1 **High-density transposon mutagenesis in *Mycobacterium abscessus* identifies an**

2 **essential penicillin-binding lipo-protein (PBP-lipo) involved in septal peptidoglycan**

3 **synthesis and antibiotic sensitivity**

5 **Chidiebere Akusobi[1], Bouchra S. Benghomari[2], Ian D. Wolf[1], Shreya Singhvi[3], Junhao**
6 **Zhu[1], Thomas R. Ioerger[4], Eric J. Rubin[1]**
7
8
9 [1]Department of Immunology and Infectious Diseases, Harvard T.H. Chan School of Public
10 Health, Boston, MA 02115, USA
11
12 [2]Department of Biology, Northeastern University, Boston, MA 02115, USA

13 [3]Department of Molecular and Cell Biology, University of California, Berkeley, Berkeley, CA

14 94720, USA

15 [4]Department of Computer Science and Engineering, Texas A&M University, College Station
16 Texas 77843, USA

Abstract

Mycobacterium abscessus (*Mab*) is a rapidly growing non-tuberculous mycobacterium (NTM) that causes a wide range of infections. Treatment of *Mab* infections is difficult because the bacterium is intrinsically resistant to many classes of antibiotics. Developing new and effective treatments against *Mab* requires a better understanding of the unique vulnerabilities that can be targeted for future drug development. To achieve this, we identified essential genes in *Mab* by conducting transposon-sequencing (TnSeq) on the reference *Mab* strain ATCC 19977. We generated ~51,000 unique transposon mutants and used this high-density library to identify 362 essential genes for *in vitro* growth. To investigate species-specific vulnerabilities in *Mab*, we further characterized *MAB_3167c*, a predicted penicillin-binding-lipoprotein (PBP-lipo) that is essential in *Mab* and non-essential in *M. tuberculosis* (*Mtb*). We found that PBP-lipo primarily localizes to the subpolar region and later to the septum as cells prepare to divide. Knockdown of *Mab* PBP-lipo causes cells to elongate, develop ectopic branches, and form multiple septa. Dual knockdown of PBP-lipo with PBPs, PbpB, DacB1, and a carboxypeptidase, MAB_0519 lead to synergistic growth arrest. In contrast, these genetic interactions were absent in the *Mtb* model organism, *M. smegmatis*, indicating that the PBP-lipo homologs in the two species exist in distinct genetic networks. Finally, repressing PBP-lipo sensitized the reference strain and 11 *Mab* clinical isolates to several classes of antibiotics, including the β-lactams, ampicillin and amoxicillin by greater than 128-fold. Altogether, this study presents PBP-lipo as a key enzyme to study *Mab* specific processes in cell wall synthesis and importantly positions PBP-lipo as an attractive drug target to treat *Mab* infections.

Introduction

Mycobacterium abscessus (*Mab*) is the most common cause of human disease among the

rapidly growing non-tuberculous mycobacteria (NTM). It causes a wide range of illnesses

including lung, skin and soft-tissue infections, as well as disseminated disease (1–3). While the

incidence of *Mab* infections is rising worldwide, treating *Mab* infections remains difficult. The

bacterium has intrinsic and acquired resistance mechanisms to many classes of antibiotics,

including the standard drugs used to treat tuberculosis (4,5). The current treatment regimen for

Mab requires taking a combination of multiple antibiotics for up to 18 months and is often

associated with severe toxicity and routinely ends in treatment failure (6). Thus, there is an

urgent need for new and effective drugs to treat the emerging global public health threat of *Mab*

infections (7).

Developing novel antibiotic treatments for *Mab* requires a better understanding of essential

biological processes in the bacterium that can be targeted. Identifying essential genes is the first

step in this process, and by combining transposon-mutagenesis with massive parallel

sequencing, transposon-sequencing (TnSeq) has been an effective tool to determine gene

essentiality on a genome-wide scale in other microbes (8). However, while many TnSeq

screens have been conducted in *M. tuberculosis* (*Mtb*) (9), up until recently only 2 published

TnSeq screens have been reported in *Mab* (10,11). While both *Mab* TnSeq screens have

provided tools and important insights into *Mab* biology, neither utilized a mutant library with high

enough density to comprehensively identify essential genes. This changed with the recent

publication from Rifat *et al*, who generated robust high-density transposon libraries of *Mab* and

identified a comprehensive list of genetic elements essential for *in vitro* growth (12).

Identification of these essential genes serves as an excellent starting point to classify attractive

targets for drug discovery.

One major target of antibiotics is the mycobacterial cell wall whose biogenesis is essential for

bacterial growth (13,14). The structure of the mycobacterial cell wall is unique among bacteria

because it is composed of three macromolecules: peptidoglycan (PG), arabinogalactan, and

mycolic acids. Together, these layers envelop mycobacteria with a thick, waxy coat that forms a

permeability barrier to many drugs (15,16). The foundational layer is comprised of peptidoglycan

(PG), which consists of glycan sugars cross-linked by short peptides forming a continuous, net-

like structure that maintains cell shape and prevents rupture. Mycobacteria build new PG at the

cell poles aided by Class A penicillin binding proteins (PBPs) that perform two reactions: a

transglycosylation reaction that polymerizes PG monomers to existing glycan strands and a

transpeptidation reaction that cross-links glycan strands to each other (17). Class B PBPs solely

perform the cross-linking reactions (18,19). A hallmark of PBPs is that they are inhibited by β-

lactam antibiotics; however, these antibiotics are typically not used to treat *Mab* infections due

to high levels of resistance and the presence of β-lactamases in the genome (20).

To identify essential genes for *in vitro* growth and classify potential new drug targets in *Mab*, we

performed TnSeq. We generated high-density transposon libraries of ~51,000 mutants in the

reference strain, *M. abscessus subsp. abscessus* ATCC 19977 and identified 362 genes

required for *in vitro* growth. We next identified essential genes in *Mab* that were non-essential in

Mtb in order to study species-specific vulnerabilities in *Mab*. From this list of genes, we further

characterized *MAB_3167c*, which encodes PBP-lipo, a conserved Class B PBP. We found that

PBP-lipo is required for normal peptidoglycan (PG) synthesis, cell division, and sensitizes *Mab*

to commonly-used β-lactams and other classes of antibiotics. None of these phenotypes were

present in the *Msm* and *Mtb* PBP-lipo knockouts. Thus, we find that PBP-lipo has a unique

essential function in *Mab* and is a potential drug target for treating *Mab* infections.

Results

Identification of *M. abscessus* ATCC 19977 essential genes for *in vitro* growth

To identify essential genes in *Mab*, we performed TnSeq on *M. abscessus subsp. abscessus* ATCC 19977 (hereafter referred to as *Mab*) using the φMycoMar T7 phage carrying the Himar1 transposon for transduction. This transposon inserts into 'TA' dinucleotide sites and disrupts gene function (Figure 1A) (21). We transduced three independently grown cultures of *Mab*, yielding triplicate libraries with saturations of 54.2%, 62.3%, and 64.1% for Library 1, 2, and 3 respectively (Supplemental Table 1). The average Pearson r^2 correlation of mean read counts for each gene across 2 libraries was 0.85 indicating good correlation among the libraries (Supplemental Figure 1). The transposon insertions across the three libraries were mapped onto the *Mab* genome as depicted in the chromosome map (Figure 1B). Across three libraries, we generated approximately 51,000 unique transposon mutants, as defined by sites of unique transposon insertions across all three libraries. Of note, the *Mab* libraries shared the same non-permissive 'TA' sites for transposon insertion as has been described in other mycobacterial species (Shoudhery *et al*, bioRxiv 2021).

The high density of these libraries allowed us to identify essential *Mab* genes using the Hidden Markov Model (HMM) algorithm implemented by TRANSIT (22). HMM identified 362 genes as essential, 4167 as non-essential, 153 as producing growth defect when disrupted, and 233 as causing a growth advantage when disrupted (Figure 1C, Supplemental Table 2). As expected, many of the genes identified as essential were involved in key biological processes including protein translation, amino acid metabolism, and cell wall biogenesis based on Clusters of Orthologous Groups (COG) analysis (Figure 1E).

Identification and Validation of uniquely essential genes in *Mab*

Understanding differences in essential genes between *Mab* and *Mtb* might uncover new ways of

specifically targeting *Mab*. Thus, we identified *Mab*-specific essential genes by comparing gene

essentiality between mutual orthologs of *Mab* and *Mtb*. We used *Mtb* essentiality data

generated from a comprehensive analysis on *Mtb* essentiality using 14 high-quality TnSeq

datasets (9). Of the 2279 mutual orthologs between *Mab* and *Mtb*, 282 genes were essential in

both species. We focused on the mutual orthologs that that were essential in *Mab,* but non-

essential in *Mtb*. These genes could potentially represent *Mab* specific drug targets. Exactly 20

genes fit into this category, which we refer to as "uniquely essential" (Figure 1D) (Supplemental

Table 3).

To understand the quality of predictions by TnSeq, we validated the essentiality of a subset of

genes using an anhydrotetracycline (ATc) inducible CRISPRi system developed for use in *Mtb*

(23). Expression of a non-targeting sgRNA control in this system has no impact on cell

proliferation (Figure 2A). In contrast, repressing canonical essential genes *rpoB, gyrB,* and *secY*

impaired cell growth in both liquid broth (Figure 2A) and solid media (Supplemental Figure 2A),

indicating that the CRISPRi system developed in *Mtb* functions in *Mab*.

We next validated the essentiality of a subset of the 20 uniquely essential genes in *Mab*: *glnA2,*

icd2, sdhA, and *MAB_4471*. CRISPRi knockdown of these uniquely essential genes impaired

growth in liquid media (Figure 2B) as well as solid media (Supplemental Figure 2B). These

results confirm that at least a subset of uniquely essential *Mab* genes identified by TnSeq are

required for optimal *in vitro* growth. The slight rise in OD_{600} later in the time course is consistent

with the emergence of escape mutants in the CRISPRi system, which has been previously

described (24,25).

PBP-lipo is uniquely essential in *Mab*

One of the uniquely essential genes we identified was *MAB_3167c*, which encodes a Class B

penicillin-binding lipoprotein (PBP-lipo). PBP-lipo is predicted to have a single N-terminal

transmembrane helix and a transpeptidase domain. From our *Mab* TnSeq data, *MAB_3167c*

lacked transposon insertions across all three replicate libraries (Figure 3A). This finding

corroborates data from previously generated *Mab* transposon libraries that show lack of

insertions in *MAB_3167c* (10,12). Comparing the essentiality of PBP enzymes in *Mab* with their

homologs in *Mtb* revealed that *pbp-lipo* is unique in being the sole PBP whose essentiality

differs between the two species. Specifically, *pbp-lipo* is essential in *Mab* and non-essential in

Mtb in vitro (Figure 3B).

To validate that PBP-lipo is required for *in vitro* growth, we used the CRISPRi system to induce

knockdown using constructs encoding 1, 2, or 3 sgRNAs targeting *pbp-lipo* (Supplemental

Figure 3A). The single, double, or triple sgRNA constructs allowed for the fine tuning of the

magnitude of *pbp-lipo* knockdown, as measured by RT-qPCR (Supplemental Figure 3B). We

noted that the empty vector control (0 sgRNA) and single sgRNA construct had no detectable

effect on the growth of *Mab* (Supplemental Figure 3C). In contrast, when *pbp-lipo* was targeted

with either 2 or 3 sgRNAs, the growth of *Mab* was inhibited, indicating that *pbp-lipo* is indeed

required for optimal *in vitro* growth (Figure 3C). We also observed the inhibition of cell growth on

solid media where knockdown of PBP-lipo by 2 sgRNA and 3 sgRNA vectors led to a 1000-fold

reduction in colony forming units (CFU) (Supplemental Figure 3D). To complement the PBP-lipo

knockdown growth defect phenotype, we recoded a version of PBP-lipo with the protospacer

adjacent motif (PAM) sequence mutated. This prevents sgRNAs from binding the introduced

PBP-lipo copy present on the integrated plasmid. When constitutively expressed, this recoded

PBP-lipo rescued growth of the native PBP-lipo knockdown (Supplemental Figure 3D). In

contrast, a recoded and catalytically-dead mutant of PBP-lipo did not rescue growth. This data

demonstrates that PBP-lipo's transpeptidase activity is required for *Mab* optimal growth.

In contrast to *Mab*, when we deleted the gene encoding PBP-lipo in *Mtb*, *Rv2864c*, the growth

of the knockout and wild-type strains was indistinguishable (Figure 3D). Similarly, the PBP-lipo

homolog in *Msm, MSMEG_2584c*, when knocked out grew identically to wildtype with no growth

defect (Supplemental Figure 4). Taken together, these data demonstrate that PBP-lipo is

essential for growth in *Mab,* while its homologs in *Mtb* and *Msm* are non-essential.

PBP-lipo is required to maintain normal cell elongation and division

A hallmark of PBPs is that they bind β-lactam antibiotics. Therefore, to test whether PBP-lipo is

an active PBP in *Mab*, we determined whether PBP-lipo binds bocillin FL, a fluorescent analog

of penicillin (26). Using a strain that constitutively expresses a strep-tagged PBP-lipo, we

identified a fluorescent bocillin FL band at the same molecular weight as PBP-lipo, which was

confirmed to be PBP-lipo by Western blot (Supplemental Figure 5). These data suggest that

PBP-lipo binds bocillin FL *in vivo* and is an active PBP. Interestingly, in wildtype *Mab,* we did not

detect an obvious PBP-lipo band at the predicted molecular weight of PBP-lipo, 63 kDa,

suggesting that native expression levels of PBP-lipo is either low or PBP-lipo is expressed at

distinct times during the cell cycle.

In mycobacteria, the PG layer is critical for maintaining normal cell shape and altering PBP

expression often results in abnormal cell morphology. Thus, we studied the morphology of *Mab*

when PBP-lipo was repressed and discovered dramatic morphological changes. *Mab* cells

elongate, branch inappropriately, and form ectopic poles of active growth, as evidenced by

staining with NADA, a fluorescent-D-amino acid (FDAA) that binds areas of active PG synthesis

(27) (Figure 4A). PBP-lipo knockdown significantly increased the number of cells with ectopic

branches (Supplemental Figure 6B). Furthermore, during normal growth of *Mab*, a small

percentage of cells contain one mid-cell FDAA band, indicating active PG synthesis at the site

of septation. However, when PBP-lipo is knocked down, we occasionally find cells with 2 or 3

bands mid-cell, as exemplified in the 2 sgRNA + panel (Figure 4A). PBP-lipo knockdown strains

were all significantly longer than their uninduced controls, with the longest average cell length

belonging to the strain with the strongest PBP-lipo knockdown (Figure 4B). Of note, while the 0

sgRNA +/- cells are by eye morphologically indistinguishable, there is a statistically significant

difference in the mean cell lengths, likely due to the effect of ATc on cells (Figure 4B). Notably,

cell width did not change among the strains (Supplemental Figure 6A). In comparison, in *Msm*

and *Mtb*, there were no differences in morphology and cell length between the wildtype and

PBP-lipo knockout strains (Supplemental Figure 7). The dramatic changes in *Mab* morphology

when PBP-lipo is repressed suggests proper expression of this enzyme is required for

maintaining normal *Mab* elongation and division.

PBP-lipo localizes to the subpolar regions and to the mid-cell before cell division

The morphological defects caused by PBP-lipo knockdown were reminiscent of septal factor

depletions observed in *Msm* (28). Thus, we hypothesized that PBP-lipo localizes to the septum.

To test this hypothesis, we N-terminally tagged PBP-lipo with mRFP, which has been previously

shown to function in the mycobacterial periplasm (29). This mRFP-PBP-lipo construct was

constitutively expressed and visualized with fluorescence microscopy. We discovered that PBP-

lipo localized to the subpolar regions of the cell and the mid-cell, likely in the growing septum

(Figure 5A)**.** The resulting microscopy images were analyzed using OMEGA, which quantified

the fluorescent signal across the cell normalized by cell length (Zhu *et al*, unpublished). We then

binned the cells into quartiles according to their length and found that the mRFP-PBP-lipo

fluorescent signal was concentrated at the sub-polar regions for cells of all lengths, while the

mid-cell localization of PBP-lipo was only present in the longest cells in the population (Figure

5B). These data suggest that as cells elongate, PBP-lipo localizes to the septum and is likely

involved in septum formation and cell division.

PBP-lipo is incorporated into a unique PG network in *Mab* that does not exist in *Msm*

Given that *Mtb* and *Msm* do not have duplicates of PBP-lipo in their genomes, we hypothesized

other reasons for the differential essentiality of PBP-lipo between these species. It is possible

that there is a functional difference between PBP-lipo in *Mab* and its homologs in *Msm* and *Mtb*.

This possibility intrigued us because an alignment of PBP-lipo from various mycobacteria

revealed that PBP-lipo$_{Mab}$ has 5 additional amino acids present only in the *Mab* homolog

(Supplemental Figure 8A). When *in silico* structures of PBP-lipo$_{Mab}$ and PBP-lipo$_{Mtb}$ are

modeled, these 5 extra residues form an appendage we hypothesized could impart PBP-lipo$_{Mab}$

with additional ability to bind proteins (Supplemental Figure 8B).

To test this hypothesis, we constitutively expressed PBP-lipo$_{Msm}$ in the 2 sgRNA *Mab* strain

(hereafter referred to as the *Msm* complement strain). As expected, knockdown of the native

Mab PBP-lipo impairs growth. However, PBP-lipo$_{Msm}$ expression in the 2 sgRNA strain rescued

Mab growth (Figure 6A). Furthermore, expressing PBP-lipo$_{Msm}$ eliminated the branching

phenotype of the native PBP-lipo knockdown and partially reversed the elongated phenotype as

well (Figure 6B). The recoded version of PBP-lipo$_{Mab}$ also reversed the branching of cells and

partially complemented the elongated phenotype (Figure 6B). In contrast, the catalytically-dead

version of PBP-lipo$_{Mab}$-(S364A) did not complement, with cells appearing elongated and

branched (Figure 6B, Supplemental Figure 9). These results demonstrate that PBP-lipo$_{Msm}$ can

rescue knockdown of the endogenous *Mab* enzyme. From these data, we conclude that the

essentiality of PBP-lipo$_{Mab}$ is not solely due to a unique functional property that is present only in

the *Mab* homolog.

An alternative hypothesis is PBP-lipo participates in a PBP interaction network in *Mab* that is

distinct from respective PBP networks in *Msm* and *Mtb*. In short, while PBP-lipo is required in

the *Mab* PBP network, its function is likely redundant in the networks of *Msm* and *Mtb*. This

notion of functionally distinct PBP networks has been previously described in mycobacteria (30).

To interrogate the PBP network of *Mab*, we tested which PBPs genetically interacted with PBP-

lipo. To perform this experiment, we cloned CRISPRi constructs with sgRNAs that would weakly

knockdown each PBP in *Mab* (PBPx) so that growth was not significantly impaired. We also

cloned combinatorial CRISPRi constructs where PBP-lipo and another PBP were weakly

repressed. Using this dual sgRNA vector, we could simultaneously knockdown PBP-lipo and a

PBP of interest.

Using combinatorial knockdowns of each PBP, we compared growth inhibition when a single

PBP was knocked down versus when PBP-lipo and a second PBP were jointly repressed. Of

the 8 combinations we tested, we found that knockdown of three PBPs with PBP-lipo lead to

synergistic growth arrest (Figure 6C). These enzymes were *pbpB, dacB1,* and *MAB_0519,*

which encodes a protein with a hypothesized carboxypeptidase domain. This genetic synergy

was also observed in liquid culture for *pbpB* and *dacB1* (Supplemental Figure 10A). The

homolog of PbpB is a well-studied enzyme in both *Msm, Mtb,* and the model organisms *E. coli*

and *B. subtilis,* where it is known as FtsI. In all these organisms, PbpB localizes to the septum

and is largely responsible for septal PG synthesis (31–33). Interestingly, like PbpB and PBP-

lipo, we found DacB1 localizes to the septum (Supplemental Figure 10B). These data suggest

that PBP-lipo genetically interacts with PbpB and DacB1, and that all three enzymes localize to

the same region of the cell and could potentially coordinate septal PG synthesis in a complex

together.

We next tested whether the same PBP-lipo genetic interactions existed in *Msm.* We used

CRISPRi to knockdown *Msm* PBP homologs in the wildtype *Msm* and the *pbp-lipo* knockout

background. In this experiment, genes that interacted with PBP-lipo would show impaired cell

growth when repressed in the PBP-lipo knockout. Interestingly, we did not observe genetic

interactions between any of the PBPs tested and PBP-lipo (Figure 6D). This was true for the

PBPs tested with homologs in *Mab* and additional PBPs present in the *Msm* genome

(Supplemental Figure 11).

We next used a whole genome approach to identify genes in *Msm* that genetically interact with

PBP-lipo. We generated high density transposon mutant libraries in both the wildtype and PBP-

lipo knockout strains of *Msm* to identify genes that were conditionally essential in the knockout

background. The saturation of the 2 wildtype libraries were 51.9% and 53.4%, while the

saturation of the PBP-lipo knockout library was 62.4%. Using the resampling method in

TRANSIT, our TnSeq data revealed that there were no conditionally essential genes in the

ΔPBP-lipo *Msm* background (Supplemental Table 4). These data strongly suggest PBP-lipo in

Msm exists in a robust genetic network with multiple functional redundancies. To uncover PBP-

lipo's function in *Msm*, it is possible that double and triple knockout mutants of PG synthesis

enzymes would need to be generated.

Repressing PBP-lipo sensitizes *Mab* to a wide range of antibiotics

Given PBP-lipo's essentiality in *Mab* and the genetic interactions it has with other PBPs, we

hypothesized that repressing PBP-lipo would affect *Mab*'s sensitivity to antibiotics, including β-

lactams. To test this hypothesis, we measured the sensitivity of PBP-lipo knockdown cells to 21

antibiotics that target translation, transcription, and DNA replication in both *Mab* and *Msm*.

Wildtype *Mab* is typically resistant to β-lactams amoxicillin and ampicillin with MICs greater than

>256 μg/ml. When PBP-lipo is knocked down, the MIC for both antibiotics dropped to 2 μg/ml,

indicating a greater than 128-fold sensitization (Table 1). These results indicate a strong

chemical-genetic interaction between PBP-lipo and both ampicillin and amoxicillin. Interestingly,

not all β-lactams had shifts in their MIC when PBP-lipo was knocked down. This indicates that

there is a specific chemical-genetic interaction between PBP-lipo and ampicillin and amoxicillin.

MIC changes for other β-lactams were less drastic, with a 4-8- fold reduction observed for

faropenem and cefoxitin (Table 1). PBP-lipo knockdown also affects susceptibility to antibiotics

that do not target the cell wall. The macrolides, clarithromycin and erythromycin, were 128-fold

and 64-fold more potent respectively in the PBP-lipo knock down cells. A 16-fold reduction in

MIC was observed for RNA polymerase inhibitor, rifampicin.

The MIC differences in rifampicin and clarithromycin are notable because these antibiotics do

not target the cell wall. Thus, the mechanism of synergy between PBP-lipo repression and these

antibiotics likely differs from the synergy with ampicillin and amoxicillin. We posited that PBP-

lipo repression might increase the permeability of the cell wall, allowing more drug to enter the

cell. To test this hypothesis, we measured the accumulation of calcein into *Mab*, which is proxy

for cell permeability. Calcein accumulates more rapidly in PBP-lipo knockdown cells, indicating

that PBP-lipo increases the permeability of *Mab* cells (Supplemental Figure 13). This increased

permeability likely leads to increased antibiotic access to the cell, thus sensitizing the bacteria to

the antibiotics.

When the MICs of the same 21 antibiotics tested in *Mab* were measured in the PBP-lipo

knockout in *Msm,* we observed no difference in the MICs (Supplemental Table 5). We also

measured the MICs of a subsection of these antibiotics in the *pbp-lipo* knockout in *Mtb* and

found no difference in MICs between the wildtype and knockout strain (Supplemental Table 6).

These data suggest that PBP-lipo's unique function in *Mab's* PG synthesis network likely

contributes to the bacterium's sensitivity to antibiotics when the enzyme is repressed.

Repression of PBP-lipo sensitizes *Mab* clinical isolates to antibiotics

The antibiotic experiments were conducted on the ATCC 19977 reference strain on *Mab*, which

is lab adapted, after being isolated from a knee abscess in the 1950s and propagated in the lab

since (3,34). Work performed in *Mtb* has demonstrated clinical isolates and lab-adapted strains

respond to antibiotics stressors differently (35). As a result, we tested whether knockdown of

PBP-lipo in *Mab* clinical isolates led to the same changes in antibiotic sensitivity as observed in

the reference strain.

We found that knockdown of PBP-lipo using the 3 sgRNA construct impaired cell growth in all

11 clinical isolates leading to a 100 to 10,000-fold difference in CFUs (Supplemental Figure

12A). We also confirmed in a sub-set of the clinical isolates that PBP-lipo knockdown lead to

elongated and inappropriately branched cells, as observed in the reference strain

(Supplemental Figure 12B). After confirming the PBP-lipo phenotypes in the clinical isolates, we

measured the MICs of ampicillin, amoxicillin, meropenem, rifampicin, and clarithromycin on *pbp-*

lipo knockdowns of the clinical isolates.

For amoxicillin and ampicillin, PBP-lipo knockdown reduced the MICs by >32 to >512-fold.

Meropenem served as a negative control and indeed, there was no difference in MICs between

uninduced and induced strains (Table 2). Finally, we observed an >8X-32X fold difference in the

MICs for rifampicin and 8 to 128-fold difference in the MICs for clarithromycin (Table 3).

Altogether, the antibiotic sensitivity data demonstrate that the phenotypic consequences of

repressing PBP-lipo is not only limited to the lab-adapted reference strain, but is also observed

in *Mab* clinical isolates.

Discussion

Developing new drugs and drug regimens against *Mab* requires a better understanding of the bacterium's essential processes. This includes identifying essential *Mab* genes for further characterization as potential drug targets. To do this, we generated high-density transposon libraries to identify essential genes in the reference strain, *M. abscessus subsp. abscessus* ATCC 19977*.* Importantly, *Mab* transposon libraries with fewer than 10,000 unique mutants have been previously published, but these studies did not fully identify the list of essential genes in *Mab* (10,11). Recently, Rifat *et al* successfully generated high-density libraries and were the first group to identify essential genes and genomic elements in the *Mab* genome (12). All together, they identified 326 essential genes and compared this list to essential genes identified in *Mtb* and *Mycobacterium avium.* Similar to our study, Rifat *et al* highlighted uniquely essential genes in *Mab,* which they also state deserve further study as these genes could represent *Mab* specific drug targets (12).

In addition to identifying essential genes in *Mab*, our study builds off of Rifat *et al's* work by using CRISPRi to efficiently repress gene expression and validate predicted essential genes as required for *in vitro* growth (23). Furthermore, we found that by targeting genes with multiple sgRNAs, CRISPRi can achieve significant gene repression, allowing for the investigation of essential genes and providing an alternative to gene knockouts. Constructing gene knockouts in *Mab* can be inefficient (36); thus, CRISPRi provides a convenient tool for genetic manipulation in *Mab.* Overall, the newly generated *Mab* transposon libraries can be used to determine genes required for growth in a variety of conditions including infection models, biofilms, and antibiotic stress.

Both Rifat *et al's* and our TnSeq data identified PBP-lipo as the sole peptidoglycan synthesis gene that was essential in *Mab* and non-essential in *Mtb* (12)*.* Using CRISPRi, we

demonstrated the necessity of PBP-lipo expression for *Mab* to maintain normal morphology and

to divide properly. When PBP-lipo is repressed, cells elongate, branch, and form ectopic poles.

We localized PBP-lipo to the subpolar regions of the cell, and as cells elongate and prepare for

division, PBP-lipo localizes to the septum. This constellation of phenotypes mimic septal-factor

depletions observed in *Msm,* which also causes cells to elongate, branch, and form ectopic

poles (28). These data suggest that PBP-lipo is involved with PG synthesis at the septum and

that depletion of the enzyme likely leads to dysregulated septal PG synthesis and aberrant cell

division.

Given PBP-lipo's localization and effect on cell division, we posit PBP-lipo acts as an essential

septal PG synthesis enzyme in *Mab.* In *Mtb* and *Msm,* this is accomplished by the enzyme

pbpB, which is essential for growth. Additionally, when *pbpB* is repressed in these species, cells

appear morphologically similar to the PBP-lipo knockdown in *Mab* (28,31). Interestingly, PBP-

lipo knockouts in both *Msm* and *Mtb* are morphologically identical to wildtype cells

(Supplemental Figure 7). These data underscore the notion that biological insights from *Msm*

and *Mtb* should not be de-facto applied to *Mab*. We hypothesize that PBP-lipo is a member of

the *Mab* divisome complex, a collection of structural proteins and enzymes that coordinates cell

division (37). Future studies are needed to determine if PBP-lipo interacts with known septal

factors, such as FtsQ, FtsW, FtsZ, whose functions have been described in *Msm* (38–40).

Future work may also reveal novel PBP-lipo binding factors that coordinate PG synthesis and

cell division in *Mab*.

Phenotypes characteristic of the PBP-lipo knockdown in *Mab* were absent in the *Mtb* and *Msm*

PBP-lipo knockouts. Both *Mtb* and *Msm* do not have a duplicate copy of PBP-lipo in their

genomes. Thus, to explain the differential essentiality of PBP-lipo across these mycobacterial

species, one hypothesis we explored was differences in the genetic networks of PG synthesis

enzymes. Construction of the PG layer is a complex process that involves a collection of

enzymes that work in concert to ensure proper synthesis and remodeling. Previous work has

shown that PG synthesis enzymes belong to genetic and spatiotemporal networks that do not

necessarily replicate across closely related species (30,41). Thus, while the building blocks to

construct the PG layer may be similar between species, how the enzymes are networked and

subsequently function together may differ. We demonstrated that PBP-lipo genetically interacts

with *pbpB, dacB1,* and *MAB_0519*. In contrast, TnSeq of the *Msm* Δ*pbp-lipo* strain did not

reveal interactions with any other gene in the genome. The TnSeq data demonstrates that

despite being homologs, PBP-lipo in *Mab* and *Msm* are incorporated into different PG synthesis

networks. In *Mab,* this network renders PBP-lipo's function as essential for growth, whereas in

Msm, PBP-lipo is dispensable. Interestingly, in *Mtb* PBP-lipo became more required in a *ponA2*

knockout suggesting that PBP-lipo and PonA2 genetically interact *Mtb* (30) – a genetic

interaction that was not observed in *Mab*. This observation supports the hypothesis that PBP-

lipo is incorporated in different PG synthesis in *Mtb* as well.

In *Mab,* the three genes that genetically interacted with PBP-lipo, *pbpB, dacB1,* and *MAB_0519,*

are all hypothesized to be septal associated. PbpB is a D,D-transpeptidase that performs 4,3

crosslinking reactions at the septum. In both *E. coli* and *Msm*, depleting PbpB leads to cell

elongation and branching, reminiscent of the *Mab* PBP-lipo knockdown phenotypes (28). A

potential explanation of this genetic interaction is both PbpB and PBP-lipo perform 4,3-

crosslinking at the *Mab* septum. In this model, repressing both enzymes would dramatically

reduce 4,3-crosslinking at the septum and lead to cell death. It is possible that PBP-lipo and

PbpB have overlapping 4-3 cross-linking function at the septum. However, given that PBP-lipo

and PbpB are essential in *Mab*, both enzymes must have distinct functional roles. Their distinct

functions could be revealed by identifying unique genetic interactions each enzyme has with

other PG synthesis enzymes. Why *Mab* would require two PG 4,3 crosslinking enzymes

functioning at the septum is an intriguing area of future research.

The two other genes that synergized with PBP-lipo, DacB1 and MAB_0519, are both

hypothesized carboxypeptidases that cleave the terminal D-ala-D-ala on the pentapeptide

chains of PG monomers (42,43). This reaction is necessary for the subsequent 4,3 crosslinks

catalyzed by D-D transpeptidases like PbpB and PBP-lipo. Interestingly, DacB1 localizes to the

septum in *Mab* and has been described as septally localized in *Msm* and *Mtb* (44)*.* Furthermore,

the homolog of MAB_0519 in *Mtb*, Rv3627c is involved in septal PG synthesis (45). Thus, we

hypothesize DacB1 and MAB_0519 are involved in septal PG synthesis and may work with

PBP-lipo to ensure proper septum formation. Interestingly, DacB1 and MAB_0519 are not

functionally redundant, given that both genes are synergistic with PBP-lipo. Further

characterization of the PG enzymes in *Mab* and their genetic networks will uncover species-

specific nuances in *Mab* PG synthesis that have the potential to be exploited for drug discovery.

Knockdown of PBP-lipo dramatically sensitized the reference *Mab* strain and 11 clinical isolates

to several antibiotics. The PBP-lipo knockdown was greater than 128-fold more sensitive to β-

lactams, ampicillin and amoxicillin, while other β-lactams like meropenem, cephalexin, ticarcillin

and others showed no difference in MIC. This result indicates a specific chemical-genetic

interaction between ampicillin/amoxicillin, and PBP-lipo. Historically, β-lactams have not been

used to treat *Mab* infections due to high levels of resistance and the presence of β-lactamases

(20). While imipenem and cefoxitin are used with some success, macrolides and

aminoglycosides remain the backbone of *Mab* treatment (46). Recently, studies have shown

dual β-lactam strategies are effective in killing *Mab* both *in vitro* and *in vivo* (47–49). These

synergy data suggest that understanding the specific antibiotic targets of β-lactams in *Mab*

would augment the design of effective dual β-lactam combinations. At the moment, effective

combinations are tested empirically with no insight into potential mechanisms (48). To address

this, Sayed *et al* used a combination of a bocillin FL binding assay to stain all the PBPs in *Mab*

followed by proteomics to identify the targets of 12 β-lactams and 2 β-lactamases. Interestingly,

in their datasets, PBP-lipo was not identified by mass spectrometry of bocillin FL-bounded PBPs

(50). This further supports our observation that PBP-lipo is expressed at low-levels in *Mab* and

is not identifiable by bocillin FL under native expression conditions.

Nonetheless, our data demonstrate that using a β-lactam or small molecules that target PBP-

lipo would not only kill the cell, but also potentiate β-lactams like ampicillin and amoxicillin. In

addition, the permeabilizing effect of PBP-lipo inhibition would potentiate drugs by allowing more

to enter the cell. Crucially, the observed synergy with PBP-lipo knockdown and β-lactams was

not just limited to the reference strain, but also present in 11 clinical isolates of *Mab,* indicating

that this synergy can be targeted for use in *Mab* clinical isolates.

Overall, this work employed TnSeq to identify the uniquely essential gene PBP-lipo in *Mab*. We

present PBP-lipo as a promising drug target given both its essentiality and its role in sensitizing

Mab to a range of antibiotics, including commonly used and accessible antibiotics, ampicillin

and amoxicillin. Future studies exploring the PBP networks of mycobacteria can expose further

species-specific vulnerabilities in peptidoglycan synthesis. Finally, identifying chemical inhibitors

of PBP-lipo may help form the foundation for new treatments against this emerging and difficult

to treat pathogen.

Materials and Methods

A full list of the strains, plasmids, and primers is available in Supplemental Tables 7, 8, and 9 respectively.

Bacterial Strains and Culture Conditions: All *M. abscessus (Mab)* and *M. tuberculosis (Mtb)* strains were grown shaking at 37°C in liquid 7H9 media consisting of Middlebrook 7H9 salts with 0.2% glycerol, 0.85 g/L NaCl, OADC (oleic acid, 5 g/L albumin, 2 g/L dextrose, 0.003 g/L catalase), and 0.05% Tween80. *Mab* and *Mtb* were plated on Middlebrook 7H10 agar supplemented with 0.5% glycerol. *M. smegmatis* mc2 155 *(Msm)* was grown shaking at 37°C in liquid on 7H9 media consisting of Middlebrook 7H9 salts with 0.2% glycerol, 0.85 g/L NaCl, ADC, and 0.05% Tween80 and plated on LB agar. Antibiotic selection concentrations for *Mab* cultures were kanamycin 50 μg/μl and zeocin 100 μg/μl. For transposon mutant selection, 100 μg/ml of kanamycin was used. Antibiotic selection concentrations for *Msm* and *Mtb* cultures were kanamycin 25 μg/μl, zeocin 20 μg/μl, and gentamicin 5 μg/μl. For *E. coli* (TOP10, XL1-Blue and DH5α), all antibiotic concentrations were twice those of the concentrations used for *Msm* and *Mtb*. Induction of all CRISPRi plasmids was performed with 500 ng/ul anhydrous tetracycline (ATc).

Strain Construction

Construction of 0, 1, 2, 3 sgRNA PBP-lipo knockdown strains and PBP-lipo complement strains

To build the 0 sgRNA (empty sgRNA) *Mab* strain, we transformed the pCT296 vector containing an empty sgRNA into *Mab.* To build the 1, 2, and 3 sgRNA strains, first we built individual CRISPRi plasmids containing single sgRNAs that targeted PBP-lipo. These plasmids were cr25, cr26, and cr56. We then designed primers that amplified the sgRNA targeting region with the appropriate flanking sequences and performed Golden Gate cloning to combine the inserts into one vector. This method was previously described by Rock et al (23). For the 1 sgRNA strain,

we transformed cr25 into the *Mab* strain. For the 2 sgRNA, we transformed the vector pCRC1,

which contained the cr25 and cr26 sgRNAs on one backbone. Finally, for the 3 sgRNA strain we

transformed pCRC2, which contained the cr25, cr26, and cr56 sgRNAs on one backbone.

To build the PBP-lipo complement strain, we designed primers to amplify PBP-lipo with modified

protospacer adjacent motif (PAM) sequences that were no longer homologous to the 1, 2, and 3

sgRNAs. This recoded PBP-lipo was then cloned into a constitutive expression vector resulting

in the pCA323 construct, which was transformed into the 2 sgRNA strain. The catalytically dead

mutant version of the recoded PBP-lipo was generated by using primers to generate the S364A

mutation. This engineered PBP-lipo was cloned into a constitutive expression vector and the

resulting construct, pCA324 was transformed into the 2 sgRNA strain.

Msm and *Mtb* ΔPBP-lipo strains

To generate PBP-lipo knockout mutants in *Msm* and *Mtb,* we used a recombineering approach

to replace the endogenous copy of the gene with a zeocin resistance cassette as previously

described (51). First, 500 base pairs of upstream and downstream sequence surrounding PBP-

lipo (*Rv2864c* and *MSMEG_2584c*) were amplified by PCR KOD XtremeTM Hot Start DNA

polymerase (EMD Millipore, Billerica, MA). These flanking regions were amplified with overlaps

for the zeocin resistance cassette. The 2 flanking regions and zeocin resistance cassette were

then assembled via isothermal assembly (52) into a single construct, which was then amplified

by PCR. Each deletion construct was transformed into either *Mtb* or *Msm* expressing inducible

copies of RecET for recombination (53). The resulting colonies were screened for PBP-lipo

deletion by PCR.

PBP-lipo$_{Mab}$-strep expression strain

PBP-lipo$_{Mab}$ was amplified using primers that added a C-terminal strep tag to the protein. The

resulting insert was Gibson stitched to the vector backbone that drove expression of PBP-

lipo$_{Mab}$-strep from the constitutively active MOP promoter.

mRFP-PBP-lipo$_{Mab}$

We amplified PBP-lipo$_{Mab}$ in two fragments. The first fragment contained the N-terminal signal

sequence of PBP-lipo. The second fragment contained the remainder of the protein. We then

amplified mRFP with overhangs that were compatible with the two halves of PBP-lipo. The

resulting three fragments were Gibson assembled to a vector backbone that constitutively drove

expression of the mRFP-PBP-lipo$_{Mab}$ fusion protein. A gly-gly-ser-gly-ser-gly linker was used in

between mRFP and the new N & C terminus of PBP-lipo.

DacB1-GFPmut3

DacB1 lacking a stop codon was amplified along with GFPmut3 containing overlaps with DacB1

and a gly-gly-ser linker. The two fragments were Gibson assembled to a vector backbone that

constitutively drove expression of the DacB1-GFPmut3 fusion protein.

Growth Curve: *Mab, Msm,* and *Mtb* cultures were grown to log phase and diluted to OD600

0.05. Growth curves were performed in a 96 well format at 37°C with shaking. OD600 was

measured every 15 min for 24-72 hr using the TECAN plate reader

Colony Forming Units: *Mab* and *Msm* cultures were grown to mid-log phase and then serially

diluted in their respective media in 96 well plates. Dilutions were then spot plated onto solid

media +/- 500 ng/ul ATc. Plates were incubated at 37°C for 4 days *(Mab)* or 3 days *(Msm)*. After

incubation, the resulting CFUs were calculated by counting the number of colonies at the

appropriate dilution. The fraction survivability was calculated as CFUs +ATc / -ATc.

Minimum Inhibitory Concentration Determination: *Mab, Msm,* and *Mtb* were grown to mid-

log phase and diluted to an OD600 = 0.003 in each well of non-treated 96-well plates (Genesee

Scientific) containing 100 µL of antibiotic serially diluted in 7H9 + OADC + 5 µg/mL clavulanate

(Sigma Aldrich). For MICs on *Mab* knockdown cells, cultures were induced for knockdown 18 hr

prior with 500 ng/ul ATc. Wells with knockdown bacteria also contained 500 ng/ul ATc. *Msm*

media contained ADC rather than OADC. Cells were incubated with drug at 37°C with shaking

for 1 day *(Mab, Msm)* or 7 days *(Mtb)*. Afterwards, 0.002% resazurin diluted in ddH$_2$O (Sigma

Aldrich) was added to each well. Plates were then incubated for 24 hr. MICs were determined

by the concentration of antibiotic that turned wells blue signifying no metabolic activity (54).

Generation of Transposon Libraries: To create transposon mutant libraries of *Mab* ATCC

19977 and *Msm* (wildtype and ΔPBP-lipo), 100 ml of bacterial cultures were grown to an OD600

of 1.5 – 2.0. For *Mab*, cultures were grown in biological triplicate. For *Msm*, the wildtype strain

was grown in duplicate while one replicate of the ΔPBP-lipo strain was grown. The cells were

then washed twice with 50 ml of MP Buffer (50mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 10 mM

MgSO$_4$, 2 mM CaCl$_2$) and resuspended in 1/10th the culture volume in MP Buffer. Afterwards, 2

x 10^{11} pfu of temperature sensitive φMycoMarT7 phage carrying the Himar1 transposon were

added to bacteria. Phage and bacterial cultures were incubated at 37°C for 4 hr with shaking.

The transduced cultures were spun down at RT 4000 rpm for 10 min and resuspended in 12 ml

of PBS-Tween. The cultures were then tittered by plating on 7H10 plates (*Mab*) or LB (*Msm*)

supplemented with kanamycin 100 µg/µml (*Mab*) or 20 µg/µl (*Msm*) before freezing the aliquots

for future plating. After determining the titer, 150,000 bacterial mutants of each transduced

culture were plated onto kanamycin selective plates and grown for 4 days at 37°C. The resulting

mutant libraries were harvested and stored in aliquots with 7H9 + 10% glycerol at -80°C.

Genomic DNA Extraction: To prep libraries for sequencing, we isolated the gDNA of the

mutant libraries using a bead-beating protocol developed in the lab. 2-6 ml of transposon mutant

libraries were thawed and spun down to remove excess glycerol in the sample. Pellets were

then resuspended in TE Buffer (10 mM Tris HCl pH 7.4, 1 mM EDTA pH8) and placed in bead-

beating tubes with 600 µl of phenol:chloroform. The samples were then bead-beat 4X for 45 s at

4000 rpm. Samples were cooled on ice for 45 s between each successive bead-beat round.

After bead-beating, the samples were spun down for 10 min at 13,000 rpm. The supernatant

was transferred to a new falcon tube and incubated with 1:1 volume phenol-chloroform for 1 hr

rocking. Samples were then spun down in MaXtract High Density phase-lock tubes (Qiagen) at

1500 g for 5 min. This separated the aqueous and organic layers. Afterwards, ½ volume of

chloroform was added to the tube and the contents were spun down at 1500 g for 5 min. The

aqueous phase was transferred to a new tube and RNAse A (Thermo Fisher) was added to a

final concentration of 25 µg/µl. The tubes were incubated at 37°C for 1 hr with shaking. Finally,

the supernatant was washed with 1:1 volume of phenol-chloroform followed by ½ volume of

chloroform. The aqueous phase was transferred to a new tube and genomic DNA was

precipitated with 1 volume of isopropanol alcohol and 1/10th volume of 3 M sodium acetate pH

5.2. The library gDNA was washed twice with fresh 70% ethanol and resuspended in nuclease

free ddH$_2$O. This protocol consistently generated high yields of *Mab* gDNA.

Transposon sequencing, mapping, and analysis: Sequencing libraries were prepared from

the extracted gDNA by amplifying chromosomal-transposon junctions following the protocol as

described by Long et al, 2015 (21). These amplicons were then sequenced using the Illumina

Hi-Seq platform. The resulting reads were mapped onto the *Mab* or *Msm* genomes. The data

were analyzed using the TRANSIT pipeline (22). Insertion counts at each TA site were

normalized using TTR normalization and averaged across replicates. Essentiality categories of

genes were determined by the Hidden Markov Model (HMM) algorithm in TRANSIT.

Resampling analysis was used to compare insertion accounts between genes in the wildtype

and ΔPBP-lipo *Msm* strains.

Cloning of CRISPRi Constructs: To clone sgRNAs onto the CRISPRi vector backbone,

complimentary targeting oligos were annealed and ligated (T4 DNA ligase, NEB) into the BsmBI

digested CRISPRi vector backbone. To clone multiple sgRNAs into the same vector, the

promoter, sgRNA handle, and sgRNA sequences were amplified with the appropriate flanking

sequences to perform Golden Gate cloning using the SapI cloning site in the CRISPRi vector

(23). All cloning was performed using DH5a cells and sequences were verified before

transformation into *Mab* and *Msm.*

Transformation of *M. abscessus*: To generate electrocompetent *Mab* cells, 50 ml of *Mab*

cultures were grown to mid-log phase. Cells were spun down at 4000 rpm for 10 min and

washed twice with pre-chilled 10% glycerol. Cell pellets were resuspended in 1/100th of the

starting volume and kept on ice for immediate use or stored at -80°C for future use. For

transformations ~100 ng of plasmid DNA was incubated with electro-competent cells for 5 min

before transforming the cells with 2500 V, 125 Ω, 25 μF. Afterwards, cells were recovered in 1

ml of 7H10 with OADC without selection for 3 hr at 37°C with shaking. Cells were then plated on

7H10 with the appropriate selection marker and incubated for 4 days at 37°C.

Microscopy and Image Analysis: All imaging was performed on an inverted Nikon TI-E

microscope at 60X and 100X magnification. For PBP-lipo knockdown experiments, cultures

were induced for knockdown with 500 ng/ul ATc for 18 hr prior to imaging. All *Mab* cultures were

fixed with 7H9 + 3% paraformaldehyde (PFA) for 1 hr and resuspended in PBS + 0.05%

Tween80 prior to imaging. Cellular features including cell length, width, and fluorescence signal

were analyzed using the OMEGA image analysis pipeline developed in the lab (Zhu et al,

unpublished).

Fluorescent D-Amino Acid Staining: NADA (3-[(7-Nitro-2,1,3-benzoxadiazol-4-yl)amino]-D-

alanine hydrochloride) was synthesized by Tocris following the published protocol (27). To stain

Mab with NADA, 0.1 mM of FDAA was added to 1 ml of exponentially growing cells and

incubated for 3 min before washing in warm 7H9 twice. For *Mab* imaging, after the second

wash, cells were fixed in 7H9 + 3% paraformaldehyde for 1 hr. The PFA was then washed off

and cells were resuspended in PBS + 0.05% Tween80 prior to imaging.

RNA Extraction and RT-qPCR: For each strain, cultures were grown in biological triplicate to

mid-log phase and then diluted back in +/- 500 ng/ml ATc and grown for 18 hr to achieve target

knockdown. Afterwards, 2 OD600 equivalents of cells from each culture were harvested by

centrifugation, resuspended in TRIzol (Thermo Fisher), and lysed by bead beating (Lysing

Matrix B, MP Biomedicals). Total RNA was extracted using the RNA miniprep (Zymo Research).

Residual genomic DNA was digested with TURBO DNase (Ambion), and samples were cleaned

with RNA clean-up columns (Zymo Research). cDNA was prepared using random hexamers

following manual instructions (Life Technologies Superscript IV). Alkaline hydrolysis was then

used to remove RNA. cDNA was purified by spin column (Qiagen) and then quantified by real-

time quantitative PCR (RT–qPCR) on a Viia7 light cycler (Applied Biosystems) using iTaq

Universal SYBR Green Supermix (BioRad). All qPCR primer pairs were confirmed to be >95%

efficient. The masses of cDNA used were experimentally validated to be within the linear

dynamic range of the assay. Signals were normalized to the *sigA* (*MAB_3009*) transcript and

quantified by the ΔΔCt method. Error bars are standard deviations from three biological

replicates.

Bocillin FL staining: *Mab* cultures were grown to mid-log phase and 10 OD units of bacteria

were spun down and resuspended in 1ml of fresh 7H9 media with 5 µg/ml of clavulanate.

Bocillin-BODIPY or FITC were added to cultures to a final concentration of 10 µM. Cells were

then incubated at 37°C for 2.5 hr, with aluminum wrapping to prevent light exposure. After

labeling, cells are washed with PBS + 0.05% Tween80 three times and resuspended in 200 µl

of lysis buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl pH = 7.4, 50 mM NaCl, protease inhibitor (Roche)). Samples

were bead beat 4X at 4000 rpm for 1 min with 1 min of rest on ice in between rounds of bead-

beats. $CaCl_2$ was added to a final concentration of 1 mM along with 4U of DNAse I and 10

mg/ml of fresh lysozyme. Samples were incubated at 37°C for 30 min. Afterwards, supernatants

were normalized by A280 protein concentration, diluted with 6X Laemmli buffer, and run on 4%–

12% NuPAGE Bis Tris precast gels (Life Technologies). To visualize fluorescence, we used a

BioRad Gel Doc system. To detect the presence of PBP-lipo-strep, we performed a Western

Blot. Membranes were blotted with rabbit α-Strep (GenScript) at 1:1000 in TBST + 3% BSA.

Calcein Staining: For each strain, cultures were grown in biological triplicate to mid-log phase

and diluted back in +/- 500 ng/ml ATc and grown for 18 hr to achieve target knockdown.

Afterwards, 3 OD units of bacteria were washed twice with PBS + 0.05% Tween80. Cells were

resuspended in PBS + 0.05% Tween80 and 100 µl of cells at OD600 = 0.4 was added to 96

well plates. The plates were incubated in the plate reader for 30 min at 37°C with shaking.

Afterwards, calcein was added at a final concentration of 1 µg/ml. Fluorescence signal was

measured every minute using the Tecan plate reader.

Acknowledgements

This project was funded by the generous support of the Paul and Daisy Soros Foundation, the NIH/NIAID F31 Predoctoral Fellowship award number F31AI149932, and award Number T32GM007753 from the National Institute of General Medical Sciences. The content is solely the responsibility of the authors and does not necessarily represent the official views of the National Institute of General Medical Sciences or the National Institutes of Health.

References

1. Bryant JM, Grogono DM, Rodriguez-Rincon D, Everall I, Brown KP, Moreno P, et al. Emergence and
spread of a human-transmissible multidrug-resistant nontuberculous mycobacterium. Science. 2016
Nov 11;354(6313):751–7.

2. Primm TP, Lucero CA, Falkinham JO. Health impacts of environmental mycobacteria. Clin Microbiol
Rev. 2004 Jan;17(1):98–106.

3. Johansen MD, Herrmann J-L, Kremer L. Non-tuberculous mycobacteria and the rise of
Mycobacterium abscessus. Nat Rev Microbiol. 2020 Feb 21;1–16.

4. Nessar R, Cambau E, Reyrat JM, Murray A, Gicquel B. Mycobacterium abscessus: a new antibiotic
nightmare. J Antimicrob Chemother. 2012 Apr;67(4):810–8.

5. Pang H, Li G, Wan L, Jiang Y, Liu H, Zhao X, et al. In vitro drug susceptibility of 40 international
reference rapidly growing mycobacteria to 20 antimicrobial agents. Int J Clin Exp Med.
2015;8(9):15423–31.

6. Jarand J, Levin A, Zhang L, Huitt G, Mitchell JD, Daley CL. Clinical and microbiologic outcomes in
patients receiving treatment for Mycobacterium abscessus pulmonary disease. Clin Infect Dis Off
Publ Infect Dis Soc Am. 2011 Mar 1;52(5):565–71.

7. Bryant JM, Brown KP, Burbaud S, Everall I, Belardinelli JM, Rodriguez-Rincon D, et al. Stepwise
pathogenic evolution of Mycobacterium abscessus. Science [Internet]. 2021 Apr 30 [cited 2021 Jun
18];372(6541).

8. van Opijnen T, Camilli A. Transposon insertion sequencing: a new tool for systems-level analysis of
microorganisms. Nat Rev Microbiol. 2013 Jul;11(7):435–42.

9. DeJesus MA, Gerrick ER, Xu W, Park SW, Long JE, Boutte CC, et al. Comprehensive Essentiality
Analysis of the Mycobacterium tuberculosis Genome via Saturating Transposon Mutagenesis. mBio
[Internet]. 2017 Mar 8 [cited 2020 Mar 28];8(1).

10. Foreman M, Gershoni M, Barkan D. A Simplified and Efficient Method for Himar-1 Transposon
Sequencing in Bacteria, Demonstrated by Creation and Analysis of a Saturated Transposon-Mutant
Library in Mycobacterium abscessus. mSystems [Internet]. 2020 Oct 27 [cited 2021 Mar 7];5(5).

11. Laencina L, Dubois V, Le Moigne V, Viljoen A, Majlessi L, Pritchard J, et al. Identification of genes
required for Mycobacterium abscessus growth in vivo with a prominent role of the ESX-4 locus.
Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2018 30;115(5):E1002–11.

12. Rifat D, Chen L, Kreiswirth BN, Nuermberger EL. Genome-Wide Essentiality Analysis of
Mycobacterium abscessus by Saturated Transposon Mutagenesis and Deep Sequencing. mBio.
2021 Jun 15;e0104921.

13. Wong EB, Cohen KA, Bishai WR. Rising to the challenge: New therapies for tuberculosis. Vol. 21,
Trends in Microbiology. 2013. p. 493–501.

14. Bhat ZS, Rather MA, Maqbool M, Lah HU, Yousuf SK, Ahmad Z. Cell wall: A versatile fountain of
drug targets   in Mycobacterium tuberculosis. Vol. 95, Biomedicine and Pharmacotherapy. 2017. p.
1520–34.

15. Jarlier V, Nikaido H. Mycobacterial cell wall: Structure and role in natural resistance to antibiotics.
FEMS Microbiol Lett. 1994 Oct 1;123(1–2):11–8.

16. Nasiri MJ, Haeili M, Ghazi M, Goudarzi H, Pormohammad A, Imani Fooladi AA, et al. New Insights in
to the Intrinsic and Acquired Drug Resistance Mechanisms in Mycobacteria. Front Microbiol. 2017
Apr 25;8:681.

17. Kieser KJ, Rubin EJ. How sisters grow apart: Mycobacterial growth and division. Vol. 12, Nature
Reviews Microbiology. Nature Publishing Group; 2014. p. 550–62.

18. Arora D, Chawla Y, Malakar B, Singh A, Nandicoori VK. The transpeptidase PbpA and noncanonical
transglycosylase RodA of Mycobacterium tuberculosis play important roles in regulating bacterial
cell lengths. J Biol Chem. 2018 Apr 27;293(17):6497–516.

19. Slayden RA, Belisle JT. Morphological features and signature gene response elicited by inactivation
of FtsI in Mycobacterium tuberculosis. J Antimicrob Chemother. 2009 Mar 1;63(3):451–7.

20. Soroka D, Dubée V, Soulier-Escrihuela O, Cuinet G, Hugonnet J-E, Gutmann L, et al.
Characterization of broad-spectrum Mycobacterium abscessus class A β-lactamase. J Antimicrob
Chemother. 2014 Mar;69(3):691–6.

21. Long JE, DeJesus M, Ward D, Baker RE, Ioerger T, Sassetti CM. Identifying essential genes in
Mycobacterium tuberculosis by global phenotypic profiling. Methods Mol Biol Clifton NJ.
2015;1279:79–95.

22. DeJesus MA, Ambadipudi C, Baker R, Sassetti C, Ioerger TR. TRANSIT--A Software Tool for Himar1
TnSeq Analysis. PLoS Comput Biol. 2015 Oct;11(10):e1004401.

23. Rock JM, Hopkins FF, Chavez A, Diallo M, Chase MR, Gerrick ER, et al. Programmable
transcriptional repression in mycobacteria using an orthogonal CRISPR interference platform. Nat
Microbiol. 2017 Feb 6;2(4):1–9.

24. Peters JM, Koo B-M, Patino R, Heussler GE, Hearne CC, Qu J, et al. Enabling genetic analysis of
diverse bacteria with Mobile-CRISPRi. Nat Microbiol. 2019 Feb;4(2):244–50.

25. Caro F, Place NM, Mekalanos JJ. Analysis of lipoprotein transport depletion in Vibrio cholerae using
CRISPRi. Proc Natl Acad Sci. 2019 Aug 20;116(34):17013–22.

26. Zhao G, Meier TI, Kahl SD, Gee KR, Blaszczak LC. BOCILLIN FL, a sensitive and commercially
available reagent for detection of penicillin-binding proteins. Antimicrob Agents Chemother. 1999
May;43(5):1124–8.

27. Kuru E, Tekkam S, Hall E, Brun YV, Van Nieuwenhze MS. Synthesis of fluorescent D-amino acids
and their use for probing peptidoglycan synthesis and bacterial growth in situ. Nat Protoc. 2015
Jan;10(1):33–52.

28. Wu KJ, Zhang J, Baranowski C, Leung V, Rego EH, Morita YS, et al. Characterization of Conserved
and Novel Septal Factors in Mycobacterium smegmatis. J Bacteriol. 2018 15;200(6).

29. Baranowski C, Welsh MA, Sham L-T, Eskandarian HA, Lim HC, Kieser KJ, et al. Maturing
Mycobacterium smegmatis peptidoglycan requires non-canonical crosslinks to maintain shape.
eLife. 2018 16;7.

30. Kieser KJ, Baranowski C, Chao MC, Long JE, Sassetti CM, Waldor MK, et al. Peptidoglycan
synthesis in Mycobacterium tuberculosis is organized into networks with varying drug susceptibility.
Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2015 Oct 20;112(42):13087–92.

31. Slayden RA, Belisle JT. Morphological features and signature gene response elicited by inactivation
of FtsI in Mycobacterium tuberculosis. J Antimicrob Chemother. 2009 Mar;63(3):451–7.

32. Wissel MC, Weiss DS. Genetic Analysis of the Cell Division Protein FtsI (PBP3): Amino Acid
Substitutions That Impair Septal Localization of FtsI and Recruitment of FtsN. J Bacteriol. 2004
Jan;186(2):490–502.

33. Datta P, Dasgupta A, Singh AK, Mukherjee P, Kundu M, Basu J. Interaction between FtsW and
penicillin-binding protein 3 (PBP3) directs PBP3 to mid-cell, controls cell septation and mediates the
formation of a trimeric complex involving FtsZ, FtsW and PBP3 in mycobacteria. Mol Microbiol.
2006 Dec;62(6):1655–73.

34. Tortoli E, Kohl TA, Brown-Elliott BA, Trovato A, Leão SC, Garcia MJ, et al. Emended description of
Mycobacterium abscessus, Mycobacterium abscessus subsp. abscessus and
Mycobacteriumabscessus subsp. bolletii and designation of Mycobacteriumabscessus subsp.
massiliense comb. nov. Int J Syst Evol Microbiol. 2016 Nov;66(11):4471–9.

35. Allison F. Carey, Rock JM, Krieger IV, Chase MR, Fernandez-Suarez M, Gagneux S, et al. TnSeq of
Mycobacterium tuberculosis clinical isolates reveals strain-specific antibiotic liabilities. PLOS
Pathog. 2018 Mar 5;14(3):e1006939.

36. Medjahed H, Reyrat J-M. Construction of Mycobacterium abscessus defined glycopeptidolipid
mutants: comparison of genetic tools. Appl Environ Microbiol. 2009 Mar;75(5):1331–8.

37. Kieser KJ, Rubin EJ. How sisters grow apart: mycobacterial growth and division. Nat Rev Microbiol.
2014 Aug;12(8):550–62.

38. Datta P, Dasgupta A, Singh AK, Mukherjee P, Kundu M, Basu J. Interaction between FtsW and
penicillin-binding protein 3 (PBP3) directs PBP3 to mid-cell, controls cell septation and mediates the
formation of a trimeric complex involving FtsZ, FtsW and PBP3 in mycobacteria. Mol Microbiol.
2006 Dec;62(6):1655–73.

39. Rajagopalan M, Maloney E, Dziadek J, Poplawska M, Lofton H, Chauhan A, et al. Genetic evidence
that mycobacterial FtsZ and FtsW proteins interact, and colocalize to the division site in
Mycobacterium smegmatis. FEMS Microbiol Lett. 2005 Sep 1;250(1):9–17.

40. Datta P, Dasgupta A, Bhakta S, Basu J. Interaction between FtsZ and FtsW of Mycobacterium
tuberculosis *. J Biol Chem. 2002 Jul 12;277(28):24983–7.

41. Botella H, Yang G, Ouerfelli O, Ehrt S, Nathan CF, Vaubourgeix J. Distinct Spatiotemporal Dynamics
of Peptidoglycan Synthesis between Mycobacterium smegmatis and Mycobacterium tuberculosis.
mBio. 2017 12;8(5).

42. Ghosh AS, Chowdhury C, Nelson DE. Physiological functions of D-alanine carboxypeptidases in
Escherichia coli. Trends Microbiol. 2008 Jul 1;16(7):309–17.

43. Ealand CS, Asmal R, Mashigo L, Campbell L, Kana BD. Characterization of putative DD-
carboxypeptidase-encoding genes in Mycobacterium smegmatis. Sci Rep. 2019 Mar 26;9(1):5194.

44. Gorla P, Plocinska R, Sarva K, Satsangi AT, Pandeeti E, Donnelly R, et al. MtrA Response Regulator
Controls Cell Division and Cell Wall Metabolism and Affects Susceptibility of Mycobacteria to the
First Line Antituberculosis Drugs. Front Microbiol [Internet]. 2018 Nov 23 [cited 2020 May 27];9.

45. Zhang W, Li S, Ma L, Ding W, Xu Y. Identification of a novel carboxypeptidase encoded by Rv3627c
that plays a potential role in mycobacteria morphology and cell division. Enzyme Microb Technol.
2019 Jul 1;126:32–40.

46. Novosad SA, Beekmann SE, Polgreen PM, Mackey K, Winthrop KL. Treatment of Mycobacterium
abscessus Infection. Emerg Infect Dis. 2016 Mar;22(3):511–4.

47. Story-Roller E, Maggioncalda EC, Lamichhane G. Synergistic Efficacy of β-Lactam Combinations
against Mycobacterium abscessus Pulmonary Infection in Mice. Antimicrob Agents Chemother.
2019;63(8).

48. Pandey R, Chen L, Manca C, Jenkins S, Glaser L, Vinnard C, et al. Dual β-Lactam Combinations
Highly Active against Mycobacterium abscessus Complex In Vitro. mBio [Internet]. 2019 Feb 26
[cited 2020 May 9];10(1).

49. Lopeman RC, Harrison J, Rathbone DL, Desai M, Lambert PA, Cox JAG. Effect of Amoxicillin in
combination with Imipenem-Relebactam against Mycobacterium abscessus. Sci Rep. 2020 Jan
27;10(1):928.

50. Sayed ARM, Shah NR, Basso KB, Kamat M, Jiao Y, Moya B, et al. First Penicillin-Binding Protein
Occupancy Patterns for 15 β-Lactams and β-Lactamase Inhibitors in Mycobacterium abscessus.
Antimicrob Agents Chemother [Internet]. 2020 Dec 16 [cited 2021 Mar 24];65(1).

51. Boutte CC, Baer CE, Papavinasasundaram K, Liu W, Chase MR, Meniche X, et al. A cytoplasmic
peptidoglycan amidase homologue controls mycobacterial cell wall synthesis. Laub M, editor. eLife.
2016 Jun 15;5:e14590.

52. Gibson DG, Young L, Chuang R-Y, Venter JC, Hutchison CA, Smith HO. Enzymatic assembly of
DNA molecules up to several hundred kilobases. Nat Methods. 2009 May;6(5):343–5.

53. Murphy KC, Papavinasasundaram K, Sassetti CM. Mycobacterial recombineering. Methods Mol Biol
Clifton NJ. 2015;1285:177–99.

54. Kieser KJ, Boutte CC, Kester JC, Baer CE, Barczak AK, Meniche X, et al. Phosphorylation of the
Peptidoglycan Synthase PonA1 Governs the Rate of Polar Elongation in Mycobacteria. PLOS
Pathog. 2015 Jun 26;11(6):e1005010.

Figures and Legends

Figure 1. **Overview of TnSeq Analysis. (A)** Schematic of TnSeq protocol. Phage carrying Himar1
transposon is used to transduce *Mab* ATCC 19977 cultures. Over 51,000 independent transposon
mutants were generated across three libraries **(B)** Location of transposon insertions in *M. abscessus*
subsp. abscessus ATCC 19977 genome. Transposon insertions represent an average of the three
replicates. Black bars represent number of insertions at each TA site. **(C)** Breakdown of gene essentiality
categories. Essentiality calls were determined using the Hidden Markov Model (HMM) in TRANSIT **(D)**
Essentiality comparison of mutual orthologs between *Mab* and *Mtb*. Venn Diagram shows 282 mutual
orthologs are essential in both species. 20 essential *Mab* genes have mutual orthologs in *Mtb* that are
non-essential. **(E)** COG (Clusters of Orthologous Group) categories of essential genes in *Mab*.

882
883
884 **Figure 2. Validation of Essential Genes. (A)** Growth curve of *Mab* strains with sgRNAs targeting
885 canonical essential genes. **(B)** Growth curve of *Mab* strains with sgRNAs targeting uniquely essential *Mab*
886 genes.
887

888
889
Figure 3. PBP-lipo is uniquely essential in *Mab* and non-essential in *Mtb*. (A) Transposon-insertion
profile of PBP-lipo across three replicate transposon libraries. Red bars indicate the number of
transposon insertions. Horizontal black lines indicate 'TA' sites, where the transposon inserts. Genes are
schematized with gray arrows, with PBP-lipo colored in blue. Dotted box demarcates lack of insertions in
PBP-lipo. **(B)** Comparison of essentiality for PBP orthologs between *Mtb* and *Msm*. **(C)** Growth of *Mab*
cultures transformed with CRISPRi plasmid carrying either 2 or 3 sgRNAs targeting PBP-lipo. "-" symbol
indicates cultures were grown without ATc. "+" symbol indicates cultures were grown with ATc. **(D)**
Growth of wildtype *Mtb* and PBP-lipo knockout strains.
898

899
900
901 **Figure 4. Knockdown of PBP-lipo disrupts cell morphology**. **(A)** Microscopy images of PBP-lipo
902 knockdown cultures. *Mab* strains carrying CRISPRi plasmids with either 0, 1, 2, or 3 sgRNAs targeting
903 PBP-lipo. Arrows indicate sites of multiple septa formation. **(B)** Cell lengths of uninduced and induced
904 strains. Measurements were obtained by image pipeline, OMEGA (Zhu *et al*, unpublished). Student's t
905 test used to calculate the statistical difference in mean cell lengths. *** = p-val < 0.0001. * = p-val < 0.05.
906

907
908
909 **Figure 5. PBP-lipo localizes to the subpolar region and the septum**. **(A)** Microscopy images of PBP-
910 lipo N-terminally tagged with mRFP. White arrows demarcate subpolar and septal localization of PBP-
911 lipo. **(B)** Quantification of mRFP signal along the length of the cell using OMEGA imaging pipeline (Zhu *et*
912 *al*, unpublished). Signal was normalized by cell length and cells were binned into quartiles based on
913 length.
914

915
916
Figure 6. PBP-lipo network in *Mab* does not exist in *Msm*. (A) Growth curve of 2 sgRNA strain
targeting PBP-lipo and 2 sgRNA strain with a constitutively expressed copy of PBP-lipo$_{Msm}$. **(B)**
Microscopy images of 2 sgRNA and PBP-lipo complement strains. **(C)** Genetic synergy of PBP-lipo with
other PBPs in *Mab*. Solid bar represents CFU of strains where a single PBP was knocked down. Open
bar represents strains where PBP-lipo was knocked down in combination with the listed PBP. **(D)** Genetic
synergy of PBPs and PBP-lipo in *Msm.* CRISPRi plasmids carrying sgRNAs targeting each of the PBPs in
Msm were transformed into wildtype *Msm* (closed bar) and the ΔPBP-lipo mutant (open bar).
924

**Table 1: Minimum Inhibitory Concentration (MIC) (µg/ml)
of ATCC 19977 +/- PBP-lipo Knockdown**

Antibiotic	-ATc	+ATc	Fold Difference
Cell Wall			
Ampicillin	>256	2	>128X
Amoxicillin	>256	2	>128X
Faropenem	8	1	8X
Cefoxitin	8	2	4X
Vancomycin	8	2	4X
Meropenem	128	128	N/A
Imipenem	>64	>64	" "
Ticarcillin	>64	>64	" "
Ceftazidime	>64	>64	" "
Cephalexin	>64	>64	" "
Ceftazidime	>64	>64	" "
D-Cycloserine	>64	>64	" "
Ethambutol	>64	>64	" "
Isoniazid	>512	>512	" "
Ribosome			
Clarithromycin	16	0.125	128X
Erythromycin	32	0.5	64X
Amikacin	16	4	4X
Clindamycin	>64	64	N/A
RNA Polymerase			
Rifampicin	32	2	16X
DNA Gyrase			
Ofloxacin	8	2	4X
Other			
Pyrazinamide	>64	>64	N/A
Pretomanid	>64	>64	" "

925
926

Table 2: MIC (µg/ml) of *Mab* Clinical Isolates +/- PBP-lipo knockdown (Cell Wall Antibiotics)

Clinical Isolate	Ampicillin			Amoxicillin			Meropenem	
	-ATc	+ATc		-ATc	+ATc		-ATc	+ATc
ATCC 19977	>256	2		>256	2		128	128
T35	>256	< 0.5		>256	< 0.5		>256	256
T37	>256	< 0.5		>256	< 0.5		>256	256
T49	>256	4		>256	4		>256	128
T50	>256	4		>256	4		>256	128
T51	>256	2		>256	2		>256	256
T53	>256	4		>256	2		>256	256
T56	>256	<0.5		>256	<0.5		>256	128
BWH-B	>256	8		>256	2		>256	256
BWH-C	>256	4		>256	8		>256	256
BWH-E	>256	4		>256	2		>256	256

928
929

Table 3: MIC (µg/ml) of *Mab* Clinical Isolates +/- PBP-lipo Knockdown (Rifampicin and Clarithromycin)

Clinical Isolate	Rifampicin			Clarithromycin	
	-ATc	+ATc		-ATc	+ATc
ATCC 19977	32	2		16	0.125
T35	4	0.25		2	0.25
T37	16	1		2	0.25
T49	64	4		2	0.25
T50	32	1		16	0.25
T51	64	4		16	0.5
T53	32	1		8	0.5
T56	8	1		2	0.25
BWH-B	32	1		16	0.25
BWH-C	32	2		32	1
BWH-E	16	1		16	0.125