Worldwide spreading of pMAB625 plasmid encoding MMPL family transporter in multidrug-resistant clinical isolates of *Mycobacterium abscessus* by horizontal transfer

Author names:

Kensuke Ohse[1], Atsushi Yoshida[2,3,4], Keisuke Kamada[3,5], Hironobu Kitazawa[6,7], Yusuke Ito[8], Takayo Shoji[9], Kenichiro Watanabe[10], Hiroshi Koganemaru[2], Ken Kikuchi[3] and Masashi Toyoda[1]

Affiliations:

[1] Research Team for aging science (Vascular Medicine), Tokyo Metropolitan Institute for Geriatrics and Gerontology (TMIG), Tokyo, Japan

[2] Department of Infectious Diseases, TMIG, Tokyo, Japan

[3] Department of Infectious Diseases, Tokyo Women's Medical University, Tokyo, Japan

[4] Department of Genetic Diagnosis and Laboratory Medicine, Dokkyo Medical University, Tochigi, Japan

[5] Department of Mycobacterium Reference and Research, The Research Institute of Tuberculosis, Japan Anti-Tuberculosis Association, Tokyo, Japan

[6] Department of Pediatrics, Nagoya University Graduate School of Medicine, Aichi, Japan

[7] Department of Hematology and Oncology, Children's Medical Center, Japanese Red Cross Aichi Medical Center Nagoya First Hospital, Aichi, Japan

[8] Department of Pediatric Infectious Diseases, Hyogo Prefectural Amagasaki General Medical Center, Hyogo, Japan

[9] Department of Infectious Diseases, Shizuoka Children's Hospital, Shizuoka, Japan

[10] Department of Hematology and Oncology, Shizuoka Children's Hospital, Shizuoka, Japan

Corresponding author and email address: Masashi Toyoda, mtoyoda@tmig.or.jp

Keywords: *Mycobacterium abscessus*, plasmid, horizontal gene transfer, MMPL family transporter

Repositories: AP028613, AP028614, AP028615, and AP028616 for Isolate57625; AP028617, AP028618, AP028619, and AP028620 for Isolate57629; AP028621, AP028622, AP028623, and AP028624 for Isolate57630; AP028625, AP028626, AP028627, and AP028628 for Isolate57596; AP028629, AP028630, AP028631, and AP028632 for Isolate57626.

Abstract

In recent years, the number of infections caused by non-tuberculous mycobacteria has increased worldwide, and diseases caused by *Mycobacterium abscessus* are often difficult to treat due to their multidrug resistance. Research into the mechanisms of multidrug resistance in *M. abscessus* has focused on genetic mutations but not on genetic mobile elements such as plasmids. We performed a comparative analysis of clinical isolates of *M. abscessus* collected from the same patient at different time points, indicating the decreased susceptibility to carbapenem antibiotics and growth rate of the isolates compared to the type strain. Whole genome sequencing analysis revealed that isolates had three plasmids (pMAB625-1, pMAB625-2 and pMAB625-3) not found in the type strain. pMAB625-1 and pMAB625-2 encoded genes such as the ESX secretion system, and pMAB625-3 encoded the MMPL family transporter. We investigated the distribution of plasmids previously identified in *M. abscessus,* including pMAB625 plasmids, *in silico* using the whole genome sequencing data from 462 clinical isolates worldwide. The data from 2.2% and 11.5% isolates were mapped to pMAB625-2 and pMAB625-3, respectively. pMAB625-3 was detected in the largest number of isolates of the plasmids analysed. Furthermore, phylogenetic tree analysis and the comparative analysis for mutation detection revealed that these plasmids transferred beyond isolates, regions and

48   subspecies and acquired unique mutations. These results indicate that horizontal transfer of

49   pMAB625 plasmids increases the genomic diversity of the multidrug-resistant clinical isolates

50   of *M. abscessus* worldwide.

Abbreviations

ABS, *M. abscessus* subsp. *abscessus*; AMR, antimicrobial resistance; ANI, average nucleotide

identity; CDS, coding sequence; CLSI, Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute; DEG,

differentially expressed gene; FDR, false discovery rate; IPM, imipenem; MAC, *Mycobacterium*

avium complex; MAS, *M. abscessus* subsp. *massiliense*; MEPM, meropenem; MIC, minimum

inhibitory concentration; MMPL, mycobacterial membrane protein large; NTM, non-

tuberculous mycobacteria; ORF, open reading frame; PBP, penicillin-binding protein; SNV,

single nucleotide variant; SRA, sequence reads archive; SV, structural variant; TA, toxin-

antitoxin; WGS, whole genome sequencing

Impact statement

Genomic mutations and the acquisition of genes such as drug efflux transporters are known

to cause drug resistance in bacteria. Of these, the horizontal transfer of plasmids and

bacteriophages plays an important role in the acquisition of genes. The involvement of

plasmids in bacterial virulence is known in gram-negative bacteria. However, it has not been

reported in gram-positive bacteria, such as *Mycobacterium abscessus,* except in a few cases. In

this study, we performed a comparative genomic analysis of multidrug-resistant clinical

isolates of *M. abscessus* using long-read sequencing, indicating plasmids in mediating

antimicrobial resistance. Specifically, our study identified conserved plasmids across different

clinical isolates beyond regions and subspecies. In addition, our study indicated that plasmid

distribution was strictly differentiated between *M. abscessus* and other non-tuberculous

mycobacteria except for very few cases and that there is an incompatibility of plasmid present

in non-tuberculous mycobacteria. These findings provide a novel perspective on the

acquisition of genomic diversity in *M. abscessus*.

77 **Data Summary**

All raw sequence data generated in this study have been deposited in the DDBJ database at

https://www.ddbj.nig.ac.jp/ under the BioProject accession number PRJDB16220. The

complete genome sequences of the isolates are available in the DDBJ database. They can be

accessed using the accession numbers indicated in the repository section for the chromosome

and three plasmids in each isolate. The analysed data of RNA-seq have been deposited in the

Genomic Expression Archive at https://www.ddbj.nig.ac.jp/gea/ under the accession number

E-GEAD-827. Supplementary figures and tables providing details of the used data and results

were available on the Figshare data repository platform at

https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.27186183.

88 **Introduction**

In recent years, the threat of antimicrobial resistance (AMR) has been increasing worldwide

and AMR could be responsible for 1.91 million deaths per year by 2050 [1]. Hence, research

into the mechanisms and routes of transmission of AMR is becoming increasingly important

to develop effective countermeasures against antimicrobial-resistant bacteria. The global

incidence of non-tuberculous mycobacterial infections has been on the rise, presenting a

significant challenge due to their increasing prevalence and innate drug resistance, particularly

in *Mycobacterium abscessus* infections [2]. *M. abscessus* is not limited to pulmonary infections

but also serves as the causative agent for various extrapulmonary infections, including

bloodstream, skin, soft tissue, surgical site, and peritoneal dialysis-related infections [3].

Furthermore, it demonstrates resistance to a wide range of antimicrobial agents.

The resistance mechanism has been thoroughly investigated, primarily concerning macrolide

antibiotics, which are regarded as essential drugs, and the involvement of the *erm* and *rrl*

genes has been elucidated [4–6]. The Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI) also

recommends an analysis of the *erm* gene in microbiological laboratories [7]. Among *M.*

abscessus strains with a non-truncated *erm*(41) gene, the most common variant is T28 sequevar,

which has been observed to exhibit inducible resistance to macrolides. However, it has been

pointed that *M. abscessus* subsp. *abscessus* (ABS) can develop inducible resistance even without

T28 [8], and although whole genome sequencing (WGS) is useful for predicting resistance, they

are not sufficient [9, 10].

We conducted WGS of *M. abscessus* subsp. *massiliense* (MAS), which developed intravascular

infections and subsequently became resistant to clarithromycin during treatment. Despite

having a non-functional *erm* gene and no *rrl* mutation, we were unable to identify any

mutations in the genome that could explain macrolide resistance in this strain with sufficient

evidence [11]. This highlights the existence of strains for which the mechanism of AMR remains

unexplained by WGS.

Regarding other antimicrobial agents, apart from resistance genes for amikacin and

fluoroquinolones, there is limited information available about the correlation between

genomic variations and resistance, and such information is mostly confined to a few

antimicrobial agents. Therefore, despite the comprehensive genomic data provided by WGS,

identifying the genes responsible for resistance, especially in cases of multi-drug resistance,

remains challenging. As a result, the utility of WGS in predicting resistance remains

inconclusive. In recent years, it was reported that plasmids mediate the virulence in non-

tuberculous mycobacteria (NTM) [12, 13]. Access to long-read sequencers has become easier

and complete genome sequences, including plasmids, are accumulating in the public database.

Therefore, in case that cannot be explained the cause of bacterial pathogenicity by analysis of

chromosomes alone, plasmids should be investigated as the cause of pathogenicity in NTM.

Therefore, the plasmid epidemiology in NTM is effective in understanding the causes of NTM

pathogenicity.

In this study, we observed elevated minimum inhibitory concentrations (MICs) for carbapenem

antibiotics in a case of disseminated infection caused by ABS T28 sequevar during

antimicrobial therapy. Several causes of the decreased susceptibility to carbapenem antibiotics

have been reported, including the acquisition of the carbapenemase [14], efflux pump

overexpression [15], and mutations in PBPs [16]. However, the mechanism of the increased

resistance to carbapenem antibiotics in *M. abscessus* is unclear. We then performed *de novo*

genome assembly of the strains isolated sequentially from this patient, including chromosome

as well as plasmid, by WGS using short- and long-read sequencers. We present the results,

which suggest the involvement of plasmids in the mechanism of AMR. Taking these results, we

reanalysed the read data obtained by WGS from the clinical isolates of *M. abscessus* worldwide

using a short-read sequencer deposited in the public database. We found that the data from

2.2% and 11.5% of phylogenetically different isolates were mapped to the two plasmid

sequences, respectively, suggesting that these plasmids have been horizontally transferred

among clinical isolates of *M. abscessus* worldwide.

Methods

Clinical isolates and type strain

Ethical approval for this study was obtained from the Ethics Committee of Dokkyo Medical

University (approval number 28045). Regarding Isolate57625, Isolate57629, Isolate57630,

Isolate57596, and Isolate57626, specimens were obtained from a patient with osteomyelitis at

the five time points in six months indicated in Table 1. Each strain was isolated from the

specimen at Shizuoka Children's Hospital for diagnosis. The other clinical isolates used for PCR

or WGS were stored at Tokyo Metropolitan Institute for Geriatrics and Gerontology or Tokyo

Women's Medical University or Dokkyo Medical University [17]. The type strain of ABS, ATCC

19977, was purchased from ATCC (Manassas, VA, US). The type strain of MAS, JCM 15300, and

the type strain of BOL, JCM 15297, were provided by Japan Collection of Microorganisms,

RIKEN BRC which is participating in the National BioResource Project of the MEXT, Japan.

Growth curve

The type strain and the five clinical isolates were inoculated onto trypticase soy agar with 5%

sheep blood (Beckton Dickinson, Franklin Lakes, NJ, US) and incubated at 30 °C for five days.

Next, some colonies were inoculated into BBL^{TM} Mueller Hinton II Broth (Cation-Adjusted)

(Beckton Dickinson) and incubated overnight at 30°C. These culture media were measured for

absorbance (OD_{600}), from which they were prepared to 0.1 by medium. Seventy microliter of

the adjusted culture solution was inoculated into 7 mL of BBL^{TM} Mueller Hinton II Broth

(Cation-Adjusted) and incubated at 30 °C for eight days with agitation (200 rpm). OD_{600} was

measured on days one to eight after inoculation. Statistical analysis was performed using R

ver. 4.3.1.

Antimicrobial susceptibility testing

The type strain and the clinical isolates were subcultured on 2% OGAWA medium (Kyokuto

Pharmaceutical Industrial, Tokyo, Japan) at 30 °C for five days. Antimicrobial susceptibility

testing was performed using BrothMIC RGM (Kyokuto Pharmaceutical Industrial) following

CLSI M24 3rd ed [7]. MICs were determined as the minimum concentration at which bacteria

had not grown on day four (all antibiotics) and day 14 (clarithromycin). The test was repeated

three times and all MICs were confirmed to be the same between the experiments, except for

imipenem (IPM) for the isolates. For IPM, the MICs of the type strain were confirmed to be the

same between all three experiments, while for the MICs of Isolate57625 and Isolate57626, they

were confirmed to be the same between two out of three experiments, as indicated in Table 1.

Mycobacterial DNA isolation and whole-genome sequencing

The type strain and the clinical isolates of *M. abscessus* were stored in frozen stock containing

skim milk and 5% (v/v) glycerol. Each strain was inoculated from frozen stocks into

Middlebrook 7H9 Medium (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, US) containing 10% (v/v) oleic acid-

albumin-dextrose-catalase and 0.2% (v/v) glycerol and cultured at 30 °C for six days with

agitation (200 rpm). Bacterial genomic DNA for short-read sequencing was extracted as

previously reported [18]. The quality of the extracted DNA was confirmed by agarose gel

electrophoresis, and the concentration was measured using Qubit™ BR DNA Quantitation Kit

(Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, US). Genomic DNA was fragmented, and the

sequencing library was prepared using the Ion Xpress™ Plus Fragment Library Kit and the Ion

Xpress^{TM} Barcode Adapters 1-96 kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific) according to the manufacturer's

instructions. The quantity of sequencing library was assessed using the Ion Library TaqMan^{TM}

Quantitation Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Emulsion PCR for sequence template synthesis was

performed with the Ion PI^{TM} Hi-Q^{TM} OT2 200 Kit v2 using the Ion One Touch^{TM} II System and

the Ion One Touch^{TM} II ES (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Sequencing was performed using the Ion

PI^{TM} Chip kit v3 and the Ion Proton^{TM} System (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Data were collected

using the Torrent Suite v5.0.5 software (Thermo Fisher Scientific).

High-molecular-weight genomic DNA for long-read sequencing was extracted as follows. The

bacterial pellet was collected by centrifugation and homogenised using EZ-beads (Promega,

Madison, WI, US) and Shakeman 6 (Bio Medical Science, Tokyo, Japan). The homogenised

pellet was lysed with Lysozyme (Sigma-Aldrich, L4919) at 37 °C for one hour. Next, DNA was

extracted using Wizard® HMW DNA Extraction Kit (Promega) following the manufacturer's

instructions. Fragmented DNA in the extracted DNA was removed using the Short Read

Eliminator Kit (PacBio, Menlo Park, CA, US). The sequencing library for long-read sequencing

was prepared using the Ligation Sequencing Kit (SQK-LSK109, Oxford Nanopore Technologies,

Oxford, UK) and the Native Barcoding Expansion 1-12 (EXP-NBD104, Oxford Nanopore

Technologies). In brief, the barcode sequences for multiplex sequencing were attached to the

ends of the HMW genomic DNA. In addition, the sequencing adapters were ligated to the end

of HMW genomic DNA. The prepared DNA was loaded into a flow cell (FLO-MIN106, Oxford

Nanopore Technologies) attached to MinION Mk1B (Oxford Nanopore Technologies).

Sequencing data were acquired using MinKNOW ver.21.06.0 (Oxford Nanopore Technologies),

and base calling was performed using Guppy ver. 5.0.7 (Oxford Nanopore Technologies) with

high accuracy mode using the National Institute of Genomics supercomputer system (NIG,

Shizuoka, Japan). Data quality was confirmed using NanoPlot ver. 1.38.0 [19] and adapter

sequences were trimmed using Porechop ver. 0.2.4 [20]. Raw reads shorter than 1000 bp

(Isolate57625, Isolate57629, Isolate57630, Isolate57596) or 5000 bp (Isolate57626) were

removed using Filtlong ver. 0.2.1 (https://github.com/rrwick/Filtlong). Filtered reads were

corrected using Fmlrc ver. 1.0.0 [21] with the data of short-read sequencing acquired by the

Ion Proton^{TM} Sequencer. *De novo* assembly was performed using Flye ver. 2.9-b1768 [22] with

corrected long-reads. Assembled genome sequences were polished using Pilon ver. 1.24.0 [23],

evaluated using QUAST ver. 5.0.2 [24], and visualised using Bandage ver. 0.8.1 [25]. Genome

annotation was performed using DFAST v.1.5.0 [26, 27].

225 **Plasmid sequence analysis**

Known plasmid sequences were downloaded from PLSDB [28] by the taxonomic search for

"*abscessus*". Average nucleotide identity (ANI) was calculated using FastANI ver.1.34 [29] and

structural variants (SVs) were analysed using Mauve ver. 2.4.0 [30].

Homology search was performed by blast+ [31] using the amino acid sequence as the query

or by Abricate software (http://github.com/tseemann/abricate) using the nucleotide

sequences as the query. NCBI AMRFinderPlus [32], CARD [33], Resfinder [34], ARG-ANNOT [35],

VFDB [36], PlasmidFinder [37], EcOH [38], and MEGARes 2.00 [39] were used as the database

for the search of AMR genes. Mycobrowser [40] was used as the database for the homology

search of the mycobacterium genes.

237 **SNVs and SVs analysis**

Short-read data acquired by the Ion Proton^{TM} Sequencer were mapped using BWA-MEM ver.

0.7.17-r1188 [41] against the reference sequence (CU458896.1, CU458745.1). Output BAM files

were sorted using samtools ver.1.12 [42]. Valiant calling was performed using Freebayes ver.

1.3.5 [43], and variants were annotated using SnpEff ver. 5.2 [44] with annotated genome

sequence. The positions of single nucleotide variants (SNVs) were visualised using IGV (Broad

Institute, Cambridge, MA, US). Assembled genome sequences were aligned using Mauve ver.

2.4.0 [30] for SVs analysis. Mapping the short- and long-read to the assembled genome

sequence using minimap2 ver. 2.21-r1071 [45] was performed for the validation of assembly.

PCR for the validation of SVs was performed using KOD One$^{®}$ PCR Master Mix (TOYOBO,

Osaka, Japan) and the primers indicated in Table S1. Amplified DNA was confirmed using

agarose gel electrophoresis following staining with SYBR^{TM} Safe Gel Stain (Thermo Fisher

Scientific).

RNA-seq analysis

Total RNA was extracted as follows: The bacterial pellet was collected by centrifugation and

suspended in UltraPure^{TM} DNase/RNase-free Distilled Water (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and

homogenised using EZ-beads (Promega) and Shakeman 6 (Bio Medical Science). SUPERase-

In^{TM} RNase Inhibitor (Thermo Fisher Scientific) was added to the homogenised pellet. Next, the

homogenised pellet was lysed by Lysozyme (Sigma-Aldrich) at 37 °C for an hour. Total RNA

was purified by mirVana^{TM} miRNA Isolation Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific). The size and quality

of total RNA were assessed using the Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent Technologies, Santa

Clara, CA, US) and the RNA 6000 Nano Kit. rRNA was depleted using the NEBNext$^{®}$ rRNA

Depletion Kit (Bacteria) (NEB, Ipswich, MA, US) from 500 ng of total RNA. The whole

transcriptome library was prepared using the Ion Total RNA-Seq Kit v2 (Thermo Fisher

Scientific) as follows: First, the rRNA-depleted RNA was fragmented by RNase III at 37 ˚C for

10 minutes and purified using the Magnetic Beads Cleanup Module. Next, adapter sequences

were ligated and reverse transcription was performed. The whole transcriptome library was

amplified and barcoded using the IonXpress™ RNA-Seq Barcode 1-16 Kit (Thermo Fisher

Scientific). The quantity of the amplified whole transcriptome library was assessed using the

Ion Library TaqMan™ Quantitation Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Emulsion PCR for sequence

template synthesis was performed using the Ion PI™ Hi-Q™ OT2 200 Kit v2 with the Ion One

Touch™ II System and the Ion One Touch™ II ES (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Sequencing was

performed using the Ion Proton™ System with Ion PI™ Chip kit v3 (Thermo Fisher Scientific).

Data was collected using the Torrent Suite ver. 5.0.5 software (Thermo Fisher Scientific).

Sequence reads were mapped using Bowtie ver. 1.0.0 [46] against the assembled genome

sequence of Isolate57625. Mapped reads were counted using HTseq ver. 1.99.2 [47]. Merged

transcript count data were normalized using TCC ver. 1.26.0 [48] and differentially expressed

genes (DEG) were detected under false discovery rate (FDR) < 0.01.

Phylogenetic tree analysis

The genome sequences of the various clinical isolates shown in Fig. 2c for phylogenetic tree

analysis were obtained from the NCBI database and are listed in Table S2. Core-genome SNVs

were detected using Snippy ver. 4.6.0 (https://github.com/tseemann/snippy) with each

assembled genome sequence and the type strain (ATCC 19977, CU458896.1) as the reference.

The concatenated core-genome SNVs were also aligned using the snippy-core script. The

phylogenetic tree was constructed using IQ-TREE ver.2 [49] using the maximum likelihood

criterion and rendered using iTOL ver.6.7 [50]. Phylogenetic tree analysis of pMAB625

sequences were performed by the same method. For the phylogenetic tree analysis regarding

the components of the ESX secretion system, the amino acid sequences of ESX loci (*eccB*, *eccC*,

eccD, *mycP*, and *eccE*) were concatenated and used as input for NGphylogeny.fr [51] using the

PhyML+SMS inference method.

PCR for plasmid detection and copy number analysis

PCR was performed using KOD One$^{®}$ PCR Master Mix (TOYOBO) and the primers indicated in

Table S1. Amplified DNA was confirmed using agarose gel electrophoresis. The plasmid copy

number was analysed by qPCR using PowerUp^{TM} SYBR^{TM} Green Master Mix (Thermo Fisher

Scientific). qPCR was performed using the QuantStudio^{TM} 5 Real-Time PCR System (Thermo

Fisher Scientific). Five nanogram of genomic DNA was used for a 20 μL reaction volume of

qPCR. The plasmid copy number is shown as a relative value normalised using the copy number

of *HrpA*, which is present in one copy on the chromosome.

Mapping the read data of various clinical isolates to the genome sequence of Isolate57625

Raw read data of *M. abscessus* clinical isolate in Japan, Taiwan [52], China [53], the US, the

United Kingdom (UK) and Spain were obtained from the NCBI sequence reads archive (SRA).

Raw read data were trimmed using fastp ver. 0.23.4 [54] and reduced using seqkit ver.2.4.0 [55]

to 200 Mb for the Ion Proton^{TM} single-end data and 100 Mb for the Illumina pair-end data to

equalise the depth of coverage among isolates. Reads were mapped using BWA-MEM ver.

0.7.17-r1188 against the chromosome and plasmid sequences of Isolate57625 and other

plasmids which were hit using PLSDB by the taxonomic searching of "*abscessus*" with removing

the redundant plasmid sequences (ANI (%)>97, without large SV (>8 kbp)). The depth of

coverage was calculated using Qualimap ver. 2.2.2-dev [56]. The covered genome region was

calculated using bedtools ver. 2.30.0 [57]. We considered the isolate whose depth of coverage

was higher than 10x and the covered genome region was higher than 75% as the plasmid-

harbouring isolate. The 152 sequences for the analysis of the distribution of plasmids identified

in other NTM and previously reported [58] were listed in Table S2. For the phylogenetic tree

analysis, the aligned assumed chromosome sequences using Snippy-core script were used as

input for Gubbins ver.3.3.1 [59]. The phylogenetic tree was rendered using ggtree ver 3.10.1

[60]. Statistical analysis of the number of clinical isolates retaining plasmid was performed

using Fisher's exact test with Holm's method for correction of multiple comparisons using

RVAideMemoire ver. 0.9-83-7 (https://github.com/cran/RVAideMemoire).

Results

The comparison of growth rate and antimicrobial
susceptibility of the isolates with the type strain

We sequentially isolated five MAB strains from one patient who had osteomyelitis over six

months (Table 1). We first compared the growth rate and antimicrobial susceptibility of these

clinical isolates with the type strain (ATCC 19977). The growth rates of Isolate57625 and

Isolate57626 were significantly slower than the type strain (Fig. S1). Antimicrobial susceptibility

testing showed that the MIC of Isolate57626 against IPM, which binds the penicillin-binding

proteins (PBPs) and inhibits the bacterial cell wall synthesis, was higher than that of the type

strain (Table 1). The MICs of Isolate57625 and Isolate57626 against meropenem (MEPM), which

has the same mechanism of action as IPM and improved stability, were higher than that of the

type strain (Table 1). However, there were no differences in MIC between ATCC 19977 and two

isolates against the other antibiotics. These results indicated the decreased susceptibility of

the isolates to carbapenem antibiotics compared to the type strain.

336　WGS of the clinical isolates

To explore the factors determining the difference in growth rate and antimicrobial

susceptibility between the type strain and the clinical isolates, we performed WGS using short-

read sequencer and Nanopore long-read sequencer. We analysed the *de novo* assembled

chromosome sequences and found that two large insertions (13 kbp and 8 kbp) and a deletion

(16 kbp) existed in the sequence of Isolate57625 (Fig. S2a, b). The coding sequences of phage

integrase and transposase were present near the three large SVs (Fig. S3), indicating that these

regions were prophage. We also analysed the SNVs in the chromosome (Table S3), however,

we could not identify the cause of the phenotypic differences. Phylogenetic analysis showed

that the isolates were genetically close to the type strain (Fig. S2c). Furthermore, to analyse the

difference in the chromosome sequence between five clinical isolates, we analysed SVs and

SNVs between the isolates (Fig. S4). This analysis suggested one mutation located at the

putative *PbpA*, which was associated with the synthesis of the bacterial cell wall and the target

of carbapenem antibiotics, may be responsible for the reduced susceptibility of Isolate57626

to IPM compared to Isolate57625.

352　Sequence analysis of pMAB625 plasmids

We could not identify the cause of phenotypic differences of the isolates compared with the

type strain through the analysis of chromosomes. However, WGS analysis revealed that the

clinical isolates have three plasmids not found in the type strain (named pMAB625-1,

pMAB625-2 and pMAB625-3, respectively) (Table 2). Thus, we next focused on the pMAB625

plasmids and compared the pMAB625 plasmid sequences with other plasmids registered to

PLSDB [28] previously (Table 3). A taxonomic keyword search for "*abscessus*" returned 20

plasmids. To investigate the homology between these plasmids, we calculated ANI between

them and pMAB625. No plasmid had a high ANI for pMAB625-1, however, the ANI between

pMAB625-2 and pGD21-2 was 97.4% with some SVs. Furthermore, the ANI for pMAB625-3

against pGD69A-1 and pGD42-1 was 100%. These results indicated that pMAB625-2 and

pMAB625-3 were retained in the other clinical isolates of *M. abscessus.* Next, we performed

qPCR using primers specific to each plasmid to verify the copy numbers of pMAB625 plasmids

in the clinical isolates. This analysis showed that the copy number of pMAB625-1 and

pMAB625-2 was less than one per bacterium, and that of pMAB625-3 was more than five per

bacterium in the isolates (Fig. S5). Therefore, the clinical isolates were considered to be a

heterogeneous population in terms of plasmid possession.

We then investigated the function of the genes encoded on pMAB625 plasmids using

homology search. Plasmids encode various factors that influence host characteristics.

Therefore, we listed the lost and acquired genes in Isolate57625 compared to the type strain

to investigate the factors affecting antimicrobial susceptibility (Table S4). Of note, 480

candidate open reading frames (ORFs) were acquired and 37 candidate ORFs were lost in

Isolate57625 compared to the type strain. We then searched the AMR genes from several

databases using Blast+ based on the amino acid sequences of the acquired candidate ORFs.

This analysis showed that the coding sequence (CDS) named Isolate57625_54550 had a

similarity to *qacA*, a subunit of the qac multidrug efflux pump [61], (identity, 31 %; *e*-value,

1.69e-10; coverage, 16.1%) and that the CDS named Isolate57625_54800 had a similarity to

MexL, a specific repressor of *MexJK* multidrug efflux system [62] (identity, 33%; *e*-value, 5.54e-

4; coverage, 34.4%). However, the identity and coverage were not sufficiently high.

To gain further insight into the effect of gene acquisition, we searched the homology of the

acquired candidate ORFs using the mycobacterial gene database of Mycobrowser [40]. This

analysis detected 37 mycobacterial proteins with amino acid homology to candidate ORFs of

the isolates. (identity > 30 %, *e*-value < 1e-50) (Table S5). Notably, genes associated with the

ESX secretion system were highly enriched (10/37, 27%). ESX secretion systems are encoded

in various bacteria on their chromosomes and plasmids. It has been reported that the ESX

secretion system (also known as the type VII secretion system) is involved in bacterial virulence

through several mechanisms, including evasion of the host immune system [63, 64], and

biofilm formation [65]. We further searched whether other ORFs of the components of the ESX

secretion system were encoded near the loci of the detected ORFs of the components of the

ESX secretion system using blast+. We detected several components of the ESX secretion

system in pMAB625-1 and pMAB625-2 (Fig. 1a). Core genes that construct membrane pores

(*eccB, eccC, eccD, mycP,* and *eccE*) were present in these gene clusters. The type strain and

clinical isolates have ESX-3 and ESX-4 loci on their chromosomes; therefore, the isolates

acquired two additional ESX loci by the plasmid acquisition. To predict the function of these

genes, we performed phylogenetic tree analysis using known amino acid sequences of the ESX

secretion system components in chromosomes and plasmids. It was previously reported that

plasmid-encoded ESX loci can be classified into 4 major clusters [66]. Importantly, our analysis

revealed that plasmid-encoded ESX loci were classified into 5 major clusters (ESX-P cluster 1-

5) (Fig. 1b). Notably, the newly classified ESX-P cluster 5 contained the ESX loci of pMAB625-

1 and pMAB625-2. As shown in the results of plasmid homology search (Table 3), the ESX loci

of pGD21-2 and pMAB625-2 were genetically close. The ESX loci of pMAB625-1 were

genetically close to that of pMFLV01, which was harboured by *Mycobacterium gilvum* PYR GCK.

It was previously reported that pMFLV01 was enriched in biofilm formed in household water

purifiers by metagenomic analysis [67]. Biofilm formation is one of the drug resistance

mechanisms in mycobacterium and acts as a barrier against antibiotics. We also detected the

toxin-antitoxin (TA) system components, YefM/YoeB and VapB5/VapC5 in pMAB625-1. The TA

system is present in various bacteria and archaea and encoded on their chromosomes and

plasmids. It contributes to plasmid persistence, inhibiting bacteriophage propagation, and

increases antimicrobial tolerance by inducing dormancy [68]. These results indicated that the

clinical isolates acquired factors that could contribute to AMR through plasmid transfer.

Verification of the gene expression from pMAB625 plasmids

We found that the various genes associated with bacterial virulence were encoded on the

pMAB625 plasmid. However, it was unclear whether genes encoded on these plasmids were

expressed in the isolates. To address this question, we analysed the global gene expression in

the type strain and the isolates using RNA-seq analysis (Fig. 1c and Table S6). In the clinical

isolates, 393 genes were high expressed and 29 genes were low expressed compared to the

type strain. Of these differentially expressed genes, 87.2% of genes (368 high expressed genes)

were acquired genes by SVs or plasmid and 12.8% of genes (25 high expressed genes and 29

low expressed genes) were present on the chromosomes of both the isolates and the type

strain (Fig 1c). Notably, the expression levels of the genes associated with the ESX secretion

system, which were encoded on the pMAB625-1 and pMAB625-2, were 26- to 19016-fold

higher in the isolates than in the type strain (Fig. 1c). In addition, the genes associated with the

TA system and the mycobacterial membrane protein large (MMPL) family transporter, which

were also encoded on the pMAB625-1 and pMAB625-3, respectively, were highly expressed in

the isolates compared to the type strain. These results indicated that the numerous genes

associated with bacterial virulence encoded on the plasmids were more highly expressed in

the clinical isolates than in the type strain, despite the low number of copies per bacterium

regarding the pMAB625-1 and pMAB625-2.

Investigation of plasmid possession in the various clinical

isolates worldwide

So far, we have found that the isolates carried three plasmids that the type strain did not, that

these plasmids encoded the genes that could contribute to the AMR, and that these genes

were also highly expressed in the isolates. However, we had analysed the strains sequentially

isolated from only one patient and it was uncertain whether the plasmid acquisition occurred

extensively in clinical isolates of mycobacterium. We therefore investigated whether other

clinical isolates of mycobacterium carry the pMAB625 plasmids. We first performed PCR using

the genomic DNA of the clinical isolates collected in Japan [17] with primers specific to each

pMAB625 plasmid. We detected pMAB625-3 in two isolates other than Isolate57625, although

we did not detect pMAB625-1 and pMAB625-2 in any isolates other than Isolate57625 (Fig.

2a). Both the isolates in which pMAB625-3 was detected were *M. abscessus*. We then verified

the plasmid possession by mapping the read data from the short-read sequencer to the

pMAB625 plasmid sequences. We used the read data of *M. abscessus* clinical isolates in Japan

[52] obtained from the NCBI database in addition to our original data. Out of 125 clinical

isolates, pMAB625-2 was detected in four isolates (3.2%) and pMAB625-3 was detected in 16

isolates (12.8%) (Fig. 2b). These isolates were collected from the four prefectures in Japan

(Tokyo, Shizuoka, Aomori, and Okinawa) (Fig. 2c). We also mapped the read data of the other

mycobacterium species (three of *Mycobacterium iranicum*, 20 of *Mycobacterium fortuitum*, and

25 of *Mycobacterium chelonae*), however, no pMAB625 plasmid was detected in these isolates

(data not shown).

Moreover, to investigate whether clinical isolates in other areas of East Asia possess pMAB625

plasmids, we mapped the available read data about the clinical isolates from Taiwan [52] and

China [53]. pMAB625-2 was detected in the isolates from China (2/69, 2.9%) and pMAB625-3

was detected in the isolates from Taiwan (8/98, 8.2%), and China (5/69, 7.2%) (Fig. S6). Two

plasmids were detected in ABS and MAS, but not in *M. abscessus* subsp. *bolletii* (BOL). In

addition, we analysed the clinical isolates in Spain, the UK, and the US to determine whether

these isolates carried the pMAB625 plasmids (Table 4). pMAB625-2 plasmid was detected in

isolates from the UK (2/30, 6.7%), and the US (2/110, 1.8%). pMAB625-3 plasmid was detected

in the isolates from Spain (9/30, 30%), the UK (1/30, 3.3%), and the US (14/110, 12.7%). Overall,

pMAB625-1 was detected in one isolate (1/462, 0.2%), pMAB625-2 was detected in 10 isolates

(10/462, 2.2%), and pMAB625-3 was detected in 53 isolates (53/462, 11.5%).

As previous analyses have shown that the pMAB625 plasmid is retained in many clinical

isolates, we investigated to what extent other plasmids are retained in the clinical isolates. First,

we searched the plasmid sequence in PLSDB as the taxonomic name for "*abscessus*" and got

20 plasmids sequences (Table 3). We removed 3 plasmids (pGD42-1, pGD69A-1 and

FDAARGOS_1640_plasmid) because they were identical to other plasmids with no SV. We

selected 20 plasmids shown in Table 3 as "TRUE" for "USE for Reference" together with three

pMAB625 plasmids. Then, we mapped the read data of the clinical isolates to these plasmid

sequences. Except for the pMAB625 plasmid, three plasmids (pGD69A-2, pGD22-2, and

pGD42-2) were detected in more than 10 isolates (Table 4). Seven plasmids (pGD21-1, pGD21-

2, pGD22-1, pGD25-3, pJCM30620_2, BRA100 and 50594_plasmid1) were not detected in our

dataset. Statistical analysis showed regional differences in the frequency of appearance of

these plasmids (Table 4). pGD69A-2 was detected more frequently in the US (9/110, 8.2%) than

in Japan (0/125, p=0.014). pGD22-2 was detected more frequently in Spain (3/40, 13.3%) than

in Japan (0/125, p=0.018) and Taiwan (0/98, p=0.036). pGD42-2 was detected more frequently

in Spain (4/30, 13.3%) than in Japan (0/125, p=0.017). pGD42-2 was also detected more

frequently in the US (12/110, 10.9%) than in Japan (0/125, p=0.001), China (0/69, p=0.045), and

Taiwan (1/98, 1.0%, p=0.041). pGD25-1 was detected more frequently in the UK (4/30, 13.3%)

than in Japan (0/125, p=0.018) and in Taiwan (0/98, p=0.036). Moreover, we performed a

phylogenetic tree analysis of the chromosomes to determine whether these plasmids are

horizontally transferred or whether the same strain harbouring the plasmids are spreading (Fig.

3). The phylogenetic tree analysis showed that pGD22-2 and pGD42-2 were only detected in

the isolates belonging to Clade756. In contrast, pMAB625-3 was detected mainly in the isolates

belonging to the four clades (Clade595, 674, 791 and 813). pGD25-1 and pGD69A-2 were

detected mainly in the isolates belonging to Clade678 and Clade813. pMAB625-2 and pGD19

were also detected in the isolates belonging to several clades. These results indicated that

some plasmids, such as pMAB625-3, were spread across clades and others were restricted to

the specific clade.

To analyse the genetic relations between plasmids, we performed a phylogenetic tree analysis

of 53 sequences of pMAB625-3 (Fig. 4a). Forty-two sequences belonged to the same clade of

the sequence of Isolate57625. However, 11 sequences belonged to the different clades. In

particular, four pMAB625-3 sequences of the isolates belonging to Clade791 and three

sequences of the isolates belonging to Clade674 of the phylogenetic tree of host bacterial

chromosome were classified to the clades genetically distant from the pMAB625-3 sequence

of Isolate57625. In addition, the verification of the mapping results showed that pMAB625-3

sequences in the six isolates (DRR317373, Japan; SRR18969469, China; SRR7800518, US;

SRR7800703, US; SRR7800409, US; SRR7800511, US) were heterogeneous because the

unmutated reads and mutated ones were mixed (Fig. 4b). Thus, we ran freebays with parameter

"--ploidy 2" to detect SNVs in these mixed reads. Interestingly, the variant hotspot region was

located at the CDS of the MMPL family transporter, which was the most reliably highly

expressed gene in Isolate57625 and the other four isolates in the RNA-seq analysis. The variant

pattern in the MMPL family transporter was classified into three types (Fig. 4b). Four sequences

(DRR317373, Japan; SRR7800518, US; SRR7800703, US; SRR7800409 US) were classified as

Type A and one sequence each was classified as Type B (SRR18969469, China) and Type C

(SRR7800511, US), the other 47 sequences had no mutation. There were three missense

mutations and 14 or 15 silent mutations in Type A, 20 missense mutations and 43 silent

mutations in Type B, and 47 missense mutations and 126 silent mutations in Type C (Table S7).

Surprisingly, despite many mutations, no mutation was responsible for the frameshift and

nonsense mutations. It was therefore speculated that the mutant MMPL family transporters

were being translated into full-length proteins in these isolates. Thus, these data indicated that

pMAB625-3 was spread across strains and regions, each acquiring unique mutations and some

clinical isolates retaining pMAB625-3 expressed mutated MMPL family tranporters.

Then, we classified pMAB625-2 sequences in terms of SVs. The sequences of pMAB625-2 were

classified into four types (Fig. 5). Assuming that Type I, which was the sequence of pMAB625-

2 in Isolate57625, was the base sequence, Type II and III had the large SVs at Region B, and

Type II but not Type III had at Region C. In contrast, Type IV had large SVs at Region A and C,

but not at Region B. Type I, Type III, and Type IV were detected in ABS, and Type II was detected

in MAS, except for ERR3198514. In addition, Type III was detected only in the isolates collected

in China, and Type IV was detected only in the isolates collected in the US. All pMAB625-2

sequences retained the ESX locus. These results indicated that pMAB625-2 had been

horizontally transferred between subspecies and had acquired the SVs unique to each

subspecies and region.

Finally, we investigated the distribution in our dataset regarding the plasmids identified in

other NTMs except for *M. abscessus* to verify whether plasmids transferred between *M.*

abscessus and other NTM species. Recently, Wetzstein et al. reported clinical and genomic

features in Europe about *Mycobacterium avium* complex (MAC) [58], the most frequently

detected NTM globally [69, 70]. In the report, they investigated the distribution of the known

152 plasmids registered in PLSDB and showed that plasmids identified in *M. abscessus*,

including pGD69B-1 (identical to pGD69A-1) and pGD42-1, which were identical to pMAB625-

3, were not detected in their dataset. Therefore, we investigated the distribution of these 152

plasmids in our dataset using our methods in this study. As a result, we detected the same

plasmids indicated in Table 3 but did not other plasmids identified in other NTM except for

pMN23 (accession number: NC_010604.1) and pMFLV03 (accession number: NC_009341.1) in

two and one isolates, respectively (Table S8). pMN23 was almost identical to pMAB23 (ANI:

99.9%), so pMN23 was detected redundantly in ATCC 19977 and SRR7800408, which had

pMAB23. Interestingly, pMFLV03 was detected in ERR3198408 (covered genome region: 78.7%,

depth of coverage: 73.1x). pMN23 had originally identified in *Mycobacterium marinum* [71]

and pMFLV03 had identified in *M. gilvum* PYR-GCK (according to the GenBank registry

information), indicating that these plasmids could be present across NTM species. These

results suggested that plasmid distribution is strictly different from *M. abscessus* and other

NTMs except for very few cases.

Figures and tables

Fig. 1. Phylogenetic and gene expression analysis of the genes related to the ESX secretion

system. (a) The loci of the ESX secretion system are encoded on pMAB625-1 and pMAB625-2.

CDSs of the ESX secretion system were searched using Blast+. The core components that

construct membrane pore (*eccB, eccC, eccD, mycP,* and *eccE*) are contained in this operon. (b)

Phylogenetic tree analysis of various ESX loci encoded on chromosomes and plasmids. The

amino acid sequence of the genes that construct the membrane pore were concatenated and

the phylogenetic tree was created by NGphylogeny.fr [51] using the PhyML+SMS inference

method. The classification of each cluster was followed as previously reported [66]. (c) Volcano

plot of RNA-seq analysis of the type strain and the isolates. The green dots represent the data

of genes that the isolates acquired by SVs and plasmid acquisition. The red dots represent the

data of ESX secretion system genes encoded on the plasmids. The dashed line on the X-axis

represents the 2- and 0.5-fold change. The dashed line on the Y-axis represents the *q*-value of

0.01.

Fig. 2. The distribution of pMAB625 plasmid in the clinical isolates in Japan. (a) PCR analysis of

the possession of pMAB625 plasmid in the clinical isolates which our group isolated in Japan.

PCR was performed using the primers specific to each plasmid and *HrpA*. The colour bar

represents the species of each isolate. The primer sets of *HrpA* were different depending on

the species. (b) Mapping the read data of the clinical isolates in Japan to Isolate57625 genome

sequence. The bar plot represents the depth of coverage to chromosome and each plasmid

and the dot plot represents the percentage of covered genome region. (c) Geographical map

of Japan. The prefectures in which the pMAB625 plasmids were detected are represented by

colour.

Fig. 3. The relation between the phylogenetic distance of host bacterial chromosomes and plasmid distribution in clinical isolates worldwide. The phylogenetic tree was created by Gubbins [59] using chromosome sequences and visualised by ggtree [60]. The read data of the clinical isolates collected worldwide were mapped to pMAB625 and known plasmid sequences to verify the plasmid distribution. Tree-scale represents the number of SNVs per genome.

(a)

(b)

Fig. 4 Phylogenetic tree and SNVs analysis of pMAB625-3. (a) Phylogenetic tree of the sequences of pMAB625-3 detected in the 53 isolates. The phylogenetic tree was created using the maximum-likelihood method using iQ-TREE2 based on the core-SNVs data. The sequences belonging to the clade covered by yellow colour were identical, although the sequence of

SRR18969469 was heterogeneous. The classification of "Clade (Chromosome)" is based on the

clade in the phylogenetic tree indicated in Fig. 3. (b) The classification of the pMAB625

sequences based on the SNVs. The mapping results of the reads data from each isolate to

pMAB625-3 were also visualised by IGV. The mutation hotspot was located at the MMPL family

transporter (surrounded by a black line square). The mutation types of the MMPL transporters

were classified into three types, and all mutations at this region were missense or silent.

Fig. 5. Comparison of the pMAB625-2 sequences. The mapping results of the reads data from

each isolate to pMAB625-2 were visualised using IGV. Each sequence was classified into 4 types

by the pattern of structural variants (surrounded by black line squares).

Isolates	Source	Period from the first isolation (month)	MIC* (µg/mL)														
			AMK	TOB	IPM	FRPM	LVFX	MFLX	AZM	CAM 4day	CAM 14day	ST	DOXY	MEPM	LZD	CLF	STFX
ATCC 19977	-	-	8	8	16	>64	32	>8	64	2	>64	>152/8	>16	64	32	1	2
Isolate57625	catheter	0	8	8	16†	>64	16	>8	64	2	>64	>152/8	>16	>64	32	1	2
Isolate57629	catheter	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Isolate57630	bone biopsy	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Isolate57596	heel	6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Isolate57626	malleolus	6	8	8	>64‡	>64	32	>8	64	2	>64	>152/8	>16	>64	32	1	2

*MICs were determined as the minimum concentration at which the bacteria did not grow. No

antimicrobial susceptibility testing was conducted on the isolates other than Isolate57625 and

Isolate57626, representing hyphens in the table. The test was repeated three times and all

MICs were confirmed to be the same between the experiments with the exception of imipenem

for the isolates. AMK, Amikacin; TOB, Tobramycin; IPM, Imipenem; FRPM, Faropenem; LVFX,

Levofloxacin; MFLX, Moxifloxacin; AZM, Azithromycin; CAM, Clarithromycin; ST,

Trimethoprim/sulfamethoxazole; DOXY, Doxycycline; MEPM, Meropenem; LNZ, Linezolid; CLF,

Clofazimine; STFX, Sitafloxacin

†For Isolate57625, the MICs against IPM in the three experiments were 64, 16, and 16 µg/mL,

respectively.

‡For Isolate57626, the MICs against IPM in the three experimenst were >64, 16, and >64 µg/mL,

respectively.

Table 2. Genome assembly and the annotation statics of the Isolate57625

Contig	Form	Length(bp)	GC contents (%)	Number of CDS	Number of rRNA	Number of tRNA	Number of tmRNA
Chromosome	circular	5,072,346	64.1	5,034	3	48	1
pMAB625-1	linear	202,398	64.7	247	0	29	0
pMAB625-2	linear	142,689	62.2	171	0	0	0
pMAB625-3	circular	24,988	65.6	30	0	0	0

625   Table 3. Homology search result between plasmids identified in *M. abscessus*

Plasmid	Accession no.	Topology	Length (bp)	Homologous plasmid (ANI(%)>99)	Homologous plasmid (97< ANI(%) <99)	Use for "Reference"
pMAB625-1	AP028614.1	linear	202,398	-	-	TRUE
pMAB625-2	AP028615.1	linear	142,689	-	pGD21-2†	TRUE
pMAB625-3	AP028616.1	circular	24,988	pGD69A-1, pGD42-1	-	TRUE
pMAB23	NC_010394.1	circular	23,319	pMabS_GZ002*, FDAARGOS_1604_ plasmid	-	TRUE
pMabS_GZ002	NZ_CP034180.1	linear	15,203	pMAB23, FDAARGOS_1604_ plasmid	-	TRUE
pGD19	NZ_CP063329.1	circular	18,605	-	-	TRUE
pGD21-1	NZ_CP065285.1	circular	112,633	-	-	TRUE
pGD21-2	NZ_CP065286.1	linear	155,609	-	pMAB625-2†	TRUE
pGD22-1	NZ_CP063325.1	circular	19,694	-	-	TRUE
pGD22-2	NZ_CP063326.1	circular	18,117	pGD42-2*	-	TRUE
pGD25-1	NZ_CP063321.1	circular	31,413	-	-	TRUE
pGD25-2	NZ_CP063322.1	circular	27,424	-	-	TRUE
pGD25-3	NZ_CP063323.1	circular	23,599	-	-	TRUE
pGD42-1	NZ_CP065281.1	circular	24,993	pMAB625-3, pGD69A-1	-	FALSE
pGD42-2	NZ_CP065282.1	circular	9,547	pGD22-2	pGD69A-2	TRUE
pGD69A-1	NZ_CP065270.1	circular	25,000	pMAB625-3, pGD42-1	-	FALSE
pGD69A-2	NZ_CP065271.1	circular	18,611	-	pGD42-2*	TRUE
pJCM30620_1	NZ_AP022622.1	linear	119,389	50594_plasmid2*	-	TRUE
pJCM30620_2	NZ_AP022623.1	linear	38,763	50594_plasmid1†	-	TRUE
BRA100	NC_017908.2	circular	56,265	-	-	TRUE
FDAARGOS_1604_plasmid	NZ_CP085920.1	circular	23,319	pMAB23, pMabS_GZ002*	-	FALSE
50594_plasmid1	NC_021278.1	circular	172,814	pJCM30620_2*	-	TRUE
50594_plasmid2	NC_021279.1	circular	97,240	pJCM30620_1†	-	TRUE

626   * One Structural Variant (SV) exists in the sequence.

627   † More than two SVs exist in the sequence.

Table 4. pMAB625 and known plasmids distribution in the clinical isolates worldwide

Region	Unknown (Type strain)	Japan	China	Taiwan	US	Spain	UK	total*
	Number (%) of isolates retaining plasmid							
Analyzed strains	3	125	69	98	110	30	30	462
pMAB625-1	0	1 (0.8)	0	0	0	0	0	1 (0.2)
pMAB625-2	0	4 (3.2)	2 (2.9)	0	2 (1.8)	0	2 (6.7)	10 (2.2)
pMAB625-3	0	16 (12.8)	5 (7.2)	8 (8.2)	14 (12.7)	9 (30.0)	1 (3.3)	53 (11.5)
pMAB23	1 (33.3)	0	0	0	1 (0.9)	0	0	2 (0.4)
pMabS_GZ002	1 (33.3)	0	0	0	1 (0.9)	0	0	2 (0.4)
pGD69A-2	0	0	0	1 (1.0)	9 (8.2)†	2 (6.7)	3 (10.0)	15(3.2)
pGD19	0	0	4 (5.8)	3 (3.1)	0	1 (3.3)	1 (3.3)	9(1.9)
pJCM30620_1	0	0	1 (1.4)	0	0	0	1 (3.3)	2(0.4)
50594_plasmid2	0	0	1 (1.4)	0	0	0	1 (3.3)	2(0.4)
pGD22-2	0	0	0	0	6 (5.5)	4 (13.3)‡	1 (3.3)	11(2.4)
pGD42-2	0	0	0	1 (1.0)	12 (10.9)§	4 (13.3)†	1 (3.3)	18(3.9)
pGD25-1	0	0	0	0	3 (2.7)	0	4 (13.3)‡	7(1.5)
pGD25-2	0	0	0	0	1 (0.9)	0	2 (6.7)	3(0.6)

Fisher's exact tests were performed to verify regional differences in the frequency of appearance of each plasmid. Corrections for the multiple comparisons were performed using Holm's method.

*Total number excludes the number of the type strains.

†$p<0.05$, compared with Japan; ‡$p<0.05$, compared with Japan and Taiwan; §$p<0.05$, compared with Japan, China and Taiwan.

Discussion

Plasmids are mobile genetic elements that can move between different bacterial strains and alter host characteristics, such as virulence, and antimicrobial susceptibility. However, it remains unclear whether plasmids confer AMR in *M. abscessus*. In this study, we showed that the multidrug-resistant clinical isolates of ABS isolated from a patient with osteomyelitis had three plasmids (two of three were linear, and one was circular) that the type strain did not harbour. In addition, several factors associated with virulence and antimicrobial susceptibility were encoded on the plasmids. Analysis of the clinical isolates identified worldwide indicated

that pMAB625 plasmids were horizontally transferred, and these plasmid transfers could be

the driving force of the genomic diversity among the clinical isolates of *M. abscessus*.

A recent study also showed that prophages and plasmids in various clinical isolates

contributed to diversity [72]. They reported that most strains have less than two types of

plasmids and that strains with more than three types of plasmids were rare. The type of plasmid

could contribute to the genomic diversity of the host bacterium, and our study indicated the

diverse distribution of plasmids in *M. abscessus*. Furthermore, our analysis also revealed that

pMAB625-3 which were detected in the isolates belonging to the Clade791, which were

genetically close to Isolate57625, had many SNVs (Fig. 4b). Given the rate of replication, the

mutation rate of high-copy plasmids is expected to be faster than that of chromosomes.

Therefore, the genomic diversity could accelerate faster in high-copy plasmids than in

chromosomes and more easily modify features of the host bacterial genome by horizontal

transfer. In addition, the copy number analysis indicated that Isolate57625 was a

heterogeneous population with some remaining pMAB625-1 and pMAB625-2 but others not

(Fig. S5). Retaining plasmids is detrimental to bacterial growth, however, if genes for AMR are

encoded on the plasmid, it is advantageous for survival during antimicrobial exposure.

Therefore, a certain number of bacteria that retain the plasmid may be present in the

population as a survival strategy against antimicrobial agents while growing as a population.

We identified various factors associated with multidrug resistance on the pMAB625 plasmids.

The components of the ESX secretion system, the MMPL family transporter, and the

components of the TA system were encoded on the plasmids, and these genes were highly

expressed in the clinical isolates compared to the type strain. The ESX secretion system is

involved in the export of the various pathogenic proteins and metal ions associated with proliferation, survival in the cytosol of macrophage, and conjugation. It has also been reported that ESX-1 components are required for sliding motility and biofilm formation in *M. avium* [65]. Therefore, given the close genetic distance between ESX-1 and ESX-P cluster 5, which include the components of the ESX secretion system on the pMAB625-1 and pMAB625-2 (Fig. 1b), the components of ESX-P cluster 5 may be involved in biofilm formation. In contrast, MMPL family transporters can transport antibiotics across the cell membrane. It has been reported that the increased expression of MMPL5 is associated with decreased susceptibility to bedaquiline, and clofazimine in *M. tuberculosis* [73, 74], bedaquiline, and clofazimine in *M. intracellulare* [75], and thiactazone derivative in *M. abscessus* [76]. The function of the MMPL family transporter encoded on the pMAB625-3 is unknown; however, the presence of mutational hotspots (Fig. 4b) indicates that this MMPL transporter may be compatible with a variety of substrates, including antimicrobial agents. Therefore, our results suggest that Isolate57625 enhanced defense mechanisms against antibiotics through the acquisition of the ESX secretion system and transporters, accompanied by changes in biofilm barriers, and transport of antibiotics. TA systems are known as the plasmid maintenance systems; however, they can transform the bacterial phenotype into dormancy by inhibiting vital cellular processes, such as proton-motive force and translation and contribute to antimicrobial torelance [77, 78]. Thus, the acquisition of TA systems by the plasmid may be the cause of the decreased growth rate of Isolate57625 and Isolate57626 compared to the type strain (Fig. S1). These results support that pMAB625 plasmids appeared to be the main cause of the low susceptibility to carbapenem antibiotics and intractability to treatment; however, further studies will be essential to determine whether these plasmids are the main cause of AMR.

As important findings, we found that 2.2% (10/462) and 11.5% (53/462) of the clinical isolates

worldwide had pMAB625-2, and pMAB625-3, respectively (Table 4). This result provides two

significant insights. The first is an epidemiological insight into the spread of plasmids in *M.*

abscessus beyond regions and strains. Because *M. abscessus* has not been known to cause

human-to-human transmission, this global spread of pMAB625 plasmids may be mainly due

to increased global logistical activity and human mobility with associated interference of

human and microbial habitats [79]. The habitat of *M. abscessus* is soil and water systems, and

it is also possible that increased flooding due to recent climate change may have increased

the chance of contact between the different strains. Analysis of plasmid distribution revealed

that some plasmids (pMAB625-2, pMAB625-3, pGD19, pGD25-1 and pGD69A-2) have been

widely spread between strains, regions and subspecies, while others (pGD22-2 and pGD42-2)

have been restricted to specific strains and regions (Fig. 3). Therefore, it is speculated that

regarding pGD22-2 and pGD42-2, the identical isolates retaining these plasmids had been

spread within or between the regions, whereas, regarding pMAB625-2, pMAB625-3, pGD19,

pGD25-1 and p69A-2, plasmids themselves had been spread between different strains,

subspecies and region through horizontal transfer. It is unknown what factors determine these

differences in plasmid distribution. It is possible that the factors encoded on the plasmid or

the periods from the emergence were different among the plasmids. In addition, we also

showed the plasmid distribution was different from *M. abscessus* and MAC (Table S8), indicating

that incompatibility also exists in the plasmids present in NTM, strictly distinguishing *M.*

abscessus from other NTMs except for very few cases, such as pMN23 and pMFLV03. The

second is the potential of plasmids as pharmacological targets. The mechanisms of action of

current antimicrobials inhibit specific cellular processes; therefore, protein mutation at the

point of action or the acquisition of a multidrug transporter can lead to the emergence of

resistant strains. Plasmids such as pMAB625-3, which are highly prevalent in multidrug-

resistant bacteria, can be promising targets for the therapy using gene-editing methods such

as CRISPR-Cas13a because these methods do not necessarily target genes or proteins that are

targeted by conventional antibiotics. The CRISPR-Cas13a system can recognise mRNA

expressed not only from the loci on the chromosome but also on plasmids and induce non-

specific RNA degradation and cell death [80]. In addition, the gene-editing method can also

target multiple regions of locus. Thus, the multiple, low-mutation loci encoded on plasmids,

which are only found in antimicrobial-resistant bacteria, can be pharmaceutical targets that

are robust to genetic mutations using the CRISPR-Cas13a system.

In summary, we have identified the plasmids that have been horizontally transferred among

the multidrug-resistant clinical isolates of *M. abscessus* worldwide. These findings provide a

novel perspective on the acquisition of genomic diversity in *M. abscessus*. Future studies will

be required to verify whether the pMAB625 plasmids induce multidrug resistance in *M.*

abscessus by plasmid transfection. These studies will lead to the development of robust

therapies against multidrug resistance caused by genetic mutations, and a rapid diagnostic

method to prevent antibiotics abuse, and an understanding of the mechanisms of multidrug

resistance in *M. abscessus*.

Author statements

Author contributions:

Kensuke Ohse: Conceptualization, Formal analysis, Methodology, Data curation, Investigation,

Software, Validation, Visualization, Writing—original draft, Writing—review & editing. Atushi

Yoshida: Conceptualization, Methodology, Funding acquisition, Writing—original draft,

Writing—review & editing. Kamada Keisuke: Investigation. Hironobu Kitazawa, Yusuke Ito,

Takayo Shoji, and Kenichiro Watanabe: Patient care and Resources. Hiroshi Koganemaru:

Methodology, Patient care, and Resources. Ken Kikuchi: Investigation and Funding acquisition.

Masashi Toyoda: Project administration, Supervision, Writing—review & editing.

Conflicts of interest:

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Funding information:

This work was supported by Japan Society for the Promotion of Science (JSPS) KAKENHI

Grant Number JP19K08938.

Ethical approval:

Ethical approval for this study was obtained from the Ethics Committee of Dokkyo Medical

University (approval number 28045).

Consent for publication:

This manuscript does not contain personal details of individuals that could lead to their

identification.

Acknowledgements:

The authors thank the staff of the microbiology laboratory of Dokkyo Medical University

Hospital for performing identification and drug susceptibility tests, and Dr. Yoshishige Masuda

and Dr. Takashi Inamatsu at TMIG for supervising in clinical practice. Computations were

partially performed on the NIG supercomputer at ROIS National Institute of Genetics.

References

1.   **Naghavi M, Vollset SE, Ikuta KS, Swetschinski LR, Gray AP,** *et al.* Global

burden of bacterial antimicrobial resistance 1990–2021: a systematic analysis with

forecasts to 2050. *The Lancet* 2024;404:1199–1226.

2.   **Johansen MD, Herrmann J-L, Kremer L**. Non-tuberculous mycobacteria and

the rise of Mycobacterium abscessus. *Nat Rev Microbiol* 2020;18:392–407.

3.   **Cristancho-Rojas C, Varley CD, Lara SC, Kherabi Y, Henkle E,** *et al.*

Epidemiology of *Mycobacterium abscessus*. *Clin Microbiol Infect* 2024;30:712–717.

4.   **Rubio M, March F, Garrigó M, Moreno C, Español M,** *et al.* Inducible and

Acquired Clarithromycin Resistance in the Mycobacterium abscessus Complex. *PLoS*

ONE 2015;10:e0140166.

5.   **Huh HJ, Kim S-Y, Jhun BW, Shin SJ, Koh W-J**. Recent advances in molecular

diagnostics and understanding mechanisms of drug resistance in nontuberculous

mycobacterial diseases. *Infect Genet Evol* 2019;72:169–182.

6.   **López-Roa P, Esteban J, Muñoz-Egea M-C**. Updated Review on the

Mechanisms of Pathogenicity in Mycobacterium abscessus, a Rapidly Growing

Emerging Pathogen. *Microorganisms*;11. Epub ahead of print January 2023. DOI:

10.3390/microorganisms11010090.

7.   **Clinical & Laboratory Standards Institute**. *Susceptibility Testing of*

Mycobacteria, Nocardia spp., and Other Aerobic Actinomycetes, M24Ed3[rd], CLSI Puplication,

Pennsylvania

8.   **Jong B-E, Wu T-S, Chen N-Y, Yang C-H, Shu C-C,** *et al.* Impact on

Macrolide Resistance of Genetic Diversity of Mycobacterium abscessus Species.

Microbiol Spectr;10:e02749-22.

9.   **Solanki P, Lipman M, McHugh TD, Satta G**. Whole genome sequencing and

prediction of antimicrobial susceptibilities in non-tuberculous mycobacteria. *Front*

Microbiol 2022;13:1044515.

10.   **Lipworth S, Hough N, Buchanan R, Smith EG, Robinson E, *et al.*** Improved

Performance Predicting Clarithromycin Resistance in Mycobacterium abscessus on an

Independent Data Set. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 2019;63:e00400-19.

11.   **Akiyama Y, Iwamoto N, Kamada K, Yoshida A, Osugi A, *et al.*** Aortic

endograft infection by Mycobacterium abscessus subsp. massiliense with acquired

clarithromycin resistance: a case report. *BMC Infect Dis* 2023;23:694.

12.   **Moriyama M, Ogawa K, Nakagawa T, Nikai T, Uchiya K**. ASSOCIATION

BETWEEN A pMAH135 PLASMID AND THE PROGRESSION OF PULMONARY DISEASE

CAUSED BY MYCOBACTERIUM AVIUM.

13.   **van Ingen J, Kohl TA, Kranzer K, Hasse B, Keller PM, *et al.*** Global outbreak

of severe *Mycobacterium chimaera* disease after cardiac surgery: a molecular

epidemiological study. *Lancet Infect Dis* 2017;17:1033–1041.

14.   **Queenan AM, Bush K**. Carbapenemases: the Versatile β-Lactamases. *Clin*

Microbiol Rev 2007;20:440–458.

15.   **Zhang Y, Li Z, He X, Ding F, Wu W, *et al.*** Overproduction of efflux pumps

caused reduced susceptibility to carbapenem under consecutive imipenem-selected

stress in Acinetobacter baumannii. *Infect Drug Resist* 2017;11:457.

16.   **Ranjitkar S, Reck F, Ke X, Zhu Q, McEnroe G, *et al.*** Identification of

Mutations in the mrdA Gene Encoding PBP2 That Reduce Carbapenem and

Diazabicyclooctane Susceptibility of Escherichia coli Clinical Isolates with Mutations in

ftsI (PBP3) and Which Carry blaNDM-1. *mSphere* 2019;4:e00074-19.

17.   **Kamada K, Yoshida A, Iguchi S, Arai Y, Uzawa Y, *et al.*** Nationwide

surveillance of antimicrobial susceptibility of 509 rapidly growing mycobacteria

strains isolated from clinical specimens in Japan. *Sci Rep* 2021;11:12208.

18.   **Bouso JM, Planet PJ**. Complete nontuberculous mycobacteria whole

genomes using an optimized DNA extraction protocol for long-read sequencing.

BMC Genomics 2019;20:793.

19.   **De Coster W, D'Hert S, Schultz DT, Cruts M, Van Broeckhoven C**.

NanoPack: visualizing and processing long-read sequencing data. *Bioinformatics*

2018;34:2666–2669.

20.   **Wick RR, Judd LM, Gorrie CL, Holt KE**. Completing bacterial genome

assemblies with multiplex MinION sequencing. *Microb Genomics* 2017;3:e000132.

21.   **Wang JR, Holt J, McMillan L, Jones CD**. FMLRC: Hybrid long read error

correction using an FM-index. *BMC Bioinformatics* 2018;19:50.

22.   **Kolmogorov M, Yuan J, Lin Y, Pevzner PA**. Assembly of long, error-prone

reads using repeat graphs. *Nat Biotechnol* 2019;37:540–546.

23.   **Walker BJ, Abeel T, Shea T, Priest M, Abouelliel A, *et al.*** Pilon: An

Integrated Tool for Comprehensive Microbial Variant Detection and Genome

Assembly Improvement. *PLOS ONE* 2014;9:e112963.

24.   **Gurevich A, Saveliev V, Vyahhi N, Tesler G**. QUAST: quality assessment tool

for genome assemblies. *Bioinformatics* 2013;29:1072–1075.

25.   **Wick RR, Schultz MB, Zobel J, Holt KE**. Bandage: interactive visualization of

de novo genome assemblies. *Bioinformatics* 2015;31:3350–3352.

26.   **Tanizawa Y, Fujisawa T, Nakamura Y**. DFAST: a flexible prokaryotic genome

annotation pipeline for faster genome publication. *Bioinformatics* 2018;34:1037–

1039.

27.   **Tanizawa Y, Fujisawa T, Kaminuma E, Nakamura Y, Arita M**. DFAST and

DAGA: web-based integrated genome annotation tools and resources. *Biosci*

Microbiota Food Health 2016;35:173–184.

28.   **Schmartz GP, Hartung A, Hirsch P, Kern F, Fehlmann T, *et al.*** PLSDB:

advancing a comprehensive database of bacterial plasmids. *Nucleic Acids Res*

2022;50:D273–D278.

29.   **Jain C, Rodriguez-R LM, Phillippy AM, Konstantinidis KT, Aluru S**. High

throughput ANI analysis of 90K prokaryotic genomes reveals clear species

boundaries. *Nat Commun* 2018;9:5114.

30.   **Darling ACE, Mau B, Blattner FR, Perna NT**. Mauve: Multiple Alignment of

Conserved Genomic Sequence With Rearrangements. *Genome Res* 2004;14:1394–

1403.

31.   **Camacho C, Coulouris G, Avagyan V, Ma N, Papadopoulos J, *et al.***

BLAST+: architecture and applications. *BMC Bioinformatics* 2009;10:421.

32.   **Feldgarden M, Brover V, Haft DH, Prasad AB, Slotta DJ, *et al.*** Validating

the AMRFinder Tool and Resistance Gene Database by Using Antimicrobial

Resistance Genotype-Phenotype Correlations in a Collection of Isolates. *Antimicrob*

Agents Chemother 2019;63:e00483-19.

33.   **Jia B, Raphenya AR, Alcock B, Waglechner N, Guo P, *et al.*** CARD 2017:

expansion and model-centric curation of the comprehensive antibiotic resistance

database. *Nucleic Acids Res* 2017;45:D566–D573.

34.   **Zankari E, Hasman H, Cosentino S, Vestergaard M, Rasmussen S, *et al.***

Identification of acquired antimicrobial resistance genes. *J Antimicrob Chemother*

2012;67:2640–2644.

35.   **Gupta SK, Padmanabhan BR, Diene SM, Lopez-Rojas R, Kempf M, *et al.***

ARG-ANNOT, a New Bioinformatic Tool To Discover Antibiotic Resistance Genes in

Bacterial Genomes. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 2014;58:212–220.

36.   **Chen L, Zheng D, Liu B, Yang J, Jin Q**. VFDB 2016: hierarchical and refined

dataset for big data analysis—10 years on. *Nucleic Acids Res* 2016;44:D694–D697.

37.   **Carattoli A, Zankari E, García-Fernández A, Voldby Larsen M, Lund O, *et***

al. In Silico Detection and Typing of Plasmids using PlasmidFinder and Plasmid

Multilocus Sequence Typing. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 2014;58:3895–3903.

38.   **Ingle DJ, Valcanis M, Kuzevski A, Tauschek M, Inouye M, *et al.*** In silico

serotyping of E. coli from short read data identifies limited novel O-loci but extensive

diversity of O:H serotype combinations within and between pathogenic lineages.

Microb Genomics 2016;2:e000064.

39.   **Doster E, Lakin SM, Dean CJ, Wolfe C, Young JG, *et al.*** MEGARes 2.0: a

database for classification of antimicrobial drug, biocide and metal resistance

determinants in metagenomic sequence data. *Nucleic Acids Res* 2020;48:D561–D569.

40.   **Kapopoulou A, Lew JM, Cole ST**. The MycoBrowser portal: a comprehensive

and manually annotated resource for mycobacterial genomes. *Tuberc Edinb Scotl*

2011;91:8–13.

41.   **Li H**. Aligning sequence reads, clone sequences and assembly contigs with

BWA-MEM. Epub ahead of print 26 May 2013. DOI: 10.48550/arXiv.1303.3997.

42.   **Danecek P, Bonfield JK, Liddle J, Marshall J, Ohan V, *et al.*** Twelve years of

SAMtools and BCFtools. *GigaScience* 2021;10:giab008.

43.   **Garrison E, Marth G**. Haplotype-based variant detection from short-read

sequencing. Epub ahead of print 17 July 2012. DOI: 10.48550/arXiv.1207.3907.

44.   **Cingolani P, Platts A, Wang LL, Coon M, Nguyen T, *et al.*** A program for

annotating and predicting the effects of single nucleotide polymorphisms, SnpEff:

SNPs in the genome of Drosophila melanogaster strain w [1118]; iso-2; iso-3. *Fly*

(Austin) 2012;6:80–92.

45.   **Li H**. Minimap2: pairwise alignment for nucleotide sequences. *Bioinformatics*

2018;34:3094–3100.

46.   **Kim D, Langmead B, Salzberg SL**. HISAT: a fast spliced aligner with low

memory requirements. *Nat Methods* 2015;12:357–360.

47.   **Pertea M, Pertea GM, Antonescu CM, Chang T-C, Mendell JT, *et al.***

StringTie enables improved reconstruction of a transcriptome from RNA-seq reads.

Nat Biotechnol 2015;33:290–295.

48.   **Sun J, Nishiyama T, Shimizu K, Kadota K**. TCC: an R package for comparing

tag count data with robust normalization strategies. *BMC Bioinformatics* 2013;14:219.

49.   **Minh BQ, Schmidt HA, Chernomor O, Schrempf D, Woodhams MD, *et al.***

IQ-TREE 2: New Models and Efficient Methods for Phylogenetic Inference in the

Genomic Era. *Mol Biol Evol* 2020;37:1530–1534.

50.   **Letunic I, Bork P**. Interactive Tree Of Life (iTOL) v5: an online tool for

phylogenetic tree display and annotation. *Nucleic Acids Res* 2021;49:W293–W296.

51. **Lemoine F, Correia D, Lefort V, Doppelt-Azeroual O, Mareuil F, *et al.***

NGPhylogeny.fr: new generation phylogenetic services for non-specialists. *Nucleic*

Acids Res 2019;47:W260–W265.

52. **Yoshida M, Chien J-Y, Morimoto K, Kinjo T, Aono A, *et al.*** Molecular

Epidemiological Characteristics of Mycobacterium abscessus Complex Derived from

Non-Cystic Fibrosis Patients in Japan and Taiwan. *Microbiol Spectr* 2022;10:e00571-

22.

53. **Jin P, Dai J, Guo Y, Wang X, Lu J, *et al.*** Genomic Analysis of Mycobacterium

abscessus Complex Isolates from Patients with Pulmonary Infection in China.

Microbiol Spectr 2022;10:e00118-22.

54. **Chen S**. Ultrafast one-pass FASTQ data preprocessing, quality control, and

deduplication using fastp. *iMeta* 2023;2:e107.

55. **Shen W, Le S, Li Y, Hu F**. SeqKit: A Cross-Platform and Ultrafast Toolkit for

FASTA/Q File Manipulation. *PLOS ONE* 2016;11:e0163962.

56. **García-Alcalde F, Okonechnikov K, Carbonell J, Cruz LM, Götz S, *et al.***

Qualimap: evaluating next-generation sequencing alignment data. *Bioinformatics*

2012;28:2678–2679.

57. **Quinlan AR, Hall IM**. BEDTools: a flexible suite of utilities for comparing

genomic features. *Bioinformatics* 2010;26:841–842.

58. **Wetzstein N, Diricks M, Anton TB, Andres S, Kuhns M, *et al.*** Clinical and

genomic features of Mycobacterium avium complex: a multi-national European

study. *Genome Med* 2024;16:86.

59. **Croucher NJ, Page AJ, Connor TR, Delaney AJ, Keane JA, *et al.*** Rapid

phylogenetic analysis of large samples of recombinant bacterial whole genome

sequences using Gubbins. *Nucleic Acids Res* 2015;43:e15.

60. **Yu G, Smith DK, Zhu H, Guan Y, Lam TT-Y**. ggtree: an r package for

visualization and annotation of phylogenetic trees with their covariates and other

associated data. *Methods Ecol Evol* 2017;8:28–36.

61. **Paulsen IT, Brown MH, Littlejohn TG, Mitchell BA, Skurray RA**. Multidrug

resistance proteins QacA and QacB from Staphylococcus aureus: membrane

topology and identification of residues involved in substrate specificity. *Proc Natl*

Acad Sci 1996;93:3630–3635.

62. **Chuanchuen R, Gaynor JB, Karkhoff-Schweizer R, Schweizer HP**. Molecular

Characterization of MexL, the Transcriptional Repressor of the mexJK Multidrug Efflux

Operon in Pseudomonas aeruginosa. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 2005;49:1844–

1851.

63. **Osman MM, Shanahan JK, Chu F, Takaki KK, Pinckert ML, *et al.*** The C

terminus of the mycobacterium ESX-1 secretion system substrate ESAT-6 is required

for phagosomal membrane damage and virulence. *Proc Natl Acad Sci*

2022;119:e2122161119.

64. **Laencina L, Dubois V, Le Moigne V, Viljoen A, Majlessi L, *et al.***

Identification of genes required for Mycobacterium abscessus growth in vivo with a

prominent role of the ESX-4 locus. *Proc Natl Acad Sci* 2018;115:E1002–E1011.

65. **Lai L-Y, Lin T-L, Chen Y-Y, Hsieh P-F, Wang J-T**. Role of the Mycobacterium

marinum ESX-1 Secretion System in Sliding Motility and Biofilm Formation. *Front*

Microbiol 2018;9:1160.

66.   **Dumas E, Christina Boritsch E, Vandenbogaert M, Rodríguez de la Vega**

RC, Thiberge J-M, *et al.* Mycobacterial Pan-Genome Analysis Suggests Important

Role of Plasmids in the Radiation of Type VII Secretion Systems. *Genome Biol Evol*

2016;8:387–402.

67.   **Zhou Z, Xu L, Zhu L, Liu Y, Shuai X, *et al.*** Metagenomic analysis of

microbiota and antibiotic resistome in household activated carbon drinking water

purifiers. *Environ Int* 2021;148:106394.

68.   **Harms A, Brodersen DE, Mitarai N, Gerdes K**. Toxins, Targets, and Triggers:

An Overview of Toxin-Antitoxin Biology. *Mol Cell* 2018;70:768–784.

69.   **Namkoong H, Kurashima A, Morimoto K, Hoshino Y, Hasegawa N, *et al.***

Epidemiology of Pulmonary Nontuberculous Mycobacterial Disease, Japan. *Emerg*

Infect Dis 2016;22:1116.

70.   **Hoefsloot W, Ingen J van, Andrejak C, Ängeby K, Bauriaud R, *et al.*** The

geographic diversity of nontuberculous mycobacteria isolated from pulmonary

samples: an NTM-NET collaborative study. *Eur Respir J* 2013;42:1604–1613.

71.   **Stinear TP, Seemann T, Harrison PF, Jenkin GA, Davies JK, *et al.*** Insights

from the complete genome sequence of Mycobacterium marinum on the evolution

of Mycobacterium tuberculosis. *Genome Res* 2008;18:729–741.

72.   **Dedrick RM, Aull HG, Jacobs-Sera D, Garlena RA, Russell DA, *et al.*** The

Prophage and Plasmid Mobilome as a Likely Driver of Mycobacterium abscessus

Diversity. *mBio* 2021;12:e03441-20.

73.   **Andries K, Villellas C, Coeck N, Thys K, Gevers T, *et al.*** Acquired Resistance

of Mycobacterium tuberculosis to Bedaquiline. *PLOS ONE* 2014;9:e102135.

74. **Hartkoorn RC, Uplekar S, Cole ST**. Cross-Resistance between Clofazimine

and Bedaquiline through Upregulation of MmpL5 in Mycobacterium tuberculosis.

Antimicrob Agents Chemother 2014;58:2979–2981.

75. **Alexander DC, Vasireddy R, Vasireddy S, Philley JV, Brown-Elliott BA,** *et*

al. Emergence of mmpT5 Variants during Bedaquiline Treatment of Mycobacterium

intracellulare Lung Disease. *J Clin Microbiol* 2017;55:574–584.

76. **Halloum I, Viljoen A, Khanna V, Craig D, Bouchier C,** *et al.* Resistance to

Thiacetazone Derivatives Active against Mycobacterium abscessus Involves

Mutations in the MmpL5 Transcriptional Repressor MAB_4384. *Antimicrob Agents*

Chemother 2017;61:e02509-16.

77. **Sonika S, Singh S, Mishra S, Verma S**. Toxin-antitoxin systems in bacterial

pathogenesis. *Heliyon* 2023;9:e14220.

78. **Harms A, Maisonneuve E, Gerdes K**. Mechanisms of bacterial persistence

during stress and antibiotic exposure. *Science* 2016;354:aaf4268.

79. **Castañeda-Barba S, Top EM, Stalder T**. Plasmids, a molecular cornerstone of

antimicrobial resistance in the One Health era. *Nat Rev Microbiol* 2024;22:18–32.

80. **Kiga K, Tan X-E, Ibarra-Chávez R, Watanabe S, Aiba Y,** *et al.* Development

of CRISPR-Cas13a-based antimicrobials capable of sequence-specific killing of target

bacteria. *Nat Commun* 2020;11:2934.