGHs found for this virus (eight virion
470 proteins and the lysozyme T4) interfere with biofilm formation by interacting with *T.*
471 *pyogenes* cell wall components and/or biofilm extracellular polymeric substances
472 (EPS).

473

474 **5. Conclusion**

475 This study showed that the virus UFV13 isolated using an *E. coli* strain, acts to
476 prevent biofilm formation by *T. pyogenes*. These two pathogens are associated with
477 mastitis and uterine diseases in dairy cows. Although the exact action mechanism has
478 not been determined, UFV13 genome sequencing has revealed a broad range of virion-
479 associated hydrolases. We hypothesized that heterologous phages with a large number
480 of VAPGHs may possess activity by nonspecific hydrolase action against unrelated
481 hosts when employed at high MOI. Hence, future transcriptomic and differential
482 proteomic research will help to define the exact biofilm inhibition mechanism.

483

484 **Competing interests**

485 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

486

487 **Author's contributions**

488 Conception of the work: Vinícius da Silva Duarte, Roberto Sousa Dias and
489 Sérgio Oliveira de Paula; laboratory techniques: Vinícius da Silva Duarte and Roberto
490 Sousa Dias; *In silico* analysis: Vinícius da Silva Duarte, Andrew M. Kropinski, André
491 da Silva Xavier, Camila Geovana Ferro and Pedro M. P. Vidigal Laboratory funding:
492 Cynthia Canedo da Silva. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

493

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506

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Manuscrito 2

Genomic analysis and immune response in a murine mastitis model of vB_EcoM-UFV13, a potential biocontrol agent for use in dairy cows.

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1 Genomic analysis and immune response in a murine mastitis model of
2 vB_EcoM-UFV13, a potential biocontrol agent for use in dairy cows.

3

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29

30 **Abstract**

31 Bovine mastitis remains the main cause of economic losses for dairy
32 farmers. Mammary pathogenic *Escherichia coli* (MPEC) is related to an
33 acute mastitis and its treatment is still based on the use of antibiotics. In
34 the era of antimicrobial resistance (AMR), bacterial viruses
35 (bacteriophages) present as an efficient treatment or prophylactic option.
36 However this makes it essential that its genetic structure, stability and
37 interaction with the host immune system be thoroughly characterized. The
38 present study analyzed a novel, broad host-range anti-mastitis agent, the
39 *T4virus* vB_EcoM-UFV13 in genomic terms, and its activity against a
40 MPEC strain in an experimental *E. coli*-induced mastitis mouse model.
41 4,975 Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms (SNPs) were assigned between
42 vB_EcoM-UFV13 and *E. coli* phage T4 genomes with high impact on
43 coding sequences (CDS) (37.60 %) for virion proteins. Phylogenetic trees
44 and genome analysis supported a recent infection mix among vB_EcoM-
45 UFV13 and Shigella phage Shf12. After a viral stability evaluation (e.g pH
46 and temperature), intramammary administration (MOI 10) resulted in a 10-
47 fold reduction in bacterial load. Furthermore, pro-inflammatory cytokines,
48 such as IL-6 and TNF, were observed after viral treatment. This work brings

49 the whole characterization and immune response to vB_EcoM-UFV13, a
50 biocontrol candidate for bovine mastitis.

51

52 **1. Introduction**

53 Bovine mastitis remains the main cause of economic losses for dairy
54 farmers, estimated at \$ (US)533 billion worldwide, as well as public health
55 concerns, since low quality milk can be considered a vehicle for pathogen
56 transmission¹⁻³.

57 Mastitis treatment is typically based on the use of short and long-acting
58 antibiotics, respectively, during the lactation and dry period⁴. In terms of the
59 lactation period and specifically regarding clinical mastitis, *Escherichia coli*,
60 *Streptococcus uberis*, *Streptococcus dysgalactiae* and *Staphylococcus*
61 *aureus* are the main etiological agents involved that have been routinely
62 isolated⁵. Among these pathogens, mammary pathogenic *Escherichia coli*
63 (MPEC) is responsible for an acute mastitis characterized by inflammation,
64 increased somatic cell count (SCC) and impaired milk quality even after the
65 infection has been cured⁶.

66 Using *E. coli* strains obtained from different types of mastitis (*e.g* per-
67 acute and persistent) and the non-pathogenic strain K71, Blum *et al.* (2017)
68 performed a mammary immune response comparison in experimentally
69 infected cows and noticed differences regarding TNF- α , IL-6 and IL-17
70 secretion levels for each MPEC.

71 Within the current scenario of widespread antibiotic-resistant bacteria,
72 bacterial viruses present as an efficient therapeutic or prophylactic tool in

73 order to control different pathogens in dairy cows at different lactation
74 stages. This is supported by current *in vitro* and *in vivo* assays⁷⁻¹³.

75 Considered a model system in molecular biology, coliphage T4 has
76 been studied since the 1940s and possesses about 300 genes organized
77 in a 168.9 kb linear dsDNA with an average GC content of 34.5%¹⁴. Lytic
78 viruses related to T4 have awoken interest for their application in phage
79 therapy due the absence of lysogenic modules, a broad-host-range (from
80 *Proteobacteria* to *Cyanobacteria* phyla) and, recently, the identification of
81 virion-associated peptidoglycan hydrolases (VAPGHs), which are
82 considered potential enzybiotics¹⁵⁻¹⁷.

83 Indeed, T4 was used by Bruttin (2005) in the first safety test of phage
84 therapy in humans and in immunological assays in order to elucidate the
85 interactions between viruses, its host and the immune system. Bocian et
86 al. (2016) investigated how purified T4 phage and T4-generated *E.coli*
87 lysate impact immune cells differentiation, highlighting that lysis of Gram-
88 negative bacteria by phages might not trigger excessive monocyte
89 induction.

90 Currently, several studies have been exploited the use of mouse
91 models in the attempt to evaluate novels anti-mastitis drugs mainly against
92 *E. coli* and *S. aureus*²⁰⁻²⁶. The use of animal models is time and cost
93 effective approach, along with a previous step for pre-clinical and clinical
94 assays²⁷. However, the absence of intrinsic cow factors can be considered
95 a bottleneck when data is analyzed²⁸

96 The aims of the present study were to characterize the *Escherichia*
97 phage UFV13, a *T4virus*, in genomic, protein and physiological terms and

98 evaluate the immune response in an experimental *E. coli*-induced mastitis
99 mouse model with the aim to use it in clinical trials to control mastitis in
100 dairy cows.

101

102 **2. Materials and methods**

103 **2.1. vB_EcoM-UFV13 isolation and purification**

104 vB_EcoM-UFV13 (UFV13) was obtained from the sewerage system
105 of Viçosa, Minas Gerais state, Brazil and was propagated on *Escherichia*
106 *coli* 30 following the well-established Sambrook & Russell (2001) protocol.
107 This virus belongs to the bacterial virus collection of the Laboratório de
108 Imunovirologia Molecular (LIMV) at Universidade Federal de Viçosa (UFV),
109 Viçosa city, Brazil.

110 After virus propagation, viral particles were purified by a three-step
111 protocol using ion exchange and desalting columns in a chromatography
112 system (ÄKTAprime plus, GE Healthcare Life Sciences, Uppsala,
113 Sweden). Briefly, an initial step using HiTrap Desalting prepacked column
114 (GE Healthcare Life Sciences, Uppsala, Sweden) was conducted to
115 remove any salts used at virus propagation stages and the first two peaks
116 were collected and purified using an ion exchange chromatography
117 column, with specific fractions (7 to 11) driven to the final step, a new
118 desalting process. For the anion exchange column, start (20 mM Tris-HC,
119 pH 8.0) and elution buffers (20 mM Tris-HC, 1 M NaCl, pH 8.0) were used,
120 whereas in desalting steps a phosphate buffer (20 mM sodium phosphate,
121 0.15 M NaCl, pH 7.0) was prepared. Flow rate of 5 mL.min⁻¹ was adopted
122 for both columns. Finally, viral titer was measured at 37°C by double-agar

123 overlay method³⁰ using *E. coli* 30 as the plating host. Phage stocks were
124 stored at 4 °C for further analysis.

125

126 **2.2. Bioinformatic analysis**

127 Phage genome extraction, sequencing and annotation
128 methodologies are described according to Duarte et al. (2016).
129 Hypothetical proteins were manually checked for homologs using
130 UNIPROT database. Protein isoelectric point and molecular weight were
131 obtained using ExPASy³². Putative tRNAs and Rho-independent
132 transcription terminators were, respectively, predicted using tRNAscan-
133 SE³³ and ARNold web tool³⁴. The Database of Gene Regulation in
134 Bacteriophages (phiSITE)³⁵ was used in order to check the three major
135 classes of promoters (early, middle and late) as well as to confirm putative
136 Rho-independent terminators. The CGView Server was used to generate
137 a UFV13 genome graphical map³⁶.

138 Nucleotide differences between UFV13 and Enterobacteria phage T4
139 (accession number AF158101.6) genomes were performed by checking
140 reading alignments. High-quality Illumina reads were filtered and adaptor
141 sequences were removed using Trimmomatic software (ver 0.33)³⁷
142 (parameters: LEADING:10 TRAILING:10 SLIDINGWINDOW:4:15
143 MINLEN:65) and aligned to Enterobacteria phage T4 using Bowtie2
144 software (v2.2.4)³⁸. SAMtools³⁹ was used to convert the output SAM format
145 to BAM format and, subsequently, to sort the BAM file. The sorted BAM file
146 was processed with mpileup tool (SAMtools package) in order to extract
147 the variants. The Binary Call Format (BCF) created was converted to VCF

148 format using BCFtools³⁹. VCF file and Enterobacteria phage T4 genes
149 were used as input for SnpEff program⁴⁰. Only variants with predicted
150 “high” or “moderate” impact on the protein-coding gene were analyzed.

151 Whole-genomes that represent each genus from the subfamily
152 *Tevenvirinae* (*T4virus*, *Cc31virus*, *S16virus*, *Js98virus* and *Sp18virus*)
153 deposited on the International Committee on Taxonomy of Viruses (ICTV)
154 were downloaded from NCBI (accession numbers are provided in
155 Supplementary Table 4) and aligned with UFV13 genome using
156 Progressive MAUVE⁴¹. Whole-genome single nucleotide polymorphisms
157 (SNPs) were extracted as described in Treu et al. (2014) and a SNP-based
158 phylogenetic tree was constructed using PHYLIP package⁴³ and visualized
159 by dendroscope⁴⁴. Furthermore, a whole-genome phylogenetic tree was
160 formulated aligning previously cited genomes from the *Tevenvirinae*
161 subfamily. Online tools ClustalW2⁴⁵ and MAFTTT version 7⁴⁶ were used for
162 multiple alignment. A neighbor-joining tree was drafted with MEGA7⁴⁷ and
163 visualized with FigTree (<http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/software/figtree/>).

164 *In silico* bacterial hosts of UFV13 were predicted using HostPhinder⁴⁸.

165

166 **2.3. vB_EcoM-UFV13 structural protein analysis**

167 With the aim of obtaining the UFV13 structural protein profile,
168 proteomic analysis were conducted.

169 Viral propagation/purification (see item 2.1) were conducted and
170 phage particles concentrated by adding NaCl 1M and polyethylene glycol
171 8000 (PEG8000) 10% (w/v). The mixture was kept overnight at 4°C. After
172 a centrifugation (10,000 xg, 15 min), viral pellet was resuspended in 1 mL

173 of SM buffer and one volume of chloroform followed by centrifugation at
174 4,000 *g* for 10 min. An equal volume of trichloroacetic acid (TCA) 10% (v/v)
175 was added to the supernatant and incubated on ice for 30 min. The
176 precipitated viral proteins were collected by centrifugation (11,000 *xg*, 20
177 min), washed three times with acetone (11,000 *xg*, 10 min) and
178 resuspended in water. The *BCA Protein Assay Kit* (Boster Biological
179 Technology, Wuhan, China) was used to estimate protein concentrations.

180 For protein profiling, the viral proteins were separated via sodium
181 dodecyl sulfate-polyacrilamide electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) on a 15%
182 gel⁴⁹. Protein bands were highlighted by Coomassie Brilliant Blue R-250
183 dye and removed as described by Shevchenko et al. (2007). Mass
184 spectrum (MS) was acquired by matrix-assisted laser desorption-ionization
185 time of flight (MALDI/TOF-TOF) (Ultraflex III - BRUKER DALTONICS).
186 Spectra intervals between 500 and 3,500 kDa were selected and forwarded
187 for MS/MS analysis. Results were obtained by Mascot™ (Matrix Science)
188 software using the NCBI nr protein database. Only proteins and peptides
189 indicated as significant by Mascot were considered for further analysis.

190

191 **2.4. Physiological features**

192 Physiological features were assessed in triplicate following the
193 protocols described by Jurczak-Kurek et al. (2016). In each of the following
194 cases, following treatment the phage preparation was diluted and tittered
195 as described above (2.1).

196 **2.4.1. pH stability**

197 Viral capability at different acidic and alkaline pH values was
198 evaluated. One mL of purified viruses were transferred to 9 mL LB medium
199 with pH 2, pH 4, pH 7 (control), pH 10 and pH 12 at a 1:9 ratio and
200 incubated for 1 h at 37 °C, being proceeded by a 10-fold serial dilution and
201 plating as described in item 2.1. After overnight incubation at 37 °C, virus
202 stability was determined by the percentage of viruses able to produce lysis
203 plate.

204 **2.4.2. Thermal stability**

205 Thermal stability studies on LB-diluted phage suspensions were
206 made at -20 °C, 40 °C, 62 °C and 95 °C, respectively, for 12 h, 40 min, 40
207 min and 5 min. After these periods, a serial 10-fold dilution was conducted
208 and a specific aliquot was plated and incubated overnight at 37 °C. Viruses
209 that did not undergo any thermal treatment were used as a control.

210 **2.4.3. Viral ability to propagate in different temperatures**

211 Viral replication at different temperatures (4°C, 22°C, 30°C and
212 37°C) was assessed by spot-assay after 24 hours of incubation using a 10-
213 fold serially diluted viral stock in LB medium.

214 **2.4.4. Osmotic shock effect**

215 In order to verify the effect of the osmotic shock on virus particles, a
216 stock aliquot was transferred to TM buffer (10 mM Tris–HCl, 10 mM
217 MgSO₄; pH 7.2) with sodium chloride 4.5 M, incubated at room
218 temperature for 15 min and quickly diluted in TM buffer without sodium
219 chloride. Bacterial viruses incubated in TM buffer without sodium chloride
220 were used as a control.

221 **2.4.5. Antiviral resistance**

222 Antiviral activity of sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS), sodium lauroyl
223 sarcosinate (Sarkosyl) and cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB) on
224 virus particles was determined incubating a standardized viral suspension
225 with 0.09% SDS (20 min at 45 °C), 0.1% CTB (1 min at 22 °C) and 0.1%
226 Sarkosyl (10 min at 22 °C). Controls were done considering the same
227 conditions for each antiviral compound but they were substituted for TM
228 buffer.

229 **2.4.6. Organic solvent effect**

230 To study the effect of four different organic solvents, a viral
231 suspension was added to 63% ethanol, 90% acetone, 90% chloroform and
232 50% dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO). Mixtures were incubated for 1 h at 22 °C
233 (ethanol and acetone), 1.5 h at 4 °C (chloroform) and 10 min at 4 °C
234 (DMSO). In the next step, 10-fold dilutions in TM buffer (10 mM Tris–HCl,
235 10 mM MgSO₄; pH 7.2) were prepared and used for plating. Phages
236 incubated in TM buffer under conditions described above, were used as a
237 control.

238

239 **2.5. Animal model and immune response**

240 **2.5.1. *Escherichia coli* 30 strain**

241 The mammary-pathogenic *E. coli* 30 was isolated from a dairy cow
242 with acute mastitis and kindly provided by Brazilian Agricultural Research
243 Corporation (Empresa Brasileira de Pesquisa Agropecuária – EMBRAPA)
244 Dairy Cattle (Juiz de Fora, Minas Gerais, Brazil). *E. coli* 30 was evaluated
245 for its ability to form biofilm as well as for motility capacity. Motility assays

246 were conducted according to Deziel et al. (2001). Briefly, an overnight *E.*
247 *coli* 30 aliquot was washed, suspended in distilled and sterilized water, and
248 inoculated in King B medium (peptone 20 g/L, MgSO₄.7H₂O 1.5 g/L,
249 K₂HPO₄ 1.5 g/L), supplemented with 1.5, 0.5 and 0.3 % of agar for
250 twitching, swarming and swimming tests, respectively. Biofilm assay
251 followed the common crystal violet (CV) staining method⁵³. After incubation
252 (37 °C for 48h), wells were washed 3 times with PBS buffer to remove not
253 adherent cells. CV was added at a minimum volume capable overcome
254 bacterial suspension volume, making possible quantify all bacterial
255 biomass, and incubated for 30 minutes at room temperature. To biomass
256 quantify, CV was removed, wells washed with PBS, added ethanol to
257 solubilize biomass internal CV crystals, and optical density measured at
258 560 nm. All assays were performed in triplicate.

259 Antimicrobial susceptibility test of *E. coli* 30 was assessed by disc
260 diffusion assay using polisensidiscs for 25 different antibiotics (DME,
261 Araçatuba, São Paulo, Brazil) following the manufacture's
262 recommendation. The results were interpreted according to the standards
263 of the Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI)⁵⁴.

264 **2.5.2. *E. coli*-induced mastitis in mouse**

265 With the aim to evaluate UFV13 effectiveness and the immune
266 response against *E. coli* 30 *in vivo*, an experimental *E. coli*-induced mastitis
267 mouse model was used. The trial followed the methodology described by
268 Chandler (1971), with some modifications, and was approved by the Ethics
269 Committee (Comissão de ética no uso de animais/UFV) according to the
270 protocol 64/2016. Lactating Balb/c female mice (5 to 15 days) was

271 intraperitoneally anesthetized with 10% Ketamine and 2% Xylazine, with
272 subsequent surgical operation of the mammary gland by cutting the teat
273 canal of the last two abdominal ceilings (R5 and L5 of each animal were
274 used) (Supplementary Figure 4). *E. coli* 30 (100 UFC/ml), PBS and phage
275 served as the control groups, while phage plus bacteria was considered
276 the treatment group (MOI 10). Viral addition was done four hours after
277 bacterial inoculation. Three animals were used to perform each
278 experimental group.

279 In order to assess the lytic activity of the phage vB_EcoM-UFV13 in
280 mammary glands, animals were euthanized 48 hours after the treatment
281 by anesthetic overdose. Infected mammary glands were removed and
282 transferred to 1.5 ml of (PBS), macerated and serially diluted (1:10) in PBS
283 buffer. A microdrop assay⁵⁶ was performed to estimate *E. coli* 30 colony-
284 forming unit (CFU).

285 Cytokines IL-6, TNF- α , IL-2, IFN- γ , IL-4, IL-10 and IL-17A obtained from
286 macerated mammary gland (L5 and R5 from each animal was pooled)
287 were simultaneously quantified by the Cytometric Bead Array kit (CBA, BD
288 Bioscience) in a BD FACSVerser Flow cytometry following manufacturer's
289 recommendations.

290

291 **2.6. Histological analysis**

292 For histology, mice were euthanized 48 hours after phage treatment.
293 The mammary glands were removed and fixed in Karnovsky fixative
294 (paraformaldehyde 4% and glutaraldehyde 4%, pH 7.3). Further, the
295 tissues were embedded in paraffin and a 5 μ m section was obtained by

296 microtomy, stained with hematoxylin and eosin (H & E) and observed under
297 light microscopy. The images were acquired under an Olympus DP73
298 microscope.

299

300 **2.7. Statistical analysis**

301 Statistical analysis was performed with GraphPad InStat 3 software
302 (GraphPad, La Jolla, CA, USA) using the one-way analysis of variance
303 (ANOVA) at 95% accuracy level to evaluate the differences between
304 mammary gland cytokine production under different conditions. This assay
305 was set up in triplicate and, for each animal, the two abdominal ceilings
306 were pooled into one sample. Tukey's test was used as *post hoc* test.

307

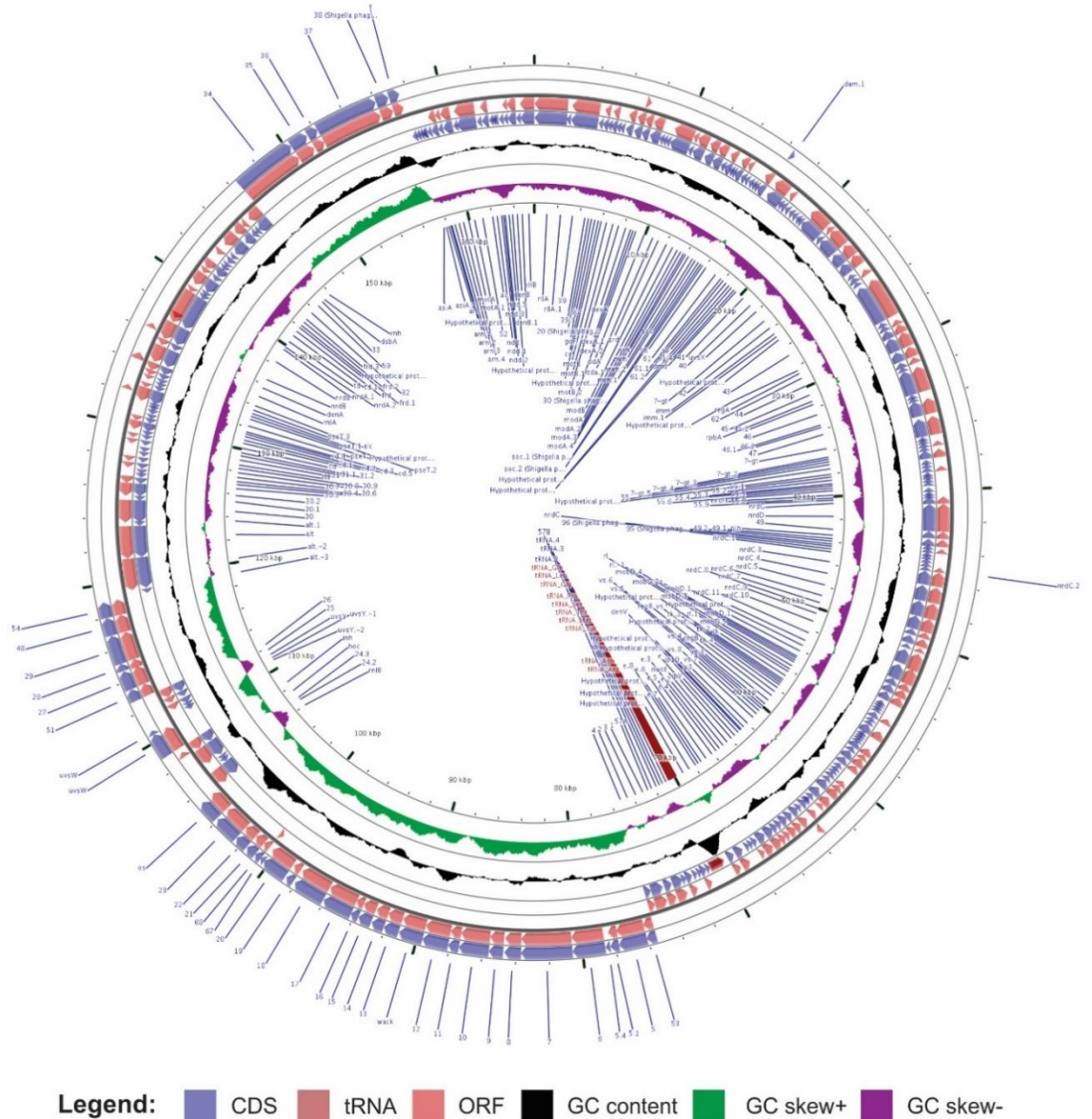
308 **3. Results and discussion**

309 **3.1. vB_EcoM-UFV13 genome analysis**

310 Bacteriophage UFV13 was isolated from samples obtained in the
311 sewage system of Viçosa, Minas Gerais, Brazil, a well-known source of
312 novel viruses⁵¹.

313 From the genome sequence (165,772 bp, GC content 34.8%), 269
314 ORFs were predicted and annotated. The size is similar to that of other
315 members of the T4virus genus⁵⁷. In addition, a total of ten tRNA encoding
316 genes (Gln, Leu, Gly, Pro, Ser, Thr, Met, Tyr, Asn and Arg) were identified
317 and are organized in a gene cluster without introns or pseudogenes (Figure
318 1). 13 ORFs showed an identity below 70% with the reference phage T4,
319 while 24 ORFs were annotated as hypothetical protein coding sequences.
320 ORFs 50 and 232 are, respectively, coding sequences for T2 and T6

321 bacteriophage proteins. 13 ORFs encode for Shigella phage proteins (pSs-
 322 1, Shf12, Shf125875, SH7, SHBML-50-1). Genes for IplI and IpX were not
 323 identified in the UFV13 phage genome. Gene and protein information such
 324 as genomic coordinates, protein weight, pI and putative function for each
 325 UFV13 ORF are reported in Supplementary Table 1.



327 **Figure 1. Genome map of vB_EcoM-UFV13. The linear genome was circularized in**
 328 **order to improve its visualization. CDS, ORF, GC content, GC skew+ and GC skew-**
 329 **are reported in circles from outside inwards.**

330 Functional categorization of UFV13 genes (Supplementary table 2)
 331 revealed that nonessential and auxiliary genes mainly related to homing

332 endonucleases of introns such as *I-TevI*, *I-TevII* and *I-TevIII* are absent, as
 333 with some of their related introns like *mob* and *seg* genes (Table 1). Homing
 334 endonucleases of introns are considered systems associated with gene
 335 conversion events, transference of mobile elements and gene exclusion in
 336 mixed infections¹⁴. In fact, genome analysis suggests a recent mixed
 337 infection among UFV13 and Shigella phage Shf12, once *segF* was
 338 substituted by *soc.1* and *soc.2* from Shigella phage Shf12.

339 **Table 1. Genes not predicted in vB_EcoM-UFV13 based on the reference genome**
 340 **Enterobacteria phage T4 (accession number NC_000866). Function and relevance**
 341 **were integrally withdrawn from Miller et al. (2003).**

Gene	Function	Relevance
<i>mobA</i>	Pseudogene of Mob site-specific DNA endonuclease	Nonessential
<i>mobB</i>	Putative site-specific intron-like DNA endonuclease	Nonessential
<i>mobC</i>	Putative intron-like DNA endonuclease	Auxiliary
<i>mobD</i>	Putative site-specific DNA endonuclease	Nonessential
<i>mobE</i>	Putative mobile endonuclease	Nonessential
<i>segA</i>	Site-specific intron-like DNA endonuclease	Nonessential
<i>segB</i>	Probable site-specific intron-like DNA endonuclease	Nonessential
<i>segC</i>	Site-specific intron-like DNA endonuclease	Nonessential
<i>segD</i>	Probable site-specific intron-like DNA endonuclease	Nonessential
<i>segE</i>	Probable site-specific intron-like DNA endonuclease	Nonessential
<i>segF</i>	Intron-like endonuclease. A probable fusion protein, generated from 56 and 69 by hopping of ribosomes across a pseudoknot, is larger	Nonessential
<i>repEA</i>	Protein auxiliary for initiation from <i>oriE</i>	Auxiliary
<i>repEB</i>	Protein required for initiation from <i>oriE</i>	Auxiliary
<i>I-TevI</i>	Intron-homing endonuclease	Nonessential
<i>I-TevII</i>	Endonuclease for <i>nrdD</i> -intron homing	Nonessential
<i>I-TevIII</i>	Defective intron homing endonuclease	Nonessential
<i>rnaD</i>	Stable RNA	Auxiliary
<i>stp</i>	Peptide modulating host restriction system	Auxiliary
<i>nrdA</i>	Ribonucleotide reductase α subunit	Auxiliary; <i>nrd</i> -defective hosts

342

343 According to Belle et al. (2002), *segF* was absent in T2 phages, but the
 344 region is occupied by *soc.1* and *soc.2*.

345 Similarity analysis using the deposited genomes from Yersinia
346 phage PST and Shigella phage Shfl2 showed that the bacteriophage
347 UFV13 has 97% identity with both phages. However it has a larger
348 percentage of aligned genome (96%) for the Shfl2, and 90% of genome
349 aligned to phage PST (Supplementary figure 1). Comeau *et al.*, (2014)
350 characterized Yersinia phage PST genome, containing dsDNA with
351 167,785 bp, 35.3% GC content and 9 tRNAs, whose values are near to
352 those found for the phage UFV13, with 34.8% GC content. Jun *et al.*,
353 (2016) identified 10 tRNAs for both pSs-1 and Shfl2 viruses infecting
354 *Shigella* spp. as host. Despite little existing knowledge about tRNAs
355 functioning in phage life cycles, high tRNAs numbers found in some
356 bacteriophages could be proportional to phage genomes sizes and are
357 related to a short latent period and high burst size value⁶⁰.

358 In the total, 35, 21 and 31, early, middle and late promoter regions
359 respectively, were predicted, which corresponds to 73% of the promoters
360 identified for the T4 genome (Supplementary table 3). As expected, no
361 promoter regions for *mob* and *seg* genes were found, along with *I-TevII*
362 and internal protein II (*ipII*).

363 Overall, termination of transcription in T4 bacteriophages occurs by an
364 intrinsic termination signal, a stem-loop arrangement accompanied by a U-
365 rich region, or a Rho-dependent termination mechanism⁶¹. For UFV13, 82
366 Rho-independent transcription terminators were predicted and compared
367 against phiSITE database. 30 sequences displayed high identity with the
368 reference phage, while five were not predicted but were found using the
369 sequences available on the phiSITE. Terminators for the genes *45*, *5.4/6'*,

370 34/35, 35, 37, *nrdA*, *uvsY*.-2 and 56/*segF* were not found or even identified
371 using phiSITE (Table 2), while for the genes such as *regA*, *wac*, 24(*b*) and
372 30.9(*b*) were, respectively, detected on the ORFs 52, 163, 178 and 208.
373 According to Miller *et al.* (2003), generally 34 terminators are found in the
374 T4 genome. The absence of terminators for the genes *nrdA* and 56/*segF*
375 can be explained by their absence, since these genes were not annotated.
376 The significance of terminators within genes is unknown but have been
377 described for T4 phages¹⁴.

378 A total of 5,071 filtered variants (4,975 SNPs, 86 insertions and 10
379 deletions) were identified (1 variant every 33 bases) between UFV13 and
380 T4. 83,656 effects were assigned and categorized (395 high (0.472%),
381 1,670 low (1.996%), 2,722 moderate (3.25%) and 78,869 modifier
382 (94.28%). The number of effects by functional class is: missense 2,879
383 (60.79%), nonsense 187 (3.95%) and silent 1,670 (35.26%). Considering
384 only genes with high or moderate variants, the mainly affected protein
385 category was that related to virion structural proteins, with gp7 being the
386 most affected (Figure 2).

387 **Table 2. Main features of the predicted Rho-independent transcription terminators. The asterisk means that absence of terminator**
 388 **prediction by using Arnold or phiSITE programs.**

Intergenic location	Genome position	Strand	Predicted Rho-independent transcription terminator site	Free energy (kcal/mol)
39.1	4310..4341	Minus	TTTAAATAAAAGGCCTTCGGGCCTTTAGCTTTATG	-10.60
soc	15135..15168	Minus	AATCAAGGACTCCTTCGGGAGTCCTTTTTCATT	-16.30
uvrX-40	21337..21371	*	*	*
Unknown gene	25445..25477	Minus	TAAATCTAGGGACCTCCGGGTCCCTTTTTTCACAC	-12.10
regA	28228..28259	*	*	*
α-gt	35109..35140	Minus	ACAAAATAAAGGGCTTCGGCCCTTTAGCTTTATA	-10.60
α-gt.2	36378..36411	Minus	TATGCGGATAGGAGCTTCGGCTCCTATATTGCTT	-14.20
55.3	38744..38775	Minus	GTTTAGCTAAGGGCTTCGGCCCTTTTTGGATAAT	-10.60
nrdH	39707..39739	Minus	GATTAAGACGGGCCCTCTGGGCCTTCTTCTCG	-8.80
Pin	43124..43166	Minus	AAATACCCTTATCTATTTAAGGTAAGGGTTTATTA	-10.70
nrdC.11	51781..51818	Minus	AATGATAGGGAGCCTTCGGGCTCCCTTTTTTATT	-18.40
rl.-1	55358..55389	Minus	TAACATTAGTCTCCTTCGGGAGACTTTTTTCATT	-13.50
Vs	58098..58128	Minus	TATATCAAGGGCGATATTGTCCGCCCTTTTTCTTTA	-11.40
e.6	66465..66498	Minus	ATAATGATAAGGGGCTTCGGCCCCTATTACTTGG	-13.90
RNA C	69462..69503	Minus	GCTTAGCCCCAGCCGAAAGGTTGGGGCTTTTTA	-17.40
8	84691..84728	Plus	TAAATTAAGGGAGCCCATGGGCTCCCTTTTTCTT	-16.50
wac	91126..91161	*	*	*
19	98662..98695	Minus	AAGCAGGATGGGGATTTCTCCCCATTCaTTTTAT	-14.50
23	151432..151461	Plus	AATTGAGGGAGCCTTCGGGTTCCCTTTTTCTTTA	-16.70
24(a)	105412..105447	Plus	AAAACAAAGGGACCTTTCGGTCCCTTTTTATTTA	-12.30
24(b)	105467..105499	*	*	*
hoc	106999..107032	Minus	TAATCATAAGGGGCTTCGGCCCCTTCTTCATTT	-14.50
54	118931..118972	Plus	CTAACAATGGGGACCGAAAGGTCCCCATATTTTT	-19.90
alt.1	123501..123532	Minus	GATTACTAAAGGCCTTCGGGCCTTTAaTTTTATAA	-14.80
30.9(a)	128117..128154	Minus	AAGTTGAGGACTCCTTCGGGAGTCCTTTTTTATT	-16.30
30.9(b)	128162..128198	*	*	*
nrdB	135904..135939	Minus	TTAAGGAGTGGGCGCAAGGCCCATTTTTATTATG	-15.30
32	143116..143152	Minus	ATTAATTGGGGACCTCTAGGGTCCCCTTTTTTAT	-14.90
T	157574..157618	Plus	CAAACCCTCGTTGAATTCGTGATGAGGGTTTTTC	-11.10

motA.1	160357..160396	Minus	ATTTTAGGGAGAGCTTCGGCTCTCCCTTTTTTAT	-19.60
Ac	161968..162004	Minus	TGCCCTTGCTACTTTATTGGTAGCAcTATATTATG	-8.60
denB.1	164573..164601	Minus	CAAATAAATAAGGGCTTCGGCCCTTTTGTTTTAA	-10.60
5.4	78461..78499	Minus	GTCACTCCGCCATGTGTTTCATATGGCTTTTTAA	-10.20
Stp	162165..162200	Plus	TCCTCACTGGCGTCCGAAGACGCCTTTAATTTT	-10.30
rIIb	164798..164834	Plus	TCCTTAGTTAAGGGCCGAAGCCCTTATTTAAATT	-10.00

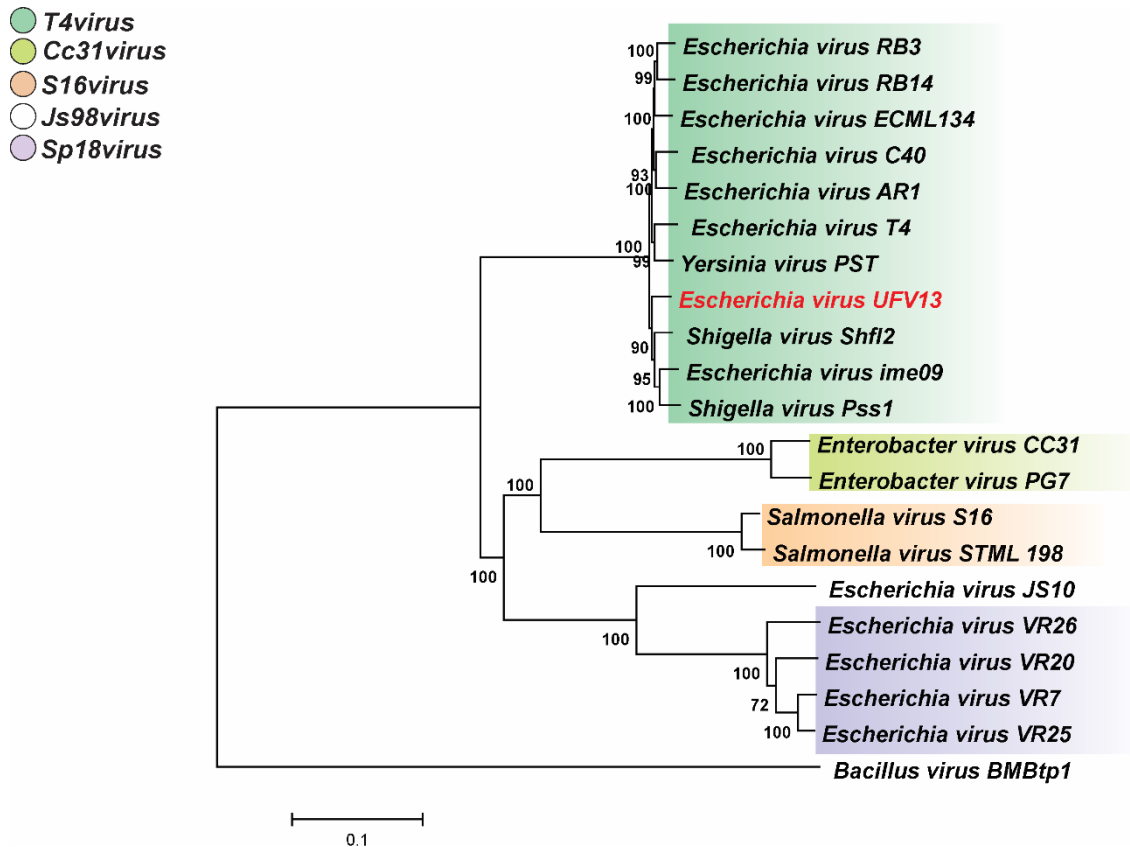
389

390 This protein is considered the second largest protein in the baseplate
 391 and is one of the seven components associated with wedge assembly and
 392 stability⁶². The large number of SNPs found in virion proteins reflects the
 393 diversification of phage UFV13 from the classical T4 and can be associated
 394 with the high capability to infect different bacterial genus such as
 395 *Escherichia*, *Morganella* and *Shigella*, an uncommon phage feature (data
 396 not shown).

397 In order to evaluate the phylogenetic relationship between UFV13 and
 398 genera belonging to the subfamily *Tevenvirinae* (*T4virus*, *Cc31virus*,
 399 *S16virus*, *Js98virus* and *Sp18virus*), a whole-genome tree was
 400 constructed. The phylogenetic tree divided phages into four clusters with
 401 vB_EcoM-UFV13 possessing the closest relationship with *Shigella* Shfl2
 402 and *Yersinia* phage PST (Figure 3), a result also supported by the SNP-
 403 based phylogenetic tree (Supplementary figure 2).

Proteins (Functional categorization)	Number of protein-encoding genes	(%)
Virion proteins	135	37.60
DNA replication, recombination, repair, packaging and processing	83	23.12
Nucleotide metabolism	32	8.91
Transcription	32	8.91
Host or phage interactions	25	6.96
Without classification	13	3.62
Translation	11	3.06
Homing endonucleases and homologs	9	2.51
Host alteration/shutoff	7	1.95
Lysis	5	1.39
Predicted integral membrane or periplasmic proteins	5	1.39
Chaperonins/assembly catalysts	2	0.56
Total	359	100.0

Figure 2. Variants calling between vB_EcoM-UFV13 and Enterobacteria phage T4 were predicted using SnpEff. Only variants with predicted “high” or “moderate” impact on the protein-coding gene were analyzed and functionally categorized.



404 **Figure 3. Phylogenetic relationship between phage UFV13 and genera belonging to**
 405 **the subfamily *Tevenvirinae* (*T4virus*, *Cc31virus*, *S16virus*, *Js98virus* and**
 406 ***Sp18virus*). vB_EcoM-UFV13 is most closely related to *Shigella* phage Shf12 and**
 407 ***Yersinia* phage PST, and is clearly a member of the *T4virus* genus.**

408 With the aim to establish the host range of phage UFV13 host range, *in*
 409 *silico* Host Phinder test was conducted. Four bacterial genera were
 410 predicted to be infected by UFV13: *Escherichia* (E-value: $5.9e^{-1}$), *Yersinia*
 411 (E-value: $5.8e^{-1}$), *Shigella* (E-value: $6.3e^{-1}$) and *Salmonella* (E-value: $1.1e^{-2}$).
 412

413

414 3.2. Viral protein analysis

415 SDS PAGE analysis revealed the presence of eight proteins
 416 (Supplementary figure 3). Among these, four proteins were chosen and
 417 analyzed by MALDI/TOF-TOF, with the following being identified:
 418 UFV13_gp243 long tail fiber proximal subunit (139.95 kDa), *E. coli*

419 chaperonin GroL (57.36 kDa), Escherichia phage *vB_EcoM_112* major
420 capsid protein (56.09 KDa) and *E. coli* outer membrane protein C (36.77
421 kDa). These proteins are deposited at UNIPROT under accession numbers
422 A0A160CBJ3, A0A017I9Q1, A0A160CBB0 and A0A148HSV3,
423 correspondingly. The presence of a common viral receptor (OmpC) and the
424 chaperonin GroL highlights the need for viral purification enhancement.
425 Viral isoelectric points are usually below six and some of them are able to
426 bind to anion and cation exchange matrixes. However, host cell DNA is
427 efficiently removed by cation exchanger columns, while host cell proteins
428 are effectively eliminated by anion exchange⁶³.

429

430 **3.3. Physiological features**

431 Viral ability to survive in a wide range of adverse conditions is a desired
432 characteristic for therapeutic as well as a biological control agents⁶⁴. Thus,
433 phage stability was evaluated in different physical and chemical conditions.

434 UFV13 was relatively stable within a pH range of 7.0 – 12.0. An
435 approximate 1 log-fold reduction on viral titer was observed after incubation
436 at pH 4.0 (18% of survivability) (Figure 4A). Interestingly, phage UFV13
437 was inactivated after 1 h of incubation at pH 2.0, but not at pH 12 (68%
438 viral viability), which is indicative of considerable virion stability at basic pH
439 values.

440 UFV13 was able to lyse *E. coli* at 30 °C and 22 °C with a plating
441 efficiency of 69 and 56%, respectively (Figure 4B). No lysis plates were
442 observed after storage at 4 °C, which may be indicative of DNA injection
443 without host lysis.

444 Viral thermal inactivation occurred in the extreme tested temperatures
445 95 and -20 °C (0 and 24% survival, respectively), while viral titer dropped
446 to 50% when UFV13 was incubated for 40 min at 62 °C (Figure 4C). No
447 significant reduction of phage titer was observed after thermal treatment at
448 40 °C.

449 It was found that osmotic pressure change, detergent and organic
450 solvents determined a significant titer drop of UFV13. A survivability of 12%
451 was observed when UFV13 underwent a rapid dilution from high-
452 concentration NaCl buffer to low-concentration ones (Figure 4D). The
453 anionic detergent Sarkosyl reduced the number of viable viral particles by
454 74%, while CTAB and SDS resulted in a complete inactivation of this virus
455 (Figure 5). Anti-phage activity was also evidenced after exposure to
456 ethanol, chloroform, acetone and DMSO.

457 Physiological features evaluated in this study are in accordance with
458 Jurczak-Kurek et al. (2016). In a broad physiological study using 83
459 bacteriophages isolated from urban sewage, the same source of UFV13, it
460 was verified that the vast majority of phages were sensitive to a
461 temperature of 62°C (survival below 70%), were able to survive in basic

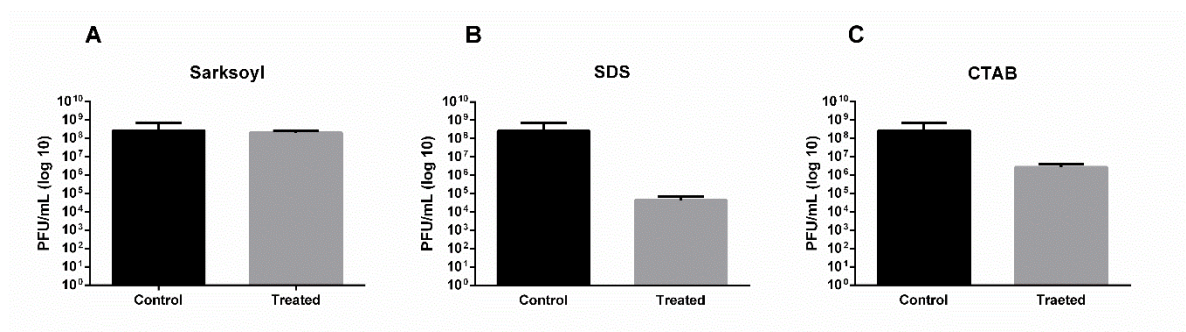


Figure 4. Viral stability under anionic and cationic detergents showed that vB_EcoM-UFV13 was sensible in all conditions.

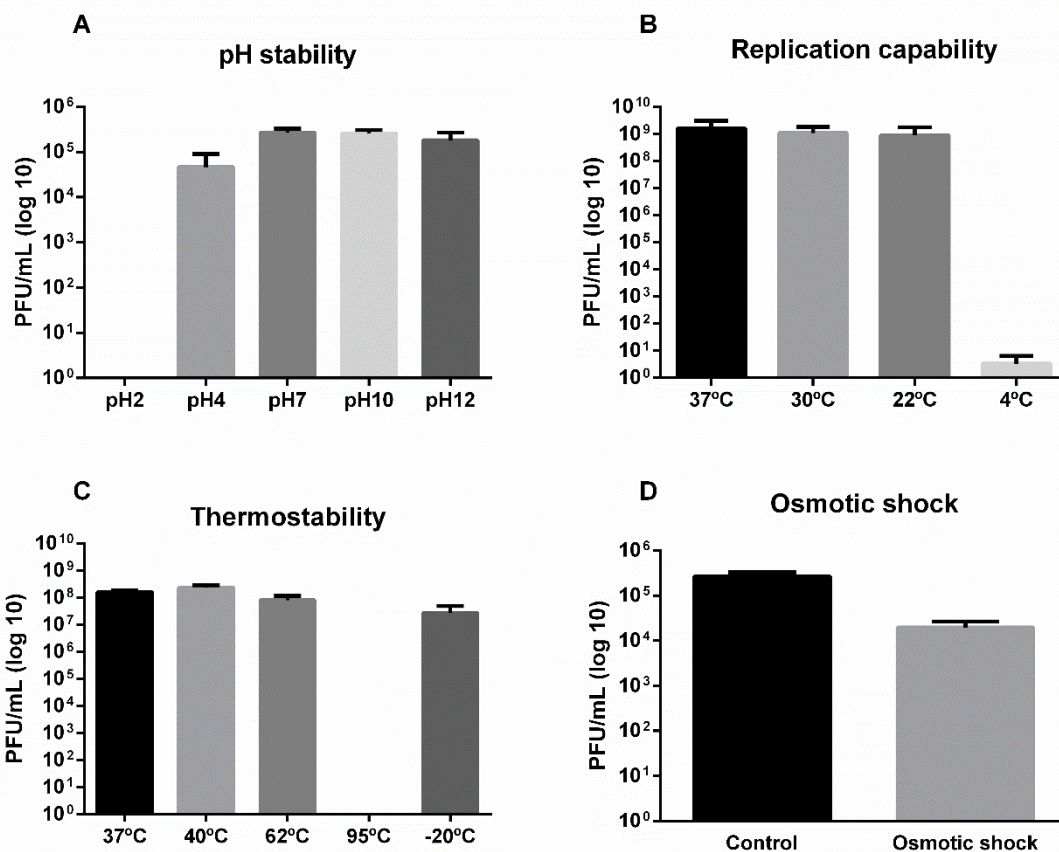


Figure 5. The stability of vB_EcoM-UFV13 under different conditions was evaluated. A – reductions of 100, 82, 4 and 32% of viable particles were observed after incubations, respectively, at pHs 2, 4, 10 and 12.; B – vB_EcoM-UFV13 was able to replicate at 30 and 22 °C with an efficiency of plating of 69 and 56%, corresponding; C – vB_EcoM-UFV13 was inactivated at 95 °C for 5 min; D – Osmotic shock changing reduced in 84% viral viability.

462 pHs (ranging from 10 to 12), were susceptible to detergents and organic
 463 solvents, except chloroform, and were also resistant to osmotic shock.

464 Viral stability assays have also been shown that UFV13 can survive in
 465 raw milk and it has potential capability to survive in mastitic milk. In general,
 466 mastitis can dampen the quality of raw milk composition, which includes
 467 increased levels of Na⁺/Cl⁻ and pH⁶⁵. Evaluating a bacteriophage cocktail
 468 composed of two T4 phages in raw milk against *E. coli*, Porter et al. (2016)
 469 observed a 3.3- to 5.6-log reduction of bacterial growth over a 12-h

470 physiologic temperature. As discussed below (item 3.4), this study showed
471 UFV13 activity against *E. coli* in lactating female mice.

472

473 **3.4. *E. coli*-induced mastitis mouse model**

474 *E. coli* 30, an isolate obtained from a dairy cow with acute mastitis,
475 displays resistance to 14 of 25 evaluated antibiotics (Supplementary Table
476 5). This bacterium is resistant to at least three different antimicrobial drug
477 classes, which allows its classification as a multi-drug resistant strain⁶⁶
478 Moreover, of the four types of virulence factors analyzed (biofilm forming
479 capability and motility types: swarming, swimming and twitching) the *E. coli*
480 30 was positive for biofilm formation, swarming, and swimming, being
481 negative only for the twitching (Supplementary Table 6). Studies correlated
482 this virulence factors to an increase in pathogenicity and immune response
483 evasion^{67,68}.

484 Nowadays, several studies have been used mouse mastitis models with
485 the aim to evaluate potential anti-mastitis agents for use in dairy cows^{20–}
486 ^{25,69–71} although the authors are aware that cow factors are relevant in the
487 mastitis establishment²⁸.

488 In order to evaluate UFV13's *in vivo* activity against an MPEC strain
489 and immune response to this treatment, an *E. coli*-induced mastitis model
490 was employed. A 10-fold reduction of bacterial load was observed after
491 viral inoculation using MOI 10 (Supplementary Figure 5).

492 Seven different cytokines (IL-6, TNF- α , IL-2, IFN- γ , IL-4, IL-10 and IL-
493 17A) were measured, however only IL-10, TNF- α and IL-6 were identified
494 as statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) (Figure 6).

495 Studying whether T4 bacteriophage and T4-generated *E. coli* lysate
 496 influence cultures of peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs)
 497 activated or not by lipopolysaccharide (LPS), Bocian et al. (2016) observed
 498 that both preparations considerably increased the percentage of
 499 CD14+CD16–CD40+ and CD14+CD16–CD80+ monocytes in LPS-
 500 unactivated PBMCs cultures, as well as the concentration of IL-6 and IL-
 501 12. Notwithstanding, this result suggests that T4 bacteriophages may act
 502 both as a pro-inflammatory inducer, and also as CD40 activator, for this

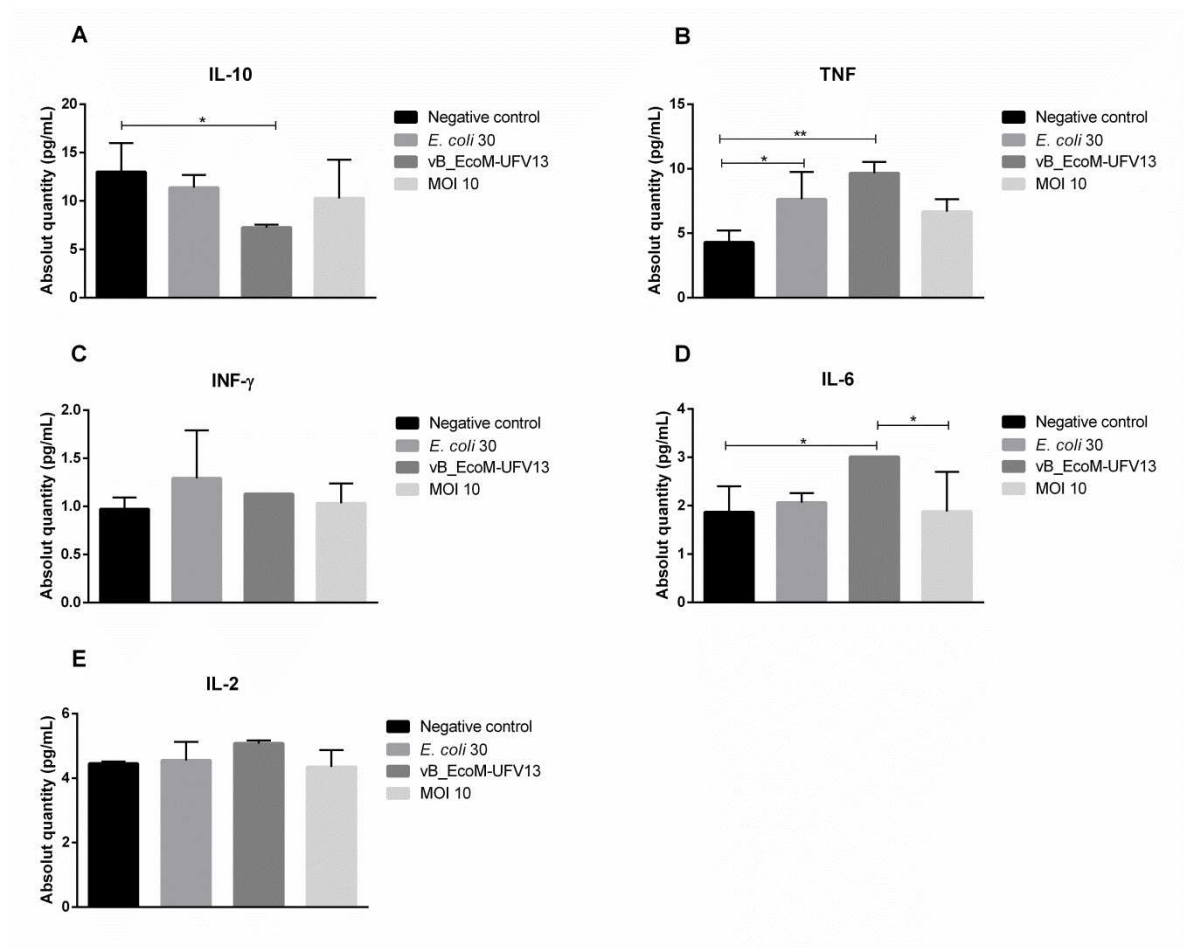


Figure 6. Five different cytokines (IL-6, TNF- α , IL-2, IFN- γ and IL-10) were locally measured. Only IL-10, TNF- α and IL-6 were statistically significant (* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$) and is indicative of a pro-inflammatory pattern after phage treatment. IL-17A and IL-4 levels were not detected by the Cytometric Bead Array kit.

503 reason the increased expression of IL-6, IL-10, and TNF- α as a
504 consequence of the presence of contaminating LPS left after the
505 purification step rather than a property of the virion.

506 In an *In vivo* assessment of cytokine patterns followed by a single-dose
507 T4 bacteriophage application in an *E. coli* induced mastitis mouse model,
508 our work indicates that IL-10 levels decreased locally in phage therapeutic
509 group when compared to the negative control (PBS buffer) (Figure 6A). IL-
510 10 has been extensively studied due its immunosuppressive features
511 associated with the downregulation of pro-inflammatory cytokines, such as
512 TNF- α and IFN- γ , and the resolution of the inflammatory process^{72,73}.
513 Evaluation of cytokine expression in the mammary gland in a mouse model
514 of *Streptococcus agalactiae* mastitis performed by Trigo et al. (2009)
515 revealed that the maximum concentration of IL-10 occurred after 72 hours
516 and was correlated with a decreased level of TNF- α . This finding is in
517 accordance with our results. Reduced IL-10 levels (Figure 6A) and
518 increased TNF- α (Figure 6B) and IL-6 (Figure 6D) is indicative of an
519 ongoing inflammatory process. In fact, when only *E. coli* 30 was inoculated,
520 an increased abundance of TNF- α was also observed when compared with
521 the negative control. Although phage and *E. coli* 30 were individually able
522 to induce an inflammatory response, phage treatment (10^3 PFU) did not
523 provoke an additive effect on the production of any pro-inflammatory

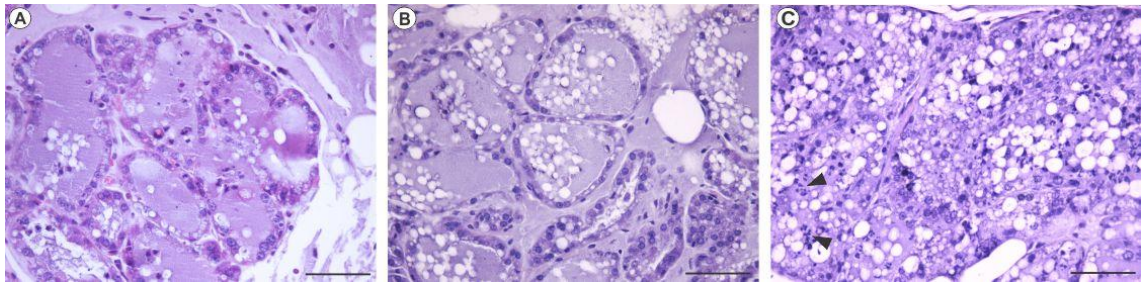


Figure 7. Histological analysis of mammary gland after PBS (A), *E. coli* 30 (B) and treatment with vB_EcoM-UFV13 (C). In C, neutrophil infiltration (indicated by arrow head) was detected 48 hours after phage treatment using MOI 10. Bars: 100 micrometers.

524 cytokine. Indeed, the IL-6 level diminished (Figure 6D) after phage
525 treatment. Different to what was found by Trigo et al. (2009), IFN- γ levels
526 were detected in all groups, however no statistical difference was observed
527 between the groups, which was also applicable to IL-2 (Figures 6C and 6E,
528 respectively).

529 The absence of detectable IL-4 and IL-17A cytokines, respectively
530 present in Th2 and Th17 inflammatory responses, indicates that the use of
531 T4 phage in mammary glands infected with *E. coli* induces Th1 T-cell
532 responses. Th1 pattern is involved in a cellular immune response that
533 protects against intracellular infections by viruses and microorganisms that
534 grow in macrophages ⁷⁴.

535 Histological analysis of the mammary gland in the control group (Figure
536 7A) shows intact tissue morphology described by well delimited cells and
537 acini, as well as the presence of fatty cells and a milky secretion, even
538 when *E. coli* 30 (~100 cells) were inoculated (Figure 7B). Inoculation of the
539 phage UFV13 (MOI 10) in the treated group led to an inflammatory reaction
540 characterized by tissue damage, neutrophil infiltrates and
541 mischaracterization of the acini border, although low levels of pro-

542 inflammatory cytokines have been found as discussed previously (Figure
543 7C).

544

545 **4. Conclusion**

546 Viral genomic analysis is a crucial step in bacteriophage screening for
547 their use as an antibacterial agent. The UFV13 virus has no lysogenic
548 modules or genes conferring antibiotic resistance. Viral stability analysis in
549 the presence of detergents and organic solvents and incubation at different
550 pHs and temperatures, have shown that the UFV13 virus presents high
551 survivability at basic pHs and is relatively resistant under incubation at 62
552 °C for 40 min. vB_EcoM-UFV13 used in an animal model for mastitis
553 reduced the total bacterial load by 90%, as well as inducing pro-
554 inflammatory cytokines such as IL-6 and TNF- α , which makes it a potential
555 biological agent capable of controlling acute infections caused by *E. coli*
556 dairy cows.

557

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571

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808 **Author Contribution Statement**

809 V.S.D., R.S.D. and S.O.P. conceived and designed the experiments;
810 V.S.D., A.M.K., S.C., L.T., A.X., C.G.F. and P.M.P.V. performed genomic
811 analysis; C.S. contributed to *E. coli*-induced mastitis mouse model; M.S.V.,
812 I.S.P., and G.R.S. conducted phage physiological features assays. F.M.
813 took part in the histological analysis; J.S.C. was involved in protein profile
814 experiments; C.C.S. contributed materials. V.S.D. wrote the main
815 manuscript text. All the authors have read and contributed to the final
816 version of the manuscript.

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818 **Additional Information**

819 **Competing Financial Interests**

820 There is no competing interest.

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CONCLUSÃO GERAIS

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847 Neste estudo:

848 * O vírus vB_EcoM-UFV13, isolado usando-se *E. coli* 30 como hospedeiro,
849 atua prevenindo a formação de biofilme por *T. pyogenes*.

850 * Usando-se 3 diferentes MOIs, 0.1, 1 e 10, apenas o último foi capaz de
851 inibir o início da formação de biofilme por *T. pyogenes* ($P \leq 0.05$).

852 * Análises *in silico* das proteínas estruturais do fago UFV13 revelou um
853 amplo espectro de hidrolases associadas à partícula viral (VAPGHs).

854 * Fagos com amplo número de VAPGHs, como o vírus UFV13, podem
855 possuir atividade não-específica por meio de hidrolases contra
856 hospedeiros não relacionados quando empregados em altos MOIs.

857 * Análises de bioinformática revelaram que o vírus UFV13 possui 269
858 ORFs. Destas, 48 codificam proteínas estruturais. Não foram identificados
859 genes que sejam capazes de conferir resistência à antibióticos ou mesmo
860 módulo de lisogênia.

861 * Ensaio de estabilidade viral na presença de detergentes, solventes
862 orgânicos e incubação em diferentes pHs e temperaturas revelaram que
863 este fago possui alta sobrevivência em pH básico e é relativamente estável
864 a 62°C por 40 minutos.

865 * A aplicação do fago UFV13 usando-se camundongos fêmeas lactentes
866 como modelo foi capaz de reduzir 10X a carga bacteriana total, assim
867 como induzir citocinas pró-inflamatórias (IL-6 e TNF- α).

868 Desta forma, conclui-se que o fago UFV13 demonstra potencial
869 aplicação para controlar infecções agudas causadas por *E. coli* e prevenir
870 a adesão de *T. pyogenes* em vacas leiteiras.

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ANEXOS

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ANEXO 1

Tabela 3 – Empresas atualmente ativas no mercado que trazem bacteriófagos em seus portfólios. Dados retirados integralmente de <http://companies.phage.org/> (acessado: 03/07/2018).

Empresa	País	Website	Atividades
Adaptative Phage Therapeutics	Estados Unidos	http://www.aphage.com/	Ensaio pré-clínico/P&D*
AmpliPhi Biosciences	Estados Unidos	http://www.ampliphio.com/	Ensaio pré-clínico /P&D*
C3J Therapeutics	Estados Unidos	http://www.c3jtherapeutics.com/	Ensaio pré-clínico /P&D*
Enbiotix	Estados Unidos	http://www.enbiotix.com/	Ensaio pré-clínico /P&D*/Produção de partículas virais não competentes
Evolution Biotechnologies	Reino Unido	http://www.evolutionbiotech.com/	Ensaio pré-clínico /P&D*
InnoPhage	Portugal	http://www.innophage.com/	Ensaio pré-clínico /P&D*/ Biocontrole mediado por fagos
Technophage	Portugal	http://www.technophage.pt/	Ensaio pré-clínico /P&D*
Intralytix	Estados Unidos	http://www.intralytix.com/	Ensaio pré-clínico /P&D*/ Biocontrole mediado por fagos
Locus Biosciences	Estados Unidos	https://www.locus-bio.com/	Ensaio pré-clínico /P&D*
Phagelux	China	http://www.phagelux.com/	Ensaio pré-clínico /P&D*
Pherecydes Pharma	França	https://www.pherecydes-pharma.com/	Ensaio pré-clínico /P&D*
Elio Bioscience	França	http://eligo.bio/	Produção de partículas virais não competentes

Phico Therapeutics	Reino Unido	http://www.phicotx.co.uk/	Produção de partículas virais não competentes
Pylum Biosciences	Reino Unido	https://pylumbio.com/	Produção de partículas virais não competentes
Biochimpharm	Georgia	http://biochimpharm.ge/	Distribuição de produtos à base de fagos/P&D*
Imbio	Rússia	http://home.mts-nn.ru/~imbio/	Distribuição de produtos à base de fagos/P&D*
Microgen	Rússia	http://www.microgen.ru/	Distribuição de produtos à base de fagos/P&D*
Eliava Phage Therapy Center	Georgia	http://www.mrsaphages.com/	Elo entre paciente e a fago terapia
Phage Therapy Center	Georgia	https://www.phagetherapycenter.com/patient/PatientServlet?command=static_home	Elo entre paciente e a fago terapia
Phage Therapy Unit	Polônia	https://www.iitd.pan.wroc.pl/en/OTF/	Elo entre paciente e a fago terapia
Phage International	Estados Unidos	http://www.phageinternational.com/pii/PIIServlet?command=home	Elo entre paciente e a fago terapia
APS Biocontrol	Reino Unido	http://apsbiocontrol.com/	Biocontrole mediado por fagos
Epibiome	Estados Unidos	https://www.epibiome.com/	Biocontrole mediado por fagos
Fixed Phage	Reino Unido	https://www.fixed-phage.com/	Biocontrole mediado por fagos
Micreos Food Safety	Netherlands	http://www.micreosfoodsafety.com/	Biocontrole mediado por fagos/ Produção e uso de enzibióticos
Omnilytics	Estados Unidos	http://www.omnilytics.com/	Biocontrole mediado por fagos
Phage Biotech	Israel	http://www.phage-biotech.com/	Biocontrole mediado por fagos
Proteon Pharmaceuticals	Polônia	http://www.proteonpharma.com/	Biocontrole mediado por fagos
Delmont Laboratories	Estados Unidos	https://delmontlabs.com/	Produção de lisados fágicos

Contrafect	Estados Unidos	https://www.contrafect.com/	Produção e uso de enzibióticos
GangaGen	Estados Unidos/Índia	http://www.gangagen.com/	Produção e uso de enzibióticos
Lysando GmbH	Alemanha	https://www.lysando.com/	Produção e uso de enzibióticos
New Horizons Diagnostics	Estados Unidos	http://www.nhdiag.com/phage.shtml	Produção e uso de enzibióticos
GeneWeave	Estados Unidos	http://www.rochemicrobiologytests.com/healthcare-associated-infections/innovative-solutions.html	Detecção bacteriana baseada em fagos
Sample6	Estados Unidos	http://www.sample6.com/	Detecção bacteriana baseada em fagos
Phage Consultants	Polônia	http://www.phageconsultants.com/	Prevenção de contaminação e controle
JAFRAL	Eslovênia	http://www.jafral.com/en/	Produção fágica para terceiros
Clean Cells	França	http://www.clean-cells.com/	Produção fágica para terceiros
Paragon Bioservices	Estados Unidos	http://paragonbioservices.com/	Produção fágica para terceiros

ANEXO 2 – Supplementary Material “A *T4virus* prevents biofilm formation by *Trueperella pyogenes*”

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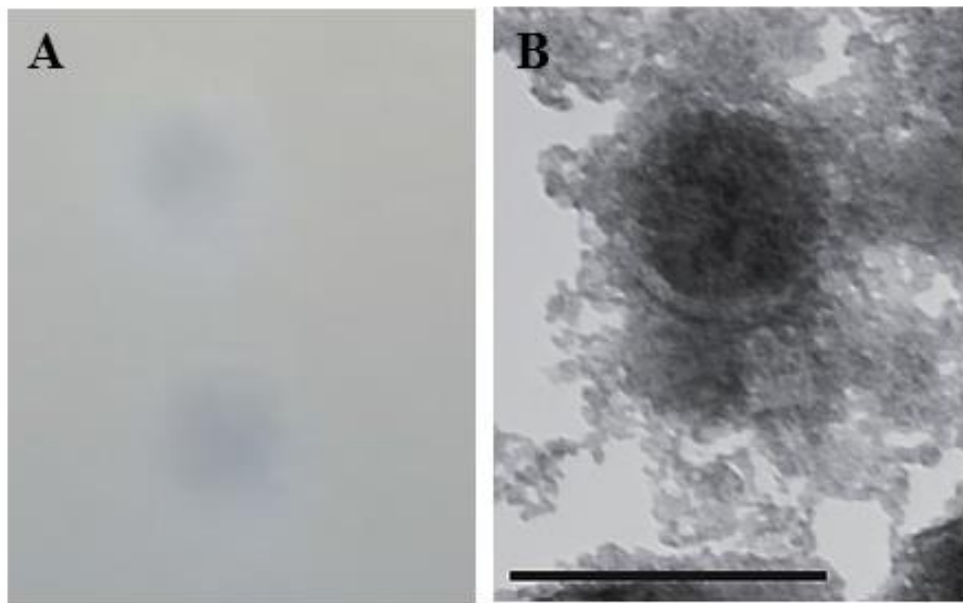
^c Embrapa Maize and Sorghum, Rodovia MG 424, Sete Lagoas, Minas Gerais, Brazil

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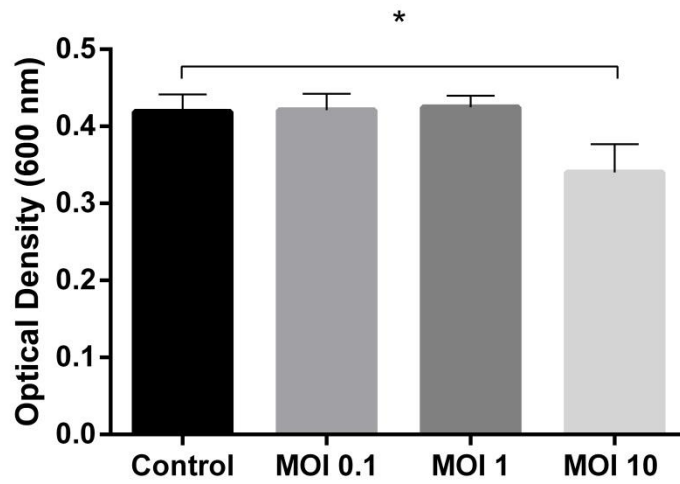
^e Núcleo de Análise de Biomoléculas (NuBioMol), Center of Biological Sciences, Federal University of Viçosa, Viçosa, Minas Gerais, Brazil

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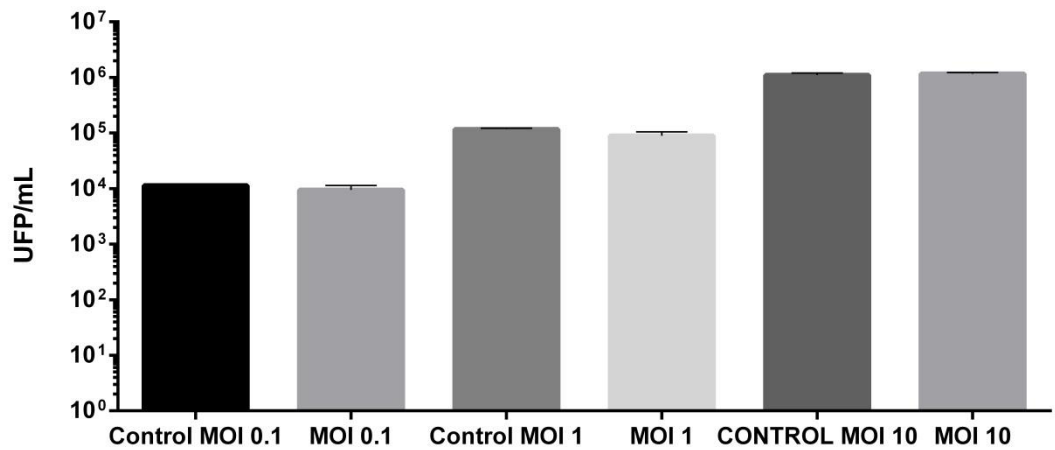
Supplementary Figure 1. A – *Escherichia* phage UFV13 plaque formed in double-layer agar displays a 1 mm clear lytic zone with a surrounding halo indicative of phage-derived enzymes able to destroy bacterial cell wall components. B – Transmission electron microscopy of phage UFV13 reveals particles 102 nm in length, an isometric capsid of 32 nm in diameter and contractile tails, which classifies it as belonging to the order *Caudovirales*, family *Myoviridae*. Bar measures 100 nm.



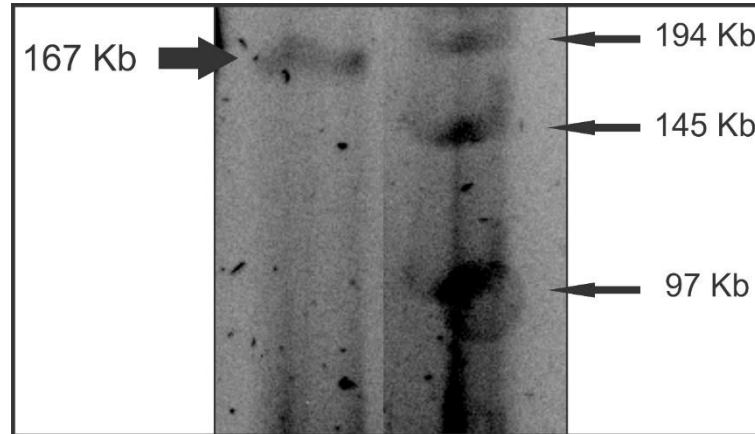
Supplementary Figure 2. A reduced final optical density (after 24 hours) of treatment was observed using only MOI 10 (* $P \leq 0.05$).



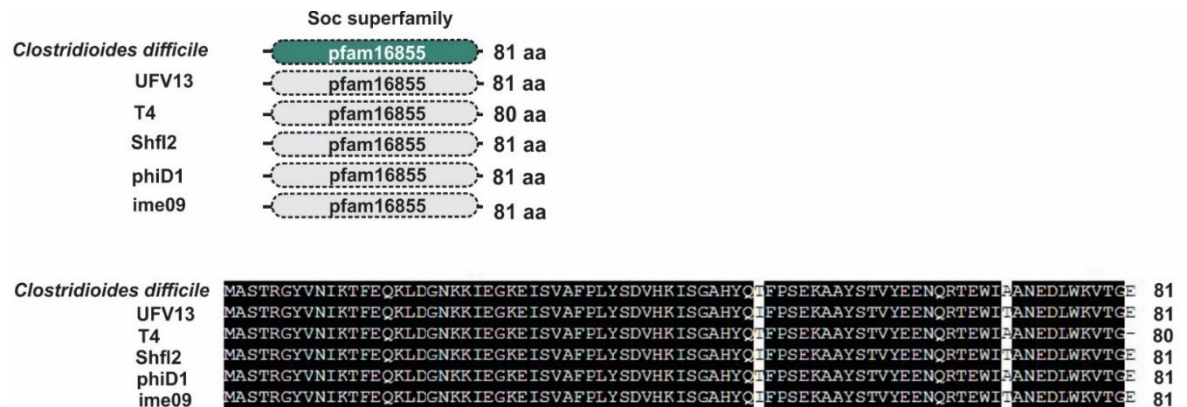
Supplementary Figure 3. UFV13 titration after 24 hours show that *T. pyogenes* is not virus-susceptible. Statistically significant differences were not observed between treated and control groups.



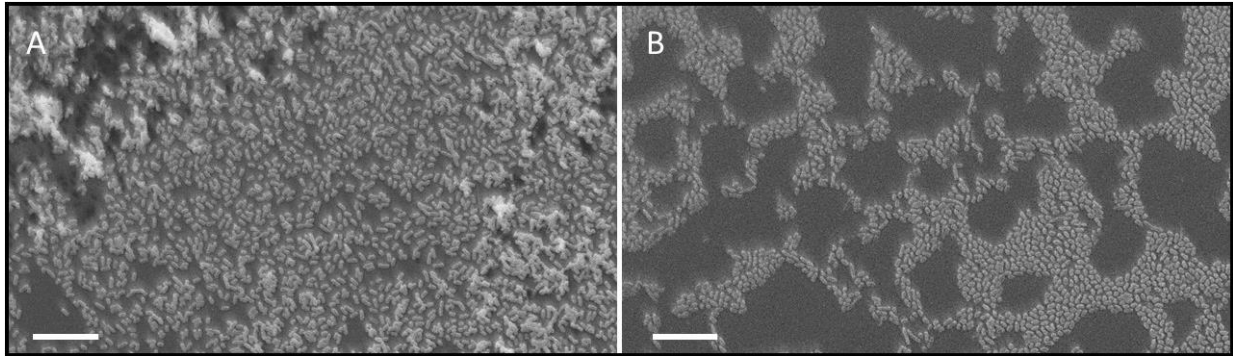
Supplementary Figure 4. Pulsed-field gel electrophoresis of phage UFV13 DNA. Electrophoresis was performed on 1% agarose gel in 0,5x TBE buffer. MM – Molecular marker (Pulse Marker™ 0.1-200 kb Sigma-Aldrich); UFV-13 – vB_EcoM-UFV13.



Supplementary Figure 5. The canonical Soc of the T4virus is identical to the hypothetical Gram-positive *Clostridioides difficile* protein.



Supplementary Figure 6. Scanning Electron Microscopy - Morphological differences are evidenced in this figure. In the control group (A), *T. pyogenes* appear as rod-shaped cells with V-shaped pairs. Phage treatment (B) induces morphological changes, with more coccoid rod cells observed. Bars: 10 μm .



ANEXO 3 – Supplementary Material “Genomic analysis and immune response in a murine mastitis model of vB_EcoM-UFV13, a potential biocontrol agent for use in dairy cows.”

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Supplementary table-1. vB_EcoM-UFV13 functional genomic annotation. Asterisks mean the best hit for a gene/protein found when no matches were identified on the reference Enterobacteria phage T4 (accession number NC_000866).

ORF	Predicted Protein & organism*	Genomic Coordinates	Strand	Protein mass (kDa)	Protein pl	Gene & organism*	E-value	Identity (%)
1	RIIA	0..2177	Minus	82.7	5.65	<i>rIIA</i>	0.0	98.6
2	RIIA.1	2188..2391	Minus	8.1	6.58	<i>rIIA.1</i>	6.4e-47	98.5
3	39	2446..4263	Minus	68.3	7.20	<i>39</i>	0.0	98.5
4	39.1	4333..4593	Minus	9.2	7.71	<i>39.1</i>	9.4e-55	97.7
5	Gp20	4599..4970	Minus	14.1	5.50	<i>20</i> (Shigella phage pSs-1)	5.6e-75	95.1
6	39.2	4973..5149	Minus	6.7	8.39	<i>39.2</i>	3.8e-34	81.0
7	ComC- α	5152..5571	Minus	16.4	4.73	<i>goF = comC-α</i>	5.3e-79	83.7
8	Cef	5571..5786	Minus	8.4	5.0	<i>cef = motC</i>	2.4e-51	97.2
9	Hypothetical Protein (Escherichia coli O157 typing phage 7)	5800..6069	Minus	10.2	5.76	-	5.6e-57	100.0
10	MotB	6167..6655	Minus	18.1	9.30	<i>motB</i>	9.1e-111	99.4
11	MotB.1	6732..7265	Minus	20.0	4.92	<i>motB.1</i>	4e-22	63.3
12	MotB.2	7268..7768	Minus	19.9	5.74	<i>motB.2</i>	2e-109	90.9
13	DexA	7832..8515	Minus	26.0	4.88	<i>dexA</i>	2.9e-164	98.7
14	DexA.1	8515..8757	Minus	9.4	5.10	<i>dexA.1</i>	5e-55	91.3
15	DexA.2	8750..8995	Minus	9.4	4.47	<i>dexA.2</i>	5.8e-57	97.5

16	Hypothetical Protein	8982..9242	Minus	9.9	8.79	30 (Shigella phage pSs-1)	1.1e-48	94.2
17	Dda	9249..10214	Minus	37.0	6.97	<i>dda = sud</i>	0.0	99.5
18	Frameshift	10298..10567				Frameshift		
19	Dda.1	10564..10875	Minus	12.0	9.47	<i>dda.1</i>	1e-67	98.1
20	Srd	10877..11623	Minus	29.0	9.99	<i>srd = dda.2</i>	1.3e-171	99.2
21	RNA polymerase	11746..12348	Minus	23.4	5.86	<i>modB</i>	6.5e-140	98.5
22	ADP-ribosylase	12345..12968	Minus	24.2	5.43	<i>modA</i>	5.4e-140	95.7
23	ModA.2	13036..13218	Minus	7.0	4.27	<i>modA.2</i>	1.2e-44	98.3
24	ModA.3	13227..13697	Minus	18.3	6.11	<i>modA.3</i>	4.3e-101	94.9
25	ModA.4	13690..13842	Minus	5.6	5.73	<i>modA.4</i>	8.2e-33	98.0
26	Srh	13851..14054	Minus	8.0	6.27	<i>srh</i>	1.4e-49	98.5
27	Mrh	14029..14514	Minus	18.2	4.58	<i>mrh</i>	2.4e-83	77.0
28	Mrh.1	14523..14864	Minus	12.6	3.85	<i>mrh.1</i>	9.4e-81	99.1
29	Mrh.2	14864..15070	Minus	8.2	5.58	<i>mrh.2</i>	1.6e-49	97.1
30	Soc	15166..15411	Minus	9.3	5.62	<i>soc</i>	1.3e-60	97.5
31	Soc.1	15428..15637	Minus	7.9	9.16	<i>soc.1</i> (Shigella phage Shf12)	8.8e-54	100.0
32	Soc.2	15634..15834	Minus	7.8	9.94	<i>soc.2</i> (Shigella phage Shf12)	110e-48	100.0
33	DNA Replication Protein	15834..16352	Minus	20.2	5.16	56	3.4e-76	69.2
34	Dam.1	16424..16624	Plus	7.1	10.00	<i>dam.1</i>	5.4e-44	98.5
35	DNA Primase	16621..17649	Minus	39.7	9.31	61 = 58	0.0	100.0

36	Gp61.1	17652..17816	Minus	5.9	5.39	<i>61.1</i>	1.2e-36	96.3
37	Gp61.2	17818..18174	Minus	13.8	4.83	<i>61.2</i>	2.1e-2	35.0
38	Spackle periplasmic protein	18187..18480	Minus	10.9	4.62	<i>sp</i>	5.4e-62	97.9
39	Hypothetical Protein (Enterobacteria phage ime09)	18584..18766	Minus	7.1	4.84	-	510e-45	98.3%
40	Hypothetical Protein (Shigella phage Shf12)	18831..19085	Minus	9.6	5.81	-	17e-63	100.0
41	Gp61.4	19149..19391	Minus	9.5	10.29	<i>61.4</i>	4.5e-55	96.1
42	Dmd	19393..19575	Minus	7.0	5.24	<i>dmd</i>	3.8e-43	100.0
43	DNA Helicase	19634..21061	Minus	53.5	5.44	<i>41</i>	0.0	99.8
44	Head Formation Protein	21071..21415	Minus	13.2	4.99	<i>40</i>	1.0e-72	99.1
45	UvsX	21408..22589	Minus	44.0	5.35	<i>UvsX = fdsA</i>	0.0	90.3
46	Beta-glucosyl-HMC-alpha-glucosyl-transferase	22667..23509	Minus	32.3	7.65	<i>β-gt</i> (Enterobacterio phage RB27)	0.0	98.9
47	dCMP hydroxymethylase	23506..24246	Minus	28.5	5.43	<i>42</i>	2.1e176	97.1
48	Inner Membrane Protein	24400..24651	Minus	93.0	9.40	<i>imm</i>	9.9e-87	98.8
49	Imm Intergenic Region	24659..25039	Minus	14.2	7.55	<i>imm.1</i>	280e-90	99.2
50	Hypothetical Protein (Enterobacteria phage T2)	25052..25303	Minus	9.3	9.60	-	10e-60	98.8

51	DNA polymerase	25479..28175	Minus	103.5	5.96	43	0.0	99.6
52	Hypothetical Protein (Enterobacteria phage RB18)	28254..28475	Minus	8.4	6.25	-	9.7e-53	98.6
53	RegA	28477..28845	Minus	14.6	8.97	<i>regA</i>	1.2e-83	100.0
54	Clamp loader small subunit	28847..29410	Minus	21.3	7.67	62	2.1e-129	99.5
55	Clamp loader small subunit	29412..30371	Minus	35.7	6.72	44	0.0	100.0
56	DNA polymerase clamp	30423..31109	Minus	24.8	4.89	45	3.6e-156	99.1
57	RNA polymerase-binding protein	31165..31554	Minus	14.7	6.83	<i>rpbA</i>	16e-87	100.0
58	Hypothetical Protein	31564..31752	Minus	7.5	5.55	45.2	7.3e-45	98.4
59	Recombination-related endonuclease	31808..33448	Minus	63.6	7.13	46	0.0	95.2
60	Hypothetical Protein	33487..33693	Minus	8.1	4.24	46.1	5.1e-50	98.5
61	Hypothetical Protein	33674..33937	Minus	10.2	4.21	46.2	1.2e-58	97.7
62	Recombination-related endonuclease	33934..34953	Minus	39.1	4.94	47	0.0	96.2
63	Alpha glucosyl transferase	35130..36332	Minus	46.8	6.05	<i>α-gt</i>	0.0	91.5
64	Alpha glucosyl transferase.2	36399..36569	Minus	6.4	9.3	<i>α-gt.2</i>	1.7e-28	88.7
65	Alpha glucosyl transferase.3	36573..36776	Minus	7.9	9.42	<i>α-gt.3</i>	9.7e-50	98.5
66	Alpha glucosyl transferase.4	36745..37062	Minus	12.4	8.78	<i>α-gt.4</i>	1.3e-66	100.0

67	Alpha glucosyl transferase.5	37064..37252	Minus	7.4	4.10	<i>α-gt.5</i>	1.8e-44	98.5
68	RNA polymerase sigma fator for late transcription	37266..37823	Minus	21.5	5.44	55	9.6e-132	100.0
69	Hypothetical Protein (Shigella phage Shf12)	37902..38171	Minus	10.7	5.64	-	8.2e-60	100.0
70	MobC	38168..38383	Minus	8.0	3.69	55.1	1.6e-49	97.1
71	Gp55.2	38386..38712	Minus	12.7	9.70	55.2	3.6e-68	99.1
72	Gp55.3	38765..38965	Minus	7.7	7.89	55.3	3.1e-35	74.2
73	Gp55.4	38966..39097	Minus	5.1	9.60	55.4	3.8e-34	97.7
74	Gp55.5	39105..39398	Minus	11.8	9.79	55.5	2.8e-64	100.0
75	Gp55.6	39391..39573	Minus	6.9	9.37	55.6	2.4e-38	93.3
76	Glutaredoxin	39732..40040	Minus	11.7	9.14	<i>nrdH</i>	2.7e-67	100.0
77	Gp55.8	40043..40255	Minus	7.9	9.22	55.8	2.9e-48	100.0
78	Gp55.9	40265..40378	Minus	4.4	4.54	<i>nrdG = 55.9</i>	8.8e-30	100.0
79	Ribonucleotide reductase of class III (anaerobic), activating protein	40371..40841	Minus	18.1	5.58	<i>nrdG</i>	9.6e-93	80.1
80	Ribonucleotide reductase of class III (anaerobic), large subunit	40838..42655	Minus	67.9	6.59	<i>nrdD = sunY</i>	0.0	99.5

81	Gp49	42652..43125	Minus	18.1	8.80	49	7.7e-112	100.0
82	Pin	43167..43652	Minus	18.8	4.48	<i>pin</i>	3.4e-110	96.3
83	Gp49.1	43636..43791	Minus	6.1	3.94	49.1	4e-40	100.0
84	Gp49.2	43776..44096	Minus	12.5	4.48	49.2	2.9e-71	97.2
85	Hypothetical Protein	44107..44277	Minus	6.5	4.07	95 (Shigella phage pSs-1)	130e-36	91.1
86	Hypothetical Protein	44280..44495	Minus	8.1	7.79	96 (Shigella phage pSs-1)	3.1e-51	98.6
87	Thioredoxin	44492..44755	Minus	10.0	6.71	<i>nrdC</i>	6.6e-58	100.0
88	NrdC.1	44757..44999	Minus	9.4	7.91	<i>nrdc.1</i>	1.7e-59	100.0
89	NrdC.2	44986..45303	Minus	12.2	6.07	<i>nrdc.2</i>	2.8e-63	90.5
90	NrdC.3	45300..46229	Minus	36.0	9.10	<i>nrdc.3</i>	3.6e-124	60.6
91	NrdC.4	46282..47313	Minus	40.0	6.00	<i>nrdC.4</i>	0.0	96.4
92	NrdC.5	47341..48366	Minus	39.9	9.32	<i>nrdC.5</i>	0.0	94.2
93	NrdC.6	48375..49262	Minus	33.7	9.15	<i>nrdC.6</i>	0.0	96.6
94	NrdC.7	49270..49677	Minus	15.4	5.28	<i>nrdC.7</i>	7.5e-81	88.7
95	NrdC.8	49733..50260	Minus	20.7	6.65	<i>nrdC.8</i>	5.3e-119	98.9
96	NrdC.9	50321..50623	Minus	11.9	9.68	<i>nrdC.9</i>	2.3e-67	99.0
97	NrdC.10	50725..51693	Minus	36.4	5.01	<i>nrdC.10</i>	0.0	99.7
98	NrdC.11	51809..52819	Minus	38.9	6.39	<i>nrdC.11</i>	0.0	99.4
99	Hypothetical protein (Enterobacteria phage ime09)	52819..53280	Minus	17.9	9.33	-	420e-111	99.3
100	MobD.1	53283..53804	Minus	19.2	4.99	<i>mobD.1</i>	1.1e-1	25.6
101	MobD.1	53811..54368	Minus	21.7	5.68	<i>mobD.1</i>	1.2e-109	87.5

102	MobD.2a	54536..54709	Minus	6.7	5.27	<i>mobD.2a</i>	5.2e-37	96.5
103	MobD.3	54699..54893	Minus	7.6	5.04	<i>mobD.3</i>	4.3e-44	95.3
104	MobD.4	54896..55099	Minus	7.4	4.29	<i>mobD.4</i>	6.4e-29	77.6
105	MobD.5	55099..55287	Minus	7.1	4.19	<i>mobD.5</i>	9.7e-43	100.0
106	RI.-1	55383..55769	Minus	14.6	5.53	<i>rl.-1</i>	1.2e-86	100.0
107	RI	55766..56059	Minus	11.1	4.90	<i>rl</i>	1.5e-61	99.0
108	RI.1	56072..56284	Minus	8.2	10.19	<i>rl.1</i>	4.4e-49	100.0
109	Thymidine kinase	56327..56908	Minus	21.6	6.22	<i>tk</i>	5.6e-135	100.0
110	Thymidine kinase.2	56918..57103	Minus	7.3	4.41	<i>tk.2</i>	5.4e-17	54.1
111	Hypothetical protein (Enterobacteria phage RB5)	57100..57273	Minus	6.6	5.68	-	9.3e-38	100.0
112	Hypothetical protein (Escherichia phage ECML-134)	57270..57476	Minus	7.8	6.68	-	1.1e-57	100.0
113	Thymidine kinase.3	57473..57685	Minus	8.5	8.83	<i>tk.3</i>	2.1e-53	92.9
114	Thymidine kinase.4	57657..58136	Minus	17.5	5.27	<i>tk.4</i>	2.6e-60	57.4
115	Valyl-tRNA synthetase modifier	58133..58480	Minus	13.0	8.95	<i>vs</i>	9.5e-77	100.0
116	Endoribonuclease RegB	58473..59018	Minus	20.6	9.76	<i>regB</i>	4.5e-128	100.0
117	Site-specific RNA endonuclease	59026..59487	Minus	17.9	8.93	<i>regB</i>	2.8e-105	99.3

118	Vs.3	59547..59825	Minus	10.9	5.45	<i>vs.3</i>	4.7e-58	100.0
119	Vs.4	59825..60091	Minus	10.2	4.75	<i>vs.4</i>	8.2e-57	97.7
120	Vs.5	60084..60305	Minus	8.2	4.14	<i>vs.5</i>	2.1e-55	97.3
121	Vs.6	60305..60667	Minus	13.8	5.80	<i>vs.6</i>	1.3e-79	100.0
122	Vs.7	60675..61004	Minus	12.8	8.89	<i>vs.7</i>	2.7e-73	98.2
123	Vs.8	61001..61570	Minus	21.5	8.82	<i>vs.8</i>	2.6e-123	95.1
124	Internal Head Protein 3	61707..62282	Minus	21.4	9.56	<i>ip3</i>	9e-124	91.7
125	Internal Head Protein 10	62297..62611	Minus	12.0	9.49	<i>ip10</i> (Enterobacteria phage Pol)	1.8e-60	97.9
126	Hypothetical protein (Escherichia phage Av-05)	62675..62827	Minus	5.3	4.60	-	6.2e-28	93.8
127	Hypothetical protein (Shigella phage Shf125875)	62799..62927	Minus	5.0	9.22	-	6.3e-24	94.9
128	Endonuclease V	62940..63353	Minus	16.0	9.49	<i>denV</i>	3.1e-84	91.2
129	Internal Head Protein 5	63412..63693	Minus	10.4	5.54	<i>ipV</i>	3.4e-17	51.2
130	Lysozyme	63690..64178	Minus	18.3	9.66	<i>e</i>	7e-106	95.0
131	Nudix Hydrolase.1	64216..64656	Minus	17.0	5.18	<i>nudE = e.1</i>	1.7e-101	97.9
132	Nudix Hydrolase.2	64653..65141	Minus	19.0	8.26	<i>e.2</i>	2.8e-53	84.2
133	Nudix Hydrolase.3	65138..65500	Minus	14.1	8.83	<i>e.3</i>	2.7e-61	80.0
134	Nudix Hydrolase.4	65482..65874	Minus	15.2	9.67	<i>e.4</i>	6.5e-80	90

135	Nudix Hydrolase.5	65843..66445	Minus	23.6	5.10	<i>e.5</i>	1.2e- 133	93.5
136	Nudix Hydrolase.6	66493..67086	Minus	22.0	6.06	<i>e.6</i>	3.5e- 126	98.5
137	Nudix Hydrolase.7	67144..67479	Minus	12.9	4.25	<i>e.7</i>	14e-69	91.0
138	Hypothetical protein (Shigella phage SH7)	67524..67688	Minus	6.1	3.96	-	4.5e- 39	98.1
139	Nudix Hydrolase.8	67758..68021	Minus	10.1	4.46	<i>e.8</i>	3.3e- 58	98.9
140	Hypothetical protein (Shigella phage Shf12)	68260..68826	Minus	21.0	9.43	-	2.3e- 126	99.5
141	Hypothetical protein (Enterobacteria phage RB32)	68945..69418	Minus	17.2	9.46	-	1.9e- 102	98.7
142	tRNA.2	70737..71024	Minus	11.2	4.93	<i>tRNA.2</i>	1.9e- 61	96.8
143	tRNA.3	71027..71431	Minus	15.8	4.67	<i>tRNA.3</i>	2.8e- 86	85.3
144	tRNA.4	71432..71617	Minus	6.5	7.80	<i>tRNA.4</i>	1.9e- 40	100.0
145	Internal Protein I	71694..71981	Minus	10.1	8.93	<i>ipl</i>	2e-58	98.9
146	Gp57B	72054..72509	Minus	17.1	5.14	<i>57B</i>	1.7e- 105	100.0
147	Chaperone for tail fiber formation	72509..72763	Minus	9.1	4.31	<i>57A</i>	2e-52	94.0
148	Deoxynucleotide monophosphate kinase	72763..73476	Minus	26.8	5.14	<i>1</i>	8.8e- 165	96.7
149	Tail completion and sheath stabilizer protein	73526..74056	Minus	19.7	4.39	<i>3</i>	7.8e- 124	100.0

150	DNA end protector during packaging	74162..74986	Minus	31.6	10.12	<i>2 = 64</i>	0.0	100.0
151	Head completion protein	74986..75438	Minus	17.6	9.78	<i>4 = 50 = 65</i>	3.5e-109	100.0
152	Baseplate wedge subunit	75486..76076	Plus	22.9	5.92	<i>53</i>	7.6e-144	100.0
153	Base plate lysozyme; hub component	76060..77787	Plus	63.1	5.35	<i>5</i>	0.0	99.3
154	5.1	77780..78316	Plus	20.0	4.45	<i>5.1</i>	7.5e-110	96.3%
155	5.4	78317..78610	Plus	10.2	8.60	<i>5.4</i>	8.2e-64	100.0
156	Baseplate wedge component	78619..80601	Plus	74.4	4.62	<i>6</i>	0.0	99.5
157	Baseplate wedge component	80658..83696	Plus	116.9	4.98	<i>7</i>	0.0	98.5
158	Baseplate wedge component	83689..84693	Plus	37.9	4.58	<i>8</i>	0.0	99.1
159	Base plate wedge component, tail fiber socket, trigger for tail sheath contraction	84757..85623	Plus	30.9	5.01	<i>9</i>	0.0	99.3
160	Baseplate wedge subunit and tail pin (T4-like gp10)	85623..87431	Plus	66.3	4.41	<i>10</i>	0.0	99.8
161	Baseplate wedge subunit and tail pin (T4-like gp11)	87431..88090	Plus	23.6	5.30	<i>11</i>	3.8e-151	98.2

162	Short tail fibers	88087..89670	Plus	55.9	7.02	12	0.0	96.6
163	Whiskers, facilitate long tail fiber	89667..91130	Plus	51.8	4.54	wack	0.0	97.3
164	Head completion, neck hetero-dimeric protein (T4-like gp13)	91163..92092	Plus	34.7	5.02	13	0.0	99.7
165	Head completion, neck hetero-dimeric protein	92094..92864	Plus	29.5	4.57	14	0.0	99.6
166	Tail sheath stabilization protein	92906..93724	Plus	31.5	4.88	15	0.0	100.0
167	Terminase, small subunit	93733..94227	Plus	18.3	4.55	16	4.5e-112	100.0
168	Terminase, large subunit	94211..96043	Plus	69.6	5.58	17	0.0	99.7
169	Tail sheath stabilization monomer	96075..98054	Plus	71.3	4.82	18	0.0	98.8
170	Tail fibers	98171..98662	Plus	18.4	4.67	19	1.4e-115	100.0
171	Portal vertex of the head	98746..100320	Plus	61.0	5.36	20	0.0	99.6
172	Prohead core protein	100320..100559	Plus	8.9	3.96	67	4.7e-55	96.3
173	Capsid and scaffold	100559..100984	Plus	15.8	10.10	68	4.9e-90	99.3
174	Prohead assembly (scaffolding) protein	100984..101622	Plus	23.2	4.98	21	3.9e-152	99.5
175	Prohead assembly (scaffolding) protein	101653..102462	Plus	29.8	4.56	22	4.2e-176	98.1

176	Major capsid protein	102481..104046	Plus	56.0	5.34	23	0.0	98.8
177	Capsid vertex	104130..105413	Plus	47.0	4.70	<i>os = 24</i>	0.0	99.3
178	Second RNA ligase	105443..106447	Minus	37.6	5.65	<i>rnIB = 24.1</i>	0.0	99.1
179	Gp24.2	106457..106735	Minus	10.9	4.87	24.2	5.8e-59	96.7
180	Gp24.3	106722..106925	Minus	7.8	10.34	24.3	1.9e-33	83.6
181	Capsid and scaffold	107027..108157	Minus	40.7	4.51	<i>hoc = eph</i>	0.0	88.0
182	Inh inhibitor of gp21 prohead protease	108167..108847	Minus	25.5	4.43	<i>inh = lip</i>	9.3e-158	99.1
183	DNA helicase	108898..110409	Plus	57.9	9.29	<i>uvsW = dar</i>	0.0	98.8
184	DNA helicase	110435..110665	Plus	8.8	4.24	<i>uvsW = dar</i>	9.5e-50	100.0
185	UvsY intergenic region	110721..110888	Minus	6.0	4.44	<i>uvsY.-2</i>	2.9e-39	100.0
186	UvsY.-1	110917..111141	Minus	8.9	5.02	<i>uvsY.-1</i>	2.4e-56	98.6
187	Single Stranded DNA-binding protein	111141..111554	Minus	15.7	7.75	<i>uvsY</i>	1.8e-90	98.5
188	Baseplate wedge subunit	111621..112019	Minus	15.1	4.57	25	7.9e-87	98.5
189	Baseplate hub assembly chaperone	112019..112645	Minus	23.8	5.56	26	1.1e-149	99.5
190	Baseplate	112696..113445	Plus	29.2	6.02	51	7.2e-174	96.0
191	Baseplate hub subunit	113445..114620	Plus	44.3	5.20	27	0.0	99.2
192	Baseplate hub	114640..115098	Plus	17.3	5.01	28	9e-107	99.3
193	Baseplate hub	115095..116867	Plus	64.2	5.05	29	0.0	95.8

194	Baseplate tube cap (T4-like gp48)	116876..117970	Plus	39.6	8.71	48	0.0	97.8
195	Tail assembly	117970..118935	Plus	34.8	5.08	54	0.0	97.8
196	Alt.-3	118964..119254	Minus	10.7	4.67	<i>alt.-3</i>	1.9e-59	100.0
197	Alt.-2	119315..121372	Minus	76.0	6.01	<i>alt.-2</i>	2e-147	41.5
198	Alt	121376..123469	Minus	77.8	5.97	<i>alt</i>	0.0	70
199	Alt.1	123522..123710	Minus	7.1	4.50	<i>alt.1</i>	4.7e-41	90.3
200	DNA ligase	123707..125170	Minus	55.2	6.14	<i>30 = lig</i>	0.0	99.6
201	Gp30.1	125167..125436	Minus	10.8	7.82	30.1	7.1e-61	98.9
202	Gp30.2	125436..126275	Minus	32.4	5.93	30.2	0.0	96.8
203	Gp30.3	126272..126652	Minus	14.0	9.33	30.3	2e-80	96.8
204	Gp30.4	126723..126938	Minus	8.2	4.94	30.4	1.7e-16	50.7
205	Gp30.6	126943..127230	Minus	10.8	6.26	<i>30.6</i>	1.2e-59	96.8
206	Gp30.7	127272..127637	Minus	14.1	6.05	<i>30.7</i>	1.9e-84	98.3
207	Gp30.8	127705..128037	Minus	12.8	6.11	<i>30.8</i>	2.9e-73	97.3
208	Gp30.9	128148..128366	Minus	8.1	11.33	<i>30.9</i>	2.1e-50	98.6
209	RIII	128445..128693	Minus	9.3	8.06	<i>rIII</i>	3.2e-61	100.0
210	Gp31	128841..129176	Minus	12.0	5.30	<i>31</i>	1.3e-74	100.0
211	Gp31.1	129233..129541	Minus	11.4	9.35	<i>31.1</i>	2.9e-64	100.0
212	Gp31.2	129542..129778	Minus	9.3	9.78	<i>31.2</i>	1.3e-56	96.2

213	tRNA-specific adenosine deaminase	129778..1303 59	Minus	21.2	8.04	<i>cd</i>	2.3e- 141	99.5
214	Cd.1	130356..1306 94	Minus	12.8	7.87	<i>cd.1</i>	1.1e- 71	99.1
215	Cd.2	130691..1309 30	Minus	8.9	5.31	<i>cd.2</i>	1.1e- 47	98.6
216	Cd.3	130992..1312 67	Minus	10.1	4.90	<i>cd.3</i>	3.3e- 55	98.9
217	Cd.4	131270..1314 70	Minus	7.9	4.35	<i>cd.4</i>	1.2e- 47	97
218	Cd.5	131463..1316 60	Minus	7.5	6.71	<i>cd.5</i>	1.8e- 47	97
219	3'-phosphatase, 5'- polynucleotide kinase	131660..1325 68	Minus	34.8	8.62	<i>pseT</i>	0.0	95.0
220	Hypothetical protein (Escherichia phage slur14)	132565..1328 85	Minus	12.1	8.55		1.8e- 68	100.0
221	PseT.1	132882..1331 12	Minus	8.9	8.02	<i>pseT.1</i>	1.4e- 55	98.1
222	PseT.2	133109..1334 08	Minus	11.6	8.76	<i>pseT.2</i>	6.2e- 67	99.0
223	PseT.3	133405..1337 58	Minus	13.0	8.89	<i>pseT.3</i>	9.7e- 68	92.3
224	Alc	133749..1342 52	Minus	19.0	6.42	<i>alc</i>	9.9e- 113	97.6
225	RNA ligase I	134317..1354 41	Minus	43.4	5.02	<i>rnIA = 63</i>	0.0	98.4
226	Endonuclease II	135494..1359 04	Minus	15.7	9.21	<i>denA</i>	2.9e- 91	99.3
227	NrdB (beta subunit)	135932..1371 01	Minus	45.2	5.13	<i>nrdB</i>	0.0	91.3
228	NrdB (alfa subunit)	137153..1394 17	Minus	86.0	5.87	<i>nrdB</i>	0.0	98.4
229	NrdA.1	139408..1397 34	Minus	12.4	9.22	<i>nrdA.1</i>	7.2e- 73	96.3

230	NrdA.2	139688..139951	Minus	9.9	5.28	<i>nrdA.2</i>	1e-54	96.6
231	Thymidylate synthase	139975..140835	Minus	32.9	8.57	<i>td</i>	0.0	94.1
232	Thymidylate synthase.1	140881..141228	Minus	13.7	7.69	<i>td.1</i> (Enterobacter ia phage T6)	42e-81	98.3
233	frd	141248..141829	Minus	21.7	5.58	<i>frd</i>	6.1e-132	97.4
234	Hypothetical protein (Enterobacteria phage RB9)	141829..142074	Minus	9.6	4.05	-	870e-66	98.8%
235	Frd.1	142085..142327	Minus	9.4	4.91	<i>frd.1</i>	3.7e-62	97.5
236	Frd.2	142382..142747	Minus	14.4	5.41	<i>frd.2</i>	3.6e-48	65.1
237	Frd.3	142792..143019	Minus	8.6	3.86	<i>frd.3</i>	4.2e-37	70.7
238	Single-stranded DNA-binding protein	143164..144072	Minus	33.5	4.87	<i>32</i>	0.0	97.7
239	DNA Helicase loader	144172..144825	Minus	26.0	9.33	<i>59</i>	2.8e-152	99.5
240	Gp33	144822..145160	Minus	12.8	4.47	<i>33</i>	1e-69	98.2
241	Double-stranded DNA-binding protein	145138..145407	Minus	10.3	5.04	<i>dsbA</i>	1.4e-55	100.0
242	Ribonuclease H	145416..146333	Minus	35.5	8.61	<i>rnh = das</i>	0.0	99.7
243	Long Tail fiber proximal subunit	146438..150307	Plus	140.0	5.49	<i>34</i>	0.0	95.6
244	Hinge connector of long tail fiber proximal connector	150316..151431	Plus	40.2	5.27	<i>35</i>	0.0	97.6

245	Hinge connector of long tail fiber distal connector	151494..1521 56	Plus	23.2	6.82	36	5.9e- 132	85.5
246	Tail fibers	152165..1560 25	Plus	137.8	8.30	37	0.0	55.2
247	Assembly catalyst of distal tail fiber	156056..1568 47	Plus	25.5	9.79	38 (Shigella phage Shf12)	0.0	99.2
248	Holin	156879..1575 35	Plus	25.1	7.70	<i>t = rV = still</i>	9.2e- 154	99.1
249	Anti-sigma 70 protein	157536..1578 08	Minus	10.6	5.42	<i>asiA</i>	1.1e- 55	98.9
250	<i>asiA.1</i>	157821..1579 73	Minus	5.8	4.92	<i>asiA.1</i>	2e-30	94.0
251	Inhibitor of MrcBC	157970..1582 48	Minus	10.8	4.48	<i>arn</i>	3.3e- 58	97.8
252	Hypothetical protein (Shigella phage SHBML-50-1)	158238..1583 57	Minus	4.6	10.20	-	8.3e- 28	100
253	Arn.1	158332..1584 63	Minus	5.2	8.57	<i>arn.1</i>	3.8e- 34	97.7
254	Arn.2	158534..1588 30	Minus	11.3	8.93	<i>arn.2</i>	2.4e- 63	96.9
255	Arn.3	158830..1592 91	Minus	17.9	5.31	<i>arn.3</i>	1.5e- 104	98.0
256	Arn.4	159288..1596 17	Minus	12.7	9.24	<i>arn.4</i>	4.7e- 74	99.1
257	MotA	159628..1602 63	Minus	23.5	7.78	<i>motA = sip</i>	1.2e- 138	97.6
258	Uncharacterized 4.8 kDa protein in <i>motA</i> -Gp52 intergenic region	160390..1605 39	α Minus s	4.8	9.50	<i>motA.1</i>	9.5e- 37	100.0
259	DNA Topoisomerase	160536..1618 64	Minus	50.4	8.45	52	0.0	99.3
260	Ac	162002..1621 60	Minus	5.5	4.21	<i>ac</i>	3.7e- 32	96.1

261	Nucleoid disruption protein	162248..162706	Minus	17.1	10.05	<i>ndd = D2b</i>	5.1e-100	96.7
262	Ndd.1	162767..162982	Minus	8.1	4.22	<i>ndd.1</i>	3.4e-49	95.8
263	Ndd.2	162991..163116	Minus	5.0	5.75	<i>ndd.2</i>	1.3e-30	97.2
264	Ndd.3	163098..163295	Minus	7.4	9.40	<i>ndd.3</i>	3.6e-21	95.0
265	Ndd.5	163481..163612	Minus	5.0	4.65	<i>ndd.5</i>	1.6e-22	96.9
266	Hypothetical protein (Enterobacteria phage RB9)	163691..163996	Minus	11.6	8.69	-	84e-39	100.0
267	Endonuclease IV	163978..164535	Minus	21.1	6.89	<i>denB</i>	2e-133	98.4
268	denB.1	164598..164792	Minus	7.5	6.21	<i>denB.1</i>	8.6e-40	93.8
269	RIB	164821..165759	Minus	35.6	6.26	rIB	0.0	98.7

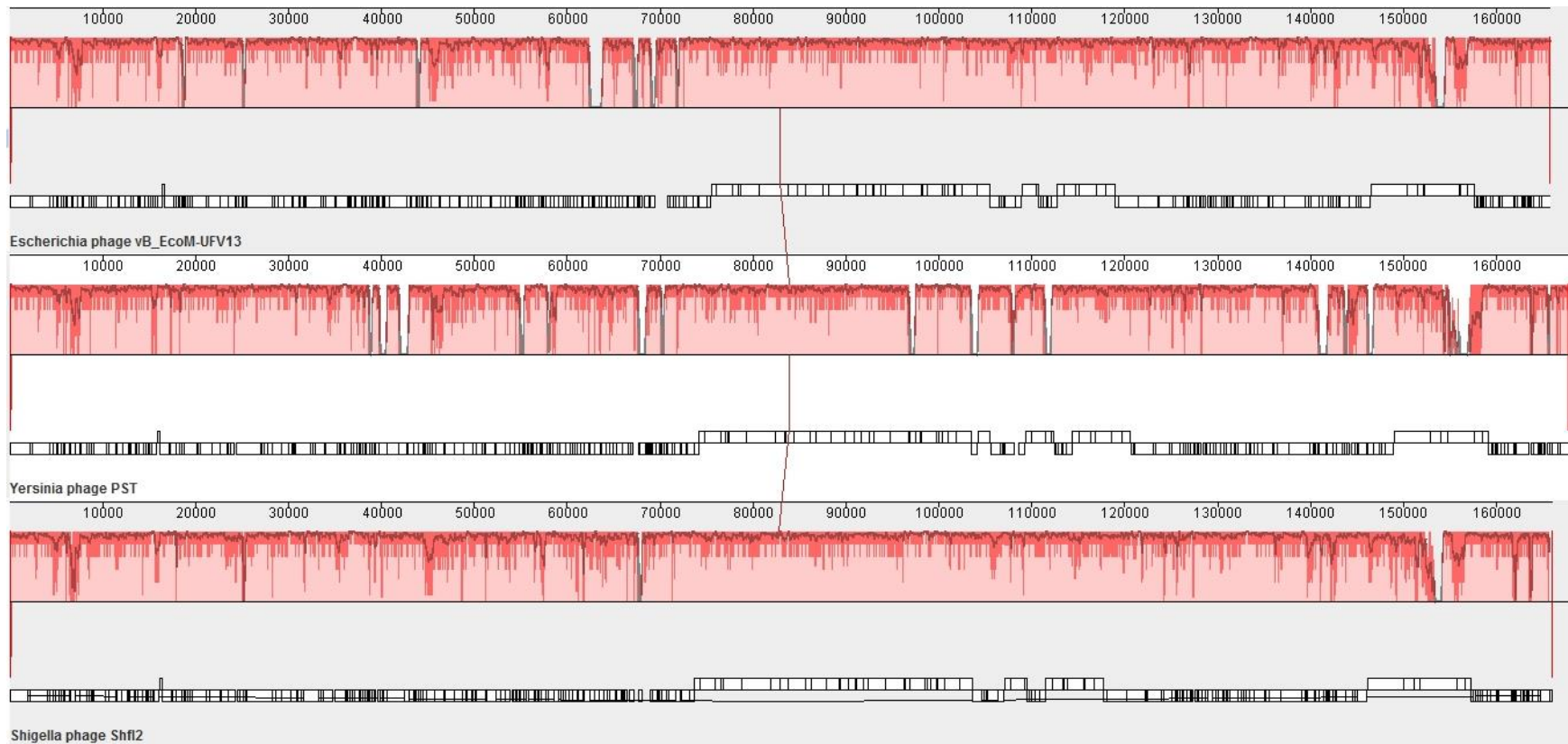
Supplementary table-2. Functional categorization of vB_EcoM-UFV13 genes based on the reference Enterobacteria

phage T4.

Functional category	ORFs
Transcription	7, 10, 11, 12, 19, 20, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 57, 58, 68, 70, 71, 72, 73, 74, 75, 87, 88, 89, 90, 91, 92, 93, 94, 95, 96, 97, 98, 240, 241, 249, 250, 257
Translation	8, 21, 42, 53, 115, 116, 117, 118, 119, 120, 121, 122, 123, 178
Nucleotide metabolism	33, 47, 76, 78, 79, 80, 87, 110, 113, 114, 131, 132, 133, 134, 135, 136, 137, 139, 148, 213, 214, 215, 216, 217, 218, 219, 221, 226, 227, 228, 229, 230, 231, 232, 233, 235, 236, 237, 267, 268
DNA replication, recombination, repair, packaging, and processing	3, 4, 6, 13, 14, 15, 17, 35, 36, 37, 43, 45, 51, 54, 55, 56, 59, 60, 61, 62, 81, 83, 84, 128, 167, 168, 183, 184, 185, 186, 187, 200, 201, 202, 203, 204, 205, 206, 207, 208, 238, 239, 242, 259
Virion proteins	30, 31, 32, 124, 125, 129, 145, 149, 150, 151, 152, 153, 156, 157, 158, 159, 160, 161, 162, 163, 164, 165, 166, 169, 170, 171, 172, 173, 174, 175, 176, 177, 179, 180, 181, 182, 188, 189, 191, 192, 193, 194, 195, 225, 243, 244, 245, 246
Chaperonins/assembly catalysts	44, 147, 174, 175, 190, 209, 210, 211, 212, 225, 247
Host or phage interactions	1, 2, 34, 46, 48, 49, 63, 64, 65, 66, 67, 82, 219, 225, 251, 253, 254, 255, 256, 260, 269
Host or phage interactions	1, 2, 34, 46, 48, 49, 63, 64, 65, 66, 67, 82, 219, 225, 251, 253, 254, 255, 256, 260, 269
Host alteration/shutoff	127, 196, 197, 198, 199, 224, 261, 262, 263, 264, 265
Homing endonucleases and homologs	100, 101, 102, 103, 104, 105

Predicted integral membrane or periplasmic proteins	77, 144, 222, 223, 252
Unknown function	5, 9, 16, 39, 40, 41, 50, 52, 69, 85, 86, 99, 111, 112, 126, 138, 140, 141, 220, 234, 258, 266

Supplementary figure-1. vB_EcoM-UFV13, *Yersinia* phage PST and *Shigella* phage Shf12 genomes alignment with progressive Mauve showing collinear blocks between the genomes. In each alignment is possible observe base pairs scale and histogram with degree of similarity. BLASTn analyze revealed an identity of 97% between vB_EcoM-UFV13 and *Yersinia* virus PST and *Shigella* virus Shf12, but greater coverage (96%) with the latter.



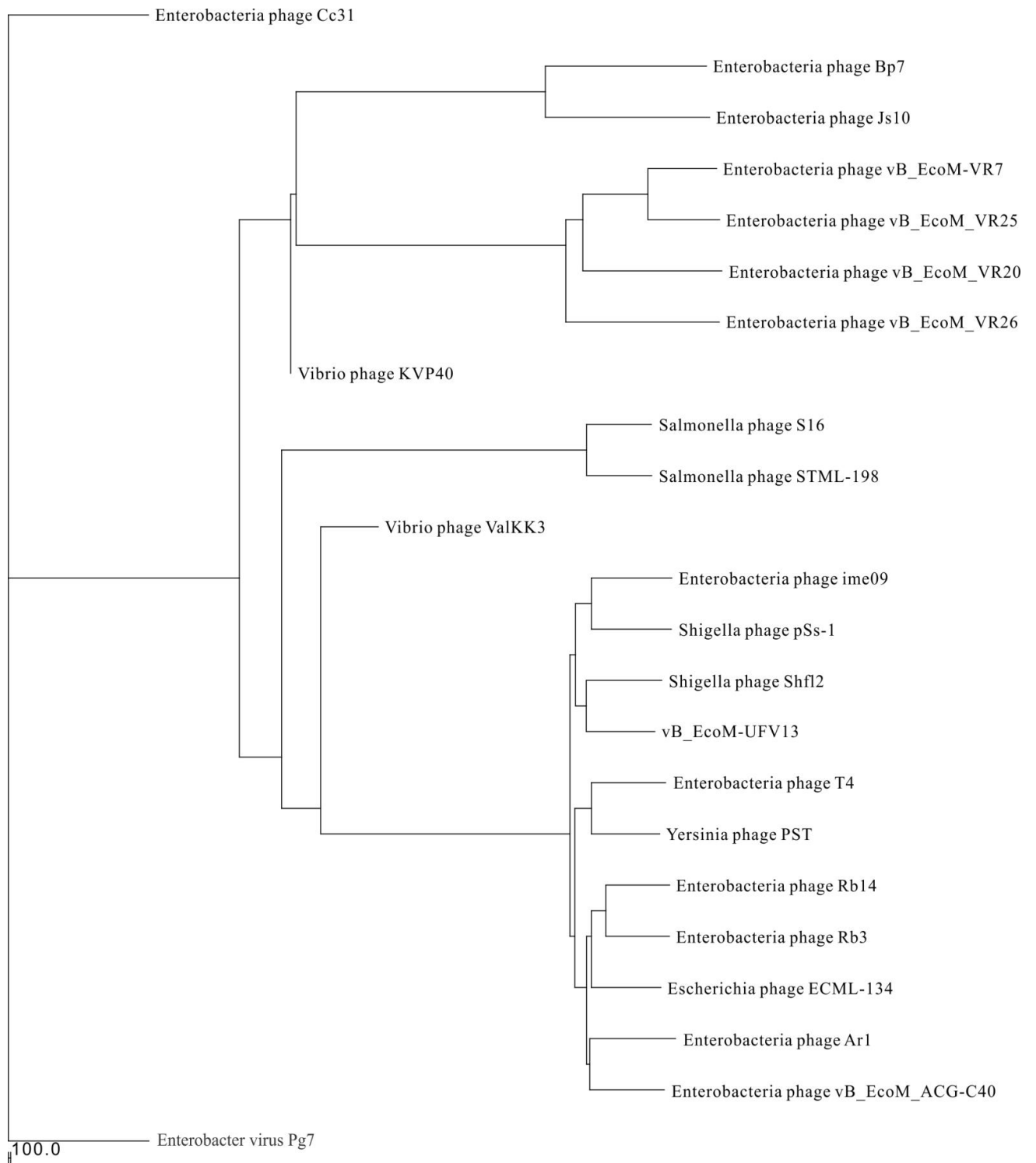
Supplementary table-3. Early, middle and late promoters prediction.

Pe (Early promoter)	vB_EcoM-UFV13 (Genome position)	T4 (Genome position)	Pm (Middle promoter)	vB_EcoM-UFV13 (Genome position)	T4 (Genome Position)	PI (Late promoter)	vB_EcoM-UFV13 (Genome position)	T4 (Genome position)
1.4..3.9	2418..2447	2429..2458	Pm	*	*	soc	15434..15451	15593..15643
(3.6)	Without <i>mobA</i>	2422	Pm	*	*	PI		
(5.9..7.3) = (motB)	6684..6738	7169..7225	Pm(<i>rIIA</i>)	2241..2296	2252..2307	56/69	Without <i>gp69</i>	16803..16856
(8.1)	7797..7826	8189..8218	Pm(39)	4275..4328	5339..5392	I..TevII	Without <i>tevII</i>	45621..45671
(11.5)	11661..11690	11822..11851	Pm(56/69)	139406..139429	16803..16856	49	43147..43197	46875..46925
12.8 = mod	12982..13036	13140..13196	Pm(61)	17800..17853	19112..19165	rl.1	59740	*
15.0 = soc	15434..15451	15593..15643	Pm(<i>uvsX</i>)	*	23742..23796	Pe(2)	64184..64234	67001..67051
19.8	18501..18539	20070..20119	Pm(<i>segA</i>)	Without <i>segA</i>	24446..24500	Pe(1)	64197..64247	67014..67064
20.3 = dmd	19590..19646	20566..20622	Pm(42)	24339..24392	26310..26363	Pe(w)	64413..64463	67230..67280
26.4 = imm.1	25319..25373	27034..27090	Pm(43)	28205..28259	29921..29977	PI	*	72863
35.3	34167..34216	35659..35708	Pm(45)	31124..31177	32616..32669	PI	*	74999
40.4	39151..39200	41222..41271	Pm(45.2)	31755..31807	33247..33299	4	75457..75507	77354..77404
41.0	39596..39645	41667..41716	Pm(46)	33512..33566	35004..35058	PI	*	77362
46.7	43685..43734	47413..47462	Pm(47)	35070..35127	36562..36619	PI	*	77381
50.0 = nrdC.4	47297..47353	50927..50983	Pm(<i>mobB..gt</i>)	*	*	53.0	75419..75469	77316..77366
54.0	50281..50330	53904..53953	Pm(55)	37838..37891	40170..40223	5.1	77856..77906	79753..79803
54.4	51720..51769	55345..55394	Pm(55.8)	40739..40774	42795..42849	7	*	*
Pe	Without <i>mobD.2</i>	57954	Pm(<i>nrdG</i>)	*	*	8	83306..83356	85766..85816

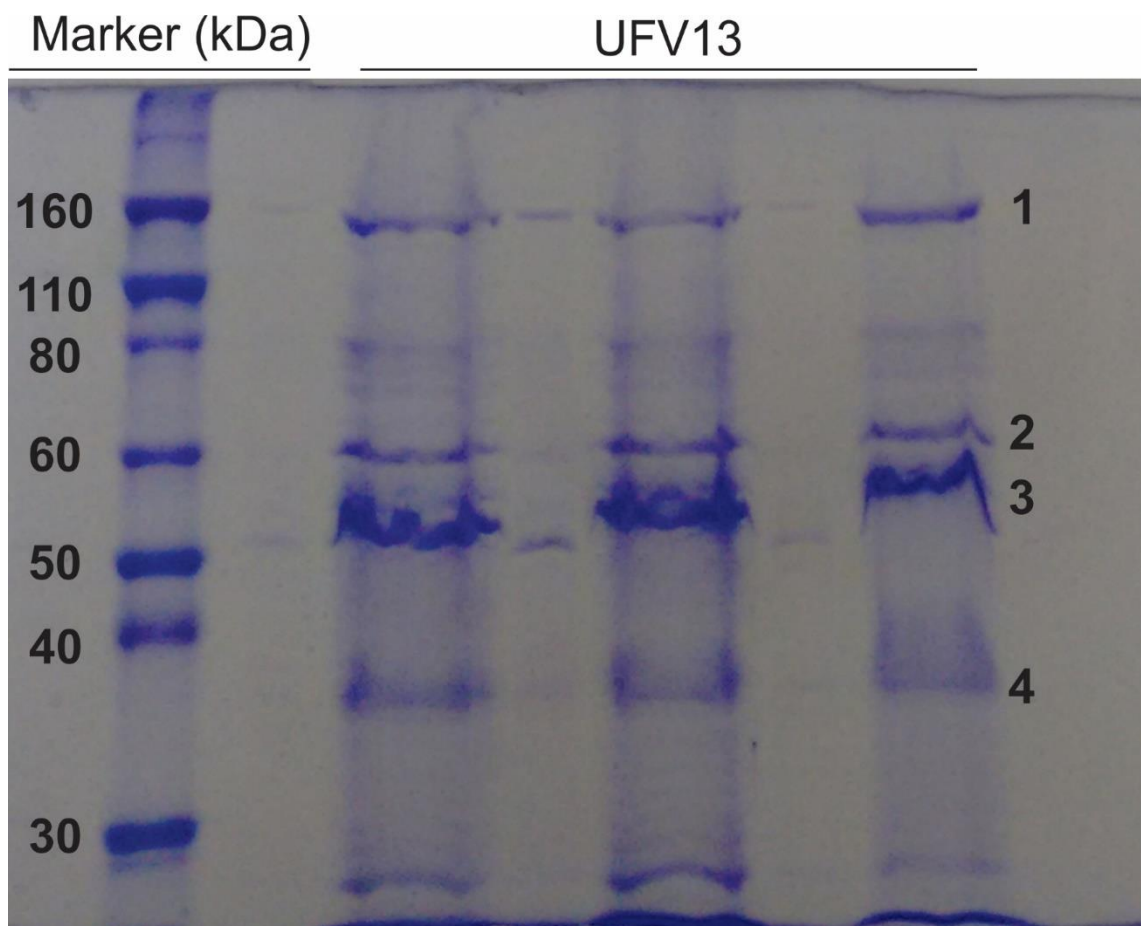
Pe(57.9)	55308..55357	58741..58790	Pm(nrdD+)	*	*	9(b)	84694..84744	87154..87204
Pe(62.2)	59507..59556	62758..62807	tRNA	70970..71020	72859..72909	9(a)	84254..84304	86714..86764
64.6 = denV	67498..67541	65375..65423	57A	72983..73005	74867..74919	10	85379..85429	87839..87889
Pe(65.0)	Without <i>IpII</i>	65760..65809	1	73486..73539	75382..75435	15	92832..92882	95291..95341
Pe		66462	uvsY	111580..111634	115361..115415	17	93648..93698	96107..96157
69.9	67116..67155	69928..69977	Pm(30)	*	*	18(w)	96008..96058	98467..98517
69.4	71640..71677	70320..70369	Pm(30.2)	*	*	PI	*	*
69.8	68057..68106	70657..70706	Pm(31)	*	*	P19(a)	98059..98109	100518..100568
tRNA.4 = 72.6	71633..71687	73526..73582	Pm(l..teVIII)	*	*	P19(b)	98118..98168	100577..100627
73.0	72004..72053	73900..73949	Pm(nrdB)	*	139868..139921	20	98679..98729	101138..101188
Pe	*	79405	Pm(nrdA)	139453..139508	142714..142769	67	100034..100084	102493..102543
alt.3	F:119252..119300	123057	Pm(td+)	141272..141326	145131..145185	21	100638..100688	103100..103150
128.2	127666..127714	129880..129928	Pm(32)	143143..143192	148054..148101	22	101587..101637	104049..104099
128.6	128057..128106	130271..130320	Pm(dsbA)	145492..145547	149861..149916	PI	*	*
131.7	130952..131001	133292..133341	Pm(34)	146365..146415	150734..150784	23	102309..102358	104770..104820
134.4	134276..134325	136297..136346				23(w)	102279..102329	104741..104791
144.6	143055..143104	146836..146885				hoc.1	108867..108886	112025..112075
148.6	146355..146404	150724..150773				hoc.2	108830..108880	111988..112038
158.7	157832..157881	161172..161221				PI	*	*
161.1 = motA	160290..160346	163627..163683				PI(segE)	*	*
164.2	163437..163484	166768..166817				PluvsY..2	*	*
164.5	163924..163973	167047..167096				PI	*	*
						P26(a)	112659..112709	116440..116490
						P26(w)	112650..112700	116431..116481
						PI		

	PI(alt)	123490..123 534	125521..125 571
	PI(rIII)	*	*
	PI(alc)	*	
	PI(I..Tev III)	*	*
	PI(I..Tev I)	*	144445..144 495
	PI(32)	*	147994..148 044
	PI(rnh)	*	
	PI35	*	
	PI36	151432..151 482	155804..155 854
	PI37	151948..151 998	156323..156 373
	PI38	*	

Supplementary figure-2. SNP-based phylogentic tree supports the phylogenetic relationship between UFV13 and *Shigella* phage Shf12.



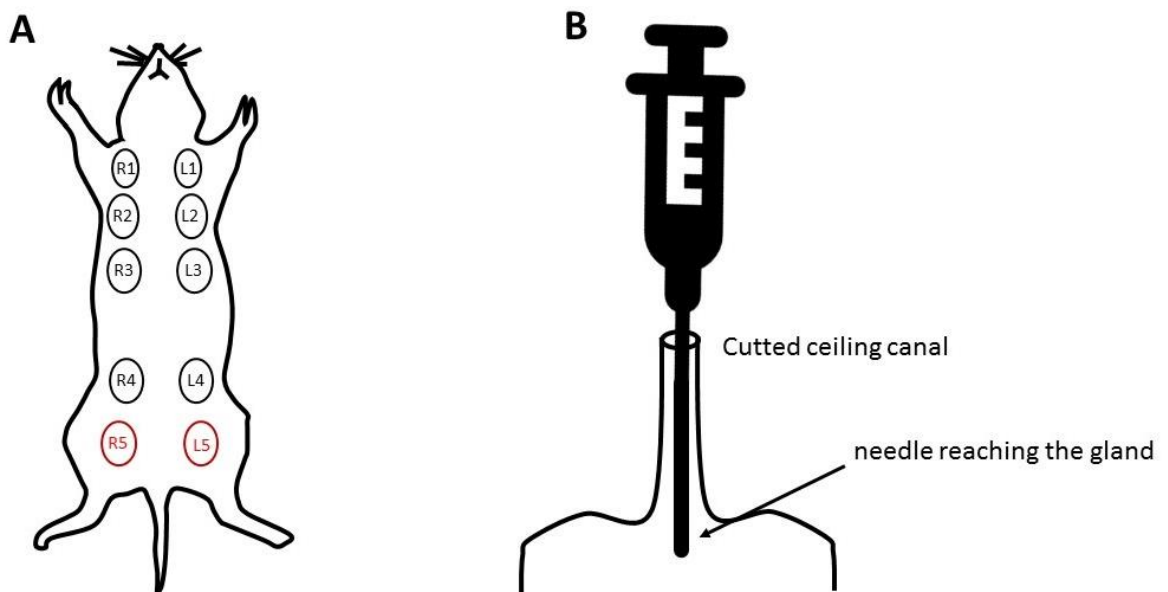
Supplementary figure-3. *Escherichia phage* UFV13 protein profile by SDS-PAGE. MALDI/TOF-TOF analyze revealed the presence of host receptor protein after virus purification. Sample 1 – vB_EcoM-UFV13 long tail fiber proximal subunit); Sample 2 – *E. coli* chaperonin GroL; Sample 3 – *Escherichia* phage major capsid protein; Sample 4 – *E. coli* outer membrane protein C (OmpC). Three lanes were loaded with the aim to increase protein yield for MALDI/TOF-TOF analyze.



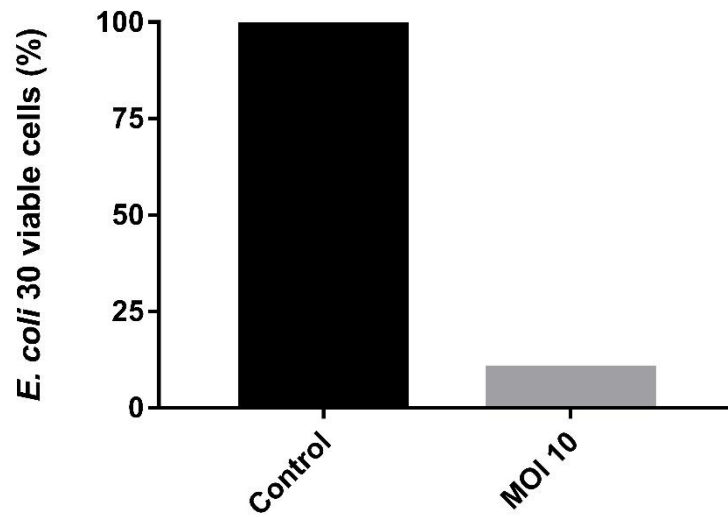
Supplementary table-4. NCBI accession number list of all viral genomes used in this study.

Virus	Accession number
<i>Escherichia virus RB3</i>	KM606994
<i>Escherichia virus RB14</i>	NC_012638
<i>Escherichia virus ECML134</i>	JX128259
<i>Escherichia virus C40</i>	JN986846
<i>Escherichia virus AR1</i>	AP011113
<i>Escherichia virus T4</i>	AF158101.6
<i>Yersinia virus PST</i>	KF208315
<i>Escherichia virus UFV13</i>	NC_031103
<i>Shigella virus Shfl2</i>	HM035025
<i>Escherichia virus ime09</i>	JN202312
<i>Shigella virus Pss1</i>	KM501444
<i>Enterobacter virus CC31</i>	NC_014662
<i>Enterobacter virus PG7</i>	NC_023561
<i>Salmonella virus S16</i>	NC_020416
<i>Salmonella virus STML198</i>	JX181825
<i>Enterobacter virus JS10</i>	NC_012741
<i>Enterobacter virus VR26</i>	NC_028957
<i>Enterobacter virus VR20</i>	NC_028894
<i>Enterobacter virus VR7</i>	NC_014792
<i>Enterobacter virus VR25</i>	NC_028925
<i>Bacillus virus BMBtp1</i>	KT852578

Supplementary figure-4. Experimental design of *E. coli*-induced mastitis in mouse. A – The last two abdominal ceilings (R5 and L5) of each animal were used. B – After that the lactating mouse was intraperitoneally anesthetized, R5 and L5 were assessed by cutting the teat canal.



Supplementary Figure-5. A 10-fold reduction of *E. coli* 30 load was observed after viral inoculation using MOI 10.



Supplementary Table-5. Antimicrobial susceptibility test was performed by disc diffusion assay using 25 different antibiotics. *E. coli* 30 was resistant to 56% of antibiotics tested.

Antibiotics	Code	Resistant	Intermediate	Susceptible	Diameter (cm)	Result
Ceftriaxone	CRO 30	≤19	20-22	≥23	19	Resistant
Bacitracin	BAC 10	-	-	-	0.6	Resistant
Amoxicillin	AMO 10	-	-	-	0.6	Resistant
Cefalotin	CFL 30	≤14	15-17	≥18	13	Resistant
Linezolid	LNZ 30	≤20	21-22	≥23	0.6	Resistant
Sulfamethoxazole/Trimethoprim	SUT 25	≤10	11-15	≥16	0.6	Resistant
Tetracyclin	TET 30	≤11	12-14	≥15	0.6	Resistant
Penicillin G	PEN 10	≤28	-	≥15	0.6	Resistant
Erythromycin	ERI 15	≤15	16-20	≥21	0.6	Resistant
Oxacillin	OXA 01	-	-	-	0.6	Resistant
Ampicillin	AMP 10	≤13	14-16	≥17	0.6	Resistant
Clindamycin	CLI 02	≤15	16-18	≥21	0.6	Resistant
Vancomycin	VAN 30	≤14	15-16	≥17	0.6	Resistant
Rifampicin	RIF 05	≤16	17-18	≥19	0.6	Resistant
Chloramphenicol	CLO 30	≤12	13-17	≥18	25	Susceptible
Ceftazidime	CAZ 30	≤17	18-20	≥21	28	Susceptible
Aztreonam	ATM 30	≤17	18-20	≥21	32	Susceptible
Amikacin	AMI 30	≤14	15-16	≥17	28	Susceptible
Amoxicillin/Clavulanate	AMC 30	≤13	14-17	≥18	20	Susceptible
Cefepime	CPM 30	≤18	-	≥21	35	Susceptible
Ciprofloxacin	CIP 05	≤15	16-20	≥21	29	Susceptible

Azithromycin	AZI 15	≤13	14-17	≥18	27	Susceptible
Cefoxitin	CFO 30	≤14	15-17	≥18	32	Susceptible
Gentamicin	GEN 10	≤12	13-14	≥15	22	Susceptible
Piperacillin/Tazobactam	PIT 110	≤17	18-20	≥21	23	Susceptible

Supplementary Table-6. Biofilm formation and motility assays. *E. coli* 30 displays the capability to form biofilm and possesses swarming and swimming abilities.

Virulence factors	Result
Swarming	+
Swimming	+
Twitching	-
Biofilm	+