Depletion of m⁶A-RNA in *Escherichia coli* reduces the infectious potential of T5 bacteriophage

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Abstract

N^6-methyladenosine (m^{6}A) is the most abundant internal modification of mRNA in eukaryotes that plays, among other mechanisms, an essential role in virus replication. However, the understanding of m^{6}A RNA modification in prokaryotes, especially in relation to phage replication, is limited. To address this knowledge gap, we investigated the effects of m^{6}A RNA modification on phage replication in two model organisms: *Vibrio campbellii* BAA-1116 (previously *V. harveyi* BB120) and *Escherichia coli* MG1655. An m^{6}A-RNA depleted *V. campbellii* mutant ($\Delta rlmF\Delta rlmJ$) did not differ from the wild type in the induction of lysogenic phages or in susceptibility to the lytic Virtus phage. In contrast, the infection potential of the T5 phage, but not that of other T phages or the lambda phage, was reduced in an m^{6}A-RNA depleted *E. coli* mutant ($\Delta rlmF\Delta rlmJ$) compared to the wild type. This was shown by a lower efficiency of plaquing and a higher percentage of surviving cells. There were no differences in T5 phage adsorption rate, but the mutant exhibited a 5 min delay in the rise period during the one-step growth curve. This is the first report demonstrating that *E. coli* cells with lower m^{6}A RNA levels have a higher chance of surviving T5 phage infection.

Importance

The importance of RNA modifications has been thoroughly studied in the context of eukaryotic viral infections. However, their role in bacterial hosts during phage infections is largely unexplored. Our research delves into this gap by investigating the effect of host m^{6}A-RNA modifications during phage infection. We found that an *E. coli* mutant depleted of m^{6}A-RNA is more resistant to T5 infection than the wild type. This finding emphasizes the need to further investigate how RNA modifications affect the fine-tuned regulation of individual bacterial survival in the presence of phages to ensure population survival.

Introduction

Chemical modifications of RNA molecules are reversible and dynamic and influence their fate and many cellular processes (1). Of the numerous RNA modifications discovered to date, the eukaryotic m6A modification machinery and its presence in host and viral RNA are especially well-studied and provide a potential target for antiviral therapeutics (1–7). However, despite the wealth of knowledge regarding m6A-RNA modification in eukaryotes and eukaryotic viruses, the potential implications of m6A-RNA modifications in bacteria are limited and in relation to bacteriophages (phages) are still largely unexplored.

Phages are prokaryotic viruses that infect bacteria and use them as hosts to propagate. They are ubiquitous and known to be highly abundant in various natural ecosystems such as soil and water, in addition to the human microbiome (8). Their varied and omnipresent lifecycles reflect their complex interactions with bacterial hosts, which influence their population, virulence and evolution (9). These complex interactions have attracted considerable research interest related to the intricate fine-tuning between hosts and phages. For example, phage-encoded transfer RNAs (tRNAs) are modified like the corresponding host tRNAs, suggesting that they are processed by the same host enzymes (10). Similarly, another study showed that the bacterial toxin CmdT (part of the toxin–antitoxin–chaperone system) acts as an ADP-ribosyltransferase that modifies phage mRNA to block protein translation (11). Thus, as with most eukaryotic viruses, RNA modifications in phages may be performed by host enzymes and may have pro- or anti-viral functions.

Adenosine methylation at the nitrogen (N^6-methyladenosine - m6A) is present in all types of *Escherichia coli* RNA (12), however, the methyltransferases are only well documented for ribosomal RNA (rRNA) and tRNA. In *E. coli*, 23S rRNA molecules are methylated at nucleotides A1618 and A2030 by RlmF and RlmJ, respectively (13, 14). In addition, the valine-specific tRNA is methylated at nucleotide A37 by TrmM (YfiC) (15). Notable, RlmF is a structural homolog of METTL16, a mRNA methyltransferase in eukaryotes (16). Overexpression of *rlmF* leads to a slight growth defect in *E. coli* (13), whereas deletion of *rlmJ* leads to a higher growth rate under anaerobic conditions (14). Single deletions of either *rlmF* or *rlmJ* do not interfere with ribosome assembly or influence the growth rate in *E. coli* (17). RlmJ is conserved in the phylum Proteobacteria, whereas RlmF is predominantly found in the class *Gammaproteobacteria* (17). Consequently, RlmF, RlmJ and TrmM are well conserved in the marine bacterium *Vibrio campbellii* BAA-1116 (previously known as *Vibrio harveyi* BB120), a model organism for quorum sensing (18). Our previous work with *V. campbellii* has

shown the presence of four intact prophages in the *V. campbellii* genome, two of which can be

activated under oxidative (mitomycin C) and heat stress (19).

To explore the potential role of m^{6}A-RNA modification in lysogenic and lytic phages, we tested

V. campbellii and *E. coli* m^{6}A-RNA depletion mutants lacking both *rlmF* and *rlmJ,* which

encode the major m^{6}A rRNA methyltransferases. We started our study by the induction of

lysogenic phages in *V. campbellii* and could show that m^{6}A modification has no significant

effect on the prophage induction. We then searched for lytic phages that showed different

infection efficiency in the m^{6}A-RNA depleted mutants. We identified bacteriophage T5, whose

infectious potential was reduced in the m^{6}A-RNA depleted *E. coli* mutant, resulting in higher

host survival.

Results

m^{6}A-RNA depletion in *V. campbellii* does not affect prophage induction or susceptibility

to a lytic phage

V. campbellii has four intact prophages in its genomes (19). Prophages are viral DNA segments

that have integrated into the host genome (also called lysogen) and provide a competitive

advantage to the host (20). In *V. campbellii*, ΦHAP-1-like prophage and *Vibrio* kappa-like

prophage are triggered into their lytic cycle under oxidative or heat stress (19). Prophage

induction triggers a transition from the lysogenic to the lytic cycle, resulting in the activation

of dormant viral DNA and subsequent viral replication and host cell lysis. Knowing the effects

of oxidative and heat stress on prophage induction in the wild type of *V. campbellii*, we wanted

to determine whether the m^{6}A-RNA depleted mutant (Δ*rlmF*Δ*rlmJ*) shows a different response.

Deletion of *rlmF* and *rlmJ* in *V. campbellii,* which encode the two m^{6}A-specific rRNA

methyltransferases, resulted, in a decrease of 96.5 % in m^{6}A levels of the tRNA-depleted

mRNA and rRNA fraction (Fig. 1A).

First, we tested the role of m^{6}A-RNA on lysogeny. We exposed the wild type and the

Δ*rlmF*Δ*rlmJ* mutant to mitomycin C and monitored the cell lysis caused by phage release over

time. At 2.5 hours after exposure to mitomycin C, a greater extent of cell lysis was observed in

the Δ*rlmF*Δ*rlmJ* mutant compared to the wild type, but the effect was not statistically significant

(Fig. 1B). In parallel, we developed an assay for the quantification of phage particles. For this

purpose, we raised antibodies against two major capsid proteins, one for the Vibrio kappa-like

prophage and one for the ΦHAP-1-like prophage (VIBHAR_05027 and VIBHAR_01983).

Using an indirect ELISA assay, we found a slightly higher concentration of the capsid protein

of the Vibrio kappa-like prophage, indicating a higher release of phage particles from the m^{6}A-

RNA depleted mutant of *V. campbellii* compared to the wild type after exposure to mitomycin C

(Fig. 1C) and heat stress (Fig. 1D). Although this difference was restored in the complemented

mutant ($\Delta\Delta$-compl.), in which the two genes were chromosomally reintegrated (Fig. 1C and D),

the effect was not statistically significant. In the untreated cells, a low level of capsid proteins

was observed due to spontaneous induction of prophages (Fig.1C and D).

Under both oxidative and heat stress, we detected higher levels of the capsid protein of the

ΦHAP-1-like prophage, indicating a greater release of phages (Fig. 1C and D). However, we

could not detect any difference between the wild type, the m^{6}A-RNA depleted mutant, or the

complemented mutant (Fig. 1C and C).

We then tested whether the m^{6}A-RNA modification has an effect during lytic phage infection

(Fig. 1E). The availability of the vibriophage Virtus, which is capable of infecting a broad range

of *Vibrio* spp. (including *V. campbellii*) (21), provided the unique opportunity to evaluate its

infectivity for *V. campbellii* wild type and its Δ*rlmF*Δ*rlmJ* mutant. We tested the efficiency of

plaquing by phage Virtus after infection of exponentially grown *V. campbellii* wild type, its

Δ*rlmF*Δ*rlmJ* mutant and the complemented mutant ($\Delta\Delta$-compl.). However, infectivity by

Virtus was comparable for all three strains (Fig. 1E). We also tested the efficiency of plaquing

by phage Virtus after infection of stationary phase cells of the *V. campbellii* strains, but could

not detect any difference (data not shown).

FIG 1 The effect of m⁶A depletion in *V. campbellii* ATCC BAA1116 on the induction of lysogenic phages and susceptibility to lytic Virtus phage. (A) Quantitative analysis of m⁶A related to 1000 A (adenosine) of isolated rRNA+mRNA from *V. campbellii* and its Δ*rlmF*Δ*rlmJ* mutant. (B) The indicated strains were grown to the exponential growth phase and exposed to 1 μg/mL mitomycin C (MC) for 30 minutes. Afterwards, cells were resuspended in fresh medium and optical density (OD_{600}) was monitored over time. (C and D) Lysogenic phages were induced in the indicated strains with 1 μg/mL mitomycin C (MC) for 30 minutes (C) or heat at 45°C for 30 minutes (D). Culture supernatants were collected 2 hours after induction and subjected to indirect ELISA to estimate the release of Vibrio kappa-like prophages and ΦHAP-1-like prophages. (E) The indicated strains were grown to the exponential growth phase and infected with phage Virtus. The graph shows the efficiency of plaquing (EOP), which is calculated by dividing the number of plaques obtained from the mutant by the number of plaques obtained from the wild type. The EOP of the wild type was set to 100. Data are presented as the mean ± standard deviation of at least three independent experiments. **** $p < 0.0001$ (Student's *t*-test).

128 In summary, the m⁶A-RNA modification had no effect on prophage induction or replication of

129 the lytic Virtus phage in *V. campbellii.*

m⁶A-RNA depletion in *E. coli* affects bacteriophage T5 infection

Since further exploration of the role of m⁶A RNA modification in *V. campbellii* has been

hampered by the lack of easily available lytic phages, we proceeded with *E. coli*, which,

although containing cryptic prophages in its genome (22), offers a diverse array of well-

characterized lytic phages (23). An m⁶A-RNA depleted mutant (Δ*rlmF*Δ*rlmJ*) *E. coli* MG1655,

which has a reduction in the m⁶A-RNA level comparable to that of *V. campbellii* (Fig. 1A), and

a complemented mutant were already available (24).

FIG 2 Depletion of m⁶A-RNA in *E. coli* and its effect on infection by different lytic phages. *E. coli* wild

type and the Δ*rlmF*Δ*rlmJ* mutant were grown to an OD₆₀₀ = 0.5 before infection with the different

phages. The efficiency of plaquing (EOP) was calculated by dividing the number of plaque forming

units (PFU) of the Δ*rlmF*Δ*rlmJ* mutant by the number of PFU of the wild type (25). The EOP of the

wild type was set to 100. Data are presented as the mean ± standard error of at least two independent

experiments. ** $p < 0.01$ (Student's *t*-test). ns, not significant. The primary receptors, phage families

and order are indicated below the diagram.

We screened the most prominent lytic phages for *E. coli,* five of the "T-phages" (23, 26) and

the bacteriophage λ (27), for their infection potential of the Δ*rlmF*Δ*rlmJ* mutant compared to

the wild type (Fig. 2). All phages tested are double-stranded DNA phages belonging to the order
Caudovirales and characterized by their tail and icosahedral head (28). They represent three
families with different specificity for bacterial host receptors (29) **(**Fig. 2).

Of all lytic phages tested, the T5 phage showed significantly reduced plaque formation in the
m^6A-RNA depleted $\Delta rlmF\Delta rlmJ$ mutant compared to the wild type, an effect that was not found
with the other phages (Fig. 2).

FIG 3 The effect of the growth phase of *E. coli* on T5 phage infection. (A and B) *E. coli* wild type, the
$\Delta rlmF\Delta rlmJ$ mutant and the complemented mutant ($\Delta\Delta$-compl.) were infected in the exponential growth
phase ($OD_{600} = 0.5$) (A) or stationary phase ($OD_{600} = 1.5$) (B). The efficiency of plaquing was calculated
as in Fig. 2. Data are presented as the mean ± standard deviation of three independent experiments. **
$p < 0.01$ (Student's *t*-test). ns, not significant.

In a more detailed study, we analyzed the infection by T5 phage at different growth stages of
E. coli (Fig. 3). The number of plaques was always lower in the $\Delta rlmF\Delta rlmJ$ mutant compared
to the wild type regardless of the growth phase, an effect that was no longer observed in the
complemented mutant ($\Delta\Delta$-compl.) (Fig. 3). Thus, the lower infection potential of T5 phage is
due to the absence of the m^6A RNA modification.

m^6A-RNA depletion increases survival of *E. coli* after bacteriophage T5 infection

The reduced efficiency of plaquing of bacteriophage T5 found for the $\Delta rlmF\Delta rlmJ$ mutant
compared to wild-type *E. coli* (Fig. 2 and 3), prompted us to monitor the survival of both strains
at different multiplicities of infection (MOI), which represent the ratio of T5 bacteriophage
particles to bacterial cells. In the control experiment (Fig. 4A), bacterial cells proliferated and
no lysis was observed. However, the addition of T5 phage resulted in lysis of bacterial cells

(Fig. 4B to E), confirming that the observed phenomenon was a consequence of phage infection. Infection of the exponentially grown *E. coli* wild type and the m⁶A-RNA depleted mutant with T5 phage at an MOI of 10 or 1 led to the complete collapse of both populations, with earlier collapse at an MOI of 10 (Fig. 4B and C). In both strains, the excess of T5 phage led to rapid cell death. Similarly, infection at an MOI of 0.1 resulted in earlier collapse of both populations than at an MOI of 0.01 (Fig. 4D and E). Strain-specific differences during infection with T5 phage became evident at an MOI of 0.01 (Fig. 4E). The m⁶A-RNA depleted mutant (Δ*rlmF*Δ*rlmJ*) survived approximately 3 hours longer than the wild type before dramatic cell lysis occurred (Fig. 4E). Furthermore, the cells of the mutant population survived the infection better than the wild type, as about twice as many cells were not lysed (Fig. 4E).

FIG 4 Survival of *E. coli* wild type and Δ*rlmF*Δ*rlmJ* mutant after bacteriophage T5 infection at different MOIs. (A-E) *E. coli* wild type and Δ*rlmF*Δ*rlmJ* mutant were grown to exponential growth phase in Nutrient broth. About $2*10^8$ cells (CFUs) were noninfected (A) or infected with T5 phage at MOI of 10 (B), 1 (C), 0.1 (D) and 0.01 (E). The mixtures were transferred to 96-well plates (150 μL per well) and the OD_{600} was measured every 10 min at 37 °C with continuous shaking. (F) *E. coli* strains were infected

with T5 phage at MOI of 10. Single cells were monitored by phase contrast time-lapse microscopy,

imaged every 2 min, and the percentage of surviving cells after 2.5 hours was determined. A total of

2,080 wild-type and 1,923 $\Delta rlmF\Delta rlmJ$ E. coli cells were quantified at time point 2.5 h post-infection.

Data are presented as the mean ± standard error (A-D) or as mean ± standard deviation of the mean (F)

of three independent biological replicates.

In addition, we analyzed the time-dependent lysis of the bacteria after T5 infection using phase-

contrast time-lapse microscopy. Exponential phase *E. coli* wild type and $\Delta rlmF\Delta rlmJ$ mutant

were infected with T5 phage at an MOI of 10 to ensure synchronous phage infection or with

nutrient broth as a control. After adsorption for 10 min, samples were spotted on an agarose pad

and imaged up to 3 hours post-infection. A significantly higher proportion of cells from the

$\Delta rlmF\Delta rlmJ$ population survived after 2.5 hours of T5 infection compared to the *E. coli* wild-

type population (Fig. 4F). This result is consistent with the survival experiments (Fig. 4E).

m⁶A-RNA depletion in *E. coli* does not affect T5 phage absorption but diminishes its

infection potential

To further investigate T5 phage-host interactions, we investigated adsorption of T5 to *E. coli*

wild type and $\Delta rlmF\Delta rlmJ$ mutant (Fig. 5A). We observed similar adsorption rates of T5 phage

to both host strains, with at least 60 % adsorption within 15 min and 85 % adsorption within 25

min (Fig. 5A). These results suggest that the higher percentage of surviving cells observed in

the m⁶A-RNA depleted mutant after T5 phage infection is likely not due to differences in

binding to host cells, but is instead related to processes that occur after virus-receptor

interaction.

To test this, one-step growth curves were performed with the *E. coli* wild type and the

$\Delta rlmF\Delta rlmJ$ mutant, with the aim to characterize the dynamics of T5 phage replication. In

particular, this analysis allowed us to determine (i) the latent period, the time for production of

phage components and virion assembly until phage-induced lysis of infected cells, (ii) the rise

period, which includes the rise in phage concentration and asynchronous bursts, and (iii) the

burst size, a measure of phage virions produced per infected cell (Fig. 5B). For both strains, the

latent period was observed to be 45 min, followed by a rise period for another 45 min, followed

by a burst period (Fig. 5B). In the $\Delta rlmF\Delta rlmJ$ mutant, a significant delay in the increase of the

phage titer was observed during the rise period compared to the wild type, which was

particularly evident at the 60- and 75-minute time points. This period indicates the rise in phage

number due to the release of progeny phage particles by lysis of infected bacterial cells. In addition, the burst size for the *E. coli* wild type was 364 phages compared to 339 phages for the Δ*rlmF*Δ*rlmJ* mutant, a reduction of approximately 7 % per infection cycle. These results suggest that the m[6]A-RNA depleted mutant releases progressively fewer phages over multiple rounds of infection, explaining the higher survival rates (Fig. 4E and F) and the lower number of PFU in the mutant (Fig. 3).

FIG 5 Characterization of T5 phage infection in *E. coli* wild type and Δ*rlmF*Δ*rlmJ* mutant. (A) Adsorption kinetics of T5 phage to wild type and m[6]A-RNA depleted mutant *E. coli* at MOI 0.1. Free phages were collected at the indicated time points after infection (0 min), and the concentration of free phages was determined using plaque assays. (B) One-step growth curve of T5 phage determined for wild type and m[6]A-RNA depleted mutant at MOI 0.01. Data are presented as the mean ± standard deviation of at least three independent experiments * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; **** $p < 0.0001$ (paired Student´s t-test).

Discussion

In eukaryotes, m[6]A-RNA modifications are crucial for viral infection and host innate antiviral immunity (30). The effect of this modification is highly dependent on the particular virus and cell types involved, leading to either enhancement or inhibition of viral replication in eukaryotes (30).

To date, there are only a few examples of RNA related modifications known that are important in the context of phage replication (31). Adenosine diphosphate (ADP)-ribosyltransferases (ARTs) of the T4 phage post-translationally modify host proteins with ADP-ribose from the substrate NAD (32, 33). A recent study reported that one of these enzymes, ModB, accepts not

only NAD^+ but also NAD^+-capped RNA as a substrate (34). Thereby, RNA chains are
covalently attached to host proteins in a process, called RNAylation. T4 phages with inactive
ModB are characterized by delayed lysis and a reduced number of progenies. The first internal
mRNA modification has been described by the group of Michael Laub. They found that the
ART CmdT modifies the N^6 position of adenine in GA dinucleotides within single-stranded
RNAs leading to an arrest of mRNA translation and inhibition of T4 phage replication (11).

Here, we found that plaquing efficiency of the T5 phage was significantly reduced in a m^6A-
RNA depleted *E. coli* mutant compared to the wild type (Fig. 2 and 3). Consequently, more
cells of the mutant survived infection with the T5 phage (Fig. 4). Similarly, the lack of the m^6A
reader/writer YTHDF2 and the m^6A writer METTL3 in eukaryotic BSC40 cell lines attenuates
the replication of dsDNA simian vacuolating virus 40 (SV40) (35).

Since T5 phage efficiently adsorbed to both the wild type and m^6A-RNA depleted mutant of
E. coli (Fig. 5A), the greater bacterial survival of the mutant likely resulted from changes during
the steps after virus receptor interaction. The one-step growth curve showed a 5-min delay in
the rise period of the m^6A-RNA depleted mutant, which was particularly significant at the 60-
and 75-min time points (Fig. 5B). This slight delay in the rise period during T5 phage infection
may indicate a delay in phage assembly and/or host cell lysis. Strikingly, when analyzing the
behavior of single cells, we observed a substantial diversification of the population during T5
phage infection. A larger proportion of m^6A-RNA depleted cells survived the infection
compared to the wild type. In addition, approximately 30% of wild-type cells resisted lysis
(Fig. 4F). We hypothesize that the degree of m^6A-RNA modification of *E. coli* is heterogeneous
and fine-tunes the infection of individual cells by the T5 phage.

In this study, it was shown for the first time that m^6A-RNA modification of *E. coli* fine-tunes
the replication of T5 bacteriophage. Host cells with lower m^6A levels have a higher chance of
surviving phage infection. We hypothesize that a heterogeneous m^6A modification level in
individual cells of the *E. coli* population provides a survival advantage because a subset of the
population with lower m^6A modification levels can escape phage infection and lysis.

Materials and methods

Strains, plasmids and oligonucleotides

The bacterial strains, bacteriophage strains and plasmids used in this study are listed in Table 1. Oligonucleotide sequences are listed in Table 2.

Table 1: Bacterial strains, bacteriophages and plasmids used in this study

Strain	Genotype	Reference
V. campbellii ATCC BAA-1116	*V. campbellii* wild type	(18)
V. campbellii Δ*rlmJ*	Deletion of *rlmJ* in *V. campbellii*	This work
V. campbellii Δ*rlmF*Δ*rlmJ*	Deletion of *rlmJ* and *rlmF* in *V. campbellii*	This work
V. campbellii Δ*rlmF*Δ*rlmJ* +	Insertion of *rlmJ* in *V. campbellii* Δ*rlmF*Δ*rlmJ*	This work
V. campbellii ΔΔ-compl.	Insertion of *rlmF* in the *glmS* region of *V. campbellii* Δ*rlmF*Δ*rlmJ*+	This work
V. harveyi VH2	GenBank: LGYS00000000	(36)
E. coli WM3064	*thrB*1004 *pro thi rpsL hsdS lacZ*ΔM15 RP4-1360 Δ(*araBAD*)567 Δ*dapA*1341::[*erm pir*]	W. Metcalf, Univ. of Illinois, Urbana
E. coli BL21 (DE3)	F⁻ *ompT gal dcm lon hsdS_B* (r_B⁻ m_B⁻) λ(DE3)	(37)
E. coli DH5αλpir	*endA1 hsdR17 glnV44* (= *supE44*) *thi-1 recA1 gyrA96 relA1* φ80d*lac*Δ(*lacZ*)M15 Δ(*lacZYA-argF*)U169 *zdg-232*::Tn10 *uidA*::*pir*+	(38)
E. coli MG1655	K-12 F⁻ λ⁻ *ilvG⁻ rfb-50 rph-1*	(22)
E. coli MG1655Δ*rlmF*Δ*rlmJ*	Deletion of *rlmJ* and *rlmF* in *E. coli*	(24)
E. coli MG1655 ΔΔ-compl.	Insertion of *rlmF* and *rlmJ* in *E. coli* Δ*rlmF*Δ*rlmJ*	(24)
E. coli strain B	DSM 613	German Collection of Microorganisms and Cell Cultures GmbH (DSMZ)
E. coli DSM 4230	DSM 4230	(39)
Bacteriophage strain	**Identifier**	**Source**
Virtus phage	GenBank: OK381870	(21)
T3 phage	DSM 4621; GenBank: NC_047864.1	German Collection of Microorganisms and Cell Cultures GmbH (DSMZ)

T4 phage	DSM 4505; GenBank: AF158101.6	German Collection of Microorganisms and Cell Cultures GmbH (DSMZ)
T5 phage	DSM 16353; GenBank: AY543070.1	German Collection of Microorganisms and Cell Cultures GmbH (DSMZ)
T6 phage	DSM 4622; GenBank: MH550421.1	German Collection of Microorganisms and Cell Cultures GmbH (DSMZ)
T7 phage	DSM 4623; GenBank: NC_001604.1	German Collection of Microorganisms and Cell Cultures GmbH (DSMZ)
λ(lambda)phage	DSM 4499; GenBank: J02459.1	German Collection of Microorganisms and Cell Cultures GmbH (DSMZ)
Plasmid	**Genotype**	**Reference**
pNTPS138-R6KT	$mobRP4^+$ ori-R6K $sacB$; suicide plasmid for in-frame deletions, Km^R	(40)
pNPTS138-R6KT-KO-*rlmF*	pNPTS-138-R6KT-derived suicide plasmid for in-frame deletion of *rlmF* in *V. campbellii,* Km^R	This work
pNPTS138-R6KT-KO-*rlmJ*	pNPTS-138-R6KT-derived suicide plasmid for in-frame deletion of *rlmJ* in *V. campbellii,* Km^R	This work
pNPTS138-R6KT-KI-*rlmJ*	pNPTS-138-R6KT-derived suicide plasmid for insertion of *rlmJ* in *V. campbellii* Δ*rlmF*Δ*rlmJ,* Km^R	This work
pNPTS138-R6KT-*glmS*flank-*rlmF*-KI	pNPTS-138-R6KT-derived suicide plasmid for insertion of *rlmF* in the *glmS* region in *V. campbellii* Δ*rlmF*Δ*rlmJ* +, Km^R	This work
pET28a	Expression vector, Km^R	Novagen
pET28a-V05027	N-terminal His$_6$-tagged *VIBHAR_05027, phage major capsid protein* under the control of the T7 promoter, Km^R	This work
pET28a-V01983	N-terminal His$_6$-tagged *VIBHAR_01983, phage major capsid protein* under the control of the T7 promoter, Km^R	This work

284   Table 2: Primers used in this study.

Name	Sequence
rlmF_FL_up_fwd	5'-ctggcgccaagcttctctgcaggatgagaaacctaagatgaaagtcttgc-3'
rlmF_FL_OL_rev	5'-ctttaattcaatccaggctttgcgcgcgttgtgattattggtcttcatt-3'
rlmF_FL_OL_fwd	5'-aatgaagaccaataatcacaacgcgcgcaaagcctggattgaattaaag-3'
rlmF_FL_down_rev	5'-gaagctagcgaattcgtggatccagatggctttcagaggcaaaaatcatggc-3'
rlmJ_FL_up_fwd	5'-ctggcgccaagcttctctgcaggatctggtccagcttgggtttgcgttg-3'
rlmJ_FL_OL_rev	5'-tattcaggaacgatccagtcgactttgaagctgtggcggtaacttaacaaa-3'
rlmJ_FL_OL_fwd	5'-tttgttaagttaccgccacagcttcaaagtcgactggatcgttcctgaata-3'
rlmJ_FL_down_rev	5'-agctagcgaattcgtggatccagatgaagaacttggtttcaccagacag-3'
M13_rev	5'-caggaaacagctatgacc-3'
M13_uni	5'-tgtaaaacgacggccagt-3'
rlmJ_check_F	5'-gaccaaatgcggctcaagc-3'
rlmJ_check_R	5'-gctttgacgatggcagcacg-3'
rlmF_check_F	5'-gtgggcatttgtctttgac-3'
rlmF_check_R	5'-caattgaccaatcttggcg-3'
pNPTS_glmS_Fwd	5´- ctggcgccaagcttctctgcaggatgccgcagcaaatcaacgcagcgctg-3´
glmS_rlmF_Rev	5´- gactttcatcttaggtttctcaaaaaagcgaagtcatgtgacttcg-3´
rlmF_glmS_Fwd	5´-gtaattatttagagaaagctatacccgtatatctactgacattgttatcttgttatac-3´
glmS_pNPTS_Rev	5´- gctagcgaattcgtggatccagatcatcaacgaaaccgagatcattgag-3´
glmS_rlmF_Fwd	5´-cgaagtcacatgacttcgcttttttgagaaacctaagatgaaagtc-3´
rlmF_glmS_Rev	5´-gtataacaagataacaatgtcagtagatatacgggtatagctttctctaaataattac-3´
VC_glmS_check_F	5´- gccttcacgactcagctctc-3´
VC_glmS_check_R	5´- cgagacactttacaaccaac-3´
V05027-EcoRI-fwd	5´-tagccgaattcatgcttaatgccgtatcgactc-3´
V05027-Xhol-rev	5´-tagccctcgagttacccccttcgcagattcaacaacg-3´
V01983-EcoRI-fwd	5´-tagccgaattcatgcctgataattacaccactcg-3`
V01983-Xhol-rev	5´-tagccctcgagttaaccgactttgacgacaacaa-3´
pET28a_check_F	5´-aagtggcgagcccgatcttcc-3´
pET28a_check_R	5´-gatatagttcctcctttcagc-3´

Plasmid and bacterial strain construction

Molecular methods were carried out according to the manufacturers' instructions.

Chromosomal DNA isolation, plasmid isolation and PCR product clean-up kits were purchased

from Süd-Laborbedarf Gauting (SLG) (Gauting, Germany). Enzymes and HiFi DNA Assembly

Master Mix were purchased from New England BioLabs (Ipswich, MA, USA).

Construction of the marker-less double deletion mutant *V. campbellii* Δ*rlmF*Δ*rlmJ* was

achieved using the suicide plasmids pNPTS138-R6KT-KO-*rlmJ* and pNPTS138-R6KT-KO-

rlmF. Briefly, 600-bp regions upstream and downstream of *rlmJ* or *rlmF* were amplified by

PCR using genomic DNA from *V. campbellii* as a template. The primers rlmJ_FL_up_fwd and

rlmJ_FL_OL_rev were used for the upstream fragment of *rlmJ;* rlmJ_FL_OL_fwd and

rlmJ_FL_down_rev rev for the downstream fragment of *rlmJ*; rlmF_FL_up_fwd and

rlmF_FL_OL_rev for the upstream fragment of *rlmF*; and rlmF_FL_OL_fwd and

rlmF_FL_down_rev for the downstream fragment of *rlmF*. After purification, the PCR

fragments were cloned by Gibson assembly (41) into the suicide plasmid pNPTS138-R6KT,

which was first linearized by digestion with EcoRV. The correct plasmids were verified by

colony PCR and sequencing using primers M13_rev and M13_uni.

The suicide plasmid pNPTS138-R6KT-KO-*rlmJ* was next introduced into wild-type

V. campbellii by conjugative mating using *E. coli* WM3064 as a donor in LB medium

containing diaminopimelic acid (DAP) as previously described (42). Briefly, single-crossover

integration mutants were selected on LM plates that contained kanamycin but lacked DAP.

Single colonies were grown for two days without antibiotics and plated on LB containing 10%

(w/v) sucrose to select for plasmid excision. Kanamycin-sensitive colonies were checked for

gene deletion by colony PCR using primers bracketing the deletion sites. Deletion of *rlmJ* was

verified by colony PCR and sequencing using the primers rlmJ_check_F and rlmJ_check_R.

rlmF was then deleted through the introduction of the suicide plasmid pNPTS138-R6KT-KO-

rlmF into *V. campbellii* Δ*rlmJ* via conjugative mating using *E. coli* WM3064 as a donor as

described above. Deletion of *rlmF* was verified by colony PCR and sequencing using the

primers rlmF_check_F and rlmF_check_R.

Complementation of the *rlmJ* deletion in *V. campbellii* Δ*rlmF*Δ*rlmJ* was achieved with the

suicide plasmid pNPTS138-R6KT-KI-*rlmJ*. Briefly, *rlmJ* and 600-bp upstream and

downstream flanking regions were amplified by PCR using genomic DNA

from *V. campbellii* as a template and the primers rlmJ_FL_up_fwd and rlmJ_FL_down_rev.

After purification, the 2030-bp long PCR fragment was cloned by Gibson assembly (41) into

the suicide plasmid pNPTS138-R6KT, which was linearized by digestion with EcoRV. The

correct plasmids were verified by colony PCR and sequencing using primers M13_rev and

M13_uni. Construction of the suicide plasmid pNPTS138-R6KT-*glmS*flank-*rlmF*-KI was

slightly different due to the presence of transposable elements in the vicinity of the gene.

Briefly, the regions surrounding *glmS* and *rlmF* (600 bp upstream and 24 bp downstream) were

amplified to generate the suicide plasmid pNPTS138-R6KT-*glmS*flank-*rlmF* using *V.*

campbellii genomic DNA as a template. Primer pairs used for amplification of *glmS* overhang

fragments were pNPTS_glmS_Fwd and glmS_rlmF_Rev (upstream of *rlmF*) and

rlmF_glmS_Fwd and glmS_pNPTS_Rev (downstream from *rlmF*). The primers

glmS_rlmF_Fwd and rlmF_glmS_Rev were used to amplify *rlmF*. These DNA fragments were

assembled via Gibson assembly (41) into the pNPTS138-R6KT plasmid linearized with

EcoRV. The plasmid was verified by colony PCR and sequencing using primers M13_rev and

M13_uni.

To complement Δ*rlmF*Δ*rlmJ*, the suicide plasmid pNPTS138-R6KT-KI-*rlmJ* was introduced into *V. campbellii* Δ*rlmF*Δ*rlmJ* by conjugative mating using *E. coli* WM3064 as a donor in LB medium containing DAP as described above. Insertion of *rlmJ* was verified by colony PCR and sequencing using the primers rlmJ_check_F and rlmJ_check_R. *rlmF* was then added via introduction of suicide plasmid pNPTS138-R6KT-*glmS*flank-*rlmF*-KI to *V. campbellii* Δ*rlmF*Δ*rlmJ*+ by conjugative mating with *E. coli* WM3064 as described above. Insertion of *rlmF* in the *glmS* region of *V. campbellii* was verified by colony PCR and sequencing using the primers VC_glmS_check_F and VC_glms_check_R.

To generate plasmids encoding N-terminal 6His-tagged versions of major capsid proteins from *Vibrio* kappa-like prophage and ΦHAP-1-like prophage (*VIBHAR_05027* and *VIBHAR_01983*, respectively), *V. campbellii* genomic DNA was used as a template with primers V05027-EcoRI-fwd and V05027-Xhol-rev (*VIBHAR_05027*) or V01983-EcoRI-fwd and V01983-Xhol-rev (*VIBHAR_01983*). These two genes were cloned into the pET-28a vector using EcoRI and XhoI as restriction sites; the presence of the correct insert was confirmed by colony PCR and sequencing using primers pET28a_check_F and pET28a_check_R.

Mass spectrometry (MS) analysis of mRNA and rRNA methylation in *V. campbellii*

To identify m^6A methylation of the rRNA and mRNA moieties in wild type and Δ*rlmF*Δ*rlmJ* mutant *V. campbellii*, total RNA was isolated and processed as previously described (12). In brief, *V. campbellii* cells were grown to an optical density at 600nm (OD_{600}) of 1 and harvested by centrifugation. Total RNA was isolated and tRNA was removed by size exclusion chromatography, resulting in a fraction containing mRNA and rRNA moieties. This RNA fraction was hydrolyzed and quantitatively analyzed by liquid chromatography-tandem MS (LC-MS/MS) (12).

Overproduction and purification of recombinant phage capsid proteins

E. coli BL21 (DE 3) was transformed with the vectors pET28a-V05027 and pET28a-V01983 to overexpress the major capsid proteins of *Vibrio* kappa-like prophage and ΦHAP-1-like prophage, respectively. Cells were cultivated in LB supplemented with kanamycin (50 mg/mL) at 37 °C to an OD_{600} of 0.5. Isopropyl-β-D-1-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG) (0.5 mM) was added to the culture to induce *VIBHAR_05027* or *VIBHAR_01983* expression at 37 °C for 2.5 h. Cells were harvested (5000 × *g*, 20 min, 4 °C), resuspended, and disrupted in ice-cold disruption buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl [pH 7.5], 10% (v/v) glycerol, 10 mM magnesium chloride, 1 mM dithiothreitol, 0.5 mM phenazine methosulfate [PMSF], 3 mg DNase and 100 mM NaCl)

using a high-pressure cell disrupter (Constant Systems Limited, Daventry, UK). Cell debris and intact cells were removed by centrifugation (5000 × g, 20 min, 4 °C) and the pellet was solubilized in 6 M urea and 10 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5) overnight with shaking at 4 °C. Any precipitates or unsolubilized aggregates were removed by ultracentrifugation (20,000 × g, 15 min, 4 °C) and the supernatant was loaded onto a Ni-nitrilotriacetic acid (NTA) column (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). After a washing step (6 M urea, 10 mM Tris-HCl [pH 7.5] and 40 mM imidazole), the recombinant protein was eluted with elution buffer (6 M urea, 10 mM Tris-HCl [pH 7.5] and 200 mM imidazole).

Generation of polyclonal rabbit antibodies against recombinant phage capsid proteins

Customized polyclonal rabbit antibodies against 6His-VIBHAR_05027 and 6His-VIBHAR_01983 were purchased from Kaneka Eurogentec (Seraing, Belgium). Heterologously produced and purified 6His-VIBHAR_05027 or 6His-VIBHAR_01983 were used as antigens in a Speedy 28-day Immunization Program with two rabbits per antigen as hosts. The specificity of the polyclonal antibodies against 6His-VIBHAR_05027 and 6His-VIBHAR_01983 was verified by western blot analysis as described below.

Sodium dodecyl sulphate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) and western blot analysis of 6His-VIBHAR_05027 and 6His-VIBHAR_01983

SDS-PAGE (43). Stacking gels consisted of 4% (w/v) acrylamide (in 50 mM Tris [pH 6.8]) and resolving gels of 12.5% (w/v) acrylamide (in 300 mM Tris [pH 8.8]) and were run in a Tris-glycine buffer (25 mM Tris, 192 mM glycine, 0.1% [w/v] SDS [pH 8.3]). Gels were stained overnight in Coomassie staining solution (0.25% [w/v] Coomassie Brilliant Blue R-250, 9.2% [v/v] concentrated acetic acid and 45.4% [v/v] ethanol) and destained in destaining solution (10% [v/v] acetic acid and 40% [v/v] ethanol).

Western blot analysis. Proteins were transferred to a nitrocellulose membrane using the Trans-Blot Turbo Transfer System (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA) and then blocked with 5% (w/v) milk powder prepared in Tris-buffered saline (TBS) (pH 7.6) containing 0.1% (v/v) Tween-20 (TBST) for 1 h at room temperature. 6His-VIBHAR_05027 and 6His-VIBHAR_01983 were detected by incubating the membrane in TBST with primary polyclonal antibodies (Kaneka Eurogentec, Seraing, Belgium) or primary monoclonal antibodies against the 6His-tag (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). Membranes were then incubated with the alkaline phosphatase-conjugated goat anti-rabbit IgG (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) and developed using substrate solution (50 mM sodium carbonate buffer [pH 9.5], 0.1% [w/v]

396 nitroblue tetrazolium and 5 mg/mL 5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indolyl phosphate). PageRuler

397 Prestained Protein ladder (10-180 kDa) (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) was

398 used as a size standard ladder.

Phage induction assays

Wild type, $\Delta rlmF\Delta rlmJ$ mutant and complemented mutant ($\Delta\Delta$-compl.) *V. campbellii* were

exposed to stress conditions to assess the effect of m^6A RNA modification on prophage

induction. Bacterial strains grown in LM medium to an OD_{600} of 0.4 were exposed to either

oxidative stress (by addition of 1 µg/mL mitomycin C), heat stress (45 °C) or neither (control).

After 30 min of oxidative stress, mitomycin C was removed from the sample by centrifugation

(5000 × *g*, 10 min, 4 °C) and the pellet was resuspended in fresh, pre-warmed LM medium.

After 30 min of heat stress, the samples were shifted to 30 °C. After 2 h of incubation under

physiological conditions, the supernatant containing the phage particles was collected (5000 ×

g,15 min, 4 °C), passed through a 0.22 µm Millipore Steriflip Vaccum filter (MilliporeSigma,

Burlington, MA, USA) and stored at 4 °C.

To follow cell lysis caused by the release of lysogenic phages, wild type, $\Delta rlmF\Delta rlmJ$ mutant

and complemented mutant ($\Delta\Delta$-compl.) *V. campbellii* were exposed to 1 µg/mL mitomycin C

after strains were grown in LM medium to an OD_{600} of 0.4. After 30 min of oxidative stress,

mitomycin C was removed from the sample by centrifugation (5000 × *g*, 10 min, 4 °C) and the

pellet was resuspended in fresh, pre-warmed LM medium. The mixtures were transferred to 96-

well plates (150 µL per well) and optical density (OD_{600}) was measured every 10 min using a

NanoQuant Infinite M200PRO plate reader (Tecan, Männedorf, Switzerland) at 37 °C with

continuous shaking.

Indirect enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA)

Indirect ELISA was performed according to described protocols (44, 45) with slight

modifications for the detection of the major capsid proteins of *Vibrio* kappa-like and ΦHAP-1-

like prophages from *V. campbellii*. In brief, 96-well F-bottom, polystyrene, chimney well,

black, medium binding microplates (Greiner Bio-One GmbH, Kremsmünster, Austria) were

coated with 100 µL of supernatant (derived from the phage induction assays described above)

and 0.05 M carbonate buffer (pH 9.6) and then incubated overnight at 4 °C. After washing three

times with TBST, each well of the plate was blocked with 200 µL of 5% (w/v) milk powder

prepared in TBST for 1 h at 30 °C. After washing three times with TBST, 100 µL of

VIBHAR_05027- or VIBHAR_01983-positive serum in 5% (w/v) milk powder with TBST was

added to each well and the plate was incubated for 1 h at 30 °C. After three washes with TBST,

100 µL of alkaline phosphatase-conjugated goat anti-rabbit IgG (Thermo Fisher Scientific,

Waltham, MA, USA) diluted in 5% (w/v) milk powder in TBST was added to each well,

followed incubation at 30 °C for 1 h and five washes with TBST. Subsequently, 100 µL of the

substrate para-nitrophenyl phosphate (PNPP) (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA)

was added to each well and incubated for 30 min in the dark. Last, 50 µL of 2 N sodium

hydroxide was added to each well to stop the reaction. The absorbance was immediately

measured at 405 nm in a NanoQuant Infinite M200PRO plate reader (Tecan, Mäannedorf,

Switzerland). All samples were analyzed in technical duplicates.

Standard curves generated with purified major capsid proteins were included in each ELISA

run to estimate the concentration of the two major capsid proteins in the sample.

Propagation and determination of phage titer using plaque assay

To obtain high-titer phage stocks, propagation of all phages mentioned in this work was

performed using the plate lysate method as described (46). The propagation host used for Virtus

phage was *V. harveyi* VH2; the λ phage host was *E. coli* DSM 4230; and the host for all T-

phages was *E. coli* B strain (DSM 613).

To determine the phage titer, a double agar overlay plaque assay was performed as described

(47). In brief, 100 µL of exponential-phase bacterial culture was mixed with 100 µL of diluted

phages in soft agar, which was then poured onto a solid medium. The plates were incubated

overnight and the number of plaques formed was counted to determine the titer.

Efficiency of plaquing (EOP)

449 EOP was determined after performing the plaque assay described above, using phage lysates to

450 infect wild type and Δ*rlmF*Δ*rlmJ* mutants of *V. campbellii* and *E. coli*. The EOP was calculated

451 by dividing the number of plaque forming units (PFU) of the Δ*rlmF*Δ*rlmJ* mutant by the number

452 of PFU of the wild type (25). The EOP of the wild type was set to 100.

Bacterial survival after T5 phage infection

E. coli wild type and Δ*rlmF*Δ*rlmJ* mutant were grown to exponential growth phase in Nutrient

broth (N7519, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA). Cells (about $2*10^8$ colony forming units

[CFU]/mL) were infected with T5 phage at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 10, 1, 0.1 or

0.01 to monitor host dynamics. Mixtures were transferred to 96-well plates (150 µL per well)

and optical density (OD_{600}) was measured every 10 min using a NanoQuant Infinite M200PRO

plate reader (Tecan, Männedorf, Switzerland) at 37 °C with continuous shaking.

Synchronized infection assay

461   The synchronized infection assay was performed as previously described (48, 49). *E. coli* wild

462   type and Δ*rlmF*Δ*rlmJ* mutant were grown as described above and infected with T5 phage at a

463   MOI of 10. Samples were collected at 0 min and 5 min after infection and immediately plated

464   for CFU enumeration. Three biologically independent infection experiments showing a CFU

465   reduction of at least 95% within 5 min of infection were considered as synchronized infection.

Time-lapse phase contrast microscopy

Phase-contrast time-lapse microscopy was used to follow T5 phage-mediated bacterial lysis

using a modified protocol described by Mandal and colleagues (50). *E. coli* wild type and

Δ*rlmF*Δ*rlmJ* mutant were grown as described above and infected with T5 phage at a MOI of

10 (or with an equal volume of phage diluent as a control). After a 10 min incubation for initial

adsorption at 37 °C under agitation, 2 µL of cells were spotted on pads composed of Nutrient

broth (N7519, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) and 1% (w/v) agarose. These pads were

placed on microscopic slides and covered with a coverslip. Within 20 minutes, images were

taken on a Leica DMi8 inverted microscope equipped with a Leica DFC365 FX camera

(Wetzlar, Germany). Microscopic phase-contrast images were captured every two min in

several positions up to 3 h with a constant temperature of 37 °C using an incubator (PeCon,

Erbach, Germany) around the DMi8 microscope. To set the focus plane, automatic autofocus

was performed at every position and every time point using the adaptive focus control (AFC)

and closed-loop focus system of the DMi8 microscope. To quantify non-lysed cells, phase-

contrast images were analyzed using the plugin MicrobeJ (51) in ImageJ (52). The default

MicrobeJ settings were used for cell segmentation (Fit shape, rod-shaped bacteria) apart from

the following settings: area: 1-max µm; length: 2.5–20 µm; width: 0.4–2 µm; curvature 0.0–

0.15, angularity 0.0–0.25 and intensity 0.0–2000.

T5 bacteriophage adsorption assay

485   Adsorption assays were performed as previously described (53). *E. coli* wild type and

486   Δ*rlmF*Δ*rlmJ* mutant were grown as described above and infected with T5 phage at an MOI of

487   0.1. Free phages were sampled immediately post-infection (0 min), then every 5 min for 30 min

488   using 0.22-µm sterile filtration. Plaque assays (47) were performed as described above to

489   enumerate the free phage concentration.

One-step growth curve

One-step growth curves were performed as described previously (48, 54). *E. coli* wild type and Δ*rlmF*Δ*rlmJ* mutant were grown as described above, infected with T5 phage at an MOI of 0.001 and incubated at 37 °C for 10 min. After initial adsorption, the remaining free phages were removed via centrifugation (5000 × *g*, 5 min, 4 °C) and the pellet was resuspended in fresh pre-warmed Nutrient broth. Samples were incubated at 37 °C with shaking and collected (including t = 0) at 10-min intervals over 30 min, followed by 5-min intervals up to 105 min. Plaque assays (47) were performed as described above immediately after sample collection.

Statistical analysis and data presentation

All numerical data were analyzed and graphs were prepared with GraphPad Prism version 10.0.2 (GraphPad Software, La Jolla, CA, USA). Statistics were performed using paired and unpaired Student´s *t*-test. Microscopy images were prepared from a total of 2,080 *E. coli* wild type and 1,923 Δ*rlmF*Δ*rlmJ* mutant cells and analyzed with MicrobeJ. All figures were generated using Affinity Designer version 2.2.1 (Serif, West Bridgford, UK).

All experiments were repeated at least three times to ensure reproducibility.

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B.S., S.B. and K.J. conceptualized the study. B.S., S.B., T.C., S.R. and K.J. designed the methodology. B.S. performed the investigation. B.S., S.B. and K.J. wrote the original draft, B.S., S.B., T.C., S.R. and K.J. reviewed and edited the manuscript. K.J. and S.B. acquired funding, provided resources, and supervised the study.

Data availability

Additional information required to reanalyze the data reported in this paper is available from the lead contacts upon request.

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