Unveiling genome plasticity and a novel phage in *Mycoplasma felis*: genomic investigations of

four feline isolates

Sara M. Klose[1,2*], Alistair R. Legione[1*], Rhys N. Bushell[3], Glenn F. Browning[1] and Paola K. Vaz[1]

*S.M.K. and A.R.L. contributed equally to this work.

Affiliation:

1. Asia-Pacific Centre for Animal Health, Melbourne Veterinary School, Faculty of Science, The

University of Melbourne, VIC, Australia

2. Institute of Molecular Medicine and Experimental Immunology, Faculty of Medicine, University

of Bonn, NRW, Germany

3. Department of Veterinary Clinical Sciences, Melbourne Veterinary School, Faculty of Science, The

University of Melbourne, VIC, Australia

Corresponding Author: Alistair Legione, legionea@unimelb.edu.au

Keywords: *Mycoplasma felis*, whole genome sequencing, genome plasticity, evolution, phage

Abstract:

Mycoplasma felis has been isolated from diseased cats and horses, but to date only a single fully assembled genome of this species, of an isolate from a horse, has been characterised. This study aimed to characterise and compare the completely assembled genomes of four clinical isolates of *M. felis* from three domestic cats, assembled with the aid of short and long read sequencing methods. The completed genomes encoded a median of 759 open reading frames (min, 743, max 777) and had a median average nucleotide identity (ANI) of 98.2% with the genome of the available equid origin reference strain. Comparative genomic analysis revealed the occurrence of multiple horizontal gene transfer (HGT) events and significant genome reassortment. This had resulted in the acquisition or loss of numerous genes within the Australian felid isolate genomes, encoding putative proteins involved in DNA transfer, metabolism, DNA replication, host cell interaction, and restriction modification systems. Additionally, a novel mycoplasma phage was detected in one Australian felid *M. felis* isolate by genomic analysis and visualised using cryo-transmission electron microscopy. This study has highlighted the complex genomic dynamics in different host environments. Furthermore, the sequences obtained in this work will enable the development of new diagnostic tools, and identification of future infection control and treatment options for the respiratory disease complex in cats.

Data summary:

All genome data for this study have been deposited in GenBank under BioProject PRJNA906261. Genome assemblies, as well as Illumina and Oxford Nanopore sequence reads for each isolate, can be found under their respective BioSamples: SAMN32182834 (isolate 047), SAMN32182835 (isolate 219), SAMN32182836 (isolate 329), and SAMN32182837 (isolate 632). The authors confirm all supporting data and protocols have been provided within the article.

Impact statement:

Mycoplasma felis is commonly associated with clinical cases of conjunctivitis and feline respiratory disease complex in cats, the leading cause of euthanasia in animal shelters. In the absence of vaccines, infection control is currently limited to the prolonged treatment with antimicrobials. Prior to this study there was only one complete genome assembly of an isolate of *M. felis*, which had been obtained from a horse. This study has provided the first high quality hybrid assembled genomes of

M. felis isolates from cats. This work adds four new genomes from clinical cases, as well as the identification and validation of the presence of a novel phage that utilises the mycoplasma translation code. The genomic data presented here can assist future projects investigating improved diagnostics and development of new treatment options for this significant feline pathogen.

Introduction:

Mycoplasmas are the smallest free-living bacteria and have some of the smallest bacterial genomes (0.58 – 1.38 Mb). They are thought to approach the minimal gene sets essential for independent life, making them ideal model organisms for studies on the fundamental requirements of a living cell [1]. They evolved from Gram positive bacterial ancestors 600 million years ago [2] and have undergone considerable genome reduction during their evolution [3, 4]. They lack a cell wall, are pleomorphic and can infect and cause acute and chronic disease in a diverse range of animal and plant species [5].

Some mycoplasmas have been found to exhibit significant genetic plasticity and to evolve rapidly, mainly driven by intra-species spontaneous mutation and recombination or horizontal gene transfer (HGT) between and within species, facilitating swift adaptation to environmental changes, enhancing survival and/or virulence [6-9]. Studies examining the genomic stability of *Mycoplasma synoviae* have revealed that mutations occur frequently during infection in birds [10], and that rapid thermoadaptive evolution can occur *in vitro* and *in vivo* [11], presumably to regain fitness and pathogenicity [12, 13]. HGT appears to occur more frequently between species that share an ecological niche, irrespective of their phylogenetic divergence. Examples of significant HGT include the transfer of the genes encoding the phase variable VlhA cell surface lipoproteins between the poultry pathogens *Mycoplasma gallisepticum* and *M. synoviae* [14], and the transfer of several cell surface lipoproteins involved in host colonisation between the ruminant pathogens *Mycoplasma capricolum* subsp. *capricolum* and *Mycoplasma mycoides* subsp. *Mycoides*, and *Mycoplasma agalactiae* and *Mycoplasma bovis* [15].

At least four species of mycoplasmas have been isolated from cats (*Mycoplasma felis*, *Mycoplasma gateae*, *Mycoplasma arginini*, and *Mycoplasma feliminutum*), in most cases as commensals, but they have been associated with conjunctivitis and, increasingly, feline respiratory disease [16-19]. Feline respiratory disease complex (FRDC) is the leading cause of euthanasia of cats in animal shelters [20]

and is commonly associated with several viral (feline herpesvirus 1 and feline calicivirus) and bacterial

pathogens, including *M. felis* [21, 22]. *M. felis* infections are common in most cat populations and the

ability of this organism to persist in an animal enhances opportunities for recurrent opportunistic

infections. Vaccines against *M. felis* are not currently available and treatment is limited to the

prolonged treatment with tetracyclines or fluoroquinolones [23, 24]. Currently full genomes of three

isolates of this species have been published: strain Myco-2 (GenBank accession number:

AP022325.1), an isolate from a case of respiratory disease in a horse in Japan [25], which has been

completely assembled, and multiple assemblies of isolates 16-040612-4 (CP104192, CP104193,

CP104194, CP11027) and 16-057065-4 (CP103988, CP103993, CP110269), which were each isolated

from feline bronchoalveolar lavages in Canada [26]. Additionally, there is an incomplete genome of

ATCC strain 23391, assembled into scaffolds (GenBank Biosample: SAMN02841218).

The aim of this study was to sequence and assemble four high quality, complete *M. felis* genomes,

using hybrid assembly methods. These genomes would represent the first complete assemblies of

feline isolates of this species. The objective was to a significantly expand on our limited

understanding of the genomic structure and plasticity of *M. felis*, which may lead to enhanced

development of diagnostic tests and vaccines, as has been seen in other mycoplasma species.

99   Methods:

Mycoplasma isolation

Swabs were collected for bacteriological culture from clinical cases of respiratory disease (3 cases)

and an unresolved post-surgical infection (1 case) (Table 1). Swabs were used to inoculate sheep

blood agar (SBA) plates, which were incubated aerobically at 37°C. Following observation and

presumptive identification of small mycoplasma-like colonies, single colonies were transferred to

Mycoplasma Broth (MB) containing 10% swine serum (Sigma-Australia) and 0.01% nicotinamide

adenine dinucleotide (NAD) (Sigma-Australia), based on the formulation of Frey's medium, with

minor modifications [27]. Acidification of the MB medium was used to confirm the growth of

Mycoplasma spp. and the cultures were stored at -80°C for future investigation.

DNA extraction, sequencing, and genome assembly

Mycoplasma isolates were cultured axenically in MB for 18 h at 37°C prior to DNA extraction. Bacteria

were pelleted and the medium removed, and then resuspended in the appropriate extraction kit lysis

buffer. The DNA for short read sequencing was extracted using the DNeasy Blood and Tissue Kit

(QIAGEN), following the manufacturer's protocol, and 100 ng of the extracted DNA was used to

prepare sequencing libraries using Illumina's Nextera Flex DNA Library Prep Kit. Sequencing was

performed on the NovaSeq platform at Charles River Laboratories, Victoria, Australia, to generate

150 bp paired-end reads. Two rounds of Oxford Nanopore Technologies (ONT) long read sequencing

were performed. The DNA was extracted using the Promega Wizard DNA Purification Kit (Round 1)

or the Promega Wizard High Molecular Weight DNA Purification Kit (Round 2). DNA libraries were

generated using the ONT Rapid Barcoding (SQK-RBK004) Kit. Sequencing was performed on a MinION

Mk1b device fitted with a FLO-MIN106D Flow Cell (R9.4.1 chemistry). Base calling, de-multiplexing,

and adapter removal were performed using the Guppy (version 6.2.1+6588110a6) high accuracy base

caller with a minimum quality score of 9 (default settings). The Illumina reads were trimmed and

adaptors removed with fastp v0.20.1 [28] using the default settings. The ONT reads from the two

rounds were merged for each isolate and processed using Filtlong v0.2.0 [29] to remove all reads

shorter than 1000 bp, retaining 90% of input data (after removal of short and low-quality reads).

Subsequently, the processed short and long reads were used as input into Unicycler v0.5.0 [30] in

'normal' mode, with a modified start gene database that included *M. felis*. The assemblies where

then polished using Polypolish v0.5.0 [31], incorporating BWA-MEM v0.7.17-r1188 [32]. Full genome

alignments were generated using the progressive MAUVE algorithm [33] to identify regions of

reassortment and gene loss or gain.

Genome annotation and sequencing analysis

The genomes were annotated using the Prokaryotic Genome Annotation Pipeline v2022-12-

13.build6494 [34] for primary analysis. A *Tenericutes* specific protein database, containing both

Swiss-Prot (4464 sequences) and TrEMBL (343,598 sequences) annotations, was downloaded from

UniProt and converted to a Diamond format protein database [35]. This database was used as input

to Pydeel (https://github.com/alegione/pydeel) to determine the coding ratio of our annotated

genomes in comparison with *M. felis* genomes on GenBank. This tool identifies the coding ratio of

annotated genes compared to their best hit within the provided database to identify the proportion

of annotated genes that may have erroneous insertions or deletions as a by-product of the use of

long read sequencing. From here, annotated genomes were processed through Panaroo v1.3.0 [36],

along with previously sequenced *M. felis* genomes (Myco-2 and ATCC23391), to identify the core

genome. The core genome results were visualised using Pagoo [37]. The annotated genomes from

this study were investigated for pathogenicity islands and integrative conjugative elements using

Island Viewer 4 [38] and ICE finder [39], respectively. Antimicrobial resistance genes and virulence

factors were detected by generating a Diamond database of the CARD [40] and full virulence factor

databases [41], and using Diamond BLASTp to identify best hits with a cut-off bit score of 50. The

UniProt webserver was used to identify homologs of specific open reading frames (ORFs) in other

genomes (https://www.uniprot.org).

Phage isolation and visualisation

A phage-like contig was identified in the annotation results of one of the assemblies (MF329). In

order to confirm whether the detection of a bacteriophage genomic sequence corresponded to the

presence of an integrated prophage or to replicative virions, bioinformatic methods were first

utilised. The probable terminal ends were investigated using short and long read mapping to the

contig with BWA-MEM and minimap2 v2.26-r1175 [42], respectively, and the contig's starting point

adjusted based on the depth of coverage. The tool PhageTerm [43] was also used to investigate the

potential phage start and end points. To investigate whether this contig was a prophage, the long

reads were mapped, using minimap2, to the updated phage contig. Any reads that had overhangs at

the 5' and 3' ends of the contig were extracted and subsequently mapped to the assembled MF329

genome to determine whether there was a common point of overlap. To detect the presence of

bacteriophage virions, transmission electron microscopy was performed on a culture of MF329.

Isolate MF329 was cultured in 50 mL of Mycoplasma Broth, as described above, for 20 hours. The

culture was centrifuged for 15 mins at 10,000 x g at 4°C and the medium fraction separated from the

bacterial cell pellet. The bacterial cells were gently lysed by resuspension in 150 µL of sterile water,

followed by centrifugation at 10,000 x g at 4°C for 5 mins to remove cellular debris. This was repeated

twice, with the supernatant fraction captured each time for ultracentrifugation. The culture medium

and the cell lysate supernatant fractions were separately ultra-centrifugated at 100,000 x g for 90

min at 4°C, and the pellets resuspended in 0.2 M HEPES buffer, pH 7.7. Negativeky stained samples

were examined at the Ian Holmes Imaging Center (Melbourne, Australia) using a FEI Talos L120C

cryoTEM (Talos L120C) microscope.

Results:

Characterisation and comparisons of genomes

All four isolates were successfully assembled into circularised, complete genomes. In addition to these four genomes, a novel *M. felis* phage genome was identified that utilised the mycoplasma translation code. Metrics for long and short read sequencing output are provided in Table 2. The assembly statistics for the four isolates are provided in Table 3. Briefly, the circularised isolates were significantly larger than the reference genome (Myco-2; 841,695 bp), with a median length of 940,935 bp (range: 905,741 – 948,716) and a median of 759 coding domain sequences (CDSs) (range: 743 – 777), compared to the reference genome which has 740 CDSs. The NCBI Prokaryotic Genome Annotation Pipeline incorporates a CheckM [44] completeness analysis and an average nucleotide identity taxonomic classification step to identify any potential issues with an assembled genome. For all four genomes the CheckM completeness mirrored that of the reference Myco-2 genome (99.21% completeness), and all assemblies were classified as *Mycoplasma felis* with high confidence (Table 3). The coding ratios of annotated assemblies were investigated to determine the frequency of potential indel errors. The two published *M. felis* genomes (Myco-2 and ATCC23391) had mean coding ratios of 1.0 (standard deviation ±0.02) and 0.96 (±0.32), respectively. Our completed genomes, MF47, MF219, MF329, and MF632, had mean coding ratios of 1.0 (±0.28), 0.99 (±0.30), 1.0 (±0.27), and 1.0 (±0.26), respectively. Seven recently sequenced *M. felis* isolates that utilised only Oxford Nanopore sequencing had a substantial number of indel errors in their annotations based on coding ratio analysis (mean coding ratios between 0.44 and 0.47) and were not used in further comparisons for this reason (Figure 1).

The genomes of two isolates, MF047 and MF632, had an additional tRNA compared to the other isolates, for tRNA-Trp and an unknown tRNA respectively. The genomes of the newly sequenced isolates had 1-3 secretory systems (in all cases these were annotated as Type IV secretory systems), whilst that of Myco-2 has no annotated secretory systems. The newly annotated genomes also had an increased number of transposases, typically annotated as IS1634 or IS256, or in a few cases as IS3. In comparison, the Myco-2 genome only had IS3 and IS1634 family transposase annotations.

A progressive MAUVE alignment of the four genome assemblies in comparison to that of Myco-2 (Figure 2) identified two significant genome inversions in the reference sequence compared to the

isolates assembled here, as well as more localised inversions within each of the isolates. These

inversions, and the genomic regions present in individual isolates, were typically flanked by

transposases. Comparison of the average nucleotide identities (ANIs) of the four new assemblies,

and with previously published *M. felis* genomes (Table 4) found that the best match for each of the

four Australian isolates was another isolate from this study, with the exception of MF329 (MF047

and MF219, 99.8%; MF632 and MF329, 98.3%, MF329 and ATCC23391 98.4%), noting that MF047

and MF219 were obtained from the same animal two months apart.

The core genome of *M. felis*, as determined by Panaroo (genes present in >99% of genomes)

contained 595 genes, with 301 shell genes (genes present in 15% - 95% of genomes). Collapsing

paralogues increased the number of core genes by one and reduced the number of shell genes to

219. Principal component analysis (PCA) highlighted clustering of the two published genomes, as well

as clustering of isolates that were obtained from the same individual (Figure 3). All genes, except

those annotated as hypothetical proteins, identified in the newly sequenced isolates but not present

in the reference sequence are listed in Table 5, with the homologs found in other genomes. The

variations between the genomes were mostly observed in sequences encoding putative proteins

involved in DNA transfer, metabolism, DNA replication, mycoplasma-host cell interactions, and

restriction modification systems (Figure 4).

Genomic islands, virulence genes and antimicrobial resistance genes

Genomic islands were detected in three of the four newly sequenced genomes (Table 7). The average

length of these islands was 22,145 bp (± 5818 bp) and each contained an average of 16 (±5) annotated

genes. In comparison, the Myco-2 strain of *M. felis* had two predicted genomic islands of 3052 bp

and 10,027 bp. Further inspection of these predicted genomic islands identified matching regions

present in isolates in alternative locations. For example, MF329 had a predicted genomic island of 24

kb (nucleotide position [nt] 311,409 – 335,810) containing 19 genes, including a type IV secretion

system and an insertion sequence (IS1634) at its midpoint. Extraction and remapping of the sequence

of this genomic island showed that it was repeated three times within a wider 122 kb region (nt

213,995 – 335,810) of the MF329 genome. This same genomic region occurred, without the IS

element present, in the genomes of MF047 (twice), MF219 (once), and MF632 (once). In the case of

MF632, the region was also a predicted to be a genomic island, but in this instance was flanked with

restriction endonuclease genes and either predicted transposases (3') or an IS256 element (5').

Diamond BLAST searches for antimicrobial resistance genes and virulence genes identified a few high

identity hits (

Table **6** and Supplementary Tables 2 and 3). Only one hit with the virulence factor database had an

amino acid sequence identity of greater than 90%, and this was to the gene for the elongation factor

Tu in *Mycoplasma synoviae* (90.1% average identity), which has been found to be an adherence

factor and is present in all genomes. Only five genes had hits with >50% amino acid sequence identity.

The closest hits to these genes were *oppF* (59.9% identity; *Mycoplasma mycoides* subsp. *mycoides*;

immune modulation), *eno* (58.9%; *Streptococcus pneumoniae*; exoenzyme), *gap* (57.9%;

Mycoplasma genitalium; adherence), *dnaK* (53.9%; *Chlamydia trachomatis*; adherence), and *sugC*

(50.4%; *Mycobacterium marinum*; nutritional/metabolic factor). No genes had hits with >50% amino

acid sequence identity with antimicrobial resistance genes in the CARD database.

Phage/prophage detection and identification

A 33.6 kb contig (vB Mfe PM329; *Mycoplasma felis* strain PM329) was assembled and identified as a

likely phage or prophage in the sequenced *M. felis* MF329 isolate. It had an average depth of coverage

of 40,847.7 reads, with 82.6% of the MF329 Illumina reads mapping to the phage genome.

Interrogation of the nanopore read dataset to determine its genome integration status detected only

63/18134 (0.35%) reads that mapped to both the phage and the bacterial genome. Of these, most

were found to map across the bacterial genome at mostly single-read depth, with the exception of

five reads that clustered mid-genome in the region of nt 456,500. If this was indicative of a true

prophage insertion site it would disrupt ORF MF329_000403, which encodes a putative 16S rRNA

pseudouridine synthase gene. The phage genome had a 27.1% G+C content and encoded 36

predicted ORFs using the mycoplasma translation code. It shared 94.8% global pairwise nucleotide

sequence identity with two nanopore contigs in the publicly available unassembled *M. felis* contig

dataset (NCBI Biosample: SAMN30346842), and there was 96.8% and 97.4% pairwise amino acid

sequence identity between each of their encoded putative recombinase and portal proteins,

respectively. Interrogation of the read datasets of the other three isolates sequenced in this study

with the phage genome identified only 4/9515 (0.04%; MF047), 19/19128 (0.1%; MF632) and

22/65383 (0.03%; MF219) mapped nanopore reads, within the range of barcode error. No Illumina

reads mapped to the phage genome, indicating that the isolates did not carry the phage. Phylogenetic

analyses using VipTree [45] and vContact2 [46] was not able to assign vB Mfe PM329 to any known

phage genus or family, but its gene arrangement was similar to those of the MAgV1 phage from *M.*

agalactiae and MAgV1-like prophage sequences detected in mycoplasma species in the Hominis

phylogenetic group. In particular, both the protein and gene arrangement similarity were greatest to

those of prophages found in *Mycoplasma mustelae* and *Mycoplasma molare*, including the central

position of the recombinase gene. BLASTX analysis of predicted ORFs detected pairwise protein

sequence identities of 48% to 69% between core conserved ORFs encoded within the *M. mustelae*

and *M. molare* prophage sequences [47] (Supplementary Table 1).

Confirmation of productive virus formation was achieved using cryoTEM on medium and cell lysate

supernatant fractions, which revealed the presence of non-enveloped contractile-tailed polyhedral

viral particles approximately 100 nm in length, with a 50 nm diameter head and tails of varying

lengths. Higher numbers of virions were observed within the cell lysate supernatant fraction than in

the culture medium fraction, with clusters of virions observed seemingly embedded within bacterial

membrane debris (Figure 5). These long tailed polyhedral viral structures were consistent with those

seen in siphoviruses and myoviruses within the recently ratified *Caudoviricetes* class of

bacteriophage. The contractile tail and polyhedral head structure is consistent across all visualised

mycoplasma phages, with the main differences being the head diameter and tail lengths. *M. pulmonis*

Phage P1 has an isometric head with a diameter of 28 nm and a short tail, Br1 has head diameter of

77 nm and a long tail of 104 nm [48], and the *M. hyorhinis* Hr1 phage is a short-tailed (14 nM) phage

with a head diameter of 34 nm [49].

Discussion

In this study, the genomes of four new *M. felis* isolates were characterised and compared; three of

the isolates were derived from clinical cases of respiratory disease and the remaining one from an

unresolved post-surgical infection. Comparisons between these genomes and with several published

datasets derived from other isolates of *M. felis* detected genomic variations and inversions between

the Australian felid isolates and the only assembled *M. felis* reference isolate, from a horse. These

variations and inversions were flanked by transposases, which are commonly involved in HGT and

genome reassortment in other mycoplasmas. There were differences in the number of copies of

putative transposases from several families, including the IS1634, IS256 and IS3 (Figure 4). Insertion

sequences (ISs) are transposable elements that are often present in multiple copies in a genome and

involved in chromosomal rearrangements by deletion, insertion, or inversion. The substantial

similarity between various isoforms of ISs enables them to facilitate homologous recombination [50].

IS families encoded in mycoplasma genomes play an important role in genomic plasticity with several

reported instances of IS exchange between strains or species [15, 51-54]. This is in contrast to early

research that suggested that some ISs, such as IS1634, which was found in abundance in the

sequenced genomes of our isolates, were unique to specific mycoplasma species [55]. The

differences between our Australian *M. felis* genomes, which were obtained from three different cats,

based on gene presence/absence and the number of coding sequences, underscores the genetic

diversity present amongst the sequenced felid *M. felis* isolates (Figure 3). Multiple gene insertions,

relative to the equid *M. felis* reference genome, were detected within the cluster of Australian field

isolates (Table 5). These included genes involved in DNA transfer, replication, metabolism, and

restriction modification (RM) systems, as well as a number of proteins of unknown function (Figure

4).

Gene gains compared to the equid M. felis reference strain

Of particular interest are the gene acquisitions involved in DNA transfer, such as the multiple copies

of genes encoding putative type IV secretory system (T4SS) conjugative DNA transfer family proteins

within the Australian felid genomes, which were not detected in the publicly available equid and felid

M. felis genomes. T4SS conjugation systems translocate DNA through a process dependent on cell to

cell contact and have been identified as one of the core genes within mycoplasma Integrative and

Conjugative Elements (ICEs), which play a significant role in genomic plasticity in the species in which

they have been found [56, 57]. ICEs have been shown to be self-transmissible in *M. agalactiae*,

providing conjugative properties from ICE-positive cells to ICE-negative cells, while concurrent

chromosomal transfers (CTs) occur in the opposite direction [58]. Protein sequence analysis of the

putative T4SS identified in the Australian felid *M. felis* isolates detected 43.2% amino acid sequence

identity with ORF5 of the ICE in *Mycoplasma cynos*. Whilst *M. cynos* predominantly infects the

respiratory tract of dogs, it has also been detected in cats in association with conjunctivitis and upper

respiratory tract disease [59]. Taken together, it is plausible that a potential HGT event may have

resulted in transfer of the T4SS conjugative element of an ICE from a *M. cynos*-like species to *M. felis*

in a shared feline host. This T4SS was part of a defined region of genes that, along with 15

hypothetical proteins and a DUF87 domain-containing protein, was repeated three times in the

genome of isolate MF329. DUF87 domain-containing proteins are associated with conjugative

elements in other organisms, and include TraJ in the virulence plasmid of *Salmonella enterica* serovar

Typhimurium [60], adding further weight to the likelihood that this region is an ICE, even though the

bioinformatics tools used here did not detect it.

Several genes involved in metabolism were newly detected in the felid *M. felis* isolates sequenced in this study. A type 2 glycerol-3-phosphate oxidase (GlpO) was identified within the Australian *M. felis* genomes, while in the equid *M. felis* isolate, only its FAD-dependent oxidoreductase domain was detected, accompanied by two transposases, located upstream. GlpO converts glycerol-3-phosphate to dihydroxyacetone phosphate (DHAP), releasing hydrogen peroxide as a by-product, which has been shown to play a role in cytotoxicity *in vitro* in *M. gallisepticum* and *Mycoplasma pneumoniae* [61, 62], and in the virulence of *M. mycoides* subsp. *mycoides* small colony type and mosquito-associated *Spiroplasma* species [63, 64]. The significant reduction or complete loss of H_2O_2 production in highly passaged *M. bovis*, *M. agalactiae* and *M. gallisepticum* strains, and in attenuated vaccine strains of *M. gallisepticum*, compared to wild type strains suggests that glycerol metabolism can rapidly become redundant in some mycoplasmas [61, 65, 66]. It is possible that the sequences coding for GlpO were lost in the equid *M. felis* isolate, possibly because of differing levels of available glycerol in horses compared to cats. Likewise, variations were seen in the counts of genes coding for nutrient transport systems, including ATP-binding cassette (ABC) transporters and the PEP-dependent phosphotransferase transport system (PTS), as well as numerous other metabolic enzymes. A number of these nutrient transport systems, and many cell surface enzymes, are multifunctional in mycoplasmas, playing critical roles in pathogenesis and survival in the host [13, 67-72]. The differences observed in the PTS and ABC transporters of the Australian felid *M. felis* isolates, in contrast to the equid *M. felis* isolate, may also be indicative of rapid metabolic gene gains and losses in response to the varying nutrient availabilities within felid and equid ecological niches.

In the Australian felid *M. felis* genomes, five new coding sequences related to replication were identified that were absent in the equid origin *M. felis* genome, including genes encoding the putative anti-termination protein NusB, a Hsp70 family protein, a C5 methylase, the 16S rRNA methyltransferase RsmG, and an HNH endonuclease. The presence of these additional proteins suggests potential differences in bacterial growth within the feline and equine hosts, potentially due to distinct replication strategies. Future experiments comparing growth patterns of these isolates in felid or equid derived cells are indicated. The potential origins of these additional sequences have been detected in mycoplasmas isolated from mink, pigs, and dogs, which share a common ecological environment with cats, or pigeons, which are a common prey of cats. The HGT events resulting in the acquisition of these genes by the Australian felid *M. felis* isolates may have been facilitated by the

close ecological proximity or may have occurred within the feline gastrointestinal tract (GI) following

the ingestion of infected prey. HGT is frequently observed between diverse microorganisms within

the mammalian gastrointestinal tract, possibly due to the high population density in this niche, which

presumably facilitates genetic exchange [73]. Furthermore, the conjugation mechanism favoured for

HGT within the GI tract protects DNA from nucleases and heavy metals, and thus is more likely to

result in a successful genetic exchange [74].

Two additional restriction endonucleases (Eco47II and Sau3AI) were annotated in the Australian felid

M. felis genomes, and they lost a DpnII family type II restriction endonuclease, compared to the equid

isolate. Restriction modification (RM) systems play a pivotal role in regulating bacterial HGT by

protecting the genome against incoming mobile genetic elements, or by facilitating recombination

with the introduced DNA [75]. A strong correlation has been reported between the presence of active

Type II RM systems and the presence of mobile genetic elements and ICEs within *M. agalactiae*

genomes, indicating the facilitative role of Type II RM systems in HGT in mycoplasmas [76]. The

diversification of RM target recognition sites can regulate HGT by promoting genetic exchanges

among those organisms with RM systems that recognise the same target motifs, and by reducing

genetic transfer between lineages that possess distinct RM systems [77]. Taken together, it is

plausible that following a host switch into horses, *M. felis* may have diversified its RM systems to

enhance the level of genetic exchange from phylogenetically distant bacteria.

Gene losses compared to the equid M. felis reference strain

A sequence encoding a putative ComEC/Rec2 family competence protein was absent in the

Australian felid *M. felis* isolates. This protein is one of the components of DNA translocation via

transformation, enabling DNA transport by forming a channel across the cytoplasmic membrane [78].

While the ComEC component has been reported to be essential for DNA transport in Gram positive

bacteria, deletion of homologous genes did not affect DNA uptake in bacteria without a cell wall [79].

Furthermore, the competence domain seems to be missing in many mycoplasmas, possibly due to

the reductive evolution of these bacteria [80]. Characterisation of two mycoplasma genomes

recovered from gut microbiota of a deep-sea isopod detected the *comEC* gene adjacent to genes

encoding enzymes producing dTMP from thymidine or dUMP, suggesting that the role of the ComEC

protein might be importing extracellular DNA as a nutrient source [81]. The presence of ComEC in

the equid *M. felis* isolate, and its absence in the Australian felid *M. felis* isolates suggests that during

evolutionary adaptation DNA translocation via a membrane channel might have become redundant

and perhaps was replaced with T4SS conjugation-mediated DNA transfer, as discussed above.

The Australian felid *M. felis* genomes exhibited a total absence of four coding sequences associated

with host cell interactions, those encoding a putative variable surface lipoprotein, a fibronectin type

III domain-containing protein, a FIVAR domain-containing protein, and a GA module-containing

protein, in contrast to the equid *M. felis* genome. The FIVAR (Found In Various Architectures Region)

and GA domains are essential constituents of extracellular matrix-binding proteins (Embp),

facilitating biofilm formation and attachment to fibronectin in some bacteria such as *Staphylococcus*

epidermidis and *S. aureus* [82, 83]. The presence of more than 30% amino acid sequence identity

between the FIVAR and GA domains in the equid *M. felis* reference isolate Myco-2 and these domains

in Embp of *S. aureus* raises the possibility that the equid *M. felis* isolate might have potential for

biofilm formation and/or fibronectin attachment. Conversely, the absence of these proteins, and of

the surface lipoprotein and fibronectin type III domain-containing protein, suggests that these

capacities may have become obsolete in the Australian felid *M. felis* isolates, possibly indicating

different modes of host cell interaction in the two hosts.

Rapid evolution within two months in one host:

Two of the Australian *M. felis* isolates sequenced in this study, MF047 and MF219, were obtained

from separate bronchoalveolar lavages (BAL) of a feline patient with clinical signs consistent with

pneumonia. Isolate MF047 was obtained from a BAL collected during the initial consultation,

whereafter the cat was treated with 25 mg of doxycycline twice a day orally for approximately two

months. Because the response to treatment was unsatisfactory, a second BAL was collected and

isolate MF219 was obtained. While no genome reassortment was detected between the MF047 and

MF219 genomes, minor differences were observed in the counts of some genes encoding proteins

involved in RM systems, DNA transfer, and methylation (Figure 4). These variations may suggest rapid

host adaptation of *M. felis* after only two months. The growing utilisation of whole genome

sequencing in mycoplasma diagnostics is revealing links between genetic mutations and

antimicrobial resistance. Genomic comparisons of MF047 and MF219 revealed the presence of five

single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) within the gene encoding the ribosomal RNA small subunit

methyltransferase A (RsmA/KsgA), along with one SNP in the gene encoding the 16S rRNA and

another SNP in the gene encoding the 23S rRNA. In other studies, mutations within the 16S RNA

methyltransferase family have been reported to confer aminoglycoside resistance in *M. bovis* and *M.*
gallisepticum [84, 85], while mutations in the 16S rRNA or 23S rRNA genes have been shown to be
associated with resistance to tetracyclines in *M. pneumoniae*, *M. hominis*, *M. genitalium*, and *M.*
bovis [84, 86-88]. MF047 and MF219 both contained five protein coding regions with low confidence
matches to tetracycline resistance genes, with the highest bit score of the five associated with a
predicted elongation factor G protein with amino acid sequence identity/similarity to *tet*(T) from
Steptococcus pyogenes of 25.8%/47.7%. It is important to emphasise that the application of novel
genome sequencing techniques for mycoplasma diagnostics, particularly in the context of
antimicrobial resistance, is still in its early stages, and the availability of data for comprehensive
analysis of all mycoplasma species (and particularly animal mycoplasmas) is currently limited. Future
research determining the phenotypic susceptibility of isolates MF047 and MF219 to tetracyclines is
necessary to determine whether there is a correlation between the genomic variations observed and
tetracycline resistance.

Phage in mycoplasmas

In other bacteria, phages have been demonstrated to provide critical virulence factors to their hosts,
and play a key role in the pathogenesis of diseases associated with a diverse range of bacteria (e.g.
cholera, diphtheria, botulism, and haemolytic-uremic syndrome). Approximately 20 mycoplasma
phages/prophages have been reported across diverse ruminant, avian, canine, pig, human and
rodent mycoplasmas [47, 89]. Of these, most are unclassified, only three have had their virion
structure visualised (P1, Hr1 and Br1), and only one has been classified by the International
Committee for the Taxonomy of Viruses (ICTV), the temperate *M. pulmonis* phage P1 (12 kb genome),
as the sole member of the floating genus *Delislevirus* [90]. The well-described temperate MAV1
phage found in *M. arthritidis* (16 kb genome) has not yet (at the time of publication) been classified
within the new system. In other mycoplasmas, phages have demonstrated dynamic mobility within
the bacterial chromosome, with loss of integrated prophages seen with clonal passage (MFV1 in *M.*
fermentans), and variable expression of unique phage-encoded membrane surface proteins (MFV1
and MAV1 in *M. fermentans* and *M. arthritidis*, respectively) [91], and may have a role in bacterial
adaptation and survival. Detection of a similar contig within *M. felis* 16-057065-4 (NCBI Biosample:
SAMN30346842) from Canada indicates that this phage is probably carried by *M. felis* strains globally,
although in that study it was not identified as a phage/prophage, but rather as *M. felis* bacterial
genomic DNA. No known selective advantage or disadvantage of the presence of this phage within

M. felis was determined in this study because of the low number of *M. felis* genomes available. Future

epidemiological studies to investigate the potential role of phage carriage in feline mycoplasma-

associated disease cases is indicated.

<u>Conclusions</u>

This study has provided a comprehensive analysis of the first high-quality, complete genomes of *M.*

felis isolated from cats, and characterised a novel mycoplasma phage. It provides valuable insights

into the intricate genomic dynamics of *M. felis*, showcasing a complex interplay of gene gains and

losses, horizontal gene transfer events, and adaptations to new host environments. These findings

suggest divergent evolutionary paths in different hosts and offer compelling avenues for further

research into the evolutionary mechanisms and ecological factors that influence the genomic

diversity of mycoplasmas.

Conflicts of interest:

The author(s) declare that there are no conflicts of interest.

Funding information:

This study was supported by the Feline Health Research Fund. P.K.V. was supported by a University

of Melbourne, Melbourne Postdoctoral Fellowship.

Author contributions:

R.N.B. performed the bacterial isolation and initial classification; A.R.L., S.M.K. and P.K.V. prepared

the DNA samples, performed the sequencing and analysis; P.K.V. isolated the phage for TEM; P.K.V.,

S.M.K., G.F.B. and A.R.L. conceptualised the study design; P.K.V., S.M.K. and A.R.L. acquired the

funding; S.M.K., A.R.L. and P.K.V. drafted the manuscript, and R.N.B. and G.F.B. revised the

manuscript.

Acknowledgments:

The authors would like to gratefully acknowledge the small animal medicine team of the U-Vet

Werribee Animal Hospital at The University of Melbourne for providing the samples taken from

clinical cases, and Eric Hanssen at the Ian Holmes Imaging Centre for the cryoTEM imaging of the vB

Mfe PM329 phage.

Table 1. *Mycoplasma felis* isolates sequenced in this study.

Isolate	Month/Year	Animal ID	Clinical case	Isolation site	Other notes	Genbank #
047	3/2015	Cat A	Pneumonia	Respiratory, BAL	Heavy growth from BAL, treated with doxycycline	CP114890
219	5/2015	Cat A	Pneumonia	Respiratory, BAL	Follow-up isolation from Cat A	CP114889
329	5/2014	Cat B	FRDC	Respiratory, BAL	Chronic bronchitis. PCR negative for herpesvirus, calicivirus and chlamydia	CP115656 OR753717 (phage)
632	12/2010	Cat C	Surgery	Fat tissue	Isolated from non-healing surgical wound	CP114888

BAL, bronchioalveolar lavage; PCR, polymerase chain reaction; FRDC, feline respiratory disease complex

498 **Table 2.** Summary of DNA sequencing results after trimming and quality filtering

	MF047	MF219	MF329	MF632
Illumina reads				
Total paired reads	8,977,712	6,647,214	6,481,506	6,807,888
Median length	151	151	151	151
>Q20 (%)	96.93	95.7	96.83	96.99
>Q30 (%)	91.31	88.43	91.12	91.41
GC (%)	24.64	24.67	26.35	24.85
Nanopore reads[‡]				
Total reads	65,383	9,515	103,977	19,128
Median length	7,049	6,563	3,717	5,058.5
N50	16,885	22,105	12,331	16,399
>Q20 (%)	48.38	51.69	41.64	49.27
>Q30 (%)	15.12	16.77	11.64	15.74
GC (%)	24.9	24.79	27.19	25.08

499 [‡]Results presented are from combining two nanopore sequencing runs

501   **Table 3.** Summary of assemblies and annotations of four isolates from this study, compared to the complete reference sequence for *Mycoplasma felis* (Myco-2)

Isolate	Myco-2	MF047	MF219	MF329	MF632
Accession	NZAP022325	CP114890	CP114889	CP115656	CP114888
Assembly information					
Length (bp)	841,695	948,716	945,056	936,813	905,741
CheckM completeness (%)	99.21	99.21	99.21	99.21	99.21
PGAP ANI*	98.4%	98.5%	98.6%	98.6%	98.5%
Median sequencing depth					
Short reads	-	1762	1372	467	1499
Long reads	-	695	110	88	181
Genomic features					
CDS	740	759	777	759	743
ncRNA	2	2	2	2	2
rRNA	9	9	9	9	9
Regulatory	2	2	2	2	2
tRNA	29	30	29	29	30
tmRNA	1	1	1	1	1
Genes of interest					
Secretory Systems	0	2	1	3	1
Transposase	22	40	52	27	38

502   * average nucleotide identity to *Mycoplasma felis* ATCC 23991 according to the internal PGAP ANI taxonomic classification

Figure 1. Coding ratio frequency counts across the *Mycoplasma felis* genomes from this study and those currently
available on GenBank. Coding ratios were determined by dividing the amino acid sequence length of annotated
proteins by the best hit match in a custom UniProt Mycoplasma database. The coding ratio axis is log transformed for
visualisation. Title names for NCBI origin data include the accession number and strain name (e.g. NZ_CP104194, and
16-040612-4). For Oxford Nanopore data from NCBI, the depth of coverage is added from NCBI (e.g. 58 x).

Region of Interest ◢ Genomic Island ◢ Secretory System ◢ Transposase

Figure 2. A progressive Mauve alignment of the *Mycoplasma felis* reference genome (Myco-2) and the genomes sequenced in this project. Locally co-linear blocks (LCBs) are separated by colour within genomes, and are the same colour in each genome, with links to identify placement and inversion differences. Solid blocks overlaying the genomes represent the presence of transposases, type IV secretion systems, and genomic islands, whilst solid blocks of blue that break up the colour gradient within the genomes are representative of LCBs not present in linked genomes

516 **Table 4.** Average nucleotide identities (ANI) of Australian *M. felis* isolate genomes, the genome of the equid *M. felis* reference strain (Myco-2) and felid *M. felis* contig

517 datasets (Genbank accessions: MF047: CP114890; MF219: CP114889; MF329: CP115656; MF632: CP114888; Myco-2: AP022325; 16-057065-4: CP103988; 16-040612-

518 4:CP104192; ATCC23391: JNKA01000000).

	MF047	MF219	MF329	MF632	Myco-2	16-057065-4	16-040612-4
MF219	99.79	-	-	-	-	-	-
MF329	98.21	98.16	-	-	-	-	-
MF632	98.21	98.17	98.33	-	-	-	-
Myco-2	98.14	98.06	98.18	98.17	-	-	-
16-057065-4	97.77	97.80	98.25	97.77	97.77	-	-
16-040612-4	97.65	97.65	97.84	97.80	97.72	97.65	-
ATCC23391	98.31	98.29	98.39	98.27	98.33	97.95	97.95

Figure 3. Analysis of the *Mycoplasma felis* core genome and gene presence/absence using Panaroo and plotted using Pagoo. A) the frequency of clustered genes within the

six genomes used in the analysis; B) principal component analysis of gene presence/absence using Bray Curtis dissimilarity identifies clustering of the previously published

genome sequences; C) clusters of genes present (blue) or absent (yellow) in the six genomes included in analysis.

 Table 5. Coding sequences detected in the genomes of Australian *M. felis* isolates but absent in the equid *M. felis* reference strain (Myco2), and their possible species of

 origin based on amino acid sequence identity.

Coding sequence	Possible species of origin	% Amino acid pairwise sequence identity	Predominant host
Type IV secretory system conjugative DNA transfer family protein	*M. cynos*	43.2	Dog
IS256 family transposase	*M. penetrans*	50.9	Human
Type 2 glycerol-3-phosphate oxidase (GlpO)	*M. canis*	87.2	Dog
PTS fructose transporter subunit IIA	*M. flocculare*	52.6	Swine
DHHA1 domain-containing protein	*M. canis*	84.8	Dog
M13 family peptidase	*M. canis*	65.4	Dog
1-phosphofructokinase family	*M. canis*	52.6	Dog
Anti-termination protein NusB	*M. mustelae*	61.6	Mink
Hsp70 family protein	*M. flocculare*	85.4	Pig
C5 methylase (MAV1virus-like) protein	*M. columboralis*	70.2	Pigeon
16S rRNA methyltransferase (RsmG)	*M. mustelae*	63.3	Mink
HNH endonuclease	*M. columbina*	38.0	Pigeon
Eco47II family restriction endonuclease	*M. mycoides* subsp. *mycoides* SC	49.6	Cattle
Sau3AI family type II restriction endonuclease	*M. crocodyli*	52.7	Crocodile

528 **Table 6.** Quantity and range of amino acid sequence identities and similarities of putative virulence and antimicrobial resistance genes (AMR) based on significant BLASTP

529 hits (bit scores >50) compared to the virulence factor database and CARD database, respectively.

Genome	Putative virulence genes			Putative AMR genes		
	Total	Median identity (min – max)	Median similarity (min – max)	Total	Median identity (min – max)	Median similarity (min – max)
Myco-2	48	31.7 (24.4 - 90.1)	52.6 (44.4 - 95.9)	24	29.8 (22.5 - 40.1)	51.7 (39.1 - 69.6)
MF047	49	31.6 (24.6 - 90.1)	52.7 (41.8 - 95.9)	25	29.4 (22.6 - 40.3)	50.6 (39.2 - 69.6)
MF219	49	31.6 (24.6 - 90.1)	52.4 (41.8 - 95.9)	25	29.6 (22.6 - 40.3)	50.6 (39.2 - 69.6)
MF329	50	32 (24.4 - 90.1)	52.2 (41.5 - 95.9)	25	29.7 (22.5 - 40.2)	50.6 (39.1 - 69.6)
MF632	51	31.6 (24.4 - 90.1)	52.4 (41.5 - 95.9)	26	29.7 (22.4 - 40.2)	51 (38.9 - 69.6)

532 **Table 7.** The location of predicted genomic islands in the genomes of *M. felis* isolates characterised in this study, as well as the reference genome Myco-2.

Strain	Genomic island	Start – End (relative to genome)	Length	Total number of genes (non-hypothetical)
Myco-2	1[b,d,e]	133250 - 143277	10027	11 (5)
	2[b,c,d,e]	723039 - 726091	3052	8 (6)
MF047	-	-	-	-
MF219	1[a,b,d,*]	428340 - 453515	25175	15 (7)
	2[a,b,d,e]	582071 - 602042	19971	11 (6)
MF329	1[b,c,#]	311409 - 335810	24401	19 (15)
MF632	1[a,b,d,*]	376254 - 403316	27062	19 (8)
	2[b,#]	511813 - 537933	26120	22 (15)
	3[a,b,c,d]	716455 - 726594	10139	8 (1)

533 [a, b, c, d, e] – Predicted genomic island is present with some variation, such as the presence/absence of a transposase, in (a) Myco-2, (b) MF047, (c) MF219, (d) MF329, or (e)

534 MF632, but not predicted to be a genomic island in those cases.

535 [*, #] - Predicted genomic islands with structural similarity across different genomes

536 Genomic islands determined with the Island Finder 4 web tool. None were detected in the MF047 isolate.

Figure 4. Presence and absence of genes within the genomes of Australian felid *M. felis* isolates compared to the genome of the Myco-2 equid *M. felis* reference strain,

clustered by putative protein functions. Only genes that differ between isolates or differ from the reference are listed. Counts indicate the number of gene copies detected

within each isolate.

Figure 5. A) Genome of the bacteriophage identified in *Mycoplasma felis* strain MF329 compared to MAgV1-like

prophage sequences found in *M. mustelae*, *M. molare* and *M. agalactiae*. Genome annotations depicting conserved

phage/prophage gene sequences are indicated in black. H = helicase; Pol = DNA polymerase; D = DNA primase; X = Xer

recombinase; C = prohead protein; P = portal protein; T = terminase; HP = hypothetical protein. B) and C) cryo-

transmission electron photomicrographs of bacteriophages detected in a cell lysate of *M. felis* isolate MF329, showing

that the phage structure consists of a contractile tail and polyhedral head.

References:

1. **Glass JI, Assad-Garcia N, Alperovich N, Yooseph S, Lewis MR et al.** Essential genes of a minimal bacterium. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* 2006;103(2):425-430.

2. **Woese CR, Stackebrandt E, Ludwig W**. What are mycoplasmas: the relationship of tempo and mode in bacterial evolution. *Journal of Molecular Evolution* 1985;21(4):305-316.

3. **Fadiel A, Eichenbaum KD, El Semary N, Epperson B**. Mycoplasma genomics: tailoring the genome for minimal life requirements through reductive evolution. *Frontiers in Bioscience-Landmark* 2007;12(6):2020-2028.

4. **Rocha EPC, Blanchard A**. Genomic repeats, genome plasticity and the dynamics of mycoplasma evolution. *Nucleic Acids Research* 2002;30(9):2031-2042.

5. **Shil PK, Wawegama NK, Browning GF, Noormohammadi AH, Marenda MS**. Mycoplasmas. In: J.F. Prescott, A.N. Rycroft, J.D. Boyce, J.I. MacInnes, Immerseel FV et al. (editors). *Pathogenesis of Bacterial Infections in Animals* 2022. pp. 667-700.

6. **Krause DC, Leith DK, Wilson RM, Baseman JB**. Identification of *Mycoplasma pneumoniae* proteins associated with hemadsorption and virulence. *Infect Immun* 1982;35(3):809-817.

7. **Delaney NF, Balenger S, Bonneaud C, Marx CJ, Hill GE et al.** Ultrafast evolution and loss of CRISPRs following a host shift in a novel wildlife pathogen, *Mycoplasma gallisepticum*. *PLOS Genetics* 2012;8(2):e1002511.

8. **Momynaliev KT, Govorun VM**. Mechanisms of genetic instability in mollicutes (mycoplasmas). *Russian Journal of Genetics* 2001;37(9):979-992.

9. **Citti C, Dordet-Frisoni E, Nouvel LX, Kuo CH, Baranowski E**. Horizontal gene transfers in mycoplasmas (mollicutes). *Current Issues in Molecular Biology* 2018;29(1):3-22.

10. **Klose SM, Olaogun OM, Disint JF, Shil P, Gyuranecz M et al.** Genomic diversity of a globally used, live attenuated mycoplasma vaccine. *Microbiology Spectrum* 2022;10(6):e02845-02822.

11. **Klose SM, Shil P, Underwood GJ, Morrow CJ, Marenda MS et al.** Obg plays a significant role in temperature sensitivity of *Mycoplasma synoviae* live attenuated vaccine strain MS-H. *Veterinary Microbiology* 2023:109818.

12. **Klose SM, Omotainse OS, Zare S, Vaz PK, Armat P et al.** Virulence factors of *Mycoplasma synoviae*: Three genes influencing colonization, immunogenicity, and transmissibility. *Frontiers in Microbiology* 2022;13:1042212.

13. **Klose SM, De Souza DP, Disint JF, Andrews DM, Underwood GJ et al.** Reversion of mutations in a live mycoplasma vaccine alters its metabolism. *Vaccine* 2023;41(21):3358-3366.

14. **Noormohammadi A, Markham P, Duffy M, Whithear K, Browning G**. Multigene families encoding the major hemagglutinins in phylogenetically distinct mycoplasmas. *Infection and Immunity* 1998;66(7):3470-3475.

15. **Sirand-Pugnet P, Lartigue C, Marenda M, Jacob D, Barré A et al.** Being pathogenic, plastic, and sexual while living with a nearly minimal bacterial genome. *PLOS Genetics* 2007;3(5):e75.

16. **Randolph J, Moise N, Scarlett J, Shin S, Blue J et al.** Prevalence of mycoplasmal and ureaplasmal recovery from tracheobronchial lavages and of mycoplasmal recovery from pharyngeal swab specimens in cats with or without pulmonary disease. *American Journal of Veterinary Research* 1993;54(6):897-900.

17. **Foster S, Barrs V, Martin P, Malik R**. Pneumonia associated with *Mycoplasma* spp in three cats. *Australian Veterinary Journal* 1998;76(7):460-464.

18. **Sykes JE**. Feline hemotropic mycoplasmas. *Journal of Veterinary Emergency and Critical Care* 2010;20(1):62-69.

19.   **Le Boedec K**. A systematic review and meta-analysis of the association between *Mycoplasma*
spp and upper and lower respiratory tract disease in cats. *Journal of the American Veterinary Medical*
Association 2017;250(4):397-407.
20.   **Cohn LA**. Feline respiratory disease complex. *Veterinary Clinics: Small Animal Practice*
2011;41(6):1273-1289.
21.   **Nguyen D, Barrs VR, Kelman M, Ward MP**. Feline upper respiratory tract infection and
disease in Australia. *Journal of Feline Medicine and Surgery* 2019;21(10):973-978.
22.   **Fernandez M, Manzanilla EG, Lloret A, León M, Thibault J-C**. Prevalence of feline herpesvirus-
1, feline calicivirus, *Chlamydophila felis* and *Mycoplasma felis* DNA and associated risk factors in cats
in Spain with upper respiratory tract disease, conjunctivitis and/or gingivostomatitis. *Journal of Feline*
Medicine and Surgery 2017;19(4):461-469.
23.   **Lee-Fowler T**. Feline respiratory disease: what is the role of *Mycoplasma* species? *Journal of*
Feline Medicine and Surgery 2014;16(7):563-571.
24.   **Tonozzi CC**. *Feline respiratory disease complex*. MSD Veterinary Manual 2022.
25.   **Kinoshita Y, Niwa H, Uchida-Fujii E, Nukada T**. Complete genome sequence of mycoplasma
felis Strain Myco-2, isolated from an equine tracheal wash sample in Japan. *Microbiology Resource*
Announcements 2020;9(9):10.1128.
26.   **Framst I, D`Andrea C, Baquero M, Maboni G**. Development of a long-read next generation
sequencing workflow for improved characterization of fastidious respiratory mycoplasmas.
Microbiology 2022;168(11).
27.   **Frey M**. A medium for the isolation of avian mycoplasmas. *American Journal of Veterinary*
Research 1968;29:2163-2171.
28.   **Chen S, Zhou Y, Chen Y, Gu J**. fastp: an ultra-fast all-in-one FASTQ preprocessor.
Bioinformatics 2018;34(17):i884-i890.
29.   **Wick R**. *Filtlong v. 0.2. 0*. 2021.
30.   **Wick RR, Judd LM, Gorrie CL, Holt KE**. Unicycler: Resolving bacterial genome assemblies from
short and long sequencing reads. *PLOS Computational Biology* 2017;13(6):e1005595.
31.   **Wick RR, Holt KE**. Polypolish: Short-read polishing of long-read bacterial genome assemblies.
PLOS Computational Biology 2022;18(1):e1009802.
32.   **Li H**. Aligning sequence reads, clone sequences and assembly contigs with BWA-MEM. *arXiv*
preprint arXiv:13033997 2013.
33.   **Darling AE, Mau B, Perna NT**. Progressive Mauve: multiple alignment of genomes with gene
flux and rearrangement. *arXiv preprint arXiv:09105780* 2009.
34.   **Tatusova T, DiCuccio M, Badretdin A, Chetvernin V, Nawrocki EP et al.** NCBI prokaryotic
genome annotation pipeline. *Nucleic Acids Research* 2016;44(14):6614-6624.
35.   **Buchfink B, Reuter K, Drost H-G**. Sensitive protein alignments at tree-of-life scale using
DIAMOND. *Nature Methods* 2021;18(4):366-368.
36.   **Tonkin-Hill G, MacAlasdair N, Ruis C, Weimann A, Horesh G et al.** Producing polished
prokaryotic pangenomes with the Panaroo pipeline. *Genome Biology* 2020;21(1):180.
37.   **Ferrés I, Iraola G**. An object-oriented framework for evolutionary pangenome analysis. *Cell*
Reports Methods 2021;1(5):100085.
38.   **Dhillon BK, Chiu TA, Laird MR, Langille MG, Brinkman FS**. IslandViewer update: improved
genomic island discovery and visualization. *Nucleic Acids Research* 2013;41(W1):W129-W132.
39.   **Liu M, Li X, Xie Y, Bi D, Sun J et al.** ICEberg 2.0: an updated database of bacterial integrative
and conjugative elements. *Nucleic Acids Research* 2018;47(D1):D660-D665.

40. **Alcock BP, Huynh W, Chalil R, Smith KW, Raphenya AR et al.** CARD 2023: expanded curation, support for machine learning, and resistome prediction at the Comprehensive Antibiotic Resistance Database. *Nucleic Acids Research* 2023;51(D1):D690-D699.

41. **Liu B, Zheng D, Zhou S, Chen L, Yang J**. VFDB 2022: a general classification scheme for bacterial virulence factors. *Nucleic Acids Research* 2022;50(D1):D912-D917.

42. **Li H**. Minimap2: pairwise alignment for nucleotide sequences. *Bioinformatics* 2018;34(18):3094-3100.

43. **Garneau JR, Depardieu F, Fortier L-C, Bikard D, Monot M**. PhageTerm: a tool for fast and accurate determination of phage termini and packaging mechanism using next-generation sequencing data. *Scientific Reports* 2017;7(1):8292.

44. **Parks DH, Imelfort M, Skennerton CT, Hugenholtz P, Tyson GW**. CheckM: assessing the quality of microbial genomes recovered from isolates, single cells, and metagenomes. *Genome Research* 2015;25(7):1043-1055.

45. **Nishimura Y, Yoshida T, Kuronishi M, Uehara H, Ogata H et al.** ViPTree: the viral proteomic tree server. *Bioinformatics* 2017;33(15):2379-2380.

46. **Bin Jang H, Bolduc B, Zablocki O, Kuhn JH, Roux S et al.** Taxonomic assignment of uncultivated prokaryotic virus genomes is enabled by gene-sharing networks. *Nature Biotechnology* 2019;37(6):632-639.

47. **Citti C, Baranowski E, Dordet-Frisoni E, Faucher M, Nouvel L-X**. Genomic islands in mycoplasmas. *Genes* 2020;11(8):836.

48. **Gourlay RN, Wyld SG, Garwes DJ**. Some properties of mycoplasma virus Br1. *Archives of Virology* 1983;75(1):1-15.

49. **Gourlay RN, Wyld SG, Poulton ME**. Some characteristics of Mycoplasma virus Hr1, isolated from and infectingMycoplasma hyorhinis. *Archives of Virology* 1983;77(1):81-85.

50. **Mahillon J, Chandler M**. Insertion sequences. *Microbiology and Molecular Biology Reviews* 1998;62(3):725-774.

51. **Frey J**. Insertion sequence analysis. In: Miles R, Nicholas R (editors). *Mycoplasma Protocols*. Totowa, NJ: Humana Press; 1998. pp. 197-205.

52. **Lysnyansky I, Calcutt MJ, Ben-Barak I, Ron Y, Levisohn S et al.** Molecular characterization of newly identified IS 3, IS 4 and IS 30 insertion sequence-like elements in *Mycoplasma bovis* and their possible roles in genome plasticity. *FEMS Microbiology Letters* 2009;294(2):172-182.

53. **Thomas A, Linden A, Mainil J, Bischof DF, Frey J et al.** *Mycoplasma bovis* shares insertion sequences with *Mycoplasma agalactiae* and *Mycoplasma mycoides* subsp. *mycoides* SC: evolutionary and developmental aspects. *FEMS Microbiology Letters* 2005;245(2):249-255.

54. **Loreto ELS, Ortiz MF, Porto JIR**. Insertion sequences as variability generators in the *Mycoplasma hyopneumoniae* and *M. synoviae* genomes. *Genetics and Molecular Biology* 2007;30:283-289.

55. **Vilei EM, Nicolet J, Frey J**. IS*1634*, a novel insertion element creating long, variable-length direct repeats which is specific for *Mycoplasma mycoides* subsp. *mycoides* small-colony type. *Journal of Bacteriology* 1999;181(4):1319-1323.

56. **Baranowski E, Dordet-Frisoni E, Sagné E, Hygonenq M-C, Pretre G et al.** The integrative conjugative element (ICE) of *Mycoplasma agalactiae*: key elements involved in horizontal dissemination and influence of coresident ices. *mBio* 2018;9(4):10.1128.

57. **Alvarez-Martinez CE, Christie PJ**. Biological diversity of prokaryotic type IV secretion systems. *Microbiology and Molecular Biology Reviews* 2009;73(4):775-808.

58. **Dordet-Frisoni E, Sagné E, Baranowski E, Breton M, Nouvel LX et al.** Chromosomal transfers in mycoplasmas: when minimal genomes go mobile. *MBio* 2014;5(6):10.1128/mbio. 01958-01914.

59.   **Hartmann AD, Hawley J, Werckenthin C, Lappin MR, Hartmann K**. Detection of bacterial and
viral organisms from the conjunctiva of cats with conjunctivitis and upper respiratory tract disease.
Journal of Feline Medicine & Surgery 2010;12(10):775-782.

60.   **Ahmer BMM, Tran M, Heffron F**. The virulence plasmid of *Salmonella typhimurium* is self-
transmissible. *Journal of Bacteriology* 1999;181(4):1364-1368.

61.   **Szczepanek SM, Boccaccio M, Pflaum K, Liao X, Geary SJ**. Hydrogen peroxide production from
glycerol metabolism is dispensable for virulence of *Mycoplasma gallisepticum* in the tracheas of
chickens. *Infection and Immunity* 2014;82(12):4915-4920.

62.   **Hames C, Halbedel S, Hoppert M, Frey J, Stülke J**. Glycerol metabolism is important for
cytotoxicity of *Mycoplasma pneumoniae*. *Journal of Bacteriology* 2009;191(3):747-753.

63.   **Chang T-H, Lo W-S, Ku C, Chen L-L, Kuo C-H**. Molecular evolution of the substrate utilization
strategies and putative virulence factors in mosquito-associated Spiroplasma species. *Genome*
Biology and Evolution 2014;6(3):500-509.

64.   **Pilo P, Vilei EM, Peterhans E, Bonvin-Klotz L, Stoffel MH et al.** A metabolic enzyme as a
primary virulence factor of *Mycoplasma mycoides* subsp. *mycoides* small colony. *Journal of*
Bacteriology 2005;187(19):6824-6831.

65.   **Khan LA, Miles RJ, Nicholas RAJ**. Hydrogen peroxide production by *Mycoplasma bovis* and
Mycoplasma agalactiae and effect of *in vitro* passage on a *Mycoplasma bovis* strain producing high
levels of H_2O_2. *Veterinary Research Communications* 2005;29(3):181-188.

66.   **Szczepanek S, Tulman E, Gorton T, Liao X, Lu Z et al.** Comparative genomic analyses of
attenuated strains of *Mycoplasma gallisepticum*. *Infection and immunity* 2010;78(4):1760-1771.

67.   **Tseng C-W, Chiu C-J, Kanci A, Citti C, Rosengarten R et al.** The *oppD* gene and putative
peptidase genes may be required for virulence in *Mycoplasma gallisepticum*. *Infection and Immunity*
2017;85(6):10.1128.

68.   **Masukagami Y, Nijagal B, Mahdizadeh S, Tseng C-W, Dayalan S et al.** A combined
metabolomic and bioinformatic approach to investigate the function of transport proteins of the
important pathogen *Mycoplasma bovis*. *Veterinary Microbiology* 2019;234:8-16.

69.   **Masukagami Y, De Souza D, Dayalan S, Bowen C, O'callaghan S et al.** Comparative
metabolomics of *Mycoplasma bovis* and *Mycoplasma gallisepticum* reveals fundamental differences
in active metabolic pathways and suggests novel gene annotations. *MSystems*
2017;2(5):10.1128/msystems. 00055-00017.

70.   **Mahdizadeh S, Masukagami Y, Tseng C-W, Markham PF, De Souza DP et al.** A *Mycoplasma*
gallisepticum glycerol ABC transporter involved in pathogenicity. *Applied and Environmental*
Microbiology 2021;87(11):e03112-03120.

71.   **Chen H, Yu S, Shen X, Chen D, Qiu X et al.** The *Mycoplasma gallisepticum* α-enolase is cell
surface-exposed and mediates adherence by binding to chicken plasminogen. *Microbial*
Pathogenesis 2011;51(4):285-290.

72.   **Vilei EM, Frey J**. Genetic and biochemical characterization of glycerol uptake in *Mycoplasma*
mycoides subsp. *mycoides* SC: Its impact on H_2O_2 production and virulence. *Clinical Diagnostic*
Laboratory Immunology 2001;8(1):85-92.

73.   **Shterzer N, Mizrahi I**. The animal gut as a melting pot for horizontal gene transfer. *Canadian*
Journal of Microbiology 2015;61(9):603-605.

74.   **Norman A, Hansen LH, Sørensen SJ**. Conjugative plasmids: vessels of the communal gene
pool. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences* 2009;364(1527):2275-
2289.

75.   **Oliveira PH, Touchon M, Rocha EP**. The interplay of restriction-modification systems with
mobile genetic elements and their prokaryotic hosts. *Nucleic Acids Research* 2014;42(16):10618-
10631.
76.   **Dordet-Frisoni E, Vandecasteele C, Contarin R, Sagné E, Baranowski E et al.** Impacts of
Mycoplasma agalactiae restriction-modification systems on pan-epigenome dynamics and genome
plasticity. *Microbial Genomics* 2022;8(5).
77.   **Oliveira PH, Touchon M, Rocha EPC**. Regulation of genetic flux between bacteria by
restriction–modification systems. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*
2016;113(20):5658-5663.
78.   **Chen I, Dubnau D**. DNA uptake during bacterial transformation. *Nature Reviews Microbiology*
2004;2(3):241-249.
79.   **Kapteijn R, Shitut S, Aschmann D, Zhang L, de Beer M et al.** Endocytosis-like DNA uptake by
cell wall-deficient bacteria. *Nature Communications* 2022;13(1):5524.
80.   **Pimentel ZT, Zhang Y**. Evolution of the natural transformation protein, ComEC, in bacteria.
Frontiers in Microbiology 2018:2980.
81.   **Wang Y, Huang JM, Wang SL, Gao ZM, Zhang AQ et al.** Genomic characterization of symbiotic
mycoplasmas from the stomach of deep-sea isopod *Bathynomus* sp. *Environmental Microbiology*
2016;18(8):2646-2659.
82.   **Christner M, Franke GC, Schommer NN, Wendt U, Wegert K et al.** The giant extracellular
matrix-binding protein of *Staphylococcus epidermidis* mediates biofilm accumulation and attachment
to fibronectin. *Molecular Microbiology* 2010;75(1):187-207.
83.   **Speziale P, Pietrocola G, Foster TJ, Geoghegan JA**. Protein-based biofilm matrices in
staphylococci. *Frontiers in cellular and infection microbiology* 2014;4:171.
84.   **Ledger L, Eidt J, Cai HY**. Identification of antimicrobial resistance-associated genes through
whole genome sequencing of *Mycoplasma bovis* isolates with different antimicrobial resistances.
Pathogens 2020;9(7):588.
85.   **Mahdizadeh S, Sansom FM, Lee S-W, Browning GF, Marenda MS**. Targeted mutagenesis of
Mycoplasma gallisepticum using its endogenous CRISPR/Cas system. *Veterinary Microbiology*
2020;250:108868.
86.   **Pereyre S, Goret J, Bébéar C**. *Mycoplasma pneumoniae*: current knowledge on macrolide
resistance and treatment. *Frontiers in Microbiology* 2016;7:974.
87.   **Dégrange S, Renaudin H, Charron A, Pereyre S, Bébéar C et al.** Reduced susceptibility to
tetracyclines is associated *in vitro* with the presence of 16S rRNA mutations in *Mycoplasma hominis*
and *Mycoplasma pneumoniae*. *Journal of Antimicrobial Chemotherapy* 2008;61(6):1390-1392.
88.   **Shimada Y, Deguchi T, Nakane K, Yasuda M, Yokoi S et al.** Macrolide resistance–associated
23S rRNA mutation in *Mycoplasma genitalium*, Japan. *Emerging Infectious Diseases* 2011;17(6):1148.
89.   **Kovács ÁB, Wehmann E, Sváb D, Bekő K, Grózner D et al.** Novel prophage-like sequences in
Mycoplasma anserisalpingitidis. *Infection, Genetics and Evolution* 2021;92:104886.
90.   **Turner D, Shkoporov AN, Lood C, Millard AD, Dutilh BE et al.** Abolishment of morphology-
based taxa and change to binomial species names: 2022 taxonomy update of the ICTV bacterial
viruses subcommittee. *Archives of Virology* 2023;168(2):74.
91.   **Röske K, Calcutt MJ, Wise KS**. The *Mycoplasma fermentan*s prophage φMFV1: genome
organization, mobility and variable expression of an encoded surface protein. *Molecular*
Microbiology 2004;52(6):1703-1720.
777

Region of Interest ▭ Genomic Island ▮ Secretory System ▮ Transposase