- 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
- Chidiebere Akusobi<sup>1</sup>, Bouchra S. Benghomari<sup>2</sup>, Ian D. Wolf<sup>1</sup>, Shreya Singhvi<sup>3</sup>, Junhao Zhu<sup>1</sup>, Charles L. Dulberger<sup>1</sup>, Thomas R. Ioerger<sup>4</sup>, Eric J. Rubin<sup>1</sup>
- <sup>1</sup>Department of Immunology and Infectious Diseases, Harvard T.H. Chan School of Public
- Health, Boston, MA 02115, USA
- <sup>2</sup>Department of Biology, Northeastern University, Boston, MA 02115, USA
- <sup>3</sup>Department of Molecular and Cell Biology, University of California, Berkeley, Berkeley, CA
- 14 94720, USA

7 8

- <sup>4</sup>Department of Computer Science and Engineering, Texas A&M University, College Station
- 16 Texas 77843, USA

#### **Abstract**

17

18 19

20

21

22

23

24

25

26

27

28

29

30

31

32

33

34

35

36

37

38

39

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

40 41

42

43

44

45

46

47

48

49

50

51

52

53

54

55

56

57

58

59

60

61

62

63

64

65

66

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 (TnSeg) 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.

68

69

70

71

72

73

74

75

76

77

78

79

80

81

82

83

84

85

86

87

88

89

90

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, netlike 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 βlactam antibiotics; however, these antibiotics are typically not used to treat Mab infections due to high levels of resistance and the presence of  $\beta$ -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

91 92 93

94

95

96

97

98

99

100

101

102

103

104

105

106

107

108

109

110

111

112

113

114

115

116

Identification of M. abscessus ATCC 19977 essential genes for in vitro growth To identify essential genes in Mab, we performed TnSeg on M. abscessus subsp. abscessus ATCC 19977 (hereafter referred to as Mab) using the \( \phi MycoMar T7 \) 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<sup>2</sup> 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 nonpermissive '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

## Identification and Validation of uniquely essential genes in Mab

Orthologous Groups (COG) analysis (Figure 1E).

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 nonessential 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 sqRNA 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 TnSeg are required for optimal in vitro growth. The slight rise in OD<sub>600</sub> later in the time course is consistent

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

## PBP-lipo is uniquely essential in *Mab*

described (24,25).

117

118

119

120

121

122

123

124

125

126

127

128

129

130

131

132

133

134

135

136

137

138

139

140

141

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

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.

222

223

224

225

226

227

228

229

230

231

232

233

234

235

236

237

238

239

240

241

242

243

244

245

246

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<sub>Mab</sub> has 5 additional amino acids present only in the Mab homolog (Supplemental Figure 8A). When in silico structures of PBP-lipo<sub>Mab</sub> and PBP-lipo<sub>Mtb</sub> are modeled, these 5 extra residues form an appendage we hypothesized could impart PBP-lipo<sub>Mab</sub> with additional ability to bind proteins (Supplemental Figure 8B). To test this hypothesis, we constitutively expressed PBP-lipo<sub>Msm</sub> 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<sub>Msm</sub> expression in the 2 sgRNA strain rescued Mab growth (Figure 6A). Furthermore, expressing PBP-lipo<sub>Msm</sub> 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<sub>Mab</sub> also reversed the branching of cells and partially complemented the elongated phenotype (Figure 6B). In contrast, the catalytically-dead version of PBP-lipo<sub>Mab</sub>-(S364A) did not complement, with cells appearing elongated and branched (Figure 6B, Supplemental Figure 9). These results demonstrate that PBP-lipo<sub>Msm</sub> can rescue knockdown of the endogenous Mab enzyme. From these data, we conclude that the essentiality of PBP-lipo<sub>Mab</sub> 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

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 Ftsl. 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

274

275

276

277

278

279

280

281

282

283

284

285

286

287

288

289

290

291

292

293

294

295

296

297

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 PBPlipo 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 PBPlipo'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 βlactams. 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

299

300

301

302

303

304

305

306

307

308

309

310

311

312

313

314

315

316

317

318

319

320

321

322

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 PBPlipo 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.

324

325

326

327

328

329

330

331

332

333

334

335

336

337

338

339

340

341

342

343

344

345

346

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 sqRNA 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 pbplipo 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

400

401

402

403

404

405

406

407

408

409

410

411

412

413

414

415

416

417

418

419

420

421

422

423

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 Δpbp-lipo strain did not reveal interactions with any other gene in the genome. The TnSeg 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 PBPlipo 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 4.3crosslinking 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

425

426

427

428

429

430

431

432

433

434

435

436

437

438

439

440

441

442

443

444

445

446

447

448

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 speciesspecific 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 βlactams, 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 syneray data suggest that understanding the specific antibiotic targets of \(\textit{\beta}\)-lactams in Mab

450

451

452

453

454

455

456

457

458

459

460

461

462

463

464

465

466

467

468

469

470

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  $\beta$ -lactams and 2  $\beta$ -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 PBPlipo 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<sub>Mab</sub>-strep expression strain

523

524

525

526

527

528

529

530

531

532

533

534

535

536

537

538

539

540

541

542

543

544

545

546

547

PBP-lipo<sub>Mah</sub> 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 PBPlipo<sub>Mab</sub>-strep from the constitutively active MOP promoter. mRFP-PBP-lipo<sub>Mab</sub> We amplified PBP-lipo<sub>Mab</sub> 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<sub>Mab</sub> fusion protein. A gly-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.

549

550

551

552

553

554

555

556

557

558

559

560

561

562

563

564

565

566

567

568

569

570

571

572

573

Minimum Inhibitory Concentration Determination: Mab, Msm, and Mtb were grown to midlog 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<sub>2</sub>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 MqSO<sub>4</sub>, 2 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub>) and resuspended in 1/10th the culture volume in MP Buffer. Afterwards, 2 x 10<sup>11</sup> 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.

575

576

577

578

579

580

581

582

583

584

585

586

587

588

589

590

591

592

593

594

595

596

597

598

599

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 beadbeating 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 agueous 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<sub>2</sub>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.

601

602

603

604

605

606

607

608

609

610

611

612

613

614

615

616

617

618

619

620

621

622

623

624

Resampling analysis was used to compare insertion accounts between genes in the wildtype and  $\triangle PBP$ -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 sqRNAs 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 Sapl 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.

652

653

654

655

656

657

658

659

660

661

662

663

664

665

666

667

668

669

670

671

672

**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 ul 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 beadbeats. CaCl<sub>2</sub> 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

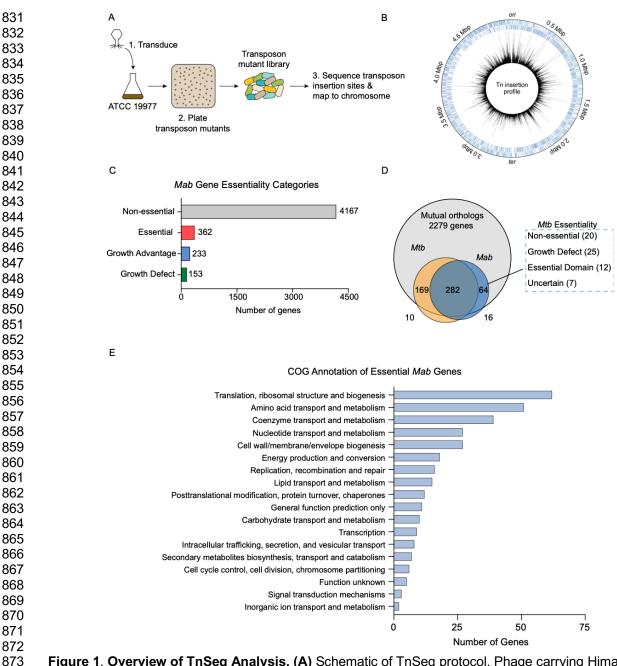
- 1. Bryant JM, Grogono DM, Rodriguez-Rincon D, Everall I, Brown KP, Moreno P, et al. Emergence and spread of a human-transmissible multidrug-resistant nontuberculous mycobacterium. Science. 2016 Nov 11;354(6313):751–7.
- 2. Primm TP, Lucero CA, Falkinham JO. Health impacts of environmental mycobacteria. 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).
- 701 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.
- 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).
- 706
   10. Foreman M, Gershoni M, Barkan D. A Simplified and Efficient Method for Himar-1 Transposon
   707 Sequencing in Bacteria, Demonstrated by Creation and Analysis of a Saturated Transposon-Mutant
   708 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.
- 712 12. Rifat D, Chen L, Kreiswirth BN, Nuermberger EL. Genome-Wide Essentiality Analysis of
   713 Mycobacterium abscessus by Saturated Transposon Mutagenesis and Deep Sequencing. mBio.
   714 2021 Jun 15;e0104921.
- 715 13. Wong EB, Cohen KA, Bishai WR. Rising to the challenge: New therapies for tuberculosis. Vol. 21,
   716 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.
- 725 17. Kieser KJ, Rubin EJ. How sisters grow apart: Mycobacterial growth and division. Vol. 12, Nature 726 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 Ftsl in Mycobacterium tuberculosis. J Antimicrob Chemother. 2009 Mar 1;63(3):451–7.
- 732 20. Soroka D, Dubée V, Soulier-Escrihuela O, Cuinet G, Hugonnet J-E, Gutmann L, et al.
   733 Characterization of broad-spectrum Mycobacterium abscessus class A β-lactamase. J Antimicrob
   734 Chemother. 2014 Mar;69(3):691–6.
- 21. Long JE, DeJesus M, Ward D, Baker RE, loerger T, Sassetti CM. Identifying essential genes in
   Mycobacterium tuberculosis by global phenotypic profiling. Methods Mol Biol Clifton NJ.
   2015;1279:79–95.
- 738 22. DeJesus MA, Ambadipudi C, Baker R, Sassetti C, Ioerger TR. TRANSIT--A Software Tool for Himar1
   739 TnSeq Analysis. PLoS Comput Biol. 2015 Oct;11(10):e1004401.
- 740 23. Rock JM, Hopkins FF, Chavez A, Diallo M, Chase MR, Gerrick ER, et al. Programmable
   741 transcriptional repression in mycobacteria using an orthogonal CRISPR interference platform. Nat
   742 Microbiol. 2017 Feb 6;2(4):1–9.
- 743 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.
- 745 25. Caro F, Place NM, Mekalanos JJ. Analysis of lipoprotein transport depletion in Vibrio cholerae using
   746 CRISPRi. Proc Natl Acad Sci. 2019 Aug 20;116(34):17013–22.
- 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.
- 750 27. Kuru E, Tekkam S, Hall E, Brun YV, Van Nieuwenhze MS. Synthesis of fluorescent D-amino acids 751 and their use for probing peptidoglycan synthesis and bacterial growth in situ. Nat Protoc. 2015 752 Jan;10(1):33–52.
- 753 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).
- 755 29. Baranowski C, Welsh MA, Sham L-T, Eskandarian HA, Lim HC, Kieser KJ, et al. Maturing
   756 Mycobacterium smegmatis peptidoglycan requires non-canonical crosslinks to maintain shape.
   757 eLife. 2018 16;7.
- 758 30. Kieser KJ, Baranowski C, Chao MC, Long JE, Sassetti CM, Waldor MK, et al. Peptidoglycan
   759 synthesis in Mycobacterium tuberculosis is organized into networks with varying drug susceptibility.
   760 Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2015 Oct 20;112(42):13087–92.

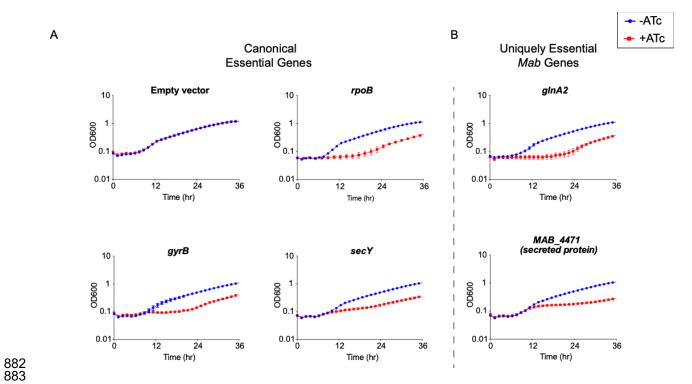
- 31. Slayden RA, Belisle JT. Morphological features and signature gene response elicited by inactivation of FtsI in Mycobacterium tuberculosis. J Antimicrob Chemother. 2009 Mar;63(3):451–7.
- 32. Wissel MC, Weiss DS. Genetic Analysis of the Cell Division Protein FtsI (PBP3): Amino Acid
   Substitutions That Impair Septal Localization of FtsI and Recruitment of FtsN. J Bacteriol. 2004
   Jan;186(2):490–502.
- Jatta 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.
- 781 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.
- 785 39. Rajagopalan M, Maloney E, Dziadek J, Poplawska M, Lofton H, Chauhan A, et al. Genetic evidence
   786 that mycobacterial FtsZ and FtsW proteins interact, and colocalize to the division site in
   787 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 DDcarboxypeptidase-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.
- 805 47. Story-Roller E, Maggioncalda EC, Lamichhane G. Synergistic Efficacy of β-Lactam Combinations
   806 against Mycobacterium abscessus Pulmonary Infection in Mice. Antimicrob Agents Chemother.
   807 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.
- 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.
- 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.

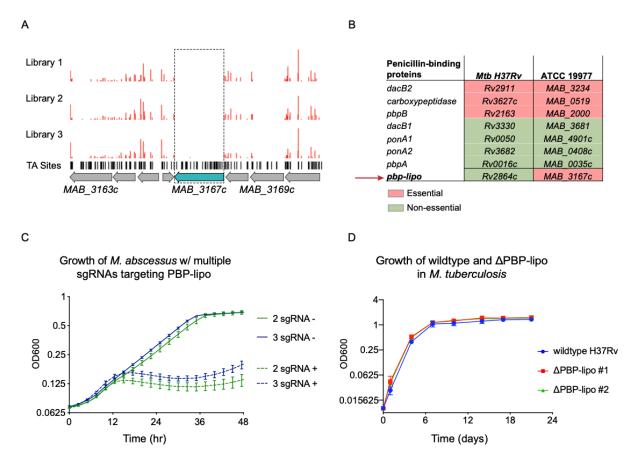
# **Figures and Legends**



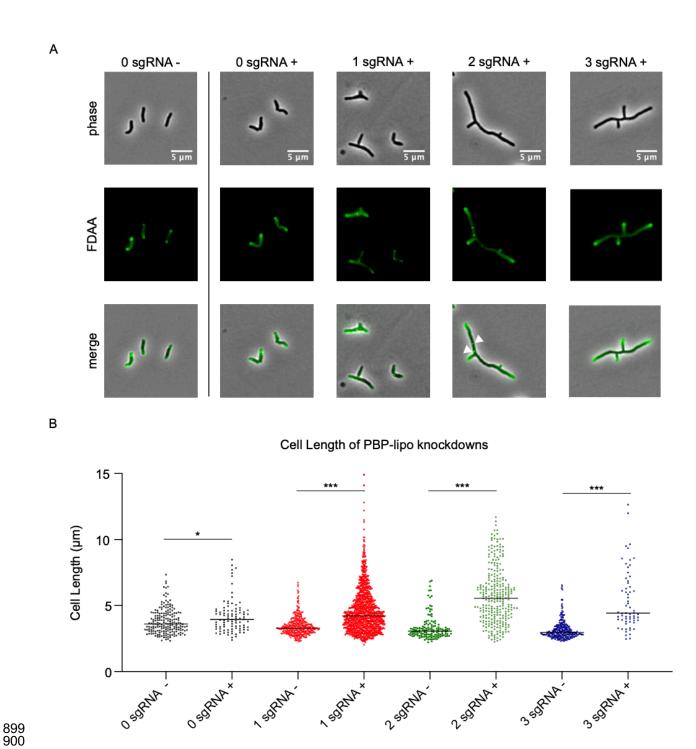
**Figure 1. Overview of TnSeq Analysis. (A)** Schematic of TnSeq protocol. Phage carrying Himar1 transposon is used to transduce *Mab* ATCC 19977 cultures. Over 51,000 independent transposon mutants were generated across three libraries **(B)** Location of transposon insertions in *M. abscessus subsp. 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*.



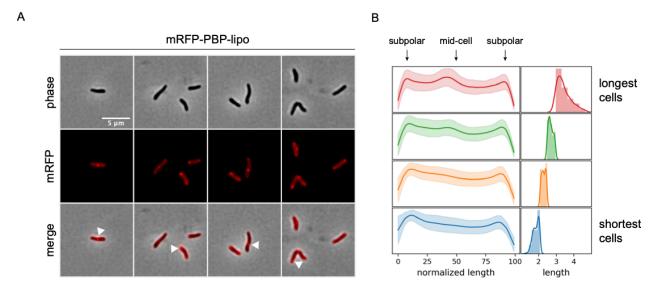
**Figure 2. Validation of Essential Genes. (A)** Growth curve of *Mab* strains with sgRNAs targeting canonical essential genes. **(B)** Growth curve of *Mab* strains with sgRNAs targeting uniquely essential *Mab* genes.



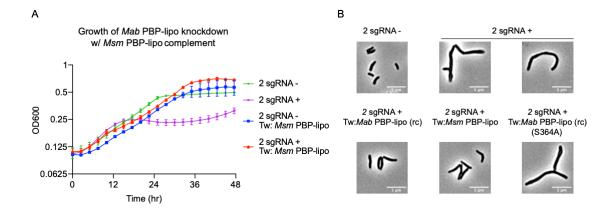
**Figure 3. PBP-lipo is uniquely essential in** *Mab* **and non-essential in** *Mtb.* **(A)** Transposon-insertion profile of PBP-lipo across three replicate transposon libraries. Red bars indicate the number of transposon insertions. Horizontal black lines indicate 'TA' sites, where the transposon inserts. 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 with ATc. **(D)** Growth of wildtype *Mtb* and PBP-lipo knockout strains.

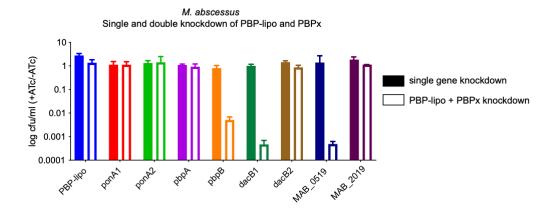


**Figure 4. Knockdown of PBP-lipo disrupts cell morphology. (A)** Microscopy images of PBP-lipo knockdown cultures. *Mab* strains carrying CRISPRi plasmids with either 0, 1, 2, or 3 sgRNAs targeting PBP-lipo. Arrows indicate sites of multiple septa formation. **(B)** Cell lengths of uninduced and induced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



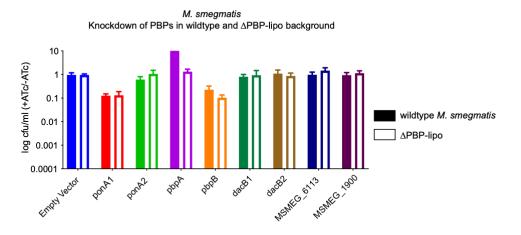
**Figure 5. PBP-lipo localizes to the subpolar region and the septum. (A)** Microscopy images of PBP-lipo N-terminally tagged with mRFP. White arrows demarcate subpolar and septal localization of PBP-lipo. **(B)** Quantification of mRFP signal along the length of the cell using OMEGA imaging pipeline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





С

D



**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<sub>Msm.</sub> **(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).

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	и и
Ticarcillin	>64	>64	" "
Ceftazidime	>64	>64	и и
Cephalexin	>64	>64	и и
Ceftazidime	>64	>64	и и
D-Cycloserine	>64	>64	и и
Ethambutol	>64	>64	" "
Isoniazid	>512	>512	и и
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	1	ı	•
Ofloxacin	8	2	4X
Other	,	1	•
Pyrazinamide	>64	>64	N/A
Pretomanid	>64	>64	ss ss
	ı	l .	I

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

	Ampicillin		Amoxicillin		Meropenem		oenem
Clinical Isolate	-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	1	>256	256

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

930

	,	npicin	antinomycin	Clarithromycin		
Clinical Isolate	-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	