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for Development as New Feed Additive

Functional and Genomic Features of a Lytic Salmonella Phage vB_StyS_KFSST1

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Abstract

Lytic phages have emerged as promising candidates for feed additives for controlling 12 13 Salmonella in poultry, owing to their high specificity, self-replication, and excellent 14 stability. According to the European Food Safety Authority (EFSA) guidelines, their 15 application as feed additives requires evaluation of safety, host range, in vitro and in vivo efficacy, and stability. Thus, this study aimed to evaluate the functional and genomic 16 17 features of vB_StyS_KFSST1, previously isolated from poultry processing wastewater, 18 as a candidate for the development of a new feed additive against *Salmonella*. The phage exhibited dual serotype-specific lytic activity against S. Enteritidis and S. Typhimurium, 19 20 with high plating efficiency. Infection kinetic analysis revealed its rapid adsorption and a 21 sustained inhibitory effect lasting up to 12 h for both serovars. Whole genome sequencing of the phage was performed using the Oxford Nanopore PromethION 2 Solo platform. 22 23 The phage genome consisted of 47,149 bp dsDNA, containing 98 open reading frames and two tRNA genes. No lysogeny-related, antibiotic resistance, or virulence-associated 24 25 genes were found in its genome, whereas phage-susceptible Salmonella strains carried 26 multiple antibiotic resistance and virulence genes. Phylogenetic and taxonomic analyses finally clustered the phage with other lytic Salmonella phages, classifying it within the 27 genus Skatevirus. These findings highlight the potential of lytic phage vB_StyS_KFSST1 28 29 as a promising candidate for the development of a feed additive to control Salmonella in 30 poultry husbandry.

Keywords: *Salmonella*, dual serotype-specific phage, whole genome sequencing, poultry
husbandry, feed additive

33 Introduction

Salmonella is a major zoonotic, foodborne pathogen that asymptomatically colonizes 34 35 the intestinal tract of poultry and represents the leading cause of poultry-associated outbreaks in Europe, accounting for over 41.3% of reported cases (EFSA and ECDC, 36 37 2023). Colonized poultry often act as silent reservoirs and vehicles, continuously shedding Salmonella into the farm environment and feed system (Thorns, 2000). It 38 39 facilitates horizontal transmission within flocks and increases the risk of carcass 40 contamination post-slaughter. Notably, while only 13% of broiler flocks were colonized 41 at slaughter, 55% of broiler carcasses were contaminated with Salmonella after 42 processing (Rasschaert et al., 2008). Although various sanitary interventions, including 43 carcass rinsing, chilling, and surface decontamination, are implemented during slaughter and processing to reduce microbial loads (Micciche et al., 2018), they are often 44 insufficient to mitigate contamination from intestinal colonization. These findings 45 highlight the need for effective control strategies during poultry husbandry to prevent 46 47 downstream contamination and dissemination throughout the processing chain.

48 Antibiotics, such as tetracyclines, sulfonamides, aminoglycosides, and macrolides, 49 have been administered with feed or drinking water at sub-therapeutic doses to control 50 Salmonella in poultry husbandry (Parveen et al., 2007). However, this application of 51 antibiotics as feed additives has contributed to the emergence and spread of antimicrobial-52 resistant (AMR) Salmonella strains throughout poultry production systems. In a previous 53 study, over 75% of Salmonella strains isolated from poultry in Korea were resistant to 54 ampicillin, cefotaxime, and tetracycline (NIH, 2025). Furthermore, the use of 55 pharmaceutical products to promote rapid growth and maintain animal health in poultry husbandry has resulted in the accumulation of toxic and harmful residues in the products, 56 posing risks to consumer health (Mund et al., 2017). Due to these concerns, the use of 57

antibiotics in feed has been banned in many countries, including the EU, leading to the
adoption of alternative feed additives such as organic acids, probiotics, and essential oils
(Logue et al., 2024). However, these alternative feed additives often lack target specificity,
contributing to the inconsistent efficacy against *Salmonella* (Kerek et al., 2023; Naeem
and Bourassa, 2024). Therefore, the need for safe and selective alternatives has led to
growing interest in bacteriophage (phage)-based feed additives.

64 Lytic phages are viruses that specifically infect and lyse bacterial cells, offering high specificity, self-replication, natural abundance, and excellent stability (Kim et al., 2023). 65 These characteristics have led to the commercialization of several phage-based products, 66 including SalmoFreshTM, SalmonellexTM, and PhageGuardTM. However, these 67 commercial products have been predominantly applied to reduce Salmonella 68 contamination of poultry carcasses (Micreos Food Safety, 2025) and poultry products 69 70 (Hagens et al., 2018; Sukumaran et al., 2016). More recently, phage application in poultry 71 has expanded from post-slaughter treatment to use as a feed additive during poultry 72 husbandry. A recent study demonstrated that ad libitum administration of two lytic phages, SPFM10 and SPFM14, significantly reduced Salmonella colonization in broiler chickens 73 after 42 days (Thanki et al., 2023). To date, only one phage-based product [Bafasal[®] 74 75 (Proteon Pharmaceuticals, Poland)], a phage cocktail targeting S. Gallinarum and S. 76 Enteritidis, has been developed as a feed additive for preventive or metaphylactic use during the husbandry phase (Clavijo et al., 2019; Pelyuntha et al., 2022; Roberto et al., 77 78 2024).

Here, *S.* Typhimurium phage vB_StyS_KFSST1, previously isolated from poultry processing wastewater, is proposed as a new, potential biocontrol candidate for a feed additive. This phage exhibited excellent temperature stability and acid tolerance (Choi et al., 2020), making it suitable for feed formulation and combination treatment with other

alternatives such as organic acids or probiotics. Based on the European Food Safety 83 84 Authority (EFSA) under Regulation (EC) No 1831/2003, the commercial phage-based 85 feed additives should provide information regarding safety, host range, in vitro and in vivo biocontrol efficacy, and storage stability (Roberto et al., 2024; Vasileios et al., 2021). 86 Since the previous study has demonstrated the physical stability of vB_StyS_KFSST1, 87 the present study focuses on its functional and genomic features to evaluate the suitability 88 89 of the phage for use as a feed additive targeting Salmonella serovars. Specifically, this study aims to evaluate its lytic activity and in vitro efficacy against various Salmonella 90 serotypes, and to provide its genome features to confirm the absence of undesirable genes, 91 92 including those related to lysogeny, antimicrobial resistance, and virulence.

93

94 Materials and Methods

95 Bacterial strains and their genome sequences

A total of 17 Salmonella strains were used in this study (Table 1), comprising 11 96 reference strains obtained from the American Type Culture Collection (ATCC) and the 97 National Culture Collection for Pathogens (NCCP), and six Salmonella isolates 98 99 previously recovered from fresh produce and agricultural environments (Choe et al., 100 2023). These 6 Salmonella isolates were previously whole-genome sequenced at Max Rubner-Institut (MRI) at the Department of Microbiology and Biotechnology in Kiel, 101 102 Germany (Kim et al., 2025a), and identified as S. Typhimurium (S. enterica GOVDG-1, 103 S. enterica GORGM-1, and S. enterica PLGS-1), S. I 4, [5], 12:i:- (S. enterica PSGS-1), S. 104 Kentucky (S. enterica PSCD-1), and S. Montevideo (S. enterica CMCD-1) (Kim et al., 2025b). Genome sequences of six phage-susceptible strains, such as S. Typhimurium 105 ATCC 13311, S. Typhimurium ATCC 14028, S. Enteritidis ATCC 13076, Salmonella 106

enterica GOVDG-1, *Salmonella enterica* GORGM-1, and *Salmonella enterica* PLGS-1,
were retrieved from the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) GenBank
database under accession numbers NZCP009102.1, CP043907.1, NZLSHA01000001.1,
JBNDEH000000000, JBNDEL000000000, and JBNDEI000000000, respectively.

111

112 **Propagation and purification of phages**

vB_StyS_KFSST1 was previously isolated from the rinsing water of the poultry 113 processing facility (Orpum, Sangju, Korea), using S. Typhimurium ATCC 13311 as the 114 115 indicator host strain (Choi et al., 2020). For high-titer propagation, host culture was prepared by inoculating 1% (v/v) overnight culture into 3 mL of modified nutrient broth 116 117 (0.15 g/L CaCl₂, 0.05 g/L MnSO₄, 0.2 g/L MgSO₄, 5 g/L NaCl, and 8 g/L nutrient broth) and incubating it at 37 °C with vigorous shaking until reaching the logarithmic growth 118 phase. The phage suspension was then added at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 1, 119 120 followed by incubation under the same conditions for phage proliferation. After 121 incubation, the culture was centrifuged at $4,000 \times g$ for 10 min, and the supernatant was filtered through a 0.22-µm pore-size filter (GVS Inc., Sanford, ME, USA). This 122 123 propagation process was scaled up by gradually increasing the culture volume and 124 repeating the same procedure described above. The propagated phage, with a final titer 125 of approximately 10-11 log PFU/mL, was purified via polyethylene glycol precipitation, 126 CsCl density-gradient ultracentrifugation, and subsequent dialysis in SM buffer, as previously described (Kim et al., 2021). The purified phage stock was finally stored in a 127 128 glass vial at 4°C prior to use.

129

130 Host range and efficiency-of-plating analysis of vB_StyS_KFSST1

Each strain was cultivated in tryptic soy broth (TSB; DifcoTM, Detroit, MI, USA) at 131 132 37°C for 12 h. A 200 µL aliquot of each overnight culture was mixed with 4 mL of 0.4% TA soft agar and overlaid onto TSA plates. Ten microliters of phage suspension (8 log 133 134 PFU/mL) were spotted onto the surface of the bacterial lawns. After 16-h incubation at 37°C, the formation of a single plaque was confirmed to determine the lytic activity of 135 136 vB_StyS_KFSST1 against the tested bacterial strains. Once plaque formation was 137 confirmed, efficiency-of-plating (EOP) of the phage was determined using plaque assay 138 (Kim et al., 2023). EOP is calculated by dividing the phage titer on the tested bacterial 139 strain by the phage titer on the indicator host strain.

140

141 Infection kinetics of vB_StyS_KFSST1 against S. Enteritidis and S.

142 Typhimurium

S. Enteritidis ATCC 13076 and S. Typhimurium ATCC 13311 were used as 143 144 representative hosts to analyze infection kinetics. Each strain was cultured in TSB at 37°C 145 for 16 h, and the overnight cultures were diluted 1:100 (v/v) in fresh TSB. For the 146 infection kinetics analysis, 100 µL of the diluted bacterial culture and 100 µL of phage 147 suspension were added into each well of a 96-well microplate to achieve a MOI of 1. The 148 microplate was incubated at 37 °C for 12 h, and bacterial growth was then monitored by 149 measuring optical density at 640 nm (OD₆₄₀) using a microplate reader (Synergy H1, 150 BioTek Inc., Charlotte, VT, USA). All measurements were performed in triplicate.

151

152 Genomic DNA isolation, whole genome sequencing, and assembly

Genomic DNA of vB_StyS_KFSST1 was extracted using Phage DNA Isolation Kit
(Norgen Biotek Corp. Thorold, ON, Canada) according to the manufacturer's instruction.

The extracted DNA was then purified using AMPure XP beads (Beckman Coulter Inc., 155 156 CA, USA). DNA quality and concentration were assessed using NanoDrop (Peglab, 157 Erlangen, Germany) and a Qubit 3.0 fluorometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Wesel, 158 Germany). DNA library preparation was performed using the ligation sequencing kit with native barcoding (SQK-NBD114.96, Oxford Nanopore Technologies Inc., Oxford, UK) 159 160 and sequencing was carried out on a PromethION 2 Solo sequencing device using an 161 R10.4.1 flow cell (Oxford Nanopore Technologies). Raw signal data in POD5 format 162 were basecalled and demultiplexed using the Dorado software (v. 0.9.5). The raw sequence data in FASTQ format were filtered for quality control using the fastplong 163 164 pipeline (v. 0.2.2; parameter: minlength 500 and Q 15) (Chen, 2023). The de novo assembly was subsequently conducted using the Flye (v. 2.9.5) with the --nano-corr 165 parameter (Kolmogorov et al., 2019). After genome assembly, the quality of the genome 166 167 sequence was assessed using the QUAST pipeline (Mikheenko et al., 2018). The 168 assembled genome in FASTA format was subjected to further bioinformatic analyses. 169

170 Genome annotation and bioinformatic analyses

Annotation of the phage genome was conducted using BV-BRC (Olson et al., 2023) 171 and Pharokka pipeline (v1.7.0) (Bouras et al., 2023). To evaluate the safety of 172 173 vB_StyS_KFSST1, both the annotated genome and bacterial genomes of phagesusceptible strains were screened for antibiotic resistance genes, virulence factors, and 174 175 prophage regions using ResFinder 4.1, the Virulence Factor Database (VFDB), and 176 PHASTEST (Wishart et al., 2023), respectively. ResFinder 4.1 was used to determine the 177 presence of acquired antibiotic resistance genes with 80% sequence similarity (Bortolaia 178 et al., 2020), while VFDB was applied to detect known virulence factors associated with Salmonella spp. (Liu et al., 2022). The phage lifestyle was classified using PhageAI 179

platform (https://phage.ai/). For phylogenetic and taxonomical analyses, the average
nucleotide identity (ANI) between vB_StyS_KFSST1 and its close relatives was
calculated using the FastANI pipeline (v1.33) (Jain et al., 2018) with default parameters.
Additionally, complete genome sequence based phylogenetic analysis was performed
using Virus Classification and Tree Building Online Resource (VICTOR) with the d0
formula (Meier-Kolthoff and Göker, 2017), and its output file was uploaded to iTOL
(https://itol.embl.de) for visualization of the phylogenetic tree.

187

188 Statistical analysis

Host range, EOP analysis, and infection kinetics of the phage were conducted in
triplicates, and data were expressed as the mean ± standard deviation. Statistical analyses
were performed using GraphPad Prism and InStat V.9 (GraphPad, San Diego, CA, USA).
Student's paired *t*-test and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) were used to compare
data between and among groups, respectively, at p values of <0.05.

194

195 **Results and Discussion**

196 Lytic activity of vB_StyS_KFSST1 against *Salmonella* serotypes

The host range of vB_StyS_KFSST1 (Table 1) was evaluated against 10 *Salmonella* serotypes with EOP analysis, since it had already been assessed against 39 major foodborne pathogens, including 8 *Salmonella* serotypes (Choi et al., 2020). vB_StyS_KFSST1 exhibited lytic activity exclusively against *S*. Enteritidis and *S*. Typhimurium, lysing all tested strains within these two serotypes, including three reference strains and three environmental isolates (GOVDG-1, GORGM, and PLGS). Additionally, the phage showed high EOP values (≥ 0.98) for all six lysed strains (Table 204 1). These results indicate that vB_StyS_KFSST1 possesses dual serotype-specific lytic
205 activity with high efficiency against *S*. Enteritidis and *S*. Typhimurium.

206 Infection kinetics of the phage were further assessed against the representative host 207 strains of S. Enteritidis ATCC 13076 and S. Typhimurium ATCC 13311 (Fig. 1). With both serotypes, absorbance began to decline rapidly from 1 h after phage infection, in 208 209 contrast to the phage-free control. The sharp reduction in absorbance indicated early 210 phage adsorption and initiation of bacterial lysis (Shao and Wang, 2008). After a gradual 211 decrease during the first 3h, the growth inhibition was sustained until 12 h (Fig. 1). No notable recovery in bacterial growth was observed for both strains within the 212 experimental period. These findings demonstrate that vB_StyS_KFSST1 effectively 213 infected and controlled S. Enteritidis and S. Typhimurium, showing comparable and 214 215 sustained lytic activity against both serotypes.

216 Similar to our phage, two Salmonella phages, L223 (Khan et al., 2024) and vB_Sen-217 TO17 (Kosznik-Kwaśnicka et al., 2022), also showed dual serotype-specific lytic activity 218 against both S. Enteritidis and S. Typhimurium. However, these phages required at least 219 ~3 h to initiate detectable growth inhibition, whereas vB_StyS_KFSST1 reduced bacterial growth within 1 h of phage infection. Compared to these studies, Salmonella 220 221 phage SHWT1 showed the broader host range against a wider panel of Salmonella 222 serotypes, including Derby, Enteritidis, Gallinarum, London, Pullorum, Typhi, and Typhimurium (Tao et al., 2021). However, its lytic activity was not sustained, as regrowth 223 224 of host strains was observed after 2 h of phage infection, indicating incomplete 225 antibacterial efficacy. Another previous study of phage phiSalP219 showed that this 226 phage exhibited lytic activity against four Salmonella serotypes (Enteritidis, Gallinarum, 227 Paratyphi, and Typhimurium), but also reported partial recovery of bacterial growth 228 during the later stages of phage infection (Jaglan et al., 2024). In contrast,

vB_StyS_KFSST1 achieved a rapid and maintained suppression of S. Enteritidis and S. 229 230 Typhimurium without regrowth, consistent with its high EOP. Moreover, since Bafasal®, the first EFSA-approved phage product, is specifically targeted S. Gallinarum and S. 231 232 Enteritidis, the application of vB StyS KFSST1 can expand the phage-based control strategy by covering S. Typhimurium, one of the most prevalent serotypes causing 233 234 poultry-associated salmonellosis (Karabasanavar et al., 2020). These characteristics 235 highlight the potential of vB_StyS_KFSST1 as a novel candidate for a feed additive for 236 improving *Salmonella* control in poultry husbandry.

237

238 Genome analysis and distribution of safety-related genes

The complete genome of vB_StyS_KFSST1 consisted of double-stranded DNA with a 239 240 total length of 47,149 bp and a mol% GC content of 45.74% (Fig. 2). The phage genome encodes 98 open reading frames (ORFs) and 2 tRNAs. With respect to start codon usage, 241 242 the majority of predicted ORFs initiated with AUG (96.94%), while UUG and GUG 243 accounted for 2.04% and 1.02%, respectively. Among the 98 ORFs, the function of only 244 33 ORFs could be predicted and categorized into six groups, including phage structure, 245 DNA packaging, host lysis, nucleotide metabolism and replication, phage assembly, and 246 additional functions (Table 2). The largest proportion of the functional ORFs were 247 associated with structural components, such as phage tail, phage head, connector, and 248 packaging proteins (Fig. 2). The remaining 65 ORFs were annotated as hypothetical proteins with unknown functions (Fig. 2). Notably, no integrase, repressors, or 249 250 recombinase genes were detected, indicating that vB_StyS_KFSST1 is a strictly virulent phage. PHASTEST analysis additionally confirmed the absence of intact and incomplete 251 252 prophage regions. Consistently, PhageAI predicted a virulent lifestyle with a 99.77%

probability, further supporting the lytic nature and genetic stability of vB_StyS_KFSST1. 253 254 To determine the genomic features of vB_StyS_KFSST1, the presence and distribution 255 of AMR genes and virulence factors were screened with an 80% identity threshold, 256 together with a comparative analysis with the genomes of phage-susceptible Salmonellas trains. Several AMR genes were detected in the genomes of Salmonella host strains. 257 258 These included aminoglycoside resistance genes (aac(6')-Iaa and aad(6')-Iy), beta-lactam 259 resistance genes (blaTEM-1B, and ampH), sulfonamide resistance gene (sul2), 260 tetracycline resistance gene (tetA), and various multidrug efflux pump-related genes (Fig. 3A). In contrast, no AMR genes were detected on the genome of vB_StyS_KFSST1. 261

262 VFDB-based screening revealed that host genomes harbored a wide range of virulence genes (Fig. 3B). Numerous genes related to Salmonella pathogenicity islands (SPIs), 263 264 including invA-J, sipA-E, sopA-E, ssaB-U, and prgH-K, were detected in all tested 265 host strain. Other virulence factors such as *lpf*A-E, *sef*A, *pag*C, *spv*B, *spv*C, and *spv*R 266 were also identified in the bacterial genomes. These genes are known to play critical roles 267 in pathogenic mechanisms of Salmonella, including epithelial cell adhesion and invasion 268 (lpfA, sefA, inv, sip, and sop), intracellular survival (ssa and pagC), and systemic 269 infection enhancement (spvB and spvC) (Liu et al., 2023; Lou et al., 2019; Marcus et al., 270 2000). Importantly, no virulence-associated genes could be identified in the genome of 271 vB StyS KFSST1.

Although lytic phages are generally considered safer biocontrol agents than temperate or lysogenic phages, recent studies have reported that even lytic phages can occasionally mediate generalized transduction of host DNA fragments, leading to horizontal gene transfer (Fillol-Salom et al., 2018; Schneider, 2021). These findings underscore the necessity of thorough genomic screening when developing phages for biocontrol or feed additive applications. Compared to previous EFSA evaluations of Bafasal[®], where

genomic safety was primarily confirmed based on the absence of lysogenic genes and 278 279 manufacturing filtration steps (EFSA, 2020; EFSA, 2024), the present study conducted a 280 more comprehensive genomic characterization by encompassing AMR gene screening, 281 virulence factor profiling, and prophage detection. The complete absence of AMR genes, virulence-associated factors, and prophage-related sequences in the phage genome 282 283 proposed its excellent genetic stability and minimal biosafety risks. These characteristics 284 align with EFSA guidelines for phage-based feed additives (Roberto et al., 2024), 285 supporting the potential application of vB_StyS_KFSST1 as a safe and effective candidate for controlling Salmonella in poultry farming. The GenBank accession number 286 287 of vB_StyS_KFSST1 is PV659140.

288

289 Phylogenetic and taxonomic analyses of vB_StyS_KFSST1

The genomic similarity of vB_StyS_KFSST1 to other phages was evaluated based on 290 ANI and phylogenetic analysis. The phylogenetic analysis constructed using genome-291 BLAST distance phylogeny (GBDP) analysis revealed that vB_StyS_KFSST1 clustered 292 293 closely together with Salmonella phages KFS-SE2 (GenBank No. NC054641), VSt472 (GenBank No. NC054644), and VB_StyS_B55 (GenBank No. NC054646) (Fig. 4). 294 295 These phages were previously classified within the genus *Skatevirus* under the family 296 Unclassified Caudoviricetes according to the latest ICTV taxonomy (Simmonds et al., 2024). In contrast, several phages infecting Escherichia coli and other bacterial hosts 297 formed separate clades, confirming the host specificity of vB_StyS_KFSST1. 298

The ANI-based heatmap further supported these findings, showing that vB_StyS_KFSST1 exhibited ANI values over 95% similarity with KFS-SE2, VS47Z, and VB_StyS_B55 (Fig. 5). According to the accepted ANI threshold for species delineation in phages (Adriaenssens and Brister, 2017; Valencia-Toxqui and Ramsey, 2024), these results indicate species-level clustering. Lower ANI values were observed with phages
belonging to different genera or different host strain such as *Escherichia coli*, reinforcing
the distinct genomic relatedness of vB_StyS_KFSST1 within the *Skatevirus* group.

306 Phylogenetic and taxonomic analyses demonstrated that vB StyS KFSST1 belongs to the same species group as Salmonella phages KFS-SE2, VSt472, and VB_StyS_B55 307 308 within the genus *Skatevirus*. Although vB_StyS_KFSST1 is genetically closely related to 309 these Salmonella phages, it exhibits distinct phenotypic characteristics. Among the genetically related phages, KFS-SE2 has been reported to specifically infect S. Enteritidis, 310 showing no lytic activity against S. Typhimurium (Choi et al., 2019). Similarly, PSH-1, 311 312 a phage closely related to VSt472 with >99% similarity, demonstrated lytic activity primarily against multidrug-resistant S. Enteritidis strains, but did not show any activity 313 against S. Typhimurium strains (Li et al., 2024). Although the phenotypic properties of 314 315 VB_StyS_B55 were not described, comparative genomic analysis with related phages 316 suggested that the dual serotype-specific activity of vB_StyS_KFSST1 differentiates it 317 from genetically related phages and highlights its potential as a distinct biocontrol 318 candidate.

319 **Conclusion**

This study assessed the functional and genomic features of Salmonella phage 320 321 vB_StyS_KFSST1 to determine its suitability as a candidate for a feed additive in poultry husbandry. The phage exhibited dual serotype-specific and efficient lytic activity against 322 S. Enteritidis and S. Typhimurium, which are two major serotypes associated with 323 324 poultry-related salmonellosis. Infection kinetics of the phage, marked by rapid adsorption and sustained inhibition of bacterial growth for up to 12 h, confirmed its high in vitro 325 326 efficacy. Additionally, genome analyses of vB_StyS_KFSST1 confirmed the absence of lysogenic-associated elements, antibiotic resistance genes, and virulence factors, 327

supporting its strict lytic nature and safety. Phylogenetic and ANI-based analyses assigned vB_StyS_KFSST1 to the genus *Skatevirus*, with distinct phenotypic features compared to closely related phages. These findings support the potential use of vB_StyS_KFSST1 as a safe and effective feed additive candidate for controlling *Salmonella* in poultry husbandry. Further *in vivo* validation will be essential to facilitate its practical application and regulatory approval in the livestock industry.

334

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338

339 Data availability

- 340 Complete genome sequence of vB_StyS_KFSST1 was deposited in the GenBank
- database under the accession number PV659140.

342

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- 502

503 Tables and Figures.

504 Table 1. Host range of vB_StyS_KFSST1

Bacterial strain ¹	Plaque formation ²	EOP ³
Salmonella enterica GOVDG-1 ⁴	+	0.98 ± 0.01^{ab}
S. enterica GORGM-1 ⁴	+	$0.97\pm0.02^{\rm b}$
S. enterica PLGS-1 ⁴	+	0.98 ± 0.01^{ab}
S. enterica CMCD-1 ⁴	_	
<i>S. enterica</i> PSCD-1 ⁴	_	
S. enterica PSGS-1 ⁴	_	
S. Typhimurium ATCC 13311	+	$1.00\pm0.00^{\mathrm{a}}$
S. Typhimurium ATCC 14028	+	1.00 ± 0.01^{ab}
S. Enteritidis ATCC 13076	+	$0.98\pm0.01^{\text{ab}}$
S. Dublin NCCP 13700	-	
S. Heidelberg NCCP 13698	-	
S. Infantis ATCC BAA-1675	-	
S. Kentucky ATCC 9263		
S. Montevideo NCCP 13704	-	
S. Newport NCCP 13686	-	
S. Panama NCCP 13694	_	
S. Thompson ATCC 8391	-	

505 **ab** Different letters indicate a significant difference at p < 0.05 (n = 3).

¹ATCC, American Type Culture Collection; NCCP, National Culture Collection for Pathogens.

507 2 +, formation of a clear plaque; –, no formation of a plaque.

508 ³ EOP, efficiency-of-plating. EOP \ge 0.50, strong lytic capacity; 0.01 \le EOP < 0.50, intermediate lytic capacity. EOP < 0.01, weak lytic capacity.

⁴ These environmental *Salmonella* isolates were previously described by Choe et al. (2023), and their

511 serotypes were predicted based on whole genome sequencing as S. Typhimurium (GOVDG-1, GORGM-1,

512 and PLGS-1), *S.* I 4,[5],12:i:- (PSGS-1), *S.* Kentucky (PSCD-1), and *S.* Montevideo (CMCD-1) (Kim et al., 2025b).

12-2227-Tail length tape measure protein43378-3572+Immunity to superinfectionMoron, auxi	Tail liary metabolic
4 3378-3572 + Immunity to superinfection Moron, auxi	liary metabolic
gene, and	host takeover
8 4281-4997 – Major tail protein	Tail
11 5782-6261 + HNH endonuclease DNA, RNA, met	and nucleotide
13 6636-7034 – Tail completion or Neck1 protein Cor	nnector
16 7745-8029 – Membrane protein Moron, auxi	liary metabolic
17 8062-8502 – Lipoprotein C	Other
19 8726-8986 + Anti-restriction protein Moron, auxi	liary metabolic
21 9616-10425 + ParB-like partition protein DNA, RNA, meta	and nucleotide
24 10957-11493 + RusA-like Holliday junction resolvase DNA, RNA, meta	, and nucleotide abolism
26 11820-12893 – Virion structural protein Head and	d packaging
27 12896-13366 – Head decoration Head and	d packaging
36 16439-16687 – Lar-like restriction alleviation protein Moron, auxi	liary metabolic
gene, and	host takeover
42 17604-18104 + HNH endonuclease DNA, KNA,	, and nucleotide
46 18784-19275 – Rz-like spanin I	vsis
48 19452-19682 – Holin	vsis
49 19679-20143 - Endolvsin	vsis
50 - 20133 - 20411 - Endolysin I	vsis
54 20135 20111 = Endoly511 =	d nackaging
$55 27701_24113 - Portal protein Head and$	d packaging
$63 25686-27110 - \text{Terminase large subunit} \qquad \qquad \text{Head and} \qquad \qquad$	d packaging
DNA, RNA.	and nucleotide
64 27113-27616 – HNH endonuclease meta	abolism
72 29642-29830 – Lar-like restriction alleviation protein gene, and	host takeover
80 31143-32633 + DNA primase DNA, RNA,	and nucleotide
meta DNA RNA	and nucleotide
83 33432-34418 – DNA primase DNA, KIVA,	abolism
NA 24458 25105 + UNIL endenvialence DNA, RNA,	, and nucleotide
of 54450-55105 Thinn endonaciease meta	abolism
88 37659-38597 + Exonuclease VIII DNA, RNA, meta	and nucleotide
90 39658-40140 + Single strand DNA-binding protein DNA, RNA, meta	and nucleotide
92 40182-42203 – Tail spike protein	Tail
93 42243-44729 – Tail protein	Tail
94 44659-45138 – Minor tail protein	Tail
95 45101-45571 – Minor tail protein	Tail
97 46216-46866 + Amidase L	ysis

515 Table 2. Annotation of open reading frames identified in the genome of vB_StyS_KFSST1



Fig. 1. Infection kinetics of vB_StyS_KFSST1 against S. Enteritidis and S.
Typhimurium.

- 554 Symbols indicate bacterial growth with (\blacktriangle, \circ) or without (\triangle, \bullet) phage infection.
- 555 Values are expressed as mean \pm standard deviation (n = 3).
- 556 557

558



- 560561 Fig. 2. Genome map of vB_StyS_KFSST1.
- 562 The arrows with different colors indicate the locations of predicted ORFs and functional
- 563 categories.



578 Salmonella strains and vB_StyS_KFSST1.

Resistance genes were predicted using ResFinder and CARD, while virulence factors were determined using
 VFDB. Color intensity indicates percentage identity to reference sequences.



Fig. 4. Phylogenetic analysis of vB_StyS_KFSST1 based on the genome BLAST distance phylogeny (GBDP) method.

Colored squares represent family and genus classification, as well as genome size. Green squares represent phages classified under unclassified families, and circles indicate subfamilies. Bootstrap values from 100 replicates are shown, with values greater than 50% indicated.



Fig. 5. Heatmap of average nucleotide identity (ANI) values among vB_StyS_KFSST1 and related phages.

Darker blue squares indicate higher nucleotide identity between phage genomes, while ANI values less than 75% were not determined and are shown as white squares.