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Exploring the transcriptional landscape of phage–host interactions using novel high-throughput approaches[☆]

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In the last decade, powerful high-throughput sequencing approaches have emerged to analyse microbial transcriptomes at a global scale. However, to date, applications of these approaches to microbial viruses such as phages remain scarce. Tailoring these techniques to virus-infected bacteria promises to obtain a detailed picture of the underexplored RNA biology and molecular processes during infection. In addition, transcriptome study of stress and perturbations induced by phages in their infected bacterial hosts is likely to reveal new fundamental mechanisms of bacterial metabolism and gene regulation. Here, we provide references and blueprints to implement emerging transcriptomic approaches towards addressing transcriptome architecture, RNA–RNA and RNA–protein interactions, RNA modifications, structures and heterogeneity of transcription profiles in infected cells that will provide guides for future directions in phage-centric therapeutic applications and microbial synthetic biology.

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Introduction

Since the discovery of viruses that infect bacteria (bacteriophages, short: phages), the scientific community has a significant interest to use them for modern biotechnological applications, study their impact on global ecology and bacterial pathogenicity as well as look into them as a potential source of new antibacterials [1,2]. Advances in phage (meta)genomics have allowed for the discovery of an unprecedented catalogue of phage genomes that revealed an immense phage diversity and impact on microbial communities [3]. Concomitantly, phage genomics revealed a large knowledge gap of functionally uncharacterised and hypothetical proteins being likely connected to novel regulatory mechanisms involved in phage–host interactions. The application of state-of-the-art integrative transcriptomics, proteomics and metabolomics captures different complex layers of phage infection and sheds light on the ‘viral dark matter’ [4]. These integrated approaches have already proven their value in bacteria [5], yet surprisingly, the immense potential on the side of their viral predators remains underexplored. Implementation of these -omics approaches in phage research is required to fully grasp phage–host interactions and translate this knowledge into biotechnological and medical applications. For this, comprehensive high-resolution maps of transcriptomes are a fundamental requisite. Still, technical challenges to study the transcriptome of phage-infected cells remain. For example, the rapid phage replication cycle and needed synchronised infection of host cells by high multiplicity of infection [6] limit the study of phages that cannot be prepared to high titres, or in cases where the propagation host has not been identified or is not culturable. Moreover, infected bacterial cells can aggregate (e.g. [7]) or partly lyse, which makes it challenging to isolate RNA from the cells, including separation into single cells that would enable sorting. Such optimisations are essential for growth and infection conditions, together with labelling of infected cells for sorting.

In the last decade, phage transcriptomic approaches much relied upon total RNA sequencing (RNA-seq) in

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bulk to obtain gene expression levels that give insights into phage activity and host responses (Supporting Table 1) [8-11]. Sequencing of phage transcripts shortly after infection revealed anti-phage-defence and host-takeover factors [12-15]. However, total RNA-seq generally does not capture the details, diversity and interactions of transcripts such as primary transcriptional features, RNA structures and modifications that underlie regulatory mechanisms. This is especially true for the densely packed genomes of phages, with many transcriptional features in close proximity. As a consequence, the RNA biology of phages remains largely uncharted, highlighting the need for advanced transcriptional approaches to resolve the intricate transcriptional blueprints of microbial viruses. Here, we hope to inspire phage researchers to take a step further and adopt these emerging techniques to tackle new research questions in phage biology.

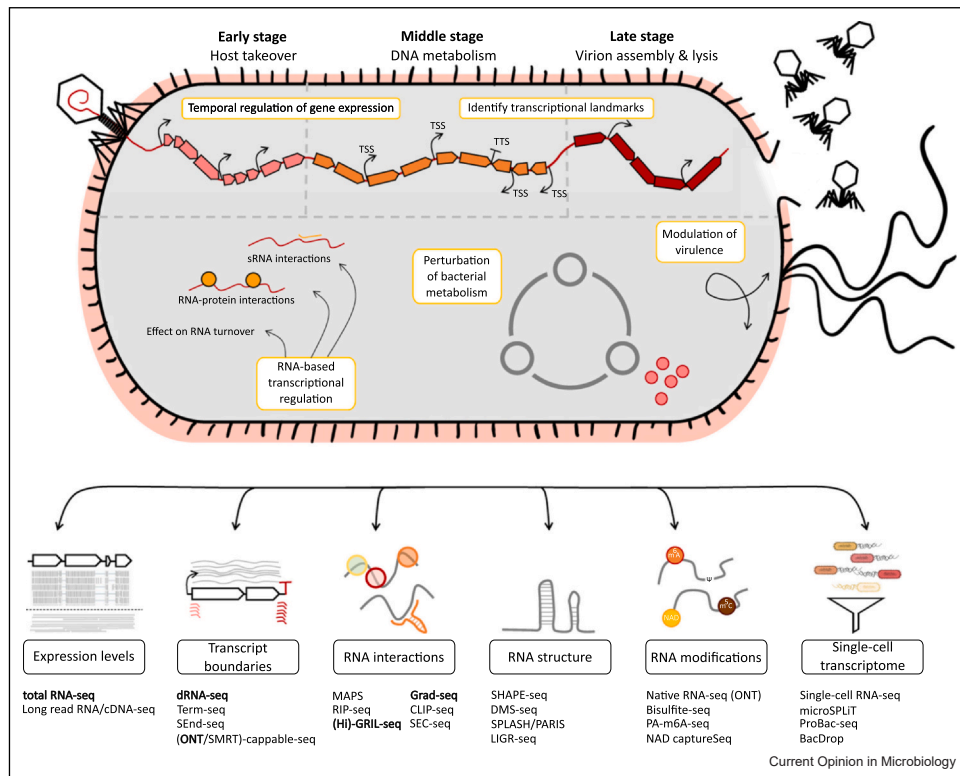
Emerging transcriptomic techniques and their untapped potential for phage biology

The prokaryotic transcriptomic toolbox has expanded continuously, giving rise to numerous new methods to study microbial RNA biology in unprecedented detail. This new generation of RNA-seq-based approaches provides the means to reveal a plethora of RNA species (Figure 1, Supporting Table 1). Phage gene expression is generally organised in the early (anti-defence and host-takeover), middle (replication) and late (virion morphogenesis and lysis) replication stages. The temporal regulation of phage gene expression is polymerase-specific and can be classified based on the utilised promoters for transcription initiation [16]. For example, phages T4 and λ rely fully on the host transcription machinery and can modulate the host RNA polymerase (RNAP) initiation via phage-encoded σ factors or covalent modifications of RNAP proteins [17]. Other phages such as T7 encode a single-subunit RNAP [18] expressed by the host RNAP in early infection, subsequently initiating transcription after the recognition of phage-specific promoters without the need of a host-encoded σ factor. Moreover, jumbo phages harbour multi-subunit RNAPs that have similar structures such as the host RNAP [19]. Another strategy is the co-injection of virion-associated RNAPs together with the phage genome for immediate transcription, enabling full independence of the host transcription machinery at the onset of infection [20,21]. Currently, knowledge on phage-regulatory mechanisms remains scarce and potentially many additional mechanisms have yet to be discovered. For example, genome compartmentalisation influences transcription, e.g. phage T5 utilises a two-step genome injection [22] or *Chimalliviridae* like Φ KZ transcribe their genome in a phage nucleus [23].

Architecture of transcripts

The delineation of transcriptional profiles of phage genes is dependent on genome-wide identification of promoters and terminators, which is crucial to fully comprehend the dependency towards specific RNAPs. Promoters can be mapped by identification of transcription start sites (TSSs) and terminators occurring at transcription termination sites. To predict promoters and terminators *in silico*, there is only a limited number of pipelines available tailored for phage genomes [24-26]. As a consequence, bacterial prediction tools are often used for this purpose, but these usually neglect non-canonical and viral-derived regulatory sequences, resulting in an incomplete prediction of the phage transcriptional programme (e.g. [27]). In the past, time-dependent transcriptional profiles of phage genes were clustered to reveal common promoter motifs for which the transcript ends were determined individually such as for the T7-like cyanophage P-SSP7 [28]. Recently, experimental transcriptomic approaches were developed and enabled a global mapping of key regulatory elements, including transcription initiation and termination events by enrichment of 5'- and 3'- transcript ends, which are generally confounded by their processed counterparts [29,30]. For example, enrichment for primary transcripts followed by sequencing reveals TSSs and their associated promoters as done by terminator exonuclease treatment that degrades processed transcripts in differential RNA-seq (dRNA-seq, [31]) and 5'-end capping of primary transcripts followed by enrichment (Cappable-seq, [32]). High-throughput discovery of transcription termination events can be achieved by specifically sequencing exposed 3'- transcript termini (Term-seq, [33]). Alternatively, both 3'- and 5'-transcriptional boundaries can be identified through sequencing of a circularised transcript product (SEnd-seq, [34]) or by sequencing the bacterial transcriptome in full-length using long-read sequencing technologies including Oxford Nanopore Technology (ONT) [35,36] and PacBio long-read sequencing [37]. These long-read methodologies greatly facilitate gene annotation and help gain insights into the complexity of fundamental regulatory signals, operon structures and gene regulation. Recently, dRNA-seq and ONT-cappable-seq were used to map the transcriptome architecture of jumbo phage Φ KZ [38], N4-like phage LUZ7 [39] and T7-like phage LUZ100 [40], all infecting *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. These studies resulted in the first global maps of transcriptional regulatory elements in a dual fashion on the viral and the host transcriptome in a single experiment. Collectively, the data uncovered distinct promoter motifs, phage transcription unit architectures and putative phage-encoded small regulatory RNAs [38,39]. A wider adoption of these novel transcriptomic approaches in phage research is paramount to obtaining high-resolution phage transcriptomes to develop custom models [41] and

Figure 1



Overview of advanced transcriptomic approaches to illuminate phage RNA biology in a global manner. Techniques previously applied on phage-infected bacterial cells are indicated in bold, highlighting the plethora of untapped technologies in this field.

significantly improve the prediction of phage-specific regulatory elements in a high-throughput manner.

Transcripts are regulatory players in phage biology

Non-coding RNAs (ncRNA) engage in regulatory pathways through interaction with other transcripts and are often found to be associated with RNA-binding proteins (RBPs) in large regulatory networks [30,42,43]. Recently, ncRNAs appeared to add an additional layer in the transcriptional regulation of lysogens [29,44,45]. The functional role of these transcripts in lytic phages remains yet to be elucidated. Only a few examples are characterised to date, for example, prophage-encoded ncRNA anti-CRISPRs (clustered regularly interspaced short palindromic repeats) called Racrs [46] or CBASS (cyclic oligonucleotide-based anti-phage signaling system)-activating bacteriophage RNA [47] that inhibit or activate phage defence systems, respectively. NcRNAs can be primary transcripts, derived from coding sequences [48,49], or be processed from untranslated regions. In all three cases, a correct mapping of the primary transcriptome is required. In addition, high-resolution transcriptomics enable correct annotation of transcript boundaries independently of open reading frames and hence, can validate the existence of understudied viral non-coding transcripts. The intricate transcript interactome in phage-

infected cells can be revealed, for example, by ligation of interacting RNAs followed by sequencing and identification of RNA-RNA chimeras (high-throughput global sRNA target identification by ligation and sequencing, Hi-GRIL-seq, [50] or RNA interaction by ligation and sequencing, RIL-seq, [51]) or MS2-tagging of RNAs for pull-down [52] coupled to sequencing of interaction partners (MS2 affinity purification sequencing, MAPS, [53]). For example, RNA-RNA-interaction studies in *Vibrio cholerae* revealed that the ncRNA SviR, encoded in a phage-inducible element, targets invading ICP1 phage transcripts to regulate their expression [44]. Notably, the detection of chimeric reads is challenging, but the high yield of phage transcripts in infected cells allows for deep detection of interactions.

Cellular complexes between ncRNAs and RBPs can be discovered by correlated sedimentation or elution profiles in gradient fractionation or size-exclusion chromatography (SEC), respectively, that analyse complexes by size (e.g. Grad-seq, [54]; SEC-seq, [55]). The cellular RNA complexome after jumbo phage Φ KZ infection was probed by gradient fractionation and uncovered phage-derived ncRNA species and shifts in sedimentation profiles of regulatory host ncRNAs [56]. The RNA targetome and interaction sites of RBP candidates can be

subsequently elucidated by RNA immunoprecipitation sequencing (RIP-seq), [57]. Optionally, UV cross-linking can be utilised to narrow down interaction sites after trimming and identification of UV-induced mutations at stringent denaturing conditions (cross-linking and immunoprecipitation sequencing, CLIP-seq), [45,58]. Application of these techniques to RBPs in a broader spectrum of infected cells and microbial viruses (Supporting Table 1), will unveil fundamental insights into intrinsic post-transcriptional regulatory networks during infection [29]. Since phage–host systems are tightly intertwined, these insights will help to answer evolutionary questions on base-pairing mechanisms between RNAs and their targets and the dependency and recognition of ncRNAs by RBPs.

RNA modifications add yet another layer to transcriptional regulation, affecting RNA function, fate and structure in various ways [59]. However, given that phage DNA genomes are collectively endowed with the largest reservoir of modified nucleobases [60], their transcripts are likely decorated with diverse modifications as well. In the continuous tugs-of-wars between phages and their hosts, phages often modify their DNA to protect themselves against bacterial defence systems, such as restriction–modification enzymes and CRISPR associated proteins (Cas) [61]. In light of the more recently discovered RNA-targeting CRISPR-Cas type-III and -VI systems, it is plausible that phages also modify their RNA to escape host immunity [62]. Internal transcript modifications and 5'-terminal structures can be captured by coupling specific chemical treatments or immunoprecipitation approaches with high-throughput RNA-sequencing (e.g. bisulfite-, m⁶A-seq and nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD) captureSeq). In addition, T4 phage factor ModB RNAylates ribosomal proteins via adenosine diphosphate-ribosylation using specific 5'-NAD-capped RNAs as substrate that is important for efficient T4 phage replication [63]. Moreover, Nanopore sequencing technology allows for a global detection of RNA base modifications by direct sequencing of native RNA at the single-molecule level without the need for cDNA conversion and PCR amplification [64]. In contrast to the advances in bacterial epitranscriptomics [59], phage RNA modifications remain understudied to date.

Knowledge of secondary structures is integral to fully understand the pivotal and diverse functions of transcripts in RNA-based regulation of microbial gene expression [65,66]. In bacteria, the transcriptome-wide study of dynamic RNA structures is mainly performed by footprinting-based methods (e.g. dimethyl sulfate sequencing (DMS-seq) and selective 2'-hydroxyl acylation analyzed by primer extension sequencing (SHAPE-seq)) that reveal the base-pairing tendency of nucleotides and proximity ligation-based methods that cover RNA–RNA interactions (e.g. sequencing of psoralen crosslinked, ligated, and selected hybrids (SPLASH), psoralen analysis of RNA interactions and

structures sequencing (PARIS) and ligation of interacting RNA sequencing (LIGR-seq)) [66]. Moreover, RBPs can also alter the fold of the targeted RNAs [30,42]. We hypothesise that the application of these powerful RNA structure techniques to microbial virus-infected cells would reveal novel RNA structures that impact gene expression, which, to our knowledge, has not been explored thus far. Furthermore, as bacterial riboswitches and RNA thermometers are structurally affected by environmental changes [67], one may speculate that viral RNA molecules can also alter their secondary structure throughout infection depending on dynamic host conditions to adapt their gene expression accordingly.

Recently, bacterial transcriptomics moved beyond bulk RNA-seq to single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq) that can reveal diverse transcriptional states within cell populations in microbial communities [68–75]. Strikingly, probing different growth states of *B. subtilis* or the application of DNA-damaging antibiotics revealed rare subpopulations in which PBSX or SPβ prophage genes were induced [72,75]. In addition, *E. coli* cells showed in scRNA-seq only a limited host response to λ phage infection [75]. In scRNA-seq, the detection limit of individual transcripts is pivotal to obtain a detailed picture. Of note, in phage-infected cells, the abundance per transcript is strongly elevated for phage transcripts that would allow for a detailed heterogeneity analysis on the side of the phage in scRNA-seq. The various scRNA-seq approaches differ strongly in the number of detected single cells from a couple of hundred to ten thousand cells per condition in droplet-based indexing. The challenges in scRNA-seq of phage-infected cells are to reach sufficiently high ratios of infected cells for a diverse canvas of states, and to separate infected cells into single cells. This separation is especially difficult at later time points after phage infection when the stressed cells tend to aggregate. In summary, scRNA-seq offers the possibility to study phage transcriptomes in unparalleled detail and highlight transcriptional heterogeneity between individual host cell responses, or even point out phage-specific transcription responses in different metabolic host states. In the long run, transcriptional profiles of phage-infected single cells from habitats could help to uncover specific mechanisms that phages utilise in their native niche, uncovering long-term and phage–host connections. A sneak peek is given here by metatranscriptomics in the natural context such as soil samples that can discriminate between actively transcribed phage genomes against all detected phage genomes in metagenomics [76–78].

Building on these technological advances in microbial transcriptomics and the gradual improvements in sequencing capacity, cross-kingdom interaction studies [79] are within reach. For example, phage-infected *P. aeruginosa* cells have a specific transcriptional response in the presence of lung epithelial cells [80]. In another example, prophage Φ10403S enters an active lysogeny state during

macrophage infection by *Listeria monocytogenes*, as revealed by transcriptomics [81]. Capturing the complex infection dynamics between mammalian cells, bacterial pathogens and their microbial viruses through RNA-seq, will allow deriving new RNA-based mechanisms that are important for close-to-native settings, which is imperative to ameliorate phage biology in microbiota and future phage therapy applications.

Future impact of RNA sequencing in phage biology

In the future, state-of-the-art transcriptomics beyond *classical* RNA-seq will lead to a comprehensive view of the diverse transcriptional landscape in phages, that will expand beyond model phages, shedding light on mechanisms that have been overlooked in the past, in turn giving rise to new research questions in phage and microbiology.

In an age where antibiotic resistance is a global health threat, the in-depth study of phage infection courses in different and more complex infection settings, such as biofilms and cross-kingdom communities, can support the development of successful phage therapy applications. Detailed transcriptional maps of microbial viruses are essential for engineering and *de novo* design of synthetic phages with improved antimicrobial and therapeutic potential through, for example, extended host range after initial infection, anti-phage-defence mechanisms and enforced lysis cycles to avoid (pseudo-)lysogenic pathways [82]. In addition, high-resolution transcriptome data during early infection can facilitate the discovery and functional elucidation of novel phage genes involved in bacterial reprogramming, which can serve as an inspiration for innovative phage-based antimicrobials.

Besides their biomedical potential, microbial viruses are endowed with a largely untapped reservoir of host-specific building blocks and genetic circuitry that could radically expand the potential of microbial synthetic biology. Indeed, detailed expression maps of lysogens or lytic phages throughout infection can be mined to source phage-derived regulatory elements such as promoters, transcription terminators and other RNA-based regulators that can be exploited to tune expression levels in synthetic biology circuits [2,83,84].

Data Availability

No data were used for the research described in the article.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Supporting information

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version at [doi:10.1016/j.mib.2023.102419](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mib.2023.102419).

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