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10   *Mycobacterium* trehalose polyphleates are required for mycobacteriophage infection
17   Running title: Phage requirement for trehalose polyphleates

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Abstract

Mycobacteriophages are good model systems for understanding their bacterial hosts and show

promise as therapeutic agents for nontuberculous mycobacterium infections. However, little is

known about phage recognition of *Mycobacterium* cell surfaces, or what molecules act as phage

receptors. We show here that surface-exposed trehalose polyphleates (TPPs) are required for

infection of *Mycobacterium abscessus* and *Mycobacterium smegmatis* by clinically useful

phages BPs and Muddy, and that TPP loss leads to defects in adsorption, infection, and confers

resistance. Transposon mutagenesis indicates that TPP loss is the sole mechanism for phage

resistance. However, both phages can overcome TPP loss through single amino acid

substitutions in their tail spike proteins, suggesting that TPPs act to facilitate receptor

recognition. Some *M. abscessus* clinical isolates have defects in TPP synthesis but the phage

tail spike mutants could effectively substitute for their parent phages in clinical use to circumvent

resistance due to TPP loss.

Introduction

Nontuberculous mycobacteria (NTM) include several important human pathogens such as
Mycobacterium abscessus and *Mycobacterium avium* [1,2]. These infections are often refractory
to effective antibiotic treatment due to both intrinsic and acquired resistance mutations, and new
treatment options are needed [3]. The therapeutic application of mycobacteriophages shows
some promise for the treatment of pulmonary infections in cystic fibrosis patients [4-6],
disseminated infection following bilateral lung transplantation [4], and disseminated
Mycobacterium chelonae infection [7]. However, broadening therapy beyond single-patient
compassionate use applications will require expansion of the repertoire of therapeutically useful
phages, and increasing host range such that a higher proportion of clinical isolates can be
treated [5,8,9]. Clinical administration of bacteriophages is anticipated to give rise to phage
resistant mutants and disease recurrence [10], but the frequency and mechanisms of
mycobacteriophage resistance are poorly understood [11]. Very few mycobacteriophage receptors
are known, although glycopeptidolipids (GPLs) are proposed as receptors for
mycobacteriophage I3 in *Mycobacterium smegmatis* [12].

Over 12,000 individual mycobacteriophages have been described, with most being isolated on
M. smegmatis [13]. The genome sequences of 2,200 of these show them to be highly diverse
genetically and pervasively mosaic [14,15]. They can be sorted into groups of genomically related
phages (e.g. Cluster A, B, C etc.), some of which can be readily divided into subclusters (e.g.
Subcluster A1, A2, A3 etc.) based on sequence variation [16,17]. Seven of the sequenced phages
currently have no close relatives and are designated as 'Singletons'. A subset of these phages
has relatively broad host range and are also able to efficiently infect *Mycobacterium*
tuberculosis, including phages in Clusters/Subclusters A2, A3, G1, K1, K2, K3, K4, and AB [18,19].
A similar subset of phages also infect some clinical isolates of *M. abscessus*, although it is

noteworthy that phage host ranges on these strains is highly variable (even for related phages

within clusters/subclusters), and is highly variable among different clinical isolates [4,9]. There is

also substantial variation in the outcomes of phage infection of *M. abscessus* strains, with

notable differences between rough and smooth colony morphotypes [9]. For example, a smaller

proportion of smooth isolates are susceptible to phage infection than rough strains – as

determined by plaque formation – and none of the smooth strains are efficiently killed by any

phage tested [9].

Mycobacterial cell walls characteristically have a mycolic acid-rich outer layer referred to as the

mycobacterial outer membrane or mycomembrane [20]. In addition to abundant mycolic acids,

there are numerous other types of complex molecules including multiple acylated lipids such as

di- and polyacyltrehalose (DAT and PAT), phthiocerol dimycocerosate (PDIM) and

sulfoglycolipids (SGL), although not all are found in all *Mycobacterium* species. Smooth strains

of *M. abscessus* have abundant GPLs although these are lacking or greatly less abundant in

rough strains [21,22]. Recently, it has been shown that some mycobacterial species, including *M.

abscessus*, have trehalose polyphleates (TPPs), which are high-molecular-weight, surface-

exposed glycolipids, in their cell walls [23,24]. These TPPs may be important for *M. abscessus*

virulence and are associated with clumping and cording [24]. A five gene cluster, – including a

polyketide synthetase (Pks) – is required for TPP biosynthesis and TPP precursor (DAT)

transport to the outer surface of the cell by MmpL10 [25]. TPPs are not present in *M. tuberculosis*

although DAT and PAT are [25]. The specific roles of TPPs are not known, but their position on

the outer surface makes them candidates for use as phage receptors.

Here, we show that TPPs are required for the binding and infection of *M. abscessus* by phages

BPs and Muddy. These phages share little or no nucleotide similarity but both have been used

therapeutically, sometimes in combination with each other [4,26]. *M. abscessus* transposon

insertion mutants that are resistant to these phages map in four of the five genes involved in

TPP synthesis, but are also located in at least 11 other genetic loci, all of which cause loss of

TPP. Spontaneous phage resistant mutants of some *M. abscessus* clinical isolates also have

mutations in the known TPP synthesis genes. The requirement of TPP for efficient phage

binding can be readily overcome by mutations in phage tail spike proteins. Thus, although TPP

is required for phage infection it likely acts to facilitate recognition of an unknown receptor by the

phages, and the phage mutants enable a bypass for the TPP requirement. Resistance from

TPP loss may play an important role in how these phages are used therapeutically.

Results

Development of a transposon system for mutagenesis of *M. abscessus* clinical isolates

Although there are numerous *M. abscessus* isolates available in which we could potentially

construct mutant libraires, many are not sensitive to phage infection. We chose *M. abscessus*

GD01 (subspecies *massiliense*) as it was the first clinical isolate treated therapeutically and is

sensitive to and killed well by phages Muddy, ZoeJΔ*45*, and BPsΔ*33*HTH_HRM10 [the initial

therapeutic cocktail [4]]. These phages are genomically distinct, mapping in Clusters AB, K2, and

G1, respectively. ZoeJΔ*45* is a lytic derivative of its parent ZoeJ [27], and BPsΔ*33*HTH_HRM10 is

a lytic derivative of BPs [28], carrying a mutation in the portal gene that facilitates efficient infection

of GD01 [4]; Muddy is a lytic phage that efficiently infects GD01 [4].

Strain GD01 has a rough colony morphotype and is also susceptible to phages Itos and

Faith1Δ*38-40* (both in Subcluster L2) and Isca (Subcluster A3). Extant mycobacteria transposon

mutagenesis systems typically use a kanamycin resistance Kan^R-marked transposon

(MycoMarT7 transposon) carried on a temperature-sensitive derivative of phage TM4 [29] (Fig.

1A). However, strain GD01 (and many other *M. abscessus* clinical isolates) is resistant to

kanamycin (MIC>128 µg/mL) [30], and engineering of the transposon was required to include an

alternative selectable genetic marker. Screening of strain GD01 against different antibiotics

revealed sensitivity to hygromycin at high concentrations (1 mg/mL) in solid media.

We used a phage engineering strategy (CRISPY-BRED) [31] to replace the KanR marker in the

MycoMarT7 transposon with a hygromycin-resistance (HygR) marker (Fig. 1A). We constructed

two transposon variants, one that included the R6Kγ origin of replication (present in the

MycoMarT7 transposon) and one without it. The shorter transposon (named MycoMarT7-Hyg2

transposon) transduced strain GD01 ~100 times more efficiently than the longer MycoMarT7-

Hyg transposon; this difference in efficiency was not observed for *M. smegmatis* (data not

shown). We transduced strain GD01 with MycoMarT7-Hyg2 and selected Hyg-resistant

transductants on solid media to yield a random mutagenesis library of clones (Fig. 1B). We note

that phage TM4 – the parent of these transposon delivery phages – does not form plaques on

lawns of *M. abscessus* GD01 or other *M. abscessus* strains [9] but efficiently delivers DNA to *M.*

abscessus cells [32].

Transposon insertion mutants resistant to phages BPsΔ*33*HTH_HRM10 and Muddy

Phage challenges of bacterial transposon insertion mutagenesis libraries are powerful

approaches to identify host factors required for phage infection and phage receptors [33-36]. To

identify phage resistant mutants of *M. abscessus*, the GD01 Tn library was plated on solid

media seeded with 10^9 plaque forming units (pfu) of either phage BPsΔ*33*HTH_HRM10 or

phage Muddy. Survivors grew as single colonies at a frequency of ~10^{-3} of viable cells on both

phage-seeded plates. Individual colonies were picked, rescreened, and analyzed by a targeted

PCR strategy to determine the transposon insertion site. The sites of transposon insertion could

be identified for 17 of the BPsΔ*33*HTH_HRM10 resistant colonies and 11 of the Muddy resistant

colonies; 26 of the insertions were unique (Table 1). Interestingly, seven of the 26 unique

BPsΔ*33*HTH_HRM10-resistant mutants map in the TPP synthesis genes (Table 1, Fig. 1C, D),

but eight of the nine unique Muddy-resistant mutants also map in these genes, suggesting that

normal TPP synthesis is required for infection of both BPsΔ*33*HTH_HRM10 and Muddy (Fig.

1C, D, Table 1). Eight of the unique transposon insertions are in the *fadD23* gene (the 3'-most

gene in the leftwards-transcribed four-gene operon; Fig. 1C) and a single insertion is in *mmpL10*

(Fig. 1C); transposon insertions in *papA3*, *mmpL10* and *pE* may be genetically polar and also

affect *fadD23* expression. Curiously, no insertions were recovered in the *pks* gene, despite it

being a much larger target (11 kbp) than the other four genes and is reported elsewhere as

being non-essential [37]. The other 11 mutants map in 11 separate genetic loci that are generally

not closely linked to the TPP synthesis genes (Table 1).

To confirm phage resistance, lysates of phages BPsΔ*33*HTH_HRM10 and Muddy were tenfold

serially diluted and spotted onto lawns of transposon insertion TPP mutant strains on solid

media (Fig. 1E). When tested on a *fadD23* mutant, the efficiency of plaquing (EOP) of

BPsΔ*33*HTH_HRM10 was reduced by seven orders of magnitude, although some individual

plaques were observed at the highest concentration of phage, possibly representing derivatives

escaping the mutational defect. When Muddy was plated on the same strain, the (EOP) was not

substantially reduced, but the plaques (and spots) were much more turbid than on the parental

GD01 strain (Fig. 1E). Similarly to BPsΔ*33*HTH_HRM10, within higher concentration spots clear

plaques were observed possibly representing derivatives that escape the resistance. These

general patterns of infection for BPsΔ*33*HTH_HRM10 and Muddy were the same for all of the

TPP pathway mutants tested, regardless of whether they were isolated as being resistant to

Muddy or BPsΔ*33*HTH_HRM10. We also tested whether the TPP pathway mutants are co-

resistant to the other phages that GD01 is sensitive to (ZoeJΔ*43-45*, Itos, and Faith1Δ*38-40*)

(Fig. 1E). All three infect all of the mutants tested similarly to the parental GD01 strain, and thus

the phage resistant phenotype is specific to Muddy and BPsΔ*33*HTH_HRM10 among those

tested here (Fig. 1E).

To confirm that phage resistance is a direct consequence of the transposon insertions, we

constructed a plasmid carrying *fadD23* under an inducible promoter in an integration vector. The

fadD23 plasmid was successfully transformed into GD01Tn_BPsHRM10_RM1, harboring a Tn

insertion in *fadD23* (Table 1) and transformants were tested for phage sensitivity. When grown

in the presence of anhydrotetracycline (ATc) inducer, expression of FadD23 complements the

fadD23::Tn insertion and restores the wild-type patterns of infection of both

BPsΔ*33*HTH_HRM10 and Muddy (Fig. 1F). Plasmids carrying *papA3* or *fadD23*, *pE*, *mmpL10*

and *papA3* under control of the native promoter did not efficiently transform strain GD01 and

thus complementation could not be readily tested.

GD01 mutants resistant to BPsΔ*33*HTH_HRM10 and Muddy all show loss of TPP

To test whether the TPP pathway mutants are defective in synthesis and assembly, cell wall

lipids were extracted from four representative mutants (in *pE*, *mmpL10*, *fadD23* and *papA3*) and

analyzed by thin layer chromatography (TLC) (Fig. 2A); all four showed complete loss of TPP.

Previously it was reported that interruption of TPP precursor transport (as in an *mmpL10*

mutant), or loss of PE which is needed for the final step of TPP synthesis (see Fig. 1D), results

in accumulation of the DAT precursor [23,25]. Here, we observe DAT accumulation in the *mmpL10*

transposon insertion mutant, but not in the *pE* mutant (Fig. 2A); it plausible that the *pE*

transposon insertion is genetically polar and leads to loss of fadD23 expression, and a failure to

synthesize DAT. We also examined the 11 additional mutants with mutations in non-TPP

pathway genes. All of these have lost TPP and one appears to accumulate DAT (*MAB_3426c*;

Fig. 2B). It is unlikely that any of the mutants also carry spontaneous mutations in the TPP

synthesis pathway genes, as the transposon insertion mutants were recovered at a ~10^3-fold

higher frequency than spontaneous phage resistant mutants (Fig. 1B).

The finding that all of the BPs- and Muddy-resistant mutants have lost TPP is unexpected, as it

suggests that the remaining 11 genes are involved, directly or indirectly, with some aspect of

TPP synthesis, regulation, assembly, or transport. We tested these mutants for their phage

infection profiles and showed that all have very similar phenotypes to the TPP pathway mutants,

with lack of plaque formation by BPsΔ*33*HTH_HRM10, reduced EOP of Muddy infection, and

sensitivity to ZoeJΔ*43-45* (Fig. 2C, S1).

BPsΔ*33*HTH_HRM10 mutants in the predicted tail spike gene escape the TPP requirement

Although BPs_Δ*33*HTH_HRM10 does not form plaques well on *M. abscessus* strains mutated in

the TPP synthesis pathway, clear plaques were observed at high phage titers, and are

candidates for derivatives escaping TPP loss (Fig. 1E). Five individual plaques were purified,

shown to have heritable infection of TPP mutants, and were further characterized. Two were

isolated on *M. abscessus* GD01 *fadD23::Tn* (phKSW2 and phKSW3), two were isolated on

GD01 *pE::Tn* (phKSW4 and phKSW5), and one was isolated on GD180_RM2 (see below)

(BPs_REM1) (Table 2)*.* Sequencing showed that all have substitutions in gp22, the predicted

BPs tail spike, and that phKSW2 and pKSW4 carry the same substitution (L462R) (Table 2).

The mutants are able to form clear plaques on all TPP synthesis pathway mutants tested (Fig.

3A). Interestingly, two of these substitutions, gp22 A306V and A604E, were reported previously

as BPs host range mutants able to infect *M. tuberculosis* [18,28]. The gp22 A604E substitution is

also present in phage BPsΔ*33*HTH_HRM[GD03] that infects some other *M. abscessus* strains [4].

Although phKSW2 and phKSW4 have a gp22 L462R substitution, BPs_REM1 has both a gp22

L462R substitution and a G780R substitution. BPs_REM1 forms somewhat clearer plaques than

phKSW4 on the TPP mutants (Fig. 3A) suggesting the G780R has an additive effect towards

clear plaque formation.

TPPs are required for efficient adsorption of BPsΔ*33*HTH_HRM10 to *M. abscessus* GD01

Because TPPs are surface-exposed, and are required for BPsΔ*33*HTH_HRM10 infection, we

tested if they are required for adsorption (Fig. 3B). Wild-type BPs has been reported previously

to adsorb rather poorly to wild-type *M. smegmatis* [18] and BPsΔ*33*HTH_HRM10 adsorption is

similarly poor on *M. abscessus* GD01 (Fig. 3B). However, BPsΔ*33*HTH_HRM10 shows a strong

defect in adsorption to the GD01 *fadD23*::Tn mutant (Fig. 3B, left panel). Interestingly, the

BPsΔ*33*HTH_HRM10 gp22 A604E mutant phage (phKSW1) adsorbs considerably faster to

GD01 cells than its parent phage (Fig. 3B, middle panel), similar to its improved adsorption to

M. smegmatis [18]. However, it shows only a small improvement in adsorption relative to its parent

phage on the GD01 *fadD23*::Tn mutant (Fig. 3B). In contrast, ZoeJΔ*43-45* adsorbs similarly to

both *M. abscessus* strains (Fig. 3B, right panel).

Muddy mutants in the predicted tail spike gene *24* also escape the TPP requirement

We similarly isolated a resistance escape mutant of phage Muddy (Muddy_REM1, Table 2) from

an *M. abscessus* Muddy resistant mutant (*M. abscessus* GD180_RM2, see below) and

characterized its infection of TPP pathway mutants (Fig. 3C). We also tested three Muddy

derivatives previously reported as having expanded host ranges on *M. tuberculosis*, being able

to efficiently infect some clinical isolates that wild-type Muddy does not [19]. We observed efficient

infection of all of the TPP pathway mutants by Muddy_REM1 mutant, as well as by

Muddy_HRM^{N0052}-1 and Muddy_HRM^{N0157}-1. In contrast, Muddy_HRM^{N0157}-2 gives very turbid

plaques on all of the mutants similarly to wild-type Muddy (Fig. 3C). Sequencing showed that

Muddy_REM1 contains a single base substitution in the putative tail spike gene *24* conferring a

E680K substitution (Table 2). Interestingly, this is the same substitution as in Muddy_HRM^{N0052}-

1; Muddy_HRM^{N0157}-1 and Muddy_HRM^{N0157}-2 have G487W and T608A substitutions in gp24,

respectively [19]. We note that TPPs are absent from *M. tuberculosis* cell walls [23].

Isolation of spontaneous *M. abscessus* phage resistant mutants in the TPP pathway

We previously isolated mutants of *M. abscessus* clinical strains that are resistant to BPs

variants *in vitro* by challenging phage–susceptible strains with phages and then recovering

survivors [9]. Two of the strains isolated (GD17_RM1 and GD22_RM4, Table 3) have mutations in

pks (*MAB_0939*) and are at least partially resistant to BPsΔ*33*HTH_HRM10 [9]. We have similarly

isolated three additional spontaneous mutants resistant to BPsΔ*33*HTH_HRM10, two of which

(GD38_RM2 and GD59_RM1) have mutations in *pks*; the third (GD180_RM2) has a nonsense

mutation in *mmpL10* (Table 3). BPsΔ*33*HTH_HRM10 does not form plaques on mutants GD38_

RM2, GD17_RM1 or GD59_RM1 and very small plaques at a reduced EOP on GD22_RM4

(Fig. 4A). These mutants thus confirm that point mutations in *M. abscessus* TPP synthesis

genes can give rise to BPs and Muddy resistance, although these have not been observed

clinically [5], suggesting that TPP synthesis may be required for fitness in an ongoing human

infection. They also show that Pks is required for BPs and Muddy infection, even though we did

not isolate any transposon insertions in *pks*. Similarly to the transposon insertion mutants, these

mutants are infected well by other phages we tested (Fig. 4A).

The *M. abscessus* Pks protein (MAB_0939) is a 3697-residue multidomain protein (Fig. 4B).

Two of the spontaneously resistant mutants have frameshift mutations close to the midpoint of

the gene (at codons 2,115 and 2,389, Table 3, Fig. 4B) and two others have amino acid

substitutions in the N-terminal Keto-synthase (KS) domain (Table 3, Fig. 4B). We note that the

two frameshift mutations are in the second Acyltransferase (AT) domain and leave the upstream

domains intact (Fig. 4B); it is plausible that the domains C-terminal to the frameshift mutations

are not required for viability.

M. abscessus spontaneous phage resistant mutants are also defective in TPPs

Spontaneous mutants GD22_RM4 and GD180_RM2 are defective in *pks* and *mmpL10,*

respectively (Fig. 5A), and we showed that both show loss of TPP in their surface lipids (Fig.

5B), as anticipated. We successfully complemented both mutants and demonstrated that

complementation fully restores BPsΔ*33*HTH_HRM10 infection (Fig. 5C) as well as TPP

synthesis (Fig. 5B). To further characterize these infections, we tested a reporter phage

derivative of BPs expressing mCherry [38], which behaves similarly to BPsΔ*33*HTH_HRM10 in

plaque assays (Fig. 5B). Both phages efficiently kill the parental GD22 and GD180 strains in

liquid culture but are defective in infecting both the GD22_RM4 and GD180_RM2 mutants (Fig.

5D); complementation fully restores infection of GD180_RM2, and partially restores infection of

GD22_RM4 (Fig. 5D). Microscopic analysis of infection by the mCherry reporter phages showed

fluorescence and successful infection of the parental strains, loss of fluorescence in both

resistant mutants, and restoration in the complemented strains (Fig. 5E). Quantification shows

that the proportion of infected cells in the resistant mutants is less than 1%. (Fig. 5F). These

data are consistent with an early defect in phage infection in these resistant mutants,

presumably due to loss of adsorption to the cell surface.

Distribution of TPP synthesis genes in *M. abscessus* clinical isolates

M. abscessus clinical isolates vary greatly in their ability to be infected by phages

BPs_Δ*33*HTH_HRM10 and Muddy [9], raising the question as to whether variation in TPP content

contributes to these infection profiles. Analysis of the amino acid sequences of the TPP

synthesis pathway proteins (Pks, PE, PapA3, MmpL10 and FadD23) of 143 sequenced clinical

isolates and reference strain ATCC 19977 identified 37 distinct genotypes that generally

correlate with global nucleotide similarity (Fig. 6A); however, no evident correlation between

these variations and sensitivity to BPs_Δ*33*HTH_HRM10 and/or Muddy was observed (Fig. 6A).

Most of the variation observed reflects amino acid substitutions, although two strains (GD262

and GD273) have identical large deletions in *pks* (3,645 bp) and two others (GD155 and

GD286) have translocations resulting in a 30.2 kbp insertion in *pks* (Fig. 6B). Plaque assays

with Muddy showed that GD273 and GD286 behave consistently with TPP loss, and the phage

resistance escape mutant Muddy_HRM^{N0052}-1 overcomes the TPP requirement (Fig. 6C).

Interestingly, GD262, GD273 and GD286 are not susceptible to BPsΔ*33*HTH_HRM10 nor to its

phage resistance escape mutant BPs_REM1 (Fig. 6C), and these strains likely carry additional

phage defense mechanisms that target BPs and its derivatives. GD155 has a smooth colony

morphotype and is not susceptible to any of the phages tested here.

***M. smegmatis* mutants in the TPP synthesis pathway are resistant to phages**

BPs_Δ*33*HTH_HRM10 and Muddy

Because *M. smegmatis* is genetically tractable and is susceptible to a very large and diverse set

of phages, we also examined the roles of TPPs in that host. Several previously constructed

mutants in the TPP synthesis genes and complemented strains were available [23,39] including

strains with deletions of *pks (MSMEG_0408)*, *mmpL10 (MSMEG_0410)*, and *pE*

(MSMEG_0412). As expected, Δ*pks,* Δ*mmpL10* and Δ*pE* mutants failed to produce TPPs, whilst

complementation of all three mutants restores the presence of TPPs and DAT (Fig. 7A). We

observed overall similar although milder phenotypes of BPsΔ*33*HTH_HRM10 and Muddy

infection as for *M. abscessus* GD01, although BPsΔ*33*HTH_HRM10 forms very turbid plaques

on the Δ*pks* and Δ*papA3* mutants but infects Δ*fadD23* similar to wild-type *M. smegmatis* (Fig. 7A

and Fig. S2). The efficient infection of the Δ*fadD23* mutant is consistent with previous reports of

incomplete TPP loss in such strains, possibly due to an unidentified fatty acyl-AMP ligase

partially overcoming this defect [23]. Muddy similarly forms very turbid plaques on the Δ*pks* and

Δ*papA3* mutants, but only milder so on the Δ*fadD23* mutant (Fig. 7A). Interestingly, the two

BPs_Δ*33*HTH_HRM10-derived host range mutants tested restore normal infection to the *M.*

smegmatis TPP mutants (Fig. 7A). In addition, all of the Muddy host range mutants restore

normal infection of any of the *M. smegmatis* TPP mutants, as reflected in formation of clearer

plaques rather than changes in EOP (Fig. 7A). Complementation of the Δ*papA3* mutant with a

plasmid (pKSW131) carrying the *M. abscessus* GD01 *fadD23*, *mmpL10*, *pE*, and *papA3* genes

successfully restored normal plaque formation by both Muddy and BPsΔ*33*HTH_HRM10 (Fig.

S2A), and the Δ*pks*, Δ*mmpL10*, and Δ*pE* mutants were all successfully complemented with the

individual corresponding genes (Fig. S2B).

The *M. smegmatis* Δ*pks*, Δ*mmpL10* and Δ*pE* mutants all have surface lipids from which TPPs

are absent (Fig. 7B). In addition, the Δ*pE* mutant accumulates DAT at the bacterial surface (Fig.

7B; see Fig. 1D) as reported previously [23]. Complementation of all three mutants restores the

presence of TPPs and DAT (Fig. 7B). BPs_$\Delta33$HTH_HRM10 and its mCherry derivatives are

both defective in liquid infection of all three *M. smegmatis* mutants, and efficient infection and

lysis is restored by complementation (Fig. S3A). The mCherry reporter phage shows

fluorescence in wild-type *M. smegmatis*, but loss of fluorescence in infection of all three

mutants, with restoration of infection in the complemented strains (Fig. S3B). Flow cytometry

quantification shows that infection is reduced to less than 1% of the cells in all three mutants,

and complementation restores infection efficiency to levels similar to wild-type *M. smegmatis*

(Fig. S3C). In addition, the mCherry fluorophage behaves similarly to its parent in plaque assays

on *M. smegmatis* mutant and complemented strains (Fig. S2B).

We tested adsorption of BPs$\Delta33$HTH_HRM10 and the phKSW1 resistance escape mutant to

wild-type *M. smegmatis* and the Δpks mutant (Fig. 7C). The adsorption kinetics are similar to

those seen in *M. abscessus* (Fig. 3B) although we note that the resistance escape mutant

phage (phKSW1) has substantially improved adsorption to the Δpks mutant relative to the *M.*

abscessus fadD23 mutant. ZoeJ$\Delta43$-45 shows no adsorption defect to the Δpks mutant (Fig.

7C).

We next explored a panel of additional *M. smegmatis* phages for their infection profiles on the

M. smegmatis Δpks mutant (Fig. 7D). Most of the phages tested plaque similarly on the Δpks

and wild-type strains or with relatively mild EOP reductions, with three notable exceptions:

ShedlockHolmes, MsGreen, and Papyrus, in Clusters/Subclusters K3, L3, and R, respectively,

that have more pronounced reductions in EOP (Fig. 7D). MsGreen and ShedlockHolmes have

tail genes related to Muddy gene *24*, although we note that ZoeJ does so also, and yet is not

dependent on TPPs for infection. However, such variation is not unexpected, as the escape

mutant observations show that only a single amnio acid substitution is sufficient to confer TPP

independence (Figs. 3A, 3C, 7A).

Discussion

We have shown here that trehalose polyphleates play a key role in phage infection of both *M.*

abscessus and *M. smegmatis*. TPPs, one of the largest known lipids in mycobacteria, are

structurally related to the sulfolipids SL-1 and polyacylated trehalose PAT, which, in contrast to

TPPs, are found exclusively in *M. tuberculosis*. While the biosynthetic pathway of TPPs has

been discovered recently, their general roles in mycobacterial physiology and/or growth remains

unclear. One study has proposed a role of TPPs in the formation of clumps and cording in *M.*

abscessus, an observation based on the fact that extraction of the cell surface-associated lipid

fraction (containing TPPs) by petroleum ether resulted in the loss of corded bacilli [24]. However,

as shown in this study, many TPP-defective *M. abscessus* strains (either selected *in vitro* for

phage resistance, or naturally in patient isolates) present a rough morphotype – typically

associated with cording – indicating that TPP do not play a direct role in mycobacterial cording.

This is consistent with the fact that the rough colonial morphology relies primarily on the loss of

GPLs [22], which, like TPPs, are surface-exposed but structurally unrelated glycolipids.

TPPs are clearly required for infection of BPs and its derivatives as well as Muddy, with

important implications for clinical use, as both of these have been used therapeutically [4,5].

Moreover, Muddy and BPs are genomically distinct and share only seven genes with amino acid

sequence similarity, supporting their combined use in initial therapeutic cocktails on the basis of

likely different infection and thus different host resistance mechanisms. The finding that TPPs

are required for both phages and that co-resistance can occur by TPP loss, presents a counter

argument. Nonetheless, the ability of phage mutants with amino acid substitutions in the

predicted tail spike proteins of BPs (gp22) or Muddy (gp24) to overcome TPP-dependence

suggests that these should routinely replace their parent phages for therapeutic use. The spike

protein phage mutants reported here thus significantly expand the currently available repertoire

of therapeutic phages. Screening of a panel of phages in a TPP-defective mutant of *M.*

smegmatis show that TPPs are not generally required for phage infection, although several

additional phages also require TPPs.

A simple explanation for the role of TPPs is that they act as receptors for recognition by BPs

and Muddy and the other TPP-dependent phages, with phenotypes that are consistent with a

TPP requirement for adsorption to the cell surface. However, the finding that tail spike amino

acid substitutions readily overcome TPP-dependence would then need to be interpreted that

these can recognize a completely different receptor. Although this is plausible, it is unclear what

other surface molecules would present as being sufficiently structurally similar to TPPs for such

recognition. An alternative explanation is that TPPs are acting to facilitate interaction of the

phages with the actual phage receptor, and the tail spike mutants have gained the ability to bind

to the receptor without the aid of TPPs. This is consistent with the observation that tail spike

mutants such as phKSW1 adsorb substantially better than the parent phage even to TPP-

containing host cells and at least in *M. smegmatis*, adsorb better to a TPP-defective mutant than

wild-type phage to wild-type cells. Furthermore, wild-type BPs does not efficiently infect *M.*

tuberculosis H37Rv, but a mutant with the gp22 A604E substitution enables efficient infection [18],

even though *M. tuberculosis* lacks TPP [40]. Moreover, the ability of this phage mutant to infect *M.*

tuberculosis is specific to strain H37Rv, and it does not efficiently infect other *M. tuberculosis*

isolates [19]. Similarly, wild-type Muddy efficiently infects *M. tuberculosis* H37Rv [19] despite its lack

of TPPs, and Muddy tail spike substitutions expand its host range to other *M. tuberculosis*

strains [19]. These observations not only suggest that TPPs are not the receptors for these

phages *per se*, but that there may be general mechanisms governing receptor access by the

phages, together with phage strategies for expanding host cell recognition and infection.

Furthermore, if TPPs are not the target of direct phage recognition, the true receptor is likely to

be encoded by genes that are essential for mycobacterial viability, consistent with the lack of

transposon insertions in genes other than those influencing TPP production.

Globally, the roles of TPPs in phage infection are similar in *M. abscessus* and *M. smegmatis*.

Understanding the roles of TPP in *M. abscessus* is important for therapeutic phage use, and we

note that in at least some clinical isolates the loss of TPP through gene deletions or

translocation leads to loss of infection by BPsΔ*33*HTH_HRM10 or Muddy. In the first therapeutic

use of mycobacteriophages, BPsΔ*33*HTH_HRM10 and Muddy were used in combination with

ZoeJ, and it is of interest that ZoeJ does not display TPP-dependence. We also note that

resistance to BPs derivatives or Muddy has not been observed in clinical use, even in 11 cases

where Muddy was used alone [5]. It is plausible that resistance through TPP loss is not observed

due to loss of fitness and poor virulence as a notable tradeoff. The roles of TPP in *M. abscessus*

pathogenicity clearly needs further study. *M. smegmatis* provides a more genetically tractable

surrogate for studying the roles of TPP and its susceptibility to a large array of phages provides

opportunities for exploring phage-bacterium interactions.

Finally, transposon insertion mutagenesis used to isolate BPsΔ*33*HTH_HRM10 and Muddy

resistant mutants identified insertions in TPP pathways synthesis/transport genes, as well as a

suite of other genes that appear to be also involved in TPP synthesis. The roles of these other

genes in synthesis or translocation of TPPs warrants further investigations. However, the finding

that all of the mutants isolated show loss of TPPs by TLC suggests that TPP loss is the sole

mechanism of resistance to these phages in *M. abscessus*. As such, if tail spike mutants of

BPsΔ*33*HTH_HRM10 and Muddy are routinely used as substitutes of their parent phages in

therapeutic contexts, this may help to further minimize the likelihood of therapeutic failure due to

phage resistance.

Acknowledgements

We thank Chidiebere Akusobi, Mark Sullivan, Kerry McGowen, Carlos Rodriguez and William

DePas for helpful discussions. We also thank all of the students and faculty in the SEA-

PHAGES program that discovered and characterized phages used in this study, and the

numerous colleagues that provided *M. abscessus* strains in the GDxx series. Microscopy and

flow cytometry were performed at the Montpellier Imaging Center for Microscopy (MRI). This

work was supported by grants from the National Institutes of Health grants GM131729 and the

Howard Hughes Medical Institute Grant GT12053 to GFH, a Cystic Fibrosis Foundation Postdoc

Fellowship WETZEL21F0 to KSW, by the French National Research Agency ANR-21-CE44-

0027-01 (MYCOLT) to LK and CC and by Vaincre la Mucoviscidose (RF20200502678) and the

Association Grégory Lemarchal for funding the PhD fellowship of MI.

Declaration of interests

GFH receives support through a Collaborative Research Agreement with Janssen Inc., but

which did not fund the work reported here.

Materials and Methods

Bacterial strains and culture conditions

Bacterial strains (Table S1) were grown in Middlebrook 7H9 media (BD Difco) supplemented

10% oleic acid, albumin, dextrose, catalase (OADC enrichment) (7H9/OADC) or on Middlebrook

7H10/OADC solid media (BD Difco) at 37° C. Antibiotics were added when required.

Transformations of electrocompetent mycobacteria were performed using a Bio-Rad Gene

pulser (25 µF, 2500 V, 800 Ohms). For some *M. smegmatis* strains, Tween-80 (0.05%) was

used in starter cultures but omitted in subcultures used for phage infections. Cultures used in

phage infection were supplemented with 1 mM $CaCl_2$. When required, *M. abscessus* strains

were selected with 1 mg/mL hygromycin or 200 µg/mL streptomycin. *M. abscessus* strains in the

GDxx series are part of strain collection at the University of Pittsburgh and were kindly provided

by numerous colleagues.

Engineering of MycoMarT7-Hyg2

Phage MycoMarT7-Hyg1 and MycoMarT7-Hyg2 were engineered from phage MycoMarT7

using CRISPY-BRED recombineering [31]. Briefly, dsDNA recombineering substrates were

designed that contained the desired mutation (a HygR cassette) with flanking sequence to

permit the replacement of either KanR (MycoMarT7-Hyg1) or KanR and oriR6K (MycoMarT7-

Hyg2). These substrates and genomic DNA from MycoMarT7 were transformed into *M.*

smegmatis mc^{2}155 recombineering cells that contain the plasmid pJV138 [31]. Transformations

were combined with cells containing a CRISPR plasmid selecting against the parent

MycoMarT7 and plated on solid media; this enriches mutants containing the allelic replacement

that form plaques on the plate. Resulting plaques were screened for presence of the Hyg-

marked transposon by PCR, and positive plaques were plaque purified, whole genome

sequenced, and confirmed to have retained temperature sensitivity.

Construction of the *M. abscessus* GD01 transposon insertion library and phage

challenge

The transposon mutagenesis library was largely prepared as previously described [32]. Briefly, 50

mL of *M. abscessus* GD01 was grown to an OD_{600} of 0.2. The cells were pelleted and

resuspended in 1 mL of phage buffer (10 mM Tris HCl, pH 7.5; 10 mM $MgSO_4$; 68.5 mM NaCl; 1

mM $CaCl_2$), pre-warmed to 37° C and infected with 800 µL MycoMarT7-Hyg2 (5×10^{10} pfu/mL).

The cells and MycoMarT7-Hyg2 were incubated at 37° C for 7.5 hours. Cells were pelleted and

resuspended in 8 mL PBS + 0.05% Tween80, and the resuspension was combined with 8 mL

40% glycerol for freezing at -80° C. The transduction frequency was determined by measuring

hygromycin resistant colonies/mL and 120,000 transductants were plated onto large square

plates containing solid 7H10 media with 0.1% Tween80 and 1 mg/mL hygromycin. Plates

incubated at 37° C for nine days. To harvest the library, cells were scraped off the solid media,

resuspended in 7H9/OADC combined with 40% glycerol, aliquoted and frozen at -80° C.

To identify GD01 insertion mutants that were resistant to phage infection, ~20 µL of GD01 Tn

library was thawed and grown overnight to an OD600 of 0.175. Dilutions of this culture

(approximately 10^4, 10^5 and 10^6 cells) were spread onto 7H10 solid media plates seeded with or

without 10^8 pfu of phages BPs_$\Delta 33$HTH_HRM10 or Muddy. Plates were incubated at 37° C for

seven days. Colonies able to grow on phage seeded plates were subjected to PCR to identify a

transposon insertion site (see below) and struck out two times to remove any remaining phage.

After streaking, single colonies were grown in liquid media and used for phage susceptibility

testing by standard plaque assay.

Identification of transposon insertion sites

Transposon insertion sites were identified by PCR using a primer that annealed to the

transposon in the hygromycin resistance gene (Tn_Hyg_Fwd_2: 5'-

CTTCACCTTCCTGCACGACT-3'), and a primer with a degenerate 3' end, or if that did not yield

an amplicon, nested PCR with primers Tn_Hyg_Fwd_2 and Primer 557 (5'-

GGCCAGCGAGCTAACGAGCANNNNNNNNGTT-3') followed by PCR with primers Primer 414

(5'-GGCCAGCGAGCTAACGAGAC-3') and Tn_Hyg_Fwd_1 (5'-

TTCGAGGTGTTCGAGGAGAC-3'). Amplicons were gel extracted, Sanger sequenced from the

transposon, and the result aligned to the GD01 sequence to identify the transposon insertion

site. For most strains (and at least one strain per interrupted gene), the transposon insertion site

was confirmed by designing primers that flanked the site identified by the initial PCR and

confirming that this region had increased in size by 1,259 bp compared to strain GD01.

Screening of phage susceptibility

Phage susceptibility profiles were assessed using standard plaque assays. Top agar bacterial

lawns were made by combining Middlebrook Top Agar (MBTA; Middlebrook 7H9, 1 mM $CaCl_2$,

0.35% BactoAgar) with 300 µL-500 µL cell culture. After top agar had solidified, phages were

10-fold serially diluted and spotted onto the top agar bacterial lawns and incubated 24-48 hours

(*M. smegmatis*) or 5-7 days (*M. abscessus*) until bacterial lawns were confluent. Phages used

in this study were obtained from University of Pittsburgh and *M. smegmatis* mc^{2}155 was used to

propagate them.

Plasmid construction

To create plasmid pKSW131, *fadD23*, *pE*, *mmpL10* and *papA3* and the flanking intergenic

sequence was amplified using Q5 HiFi 2× MasterMix (NEB) from genomic DNA isolated from *M.*

abscessus GD01. The amplicon was purified and cloned into EcoRI-digested vector pLA155

using the NEBuilder Gibson Assembly Master Mix and transformed into *E. coli* strain DH5a. The

culture that yielded a successfully constructed plasmid was grown at 30° C rather than 37° C,

although it is unknown if this contributed to successful plasmid maintenance in the culture. To

create plasmid pKSW134, the open reading frame of *fadD23* was amplified from GD01 gDNA

and cloned into Pml I-digested anhydrotetracycline (ATc) inducible vector pCCK39 [41] using the

NEBuilder Gibson Assembly Master Mix. The entire plasmids were sequenced by

Plasmidsaurus Inc (https://www.plasmidsaurus.com/).

pMV*pks_mWasabi* and pMV*mmpL10_mWasabi* were constructed based on pMV*pks* and

pMV*mmpL10* by in-fusion cloning. The *mWasabi* sequence under the control of the constitutive

Pleft* promoter [42] was amplified by PCR using a Q5 high-fidelity DNA polymerase (New

England Biolabs). Plasmids were linearized with Kpn I-HF (New England Biolabs). Agarose gels

were used to purify linear fragments, then circularized using In-Fusion SNAP Assembly Master

Mix (Takara Inc.), according to the manufacturer's instructions. Stellar competent cells were

used for transformation. Plasmids generated were verified by sequencing.

Isolation and whole genome sequencing of phage resistant mycobacteria mutants

Two of these phage resistant mutants (GD17_RM1 and GD22 RM_4) were described previously

[9]; the others were isolated in the same manner. Briefly, 10^8 CFU *M. abscessus* were incubated

with 10^9 PFU of phage. Infections were plated on solid media at two and five days post infection,

and survivors were purified, tested for phage resistance, and sequenced. The mutants were

sequenced as were described previously [9].

Isolation of BPs_Δ*33*HTH_HRM10 mutants

Clear plaques were observed within high titer spots for phage BPs_Δ*33*HTH_HRM10 on strains

GD01Tn_BPs_HRM10_RM6, GD01Tn_BPs_HRM10_RM11 and GD180_RM2. These plaques

were picked and plated on the resistant strain two additional times to purify. A purified plaque

was then used to produce a high-titer phage lysate on *M. smegmatis* mc^{2}155, and subsequently

subjected to gene *22* PCR sequencing or whole-genome sequencing.

Total lipids extraction of mycobacteria and TLC analysis

Bacteria were grown in LB medium at 37° C without agitation and pelleted by centrifugation

(3,000 g, 10 min, room temperature). Lipids were extracted as described previously [23]. Briefly,

bacterial pellets were treated successively with $CHCl_3/CH_3OH$ (1:2) and $CHCl_3/CH_3OH$ (2:1),

washed with water and dried. Lipids were resuspended in $CHCl_3$ prior to spot on TLC. For TLC

analysis, silica gel G60 plates (10 x 20 cm, Macherey-Nagel) were used to spot samples and

lipids were separated with $CHCl_3/CH_3OH$ (90:10, v/v). Lipid profiles were shown by spraying the

plates with a 0.2% anthrone solution (w/v) in concentrated H_2SO_4 and charring.

Adsorption Assays

M. smegmatis strains were grown to an OD_{600} of 0.5-0.8, then concentrated approximately

tenfold to 1.75×10^9/mL. One milliliter of cells (*M. smegmatis* mc^{2}155 or mc^{2}155 Δpks) were

infected in triplicate in a 12-well plate at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 0.001. At each

timepoint, 50 µL of liquid were removed, pelleted, and the supernatant that contained unbound

phage was titered on *M. smegmatis*. For *M. abscessus* GD01 and *M. abscessus* GD01

fadD23::Tn, the same protocol was followed but the strains were grown to an OD_{600} of 0.15-0.25

and cells were concentrated approximately tenfold to 6.3×10^8/mL.

Growth curves of mycobacteria incubated with phages

Bacterial growth assays were performed in 96-well plates (Falcon), each well containing 100 µL

of bacterial culture and 100 µL of phage lysates or medium as control. Exponential phage

cultures of mycobacteria were used and set at 3×10^7 CFU/mL in Middlebrook 7H9/OADC

supplemented with 1 mM $CaCl_2$. Phages were incubated at a MOI 10 and diluted in 7H9/OADC

supplemented with 1 mM $CaCl_2$. Measurements were taken every three hours for *M. smegmatis*

strains and six hours for *M. abscessus* strains with a spectrophotometer (Tecan, infinite 200

PRO) until stationary phase was reached (2 days for *M. smegmatis* strains and 6 days for *M.*

abscessus strains). Plates were incubated at 37° C without agitation.

Microscopy and flow cytometry sample preparation

Mycobacteria were sub-cultured in 7H9/OADC with agitation to obtain exponential phase

cultures. Bacteria were concentrated to obtain a sample containing 1.2×10^7 CFU (for

microscopy) or 6×10^6 CFU (for flow cytometry) and then incubated with either medium or phage

BPs_$\Delta 33$HTH_HRM10 as controls or phage BPs_$\Delta 33$HTH_HRM10 mCherry (MOI 10). For *M.*

smegmatis strains, the infections were performed for two hours and four hours for *M. smegmatis*

and *M. abscessus*, respectively, at 37° C without agitation. After infection, samples were fixed

with PFA 4% for 20 min at room temperature. Samples were then diluted as necessary

depending on the experiment with 7H9/OADC supplemented with 0.025% tyloxapol and

sonicated to disrupt bacterial aggregates. For microscopy, samples were then mounted

between coverslips and slides with Immu-Mount (Epredia). Samples were kept at 4° C in the

dark until analysis.

Microscopy

DIC (Differential interference contrast) and epifluorescence images were acquired on a ZEISS

Axio Imager Z1 up-right microscope. A 63X Plan Apochromat 1.4 NA oil objective and a 100X

Plan Apochromat 1.4 NA oil objective was used respectively for *M. smegmatis* or *M. abscessus*

strains. mCherry was excited with an Intenslight fiber lamp with Texas Red (Ex: 560/40, dic.

585, Em: 630/75) filter cube. Images were acquired with a scMOS ZYLA 4.2 MP.

Image analysis

Representative fields without technical artefacts were chosen. Fiji software was used to adjust

intensity, brightness and contrast (identically for compared image sets).

Flow cytometry

Infected bacteria were analysed by flow cytometry using a NovoCyte ACEA flow cytometer

(excitation laser wavelength: 561 nm, emission filter: 615/20 nm). Gates were drawn using SSC-

A/FSC-A and multiple cells were excluded with SSC-H / SSC-A. Uninfected cells and bacteria

infected by non-fluorescent phage were included as controls. Approximately 300,000 events

were recorded per experiment. Analysis was done with NovoExpress.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was carried out with GraphPad Prism version 9.0.0 for Windows (GraphPad

Software, San Diego, California, United States). Descriptive statistics are cited and represented

as median and interquartile range for each of the variables calculated. A non-parametric Dunn's

test was used to compare the different conditions at 48 hours for *M. smegmatis* or 144 hours for

M. abscessus. A significance level *a priori* was set at α = 0.05.

Phylogenetic analysis of TPP pathway amino acid sequences in *M. abscessus*

A phylogenetic tree was constructed of a concatenated alignment of amino acid sequences of

the five TPP synthesis pathway members for 143 clinical isolates of *M. abscessus* and *M.*

abscessus ATCC19977. Homologs were identified using MMSeqs2 and phammseqs [43] and

subsequently aligned using ClustalO and Trimal [44]. A concatenated alignment was generated

with a custom python script and the maximum likelihood phylogeny was generated using

RAxML [45].

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 Figure Legends

 Figure 1. Identification of phage-resistant transposon insertion mutants of *M. abscessus*

 GD01. **A**. Construction of MycoMarT7-Hyg1 and MycoMarT7-Hyg2. Transposon delivery phage

 phiMycoMarT7 delivers a Transposon containing *Escherichia coli* ori6Kγ (grey) and kanamycin

 resistance cassette (blue), flanked by 29 bp inverted repeats (yellow boxes). CRISPY-BRED [31]

 was used to create phiMycoMarT7-Hyg1 and phiMycoMarT7-Hyg2, which deliver transposons

 containing oriR6K (grey box) and a hygromycin resistance cassette (red box), or only a

 hygromycin resistance cassette. **B**. *M. abscessus* GD01 or a transposon library of *M. abscessus*

 strain GD01 (GD01 Tn Lib) were plated on solid media or solid media seeded with phages

 BPs_Δ*33*HTH_HRM10. **C**. Locations of transposon insertions in the TPP locus in phage

 resistant mutants. Red and black circles show mutants isolated as resistant to BPs and Muddy,

 respectively; filled and open circles reflect insertions in forward and reverse orientations. **D**.

 Proposed roles of Pks, PapA3, FadD23, MmpL10 and PE in the synthesis and transport of TPP

 and DAT. **E**. Tenfold serial dilutions of phages were spotted onto solid media with *M. smegmatis*

 mc^{2}155, *M. abscessus* GD01, or representative *M. abscessus* GD01 transposon insertion

 mutant strains: GD01 f*adD23*::Tn (GD01Tn_BPs_HRM10_RM1); GD01 *pE*::Tn

 (GD01Tn_BPs_HRM10_RM6); GD01 *mmpL10*::Tn (GD01Tn_BPs_HRM10_RM11); GD01

 papA3::Tn , (GD01Tn_BPs_HRM10_RM10). **F**. Tenfold serial dilutions of phages were spotted

 onto solid media with strain GD01 *fadD23*::Tn/(BPs_HRM10_RM1) containing plasmid

 pKSW134, which contains gene *fadD23* under expression of an anhydrotetracycline (ATc)-

 inducible promoter. FadD23 is not expressed in the absence of ATc (left panel) but is induced

 by ATc (right panel).

 Figure 2. Transposon insertion mutants are deficient in trehalose polyphleates. A. TLC

 analysis of total lipids extracted *M. abscessus* GD01 and mutants with transposon insertions in

the known TPP synthesis and transport genes. *M. smegmatis* mc^{2}155 and a Δ*mmpL10* mutant

strain of *M. smegmatis* are also included as controls. **B**. TLC analysis of total lipids extracted

from *M. abscessus* GD01 and phage resistant mutants with transposon insertions in gene not

previously shown to be involved in TPP synthesis or transport. *M. smegmatis* mc^{2}155 and a

Δ*mmpL10* mutant strain of *M. smegmatis* are also shown. **C**. Ten-fold serial dilutions of phage

lysates (as indicated on left) were spotted onto solid media with either the parent *M. abscessus*

strains (left column) or transposon insertion mutant strains. All transposon insertion strains

showed the same infection profiles and two representative strains are shown (M. ab. GD01

MAB_3593::Tn is GD01Tn_BPsHRM10_RM5; M. ab. GD01 *MAB_2081*::Tn is

GD01Tn_BPsHRM10_RM19).

Figure 3. Mutants of BPs_Δ*33*HTH_HRM10 and Muddy overcome TPP loss. A. Ten-fold

serial dilutions of BPs_Δ*33*HTH_HRM10 and gp22 mutants (as indicated on left) were spotted

onto solid media with *M. smegmatis* mc^{2}155, *M. abscessus* GD01, or *M. abscessus* GD01

transposon insertion mutant strains (top panels). The locations of amino acid substitutions in

BPs_Δ*33*HTH_HRM10 gp22 conferring the ability to infect TPP deficient strains (red) or were

previously found to broaden host range to include *M. tuberculosis* (purple) (bottom panel). The

A306V and A604E substitutions were identified with both assays. **B**. Adsorption of phages

BPs_Δ*33*HTH_HRM10, phKSW1 and ZoeJΔ*43-45* to *M. abscessus* strains GD01 and GD01

fadD23::Tn as indicated by the percentage of unadsorbed phages remaining in infection

supernatants at different times after infection. Assays were performed in duplicate at least twice

with similar results and a representative experiment is shown. **C**. Tenfold serial dilutions of

Muddy and Muddy gp24 mutants (as indicated on left) were spotted onto solid media with *M.*

smegmatis mc^{2}155, *M. abscessus* GD01, or *M. abscessus* GD01 transposon insertion mutant

strains (top panels). The location of amino acid substitutions in Muddy gp24 that confer the

ability to infect TPP deficient strains (bottom panel).

Figure 4. Phage infection profiles of *M. abscessus* spontaneous phage resistant mutants.

Tenfold serial dilutions of phage lysates (as indicated on left) were spotted onto solid media with

M. smegmatis mc^{2}155, the parent *M. abscessus* strains (left) or spontaneously isolated phage

resistant mutant (RM) derivatives (right). **B**. A schematic representation of *M. abscessus* Pks

showing the location of predicted functional domains and the amino acid changes in

spontaneous phage resistant mutants below. Domain abbreviations are: AT, Acyltransferase;

KS, Ketosynthase, KR, Ketoreductase; DH, Dehydratase; ER, Enoylreductase; PP,

phosphopantetheinylate acyl carrier protein. Domains were identified using the PKS analysis

web site at http://nrps.igs.umaryland.edu/ [46].

Figure 5. TPPs are essential for BPs_Δ*33*HTH_HRM10 to lyse *M. abscessus*. A.

Representation of the *M. abscessus* TPP locus showing the mutations affecting the clinical

strains studied. **B**.TLC analysis of total lipids extracted from *M. abscessus* clinical strains (GD22

and GD180), spontaneous resistant mutants (RM) and complemented strains (::C). Eluent:

$CHCl_3/CH_3OH$ (90:10, v/v). Anthrone was sprayed on the plates to visualized the lipid profile

and followed by charring. **C**. Phage efficiency on solid media against clinical strains, resistant

mutants and complemented strains. Phages were spotted as ten-fold serial dilutions. Plates

were incubated 2-3 days at 37° C prior to image. The assay was repeated at least three times

and a representative experiment is shown. **D**. Liquid growth of the strains with or without

BPs_Δ*33*HTH_HRM10 or BPs_Δ*33*HTH_HRM10 mCherry (MOI 10) monitored every 6 hours for

6 days at 37° C in 7H9^{OADC} supplemented with 1 mM $CaCl_2$. Data are plotted as the median of

three independent experiments made in triplicates ± interquartile range. Statistical analysis

conducted to compare the differences at 144h between each strain. ns, $P \geq 0.05$, * $P \leq 0.05$, **

P ≤ 0.01, *** P ≤ 0.001**** P ≤ 0.0001. **E**. Representative fields of *M. abscessus* clinical strains

infected with BPs_Δ*33*HTH_HRM10 mCherry (MOI 10) for 4 hours at 37° C prior to fixation.

Infected bacilli appear in red. **F**. Flow cytometry data are represented as dot plot show the

percentage of bacilli infected with the BPs_Δ*33*HTH_HRM10 mCherry fluorophage relative to

the study population.

Figure 6. **TPP synthesis pathway gene variation and phage infection. A**. Amino acid

sequences from the five TPP synthesis pathway genes (shown in panel B) in 143 *M. abscessus*

clinical isolates (and *M. abscessus* ATCC19977) were concatenated and used to construct a

phylogenetic tree. Strain morphotype is labeled as either R for rough or S for

smooth. Susceptibilities to phages BPs_Δ*33*HTH_HRM10 and Muddy are represented in green

and red, as described previously [9]. Arrows indicate strains in panels B and C. **B**. Position of the

large deletions (GD262 and GD273) or insertions (GD155 and GD286) in the *pks* gene with

respect to the GD01 TPP locus. **C**. Ten-fold serial dilutions of phage lysates (as indicated on

left) were spotted onto solid media with either *M. smegmatis* mc^{2}155 or *M. abscessus* strains

GD273 and GD286. The control BPsΔ*33*HTH_HRM10 and BPsREM1 phage spots on *M.*

smegmatis are from the same experiment.

Figure 7. TPPs are also required for infection of *M. smegmatis* by phages BPs and

Muddy. A. Tenfold serial dilutions of phages (as indicated on left) were spotted onto solid media

with *M. smegmatis* mc^{2}155, Δ*pks*, Δ*papA3* or Δ*fadD23* as indicated. **B**. TLC analysis of total

lipids extracted from wild-type *M. smegmatis*, three TPP-deficient mutants and the

corresponding complemented strains. Eluent: CHCl$_3$/CH$_3$OH (90:10, v/v). TLC was revealed by

spraying anthrone on the plate, followed by charring. **C**. Adsorption of phages

BPs_Δ*33*HTH_HRM10, phKSW1 and ZoeJΔ*43-45* on *M. smegmatis* strains mc^{2}155 and Δ*pks*

as indicated by the percentage of unadsorbed phages remaining in infection supernatant at

different times after infection. Assays were performed in triplicate at least twice with similar

results and a representative experiment is shown. **D**. A panel of phages from various genetic

clusters were tenfold serially diluted and spotted onto *M. smegmatis* mc^{2}155 and Δ*pks.* Phage

names are shown with their cluster/subcluster designation in parentheses.

Table 1. Characterization of phage resistant *M. abscessus* GD01 transposon mutants

Strain Name[1]	Isolated as resistant to[2]	Tn insertion coordinate[3]	Direction of Hyg ORF[4]	GD01 Locus Tag[5]	ATCC19977 Gene Name[6]	Protein Name/ Function Prediction[7]	PCR ver.[8]	Plaque assay[9]
GD01Tn_BPsHRM10_RM18	BPs	50130	Fwd	EXM25_00255	*MAB_0457*	Hypothetical protein	Y	Y
GD01Tn_Muddy_RM9	Muddy	895811	Rev	EXM25_04535	*MAB_0935c*	FadD23	Y	Y
GD01Tn_BPsHRM10_RM9	BPs	896103	Fwd	EXM25_04535	*MAB_0935c*	FadD23	ND	ND
GD01Tn_BPsHRM10_RM15	BPs	896250	Rev	EXM25_04535	*MAB_0935c*	FadD23	ND	ND
GD01Tn_Muddy_RM11[10]	Muddy	896372	Rev	EXM25_04535	*MAB_0935c*	FadD23	ND	ND
GD01Tn_Muddy_RM15[10]	Muddy	896372	Rev	EXM25_04535	*MAB_0935c*	FadD23	ND	ND
GD01Tn_Muddy_RM13	Muddy	896513	Rev	EXM25_04535	*MAB_0935c*	FadD23	ND	ND
GD01Tn_Muddy_RM7	Muddy	896840	Rev	EXM25_04535	*MAB_0935c*	FadD23	ND	ND
GD01Tn_Muddy_RM12	Muddy	896990	Rev	EXM25_04535	*MAB_0935c*	FadD23	Y	Y
GD01Tn_BPsHRM10_RM1	BPs	897275	Rev	EXM25_04535	*MAB_0935c*	FadD23	Y	Y
GD01Tn_BPsHRM10_RM6	BPs	897828	Rev	EXM25_04540	*MAB_0936c*	PE	Y	Y
GD01Tn_Muddy_RM20	Muddy	898646	Rev	EXM25_04540	*MAB_0936c*	PE	Y	Y
GD01Tn_BPsHRM10_RM11	BPs	899212	Fwd	EXM25_04545	*MAB_0937c*	Mmpl10	Y	Y
GD01Tn_BPsHRM10_RM2	BPs	901937	Rev	EXM25_04550	*MAB_0938c*	PapA3	ND	ND
GD01Tn_Muddy_RM17	Muddy	902798	Fwd	EXM25_04550	*MAB_0938c*	PapA3	Y	Y
GD01Tn_BPsHRM10_RM10	BPs	902799	Rev	EXM25_04550	*MAB_0938c*	PapA3	Y	Y
GD01Tn_Muddy_RM19	Muddy	903001	Rev	EXM25_04550	*MAB_0938c*	PapA3	Y	Y
GD01Tn_BPsHRM10_RM13	BPs	934573	Rev	EXM25_04650	*MAB_0958c*	NAD(P)-binding domain-containing protein	Y	Y
GD01Tn_BPsHRM10_RM3	BPs	1702803	Rev	EXM25_08515	*MAB_1681*	Hypothetical protein	Y	Y
GD01Tn_Muddy_RM6	Muddy	1799970	Fwd	EXM25_09000	*MAB_1882c*	DoxX family membrane protein	Y	Y
GD01Tn_BPsHRM10_RM19	BPs	2004769	Rev	EXM25_10050	*MAB_2081*	Acyl-CoA dehydrogenase family protein	Y	Y
GD01Tn_Muddy_RM14	Muddy	2068078	Fwd	EXM25_10305	*MAB_2130*	HAD family phosphatase	Y	Y
GD01Tn_BPsHRM10_RM17	BPs	3319297	Rev	EXM25_16510	*MAB_3332c*	DoxX family protein	Y	Y
GD01Tn_BPsHRM10_RM14	BPs	3419195	Rev	EXM25_17025	*MAB_3426c*	SDR family oxidoreductase	Y	Y
GD01Tn_BPsHRM10_RM4	BPs	3438375	Fwd	EXM25_17140	*MAB_3449c*	MFS transporter	Y	Y
GD01Tn_BPsHRM10_RM7[10]	BPs	3546108	Rev	EXM25_17670/ 17675 IR	*MAB_3538/ 3539 IR*		Y	Y
GD01Tn_BPsHRM10_RM12[10]	BPs	3546108	Rev	EXM25_17670/ 17675 IR	*MAB_3538/ 3539 IR*		ND	ND
GD01Tn_BPsHRM10_RM5	BPs	3575341	Fwd	EXM25_17815	*MAB_3593*	MgtC/SapB family protein	Y	Y

[1] Name given to strain arising from a GD01 Tn library colony that grew on a phage seeded plate

[2] The strain was isolated from a solid agar plate seeded with this phage; BPs, BPsΔ*33*HTH_HRM10

[3] Coordinate of the transposon insertion into strain GD01 (accession number CP035923.1)

[4] Direction of the hygromycin resistance gene open reading frame at the given coordinate

[5] The locus tag of the interrupted gene in strain GD01 (accession number CP035923.1) IR, Intergenic region

[6] The gene name of the *M. abscessus* ATCC 19977 homolog of the gene interrupted in *M. abs*cessus GD01. IR, Intergenic region

[7] Protein name or predicted function as determined by TPP synthesis pathway homologs or annotations of ATCC 19977 (NC_010397.1)

[8] The location of the transposon insertion was confirmed by a second PCR with primers designed to flank the insertion site. Y, Yes; ND, Not determined.

[9] The strain was streaked out to remove phage, grown in liquid media and tested for phage resistance by plaque assay. Y, Yes; ND, Not determined.

[10] In two instances, two strains isolated against the same phage were found to have identical transposon insertion sites

885 Table 2. Phage BPs and Muddy mutants escaping TPP-loss mediated resistance
886

Phage[1]	Parent[2]	Amino Acid Substitution[3]	Isolated on[4]	Reference
phKSW2	BPsΔ*33*HTH_HRM10	gp22 L462R	*M. ab.* GD01Tn BPs_HRM10_RM6	This work
phKSW3	BPsΔ*33*HTH_HRM10	gp22 A306V	*M. ab.* GD01Tn BPs_HRM10_RM6	This work
phKSW4	BPsΔ*33*HTH_HRM10	gp22 L462R	*M. ab.* GD01Tn BPs_HRM10_RM11	This work
phKSW5	BPsΔ*33*HTH_HRM10	gp22 A604E	*M. ab.* GD01Tn BPs_HRM10_RM11	This work
BPs_REM1	BPsΔ*33*HTH_HRM10	gp22 L462R; G780R	*M. ab.* GD180_RM2	This work
phKSW1	BPsΔ*33*HTH_HRM10	gp22 A604E	*M. smegmatis* ΔMSMEG_5439	This work
Muddy_REM1	Muddy	gp24 E680K	*M. ab.* GD180_RM2	This work
Muddy_HRM[N0157]-1	Muddy	gp24 G487W	*M. tuberculosis* N0157	[19]
Muddy_HRM[N0157]-2	Muddy	gp24 T608A	*M. tuberculosis* N0157	[19]
Muddy_HRM[N0052]-1	Muddy	gp24 E680K	*M. tuberculosis* N0052	[19]

887
888 [1] Name of a phage able to form more clear plaques on TPP synthesis pathway mutants
889 [2] Parent phage from which the mutant was isolated
890 [3] Amino acid substitutions identified in mutant phages
891 [4] The *M. abscessus* or *M. tuberculosis* strain on which the mutant phage was isolated
892

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895

896 Table 3. *M. abscessus* mutants spontaneously resistant to phage BPs derivatives
897

Resistant mutant[1]	Parent[2]	Isolated as resistant to[3]	Mutated gene[4]	Amino Acid Substitution[5]	Reference
GD17_RM1	*M. ab.* GD17	BPsHRM[GD03]	*pks*	G210V	[9]
GD22_RM4	*M. ab.* GD22	BPsΔ33HTH_ HRM10 and Itos	*pks*	W2389fsX2406	[9]
GD38_RM2	*M. ab.* GD38	BPsΔ33HTH_ HRM10	*pks*	M2115fsX2118	This work
GD59_RM1	*M. ab.* GD59	BPsΔ33HTH_ HRM10 and Itos	*pks*	D327Y	This work
GD180_RM2	*M. ab.* GD180	BPsΔ33HTH_ HRM10	*mmpL10*	S688fsX704	This work

898
[1] Resistant mutants were named after the parent strain and the number of the resistant mutant (RM) isolated
[2] Parent strain of *M. abscessus* from which the resistant mutant was isolated upon phage infection
[3] RMs were isolated by infecting cell cultures at a high MOI and plating infections on solid media to isolate
survivors
[4] The entire genomes of the resistant mutants were sequenced and compared to the genomes of the parents
to identify mutated genes conferring phage resistance
[5] The amino acid substitution in the protein product resulting from the gene mutation
906
907

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

A

B

$$\text{KS} \quad \text{AT} \quad \text{KR} \quad \text{PP} \quad \text{KS} \quad \text{AT} \quad \text{DH} \quad \text{ER} \quad \text{KR} \quad \text{PP}$$

1   1000   2000   3000

G210V   D327Y   2115f/s   2389f/s

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7