A split ALFA tag-nanobody system for protein localization and proximity proteomics in

mycobacteria

Allison Fay[1], Andrew P. Kurland[2,3], Zhuoning Li[4], Mara Monetti[4], Jeffrey R. Johnson[2,3], Michael

S. Glickman[1,#]

1-Immunology Program, Sloan Kettering Institute

2- Department of Microbiology, Icahn School of Medicine at Mount Sinai, New York, NY,

USA

3- Global Health and Emerging Pathogens Institute, Icahn School of Medicine at Mount

Sinai, New York, NY, USA

4- Proteomics Innovation Laboratory, Sloan Kettering Institute

Memorial Sloan Kettering Cancer Center, 1275 York Avenue, New York, New York 10065 USA

#Correspondence:

glickmam@mskcc.org

1275 York Ave

New York, NY 10065

646-888-2368

Abstract

Tuberculosis remains a globally significant infection and new insights into the biology of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* are badly needed. Discovery of protein localization and protein complex composition are powerful approaches to determine protein function, but have not been widely applied in mycobacteria, in part due to technical barriers. Here we develop a multi-functional system that utilizes the ALFA tag and functional protein fusions to an anti-ALFA nanobody (NBALFA) to target proteins in fast and slow growing mycobacteria. Insertion of the ALFA epitope tag on the target protein, coupled with conditional expression of the NBALFA fused to a fluorescent protein faithfully recapitulates cytosolic and membrane protein localization by fluorescent microscopy in living cells. Targeted NBALFA can relocalize an ALFA tagged protein to inclusion bodies or the cytoplasmic membrane, demonstrating enforced protein localization. Finally, conditional expression of the NBALFA fused to TurboID for proximity proteomics allowed identification of known partner proteins of the RNA polymerase complex and the PKS13 mycolic acid biosynthesis protein. We conclude that the split ALFA tag-nanobody system is a flexible platform for discovery protein biology in mycobacteria.

Introduction

Mycobacterium tuberculosis remains a high burden global health problem, infecting over 10.8 million people and causing 1.25 million deaths in 2023. There were about 400,000 estimated MDR/RR-TB cases in 2023 limiting the available drugs (1). Although our knowledge of the biology of *M. tuberculosis* is expanding, we still lack a complete understanding of the key processes in the mycobacterial cell, including cell wall biosynthesis, transcription, and DNA replication. Understanding the biology of these basic cellular systems is critical for the development of new antimicrobial therapies by elucidating new drug targets or understanding how current therapies affect cell function.

Decades of development of genetic tools for mycobacteria have powered directed and genome wide discovery approaches, including systems for genetic deletion, integration, and point mutagenesis (2-4), CRISPRi technology for high throughput library screening and targeted gene knockdown (5, 6), CRISPR gene targeting for genetic deletions (7, 8), and approaches such as ORBIT which utilize phage machinery to make multiple deletions and chromosomal integrations (9). Although these advances in mycobacterial genetics have dramatically accelerated discovery science for both pathogenic and nonpathogenic mycobacteria, proteomic approaches to understand mycobacterial proteins in their native cellular context have lagged. Protein fusions to a variety of functional proteins, including epitope tags, fluorescent proteins, and chemically modifiable functional domains allow for interrogation of protein spatial positioning, environment, and binding partners. Localization via fluorescent protein fusions have elucidated a vast array of spatial patterning within mycobacterial cells including, but not limited to asymmetric polar

growth elucidated by GFP-Wag31 localization (10), proteostasis machinery utilizing the

tagged chaperone DnaK-mCitrine and disaggregase ClpB-mCitrine (11), and replication

and architecture of the chromosome with tagged nucleoid-associated proteins, SSB-

GFP and HupB-GFP (12, 13). High-throughput fusion libraries have also been

developed to systematically assess protein patterning (14, 15). However, direct protein

fusions to large partner proteins can introduce artifacts and impair protein function. For

live cell localization, the most common fusion protein, GFP, though generally well

tolerated, can impact folding, stability, and function due to its large size (16). GFP

fusions can alter protein localization in live cells (17) and generally must be generated

at the N- or C-terminus of the target.

Proximity proteomics is a powerful technique to investigate protein function by

capturing both stable and transient protein interactions (18). The most commonly used

systems fuse APEX/APEX2 (19, 20) or the BirA-derivatives, BioID/TurboID (21, 22), to a

target protein of interest, thereby directing biotinylation to partner proteins in proximity.

Recently, APEX-based proximity labeling was used in mycobacteria to identify the

cytoplasmic and periplasmic compartment proteomes in Mtb (23, 24) and a BioID fusion

was used to interrogate HbhA in *M. smegmatis* (25), but otherwise proximity proteomics

has not been widely deployed in mycobacteria.

The ALFA tag is a rationally designed epitope tag that is small, balanced, alpha-

helical, minimally reactive, and amenable to placement at the termini or internally in a

target protein (26). Critically, a cognate nanobody (NBALFA), a single chain camelid

antibody with picomolar binding affinity, was generated as a partner reagent for the

ALFA tag (26). Because nanobodies efficiently fold and bind their target sequence within

the prokaryotic cell cytoplasm (27), the ALFA-NBALFA pair would potentially provide a

flexible system in which a single ALFA tagged target could be functionally targeted in

live mycobacterial cells by fusing partner proteins to the NBALFA. This manuscript

explores this idea and presents a multifunctional NBALFA/ALFA tag system for protein

studies in fast and slow growing mycobacteria.

94
95

96 **Results**
97
Nanobody based protein localization in *M. smegmatis.*

The design of the split ALFA system is presented in Figure 1. To test the utility of this approach,

we generated chromosomal C-terminal ALFA tagged proteins by integrating the ALFA tag at the

3' end of the endogenous *rpoC* or *mmpL3* genes in *M. smegmatis.* These proteins are well

characterized in mycobacteria with clear patterns of localization: RpoC to the nucleoid and

MmpL3 to cell poles, (28-30). *M. smegmatis* MmpL3-ALFA and RpoC-ALFA were viable and had

similar replication times in culture, indicating the ALFA tagged versions of both proteins were

functional given that both genes are essential for viability. We verified expression of each ALFA

tagged protein at the predicted size via immunoblot using NBALFA (Figure 2A). We then

introduced plasmids encoding GFP translationally fused at the C-terminus to NBALFA with

flexible linker (GGGSGGG) expressed from *ftsZ* (P_{ftsZ}) , *hsp60* (P_{hsp60}), or the Tet-inducible

promoters into wildtype *M. smegmatis*, RpoC-ALFA, or MmpL3-ALFA. The protein levels of

GFP-NBALFA correlated with expected promoter strength with P_{ftsZ} showing very little full length

fusion protein compared to the P_{hsp60} driven construct (Figure 2B). Tet-inducible GFP-NBALFA

was undetectable without inducer, but accumulated at its predicted size with anhydrotetracycline

(ATc) induction (Figure 2B).

To determine if NBALFA can localize to ALFA tagged proteins in living cells, we imaged

GFP-NBALFA by fluorescent microscopy in the absence or presence of an ALFA tagged target

protein. Without an ALFA tagged protein, fluorescent signal from GFP-NBALFA was diffusely

distributed and indistinguishable from free GFP (Figure 3A), with fluorescence signal intensity

correlating to protein levels seen by immunoblot. We next assessed whether GFP-NBALFA

would localize to ALFA tagged proteins *in vivo.* Mycobacterial RpoC-GFP was previously

reported to co-localize to the nucleoid in logarithmically growing cells (28) and an RpoC-

mCitrine fusion protein similarly colocalized with the irregular puncta of the nucleoid visualized

by Hoechst staining (Figure 3B top panels). In RpoC-ALFA expressing cells, the nucleoid

localization pattern was weakly visible in cells co-expressing the GFP-NBALFA under P_{ftsZ} and

was easily visible when GFP-NBALFA was constitutively or inducibly expressed at higher levels

(Figure 3B). The pattern of GFP-NBALFA localizing to RpoC-ALFA was indistinguishable from

the direct RpoC-mCitrine fusion and contrasted with the diffuse pattern seen in cells not

expressing an ALFA-tagged protein. We repeated these experiments with MmpL3-GFP and

MmpL3-ALFA fusions. An MmpL3-GFP translational fusion accumulated at the poles and septa

as previously described (29, 30). Similarly, *M. smegmatis* cells expressing MmpL3-ALFA and

high levels of GFP-NBALFA (P_{hsp60} or Tet-induced) also showed a polar localization pattern that

was similar to the direct MmpL3-GFP fusion (Figure 3C). These results indicate that GFP-

NBALFA will localize to cytoplasmic or membrane proteins when co-expressed with an ALFA

tagged target.

Protein Relocalization using NBALFA

We next tested whether we could re-target an ALFA tagged protein to distinct subcellular

locations using NBALFA targeted to the membrane or a protein inclusion body. For inclusion

body targeting, we added the ELK16 aggregation sequence, which forms aggregates and

inclusion bodies *in vivo* (31), at the N-terminus of GFP-NBALFA to create ALFA tagged

fluorescent insoluble aggregates. When viewed by fluorescent microcopy, unlike the diffuse

cytoplasmic signal of GFP-NBALFA (Figure 3A), ELK16-GFP-NBALFA formed multiple foci in

the cell that occasionally coalesced into a large, polar inclusion bodies (Figure 4A). To test

whether ALFA tagged proteins would re-localize to these inclusion bodies, we coexpressed the

Tet-inducible ELK16-GFP-NBALFA with mCherry-ALFA or mCherry-HA. Upon induction of

ELK16-GFP-NBALFA and aggregate formation, mCherry-ALFA colocalized with GFP-NBALFA

puncta (Figure 4A, top). This relocalization was specific to the ALFA tag, as mCherry-HA

remained in a diffuse pattern when coexpressed with ELK16-GFP-NBALFA aggregates (Figure

4A, bottom).

To test whether NBALFA could relocalize an ALFA tagged protein to the membrane, we

utilized the first two transmembrane domains of *E. coli* MalF, which we previously used to mark

M. smegmatis membranes (11, 29). MalF$_{(1,2)}$-GFP-NBALFA localized in a membrane and septal

pattern in *M. smegmatis* (Figure 4B) and coexpression of mCherry-ALFA relocalized cherry

signal to the membrane (Figure 4B, top), whereas mCherry-HA remained in a diffuse

cytoplasmic pattern (Figure 4B, bottom). These experiments demonstrate that the split ALFA-NB

system can be used to relocalize proteins in living mycobacterial cells.

Split ALFA nanobody based proximity proteomics in mycobacteria

After confirming the NB based localization to ALFA tagged proteins in living *M. smegmatis*, we

adapted biotin-based proximity labeling to the split ALFA system. We chose the promiscuous

biotin-ligating enzyme, TurboID, which can label available lysines with biotin (21). We generated

a conditional expression vector encoding TurboID translationally fused to NBALFA (Figure 1).

When expressed in *M. smegmatis* RpoC-ALFA or MmpL3-ALFA, we were unable to detect

TurboID-NBALFA in uninduced cell lysates (Figure 5A). After induction for 3 hours with ATc, the

TurboID-NBALFA fusion protein was visible at the expected size when probed with an antibody

to BirA, (Figure 5A).

To determine if the TurboID-NBALFA fusion protein could catalyze biotinylation of an

ALFA tagged target, we developed a labeling protocol that would limit non-specific labeling by

employing transient expression of the TurboID-NBALFA fusion to allow localization to the ALFA

tagged target before initiation of labeling with biotin addition. However, mycobacterial cells

synthesize biotin (32, 33) and produce many biotinylated proteins (8, 34-36), indicating that

TurboID catalyzed biotinylation might proceed without biotin addition. To optimize conditions for

labeling, we measured TurboID-NBALFA dependent biotinylation in different media conditions.

Wild type *M. smegmatis* without TurboID has several dominant biotinylated proteins detected by

streptavidin-HRP (Figure S1). *M. smegmatis* expressing tet inducible TurboID-NBALFA in biotin

free Sauton's media with addition of inducer were indistinguishable from WT cells, indicating

that the endogenous biotin pool is not available for TurboID-NBALFA catalyzed biotinylation, at

least at this level of detection. However, expression of TurboID-NBALFA in LB media resulted in

detectable additional biotinylated proteins, and addition of biotin to Sauton's media resulted in

the highest level of additional biotinylation (Figure S1). These results indicate that there is

background endogenous biotinylation by TurboID in mycobacteria, but that biotin free media and

exogenous biotin addition can temporally restrict this background. However, these results also

emphasize the importance of the appropriate negative ALFA tagged control proteins to detect

specific biotinylation signals above both endogenously biotinylated proteins and those

nonspecifically biotinylated by TurboID.

To test the system in cells expressing an ALFA tagged target protein, we used TurboID-

NBALFA expressing cells carrying either RpoC-ALFA and MmpL3-ALFA. We observed

biotinylated proteins corresponding to the predicted sizes of the bait proteins, suggesting that

the TurboID-NBALFA was targeted to the ALFA tagged bait protein and subsequently labeled the

bait protein with biotin (Figure 5B). In addition, there were additional new biotinylated proteins in

the lysates each of the ALFA expressing cells compared to no ALFA control cells (Figure 5B),

suggesting proximity labeling of additional non-bait proteins above background. To identify

these additional biotinylated proteins, we isolated biotinylated proteins from RpoC-ALFA and no

ALFA control cells with streptavidin-agarose and quantitated peptides by mass spectrometry.

We identified the bait protein, RpoC, as a top hit enriched in the RpoC-ALFA strain when

compared to the no ALFA tag control strain (Figure 5C and Table S2). Furthermore, we identified

the core RNAP subunits RpoA (RNAPα) and RpoB (RNAPβ) as well as the transcription

termination protein, Rho as RpoC proximity hits (Figure 5C and Table 2).

Proximity labeling in *M. tuberculosis*.

To test proximity labeling using TurboID-NBALFA in *M. tuberculosis*, we targeted PKS13, a large

(186 kDa) multimodular protein essential for mycobacterial viability (37-39). PKS13 is essential

for mycolic acid biosynthesis and condenses the alpha branch fatty acids with the meromycolate

chain in the final steps of mycolic acid synthesis (37). Due to its distinct structural domains,

PKS13 is an ideal candidate to test the potential for domain specific proximity labeling by

placing the ALFA tag at distinct sites in the protein. The ALFA tag's small size and balanced α-

helical structure was reported to be tolerated at termini and at internal sites (26). We placed the

ALFA tag at the N-terminus, C-terminus, and two internal sites (552AA or 1357AA) in PKS13.

The internal sites were chosen for their predicted disordered structure between known

functional domains (39). To test the ability of different PKS13 ALFA tagged alleles to

complement the essential function of PKS13, we generated *M. bovis* BCG ΔBCG_3862c in a

merodiploid strain with a second copy of *rv3800c* (encoding *M. tuberculosis* PKS13) at the *attB*

site containing a nourseothricin resistance marker. L5 integrase catalyzed allelic exchange with

each ALFA-tagged PKS13 encoding plasmid conferring streptomycin resistance confirmed that

all four PKS13-ALFA alleles were functional (Figure S2).

To test PKS13 proximity labeling in *M. tuberculosis*, a constitutively expressed second

copy of *rv3800c*, the gene encoding PKS13, was integrated into the *M. tuberculosis*

chromosome. All *pks13* encoding alleles with distinct ALFA tag positions expressed an ALFA

tagged protein at the predicted size of PKS13, with subtle differences in PKS13 levels with

different tag positions, as compared to the DnaK loading control (Figure 6A). Coexpression of –

TurboID-NBALFA and subsequent biotin labeling revealed a high molecular weight streptavidin

reactive protein in all triplicate samples consistent with the expected size of PKS13, which was

not visible in the no ALFA control (Figure 6B). To identify biotinylated proteins dependent on the

ALFA-TurboID-NBALFA interaction, we purified biotinylated proteins from each of the labeled

lysates on streptavidin resin and quantitated peptides by mass spectrometry. PKS13 was the

top enriched protein identified by mass spectrometry in all four ALFA tag positions, indicating

proper targeting and labeling by TurboID-NBALFA, independent of tag position (Figure 6C,

Table S3). The PKS13 proximity interactome included multiple proteins with known functions in

mycolic acid biosynthesis including early Fas1 associated factors (AcpM, AccD6), FasII

components (InhA, HadB), mycolic acid methyltransferases that modify the meromycolate chain

(MmaA3, MmaA4), and proteins involved in TMM transport (CmrA) (Figure 6C, S3 and Table

S4). Additional proteins with relevance to the mycolic acid pathway were also detected (Figure

6C, Table S3), including proteins in the TAG lipid synthesis and lipid degradation pathways

(TGS1 and FadE23) whose products can be used for mycolic acid synthesis, (40-42). We also

identified protein chaperones, including DnaK, which we previously implicated as required for

large multimodular protein stability in *M. smegmatis* (11). To determine if distinct ALFA tag

positions within PKS13 led to distinct biotinylation patterns, we compared the proximity

interactome of PKS13 alleles with different ALFA tagged positions. This analysis revealed a core

PKS13 interactome shared in all four ALFA tagged PKS13 positions (Figure 6D, Table S5), but

also revealed proximity hits unique to each tag position, particularly for the 1352AA tag position,

indicating that ALFA tag placement can reveal distinct protein interactors in large multidomain

proteins.

Discussion

We have created a flexible split ALFA tag-ALFA nanobody based system for protein-based discovery science in mycobacteria. The core enabling technology of this system is the ALFA tag/NBALFA pair. The high affinity of the NBALFA for the ALFA tag, combined with the ability to express the single chain in living bacterial cells, enables our approach of using the NB as a delivery vehicle to localize distinct functional protein partners to an ALFA tagged protein of interest. This design gives tremendous flexibility as it allows a single bacterial strain bearing an ALFA tagged protein of interest to be used for protein localization, affinity purification, and proximity proteomics, simply by changing the fusion partner of the expressed NBALFA. The split design of the system may offer several advantages in addition to this flexibility. The small size and optimized structural design of the ALFA tag is presumably less likely to artifactually perturb protein function or localization than a larger direct fusion such as a fluorescent protein or TurboID. The functionalized NB can also be conditionally expressed, allowing temporal control of the imaging or proximity output to coincide with experimental conditions. We demonstrate the utility of the system for visualizing the subcellular distribution of both cytoplasmic and membrane proteins by fluorescent microscopy; for tethering a protein to a specific subcellar compartment; and for proximity proteomics. This latter usage, proximity proteomics, provides a new system to interrogate protein complexes in mycobacteria. Although APEX based proximity proteomics has been applied in mycobacteria for the periplasmic and cytoplasmic compartment, this system is less amendable to cytoplasmic labeling has not been demonstrated for a specific protein target (23, 24, 43). In contrast, the NBALFA system should be useful for cytoplasmic proteins and membrane proteins if targeted to the cytoplasmic domains of those membrane proteins. We also note that the ALFA tag can also be used directly for affinity purification of protein complexes, with or without crosslinking, providing an approach for structural characterization of native protein complexes purified directly from mycobacteria.

We can envision several future uses of this system for discovery biology in

mycobacteria. It would be possible with this system to interrogate the proximity interactome of

an entire pathway by ALFA tagging a set of proteins with sequential steps in the pathway.

Similarly, the dynamic protein interactome of *M. tuberculosis* antibiotic targets could be

interrogated during drug treatment or other exogenously applied cellular stress. Similarly,

additional functional domains could be fused to NBALFA to enable additional discovery

approaches, such as HaloTag for small molecule labeling. We also envision that this approach

may be generally applicable to other bacterial or eukaryotic systems in which the flexibility of the

split ALFA approach would offer similar advantages.

Methods

Growth conditions.

M. smegmatis strains were cultured in LB with 0.5% glycerol, 0.5% dextrose, and 0.05% Tween

80 (LB$_{smeg}$) or Difco Middlebrook 7H9 supplemented with 0.2% glycerol, 10% ADS (0.5%

albumin, 0.085% NaCl, 0.2% dextrose) and 0.05% Tween 80 (7H9). *M. bovis* BCG Pasteur

strains were cultured in Difco Middlebrook 7H9 supplemented with 0.2% glycerol, 10% ADS

(0.5% albumin, 0.085% NaCl, 0.2% dextrose) and 0.05% Tween 80 (7H9) or on Difco

Middlebrook 7H10 agar plates were supplemented with 0.2% glycerol and 10% (wt/vol)

Middlebrook oleic acid-albumin-dextrose-catalase (OADC). *M. tuberculosis* Erdman strains were

cultured in Difco Middlebrook 7H9 supplemented with 0.2% glycerol and 10% (wt/vol)

Middlebrook oleic acid-albumin-dextrose-catalase (OADC) and 0.05% Tween 80 (7H9) or on

Difco Middlebrook 7H10 agar plates were supplemented with 0.2% glycerol and 10% (wt/vol)

Middlebrook oleic acid-albumin-dextrose-catalase (OADC). Sauton's media was utilized for

biotin-free conditions.

Bacterial and DNA manipulations

Standard procedures were used to manipulate recombinant DNA and to transform *E. coli. M.*

smegmatis strains were derivatives of mc2155 (44). *M. bovis* BCG Pasteur and *M. tuberculosis*

Erdman were also used. Gene deletions were made by double stranded DNA recombineering

(3). All strains used in this study are listed in Table S1. Plasmids including relevant features,

and primers are listed in Table S1. *M. smegmatis*, *M. bovis BCG*, and *M. tuberculosis* were

transformed by electroporation (2500V, 2.5µF, 1000Ω). Antibiotic concentrations used for

selection of mycobacterial strains were as follows: kanamycin 20 µg/ml, hygromycin 50 µg/ml,

streptomycin 20 µg/ml, nourseothricin 25 µg/ml.

Immunoblotting

For protein and epitope tag detection, the following antibodies were used: GFP (Rockland

Immunochemicals, Rabbit Anti-GFP polyclonal antibody, 1 mg/ml, 1:20,000), SigA (purified anti-

SigA from rabbit sera, 1:10,000) (45), TurboID (Invitrogen, BirA Polyclonal Antibody, 1mg/ml,

1:10,000), DnaK (anti-DnaK rabbit poly clonal sera, 1:10,000) (46), ALFA tag (purified NBALFA

1mg/ml, 1:5000 and Genscript, Rabbit anti-VHH HRP conjugated antibody, 1:10,000).

NBALFA Purification

The sequence encoding the ALFA tag binding nanobody was cloned with a C-terminal 6histidine

tag into an IPTG inducible construct, PelB leader-containing derivative of pET21b and

expressed and purified as described (47) with the following modifications. A 19-hour induction

was done at 22 degrees C in BL21(DE3) cultured in Terrific Broth containing carbenicillin

(100ug/ml). Eluates were pooled, concentrated in Amicon Ultra-4 3k, and run on Superdex 200

10/300 size exclusion column using an AKTA purifier in PBS. Nanobody was stored at

concentrations of 1-10mg/ml in PBS containing 20% glycerol at -80C.

Microscopy

All images were acquired using a Zeiss Axio Observer Z1 microscope equipped with Definite

focus, Colibri2.0 and Illuminator HXP 120 C light sources, a Hamamatsu ORCA-Flash4.0

CMOS camera, and a Plan-Apochromat 100×/1.4 numerical aperture oil differential inference

contrast (DIC) lens objective. Zeiss Zen software was used for acquisition and image export.

The following filter sets and light sources were used for imaging: GFP (38 HE, Colibri2.0 470

light-emitting diode [LED]), yellow fluorescent protein (YFP) (46 HE, Colibri2.0 505 LED) and

DAPI (49, HXP 120 C). For cell staining a final concentration of 200uM Hoechst (Hoechst

33342 Solution (20 mM), ThermoScientific) was added and cells were incubated for 10 minutes

at 37 degrees. Cells were pelleted by centrifugation at 3,000 × g for 1 min. Supernatant was

removed and cells were resuspended in 50□µl of PBS. For single-time-point live-cell imaging, 2

µl of culture was spotted onto a 1.5% low-melting-point agarose pad made in a final

concentration of PBS with 0.2% glucose. For pad preparation, agarose was heated to 65°C and

poured into a FastWell incubation chamber (Grace Bio-labs, 18x18mm, 1mm depth) pressed

onto a 25-mm by 75-mm glass slide. A second slide was pressed down on top, and the setup

was allowed to cool at room temperature for 10 min. The top slide was removed, and two

microliters of *M. smegmatis* culture was added to the pad then topped with a coverslip

(18x18mm, No 1.5).

Proximity labeling, lysate preparation, and biotinylated protein capture

From a log phase starter culture (OD600 0.3-0.6), 3x30ml cultures for each strain were

prepared in 60ml inkwell bottles (Nalgene, #342020-060) targeting a final OD600 of 0.3 after

18hrs (*M. smegmatis*) or 48hs (Mtb). For *M. smegmatis* RpoC-ALFA proximity labeling, the

following strains were used: MG7085 (No ALFA tag control) and MGM7106 grown in 30mls

LBsmeg with kanamycin 20ug/ml. For Mtb PKS13-ALFA experiment: MGM7416, MGM7418,

MGM7419, MGM7420, MGM7421 were grown in 30ml 7H9OADC with kanamycin 20μg/ml.

Cultures were washed with 10ml Sauton's media (biotin-free media) then resuspend 30ml

cultures in Sauton's media with kanamycin in fresh 60ml inkwell bottle and grown at 37C

shaking at 150rpm (6h *M. smegmatis*, 24h Mtb) followed by addition of ATc-50ng/ml (3h *M.*

smegmatis) or ATc-100ng/ml (18h Mtb). Cells were collected by centrifugation at 3700xG for

10min at room temperature and resuspended in 2ml Sauton's media (no ATc/no kanamycin) and

transferred to 2ml O-ring sealed tube, collected by centrifugation at 3700xG for 5min at room

temperature, and resuspended in 1ml Sauton's media. Cultures were incubated for 2hrs with

200µM Biotin (Sigma, B4501) with shaking at 37C and then collected by centrifugation at

20,000xG for 1min at 4C and placed immediately on ice. Cell pellets were washed with 2ml cold

TBS (20mM Tris, 150mM NaCl, pH 7.5), then collected by centrifugation at 20,000xG for 1min at

4C and cell pellets frozen at -20 degrees C.

352   For lysate preparation, frozen cell pellets were thawed on ice and resuspended with

250ul bead mix (1:1 mix, Biospec 11079101z and 1079107zx) and 1ml cold TBS with protease

inhibitors (PI) (Pierce, PIA32955). Lysis was performed by mechanical disruption 3X45 seconds

(Biospec Minibeadbeater) with 5 min icing between runs. Unbroken cells/debris were collected

by centrifugation at 20,000xG for 1min at 4C, supernatants collected, and residual pellets lysed

again with beads and 400ul cold TBS with protease inhibitors. Pooled supernatants were mixed

with 150ul of 10x RIPA buffer detergents (TBS+ 10% triton x-100, 1% SDS, 5% sodium

deoxycholate) and mixed by inversion, centrifuged at 20,000xG for and (for Mtb) the

supernatant was filtered twice through EMD Millipore™ Ultrafree™-CL Centrifugal Filter Devices

with Durapore™ Membrane to remove any residual *M. tuberculosis*. For biotinylated protein

capture, protein lysates were mixed with 80ul of Streptavidin-Agarose (GoldBio, S-105-10)

prewashed 3X in 1ml TBS and incubated rotating at 4C for 18h. Agarose beads were collected

at 250xG for 1min at 4C and washed 2xs with 1ml RIPA/SDS (TBS+ 0.1% triton x-100, 0.1%

SDS, 0.5% sodium deoxycholate) followed by 4 washes with TBS.

Peptide preparation for Mass Spectrometry

Streptavidin-agarose beads were resuspended in 40ul of 2M urea, 50mM tris pH 8.0 then 0.4ul

of 100mM DTT was added to each sample. Beads were incubated at 37C for 30 min with

shaking then 0.3ul 500mM iodoacetamide was added and beads were incubated at room

temperature for 45 min protected from light. 0.3ul 500mM DTT was added then 750ng of trypsin

protease (Pierce, 90057) and beads were incubated overnight shaking at 37C. Beads were

spun down 250xG 2min and supernatant was transferred to a new tube. 500ng of trypsin was

added to the supernatant and incubated for 2h at 37C with shaking. Samples were then

acidified with trifluoroacetic acid (TFA) to a final concentration of 0.1%. 200ul of 80% acetonitrile

(ACN), 0.1% TFA was added to a BioPureSPN Mini C18 spin columns (Nest Group, Product #

HUM S18R) and spun at 100 x G for 1 min. 200ul of 0.1% TFA was added to the column and

spun 100xG for 1 min, then repeated. The digested sample was then added to the column and

spun 100xG for 1 min. 200ul of 0.1% TFA was added to the column and spun 100 x G for 1 min,

then repeated. The column was then placed in a fresh tube and peptides were eluted with 100ul

40% ACN, 0.1% TFA and spun 100 x G for 1 min. Peptides were dried in a speedvac.

Mass spectrometry data acquisition

Samples were analyzed on an Orbitrap Eclipse mass spectrometry system equipped with an

Easy nLC 1200 ultra-high pressure liquid chromatography system interfaced via a Nanospray

Flex nanoelectrospray source (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Samples were injected onto a fritted

fused silica capillary (30 cm × 75 µm inner diameter with a 15 µm tip, CoAnn Technologies)

packed with ReprosilPur C18-AQ 1.9 µm particles (Dr. Maisch GmbH). Buffer A consisted of

0.1% Formic Acid (FA), and buffer B consisted of 0.1% FA/80% ACN. Peptides were separated

by an organic gradient from 5% to 35% mobile buffer B over 120 min followed by an increase to

100% B over 10 min at a flow rate of 300 nL/min. Analytical columns were equilibrated with 3 µL

of buffer A.

To build a spectral library, samples from each set of biological replicates were pooled

and acquired in data-dependent manner. Data-dependent acquisition (DDA) was performed by

acquiring a full scan over a m/z range of 375-1025 in the Orbitrap at 120,000 resolving power

(@ 200 m/z) with a normalized AGC target of 100%, an RF lens setting of 30%, and an

instrument-controlled ion injection time. Dynamic exclusion was set to 30 seconds, with a 10

p.p.m. exclusion width setting. Peptides with charge states 2-6 were selected for MS/MS

interrogation using higher energy collisional dissociation (HCD) with a normalized HCD collision

energy of 28%, with 3 seconds of MS/MS scans per cycle.

Data-independent analysis (DIA) was performed on all individual samples. A full scan

was collected at 60,000 resolving power over a scan range of 390-1010 m/z, an instrument

controlled AGC target, an RF lens setting of 30%, and an instrument controlled maximum

injection time, followed by DIA scans using 8 m/z isolation windows over 400-1000 m/z at a

normalized HCD collision energy of 28%.

Mass spectrometry data analysis

The Spectronaut algorithm was used to build spectral libraries from DDA data, identify

peptides/proteins, localize phosphorylation sites, and extract intensity information from DIA data

(48). DDA data were searched against the *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* or *M. smegmatis*

reference proteome sequences in the UniProt database (one protein sequence per gene,

downloaded on June 13, 2022). False discovery rates were estimated using a decoy database

strategy (49). All data were filtered to achieve a false discovery rate of 0.01 for peptide-

spectrum matches, peptide identifications, and protein identifications. Search parameters

included a fixed modification for carbamidomethyl cysteine and variable modifications for N-

terminal protein acetylation, methionine oxidation, and for phosphoproteomics samples, serine,

threonine, and tyrosine phosphorylation. All other search parameters were Biognosys factory

defaults.

Statistical analysis of proteomics data was conducted utilizing the MSstats package in R

(50). All data were normalized by equalizing median intensities, the summary method was

Tukey's median polish, and the maximum quantile for deciding censored missing values was

0.999.

Acknowledgements

425
426   This work was funded by P30 AI168433 (Tri-I TRAC) and P30 CA08748.

428   **Conflicts of Interest**

429   MSG declares equity and consulting fees from Vedanta biosciences and consulting fees from

430   Fimbrion therapeutics.

Figure 1

434 **Figure 1**. Design of a split ALFA tag nanobody system for detection/purification, localization,

435 and proximity labeling in mycobacteria

Figure 2

437
438
Figure 2. Chromosomal ALFA tagged MmpL3 and RpoC

(A) Immunoblots of lysates from MC2155 (WT), MGM7103 (encoding RpoC-ALFA), and

MGM7059 (encoding MmpL3-ALFA). The top blot is probed using NBALFA and anti-VHH-HRP.

The bottom blot stripped and probed with anti-SigA and anti-rabbit Ig-HRP as a loading control.

(B) Immunoblots of lysates from MC2155, MGM6970 (expressing GFP), MGM7087 (expressing

GFP-NBALFA from the P_{ftsZ1} promoter), MGM7089 (expressing GFP-NBALFA from the P_{hsp60}

promoter), MGM7047 (expressing TetON GFP-NBALFA, no ATc), and MGM7047 (encoding

TetON GFP-NBALFA, + ATc-50ng/ml). Top blot probed with anti-GFP and anti-rabbit Ig-HRP.

Bottom blot stripped and probed with anti-SigA and anti-rabbit Ig-HRP.

Figure 3

Figure 3. Detection of protein localization in live mycobacterial cells using split NBALFA

(**A**) GFP-NBALFA mimics the distribution of free GFP in the absence of an ALFA tagged target

protein. MGM6970 (expressing free GFP), MGM7087 (expressing GFP-NBALFA from P_{ftsZ1}),

MGM7089 (expressing GFP-NBALFA from P_{hsp60}), MGM7047 (expressing TetON GFP-NBALFA,

no ATc), MGM7047 (encoding TetON GFP-NBALFA, + ATc-50ng/ml).

(B) NBALFA localizes to RpoC in living cells. MGM6026 (expressing an RpoC-mCitrine protein

fusion), MGM7107 (expressing RpoC-ALFA and GFP-NBALFA under P_{ftsZ1}), MGM7108

expressing RpoC-ALFA and GFP-NBALFA under P_{hsp60}), MGM7105 (expressing RpoC-ALFA

and TetON GFP-NBALFA, no ATc), MGM7105 (expressing RpoC-ALFA and TetON GFP-

NBALFA, + ATc-50ng/ml).

(C) NBALFA localizes to MmpL3 in living cells. MGM6464 (expressing a MmpL3-GFP fusion),

MGM7099 (expressing MmpL3-ALFA and GFP-NBALFA under P_{ftsZ1}), MGM7101 (encoding

MmpL3-ALFA and GFP-NBALFA under P_{hsp60}), MGM7081 (expressing MmpL3-ALFA and TetON

GFP-NBALFA, no ATc), MGM7081 (expressing MmpL3-ALFA and TetON GFP-NBALFA, + ATc-

50ng/ml).

All images contain 2uM scale bar and show GFP (imaged 500ms, 70% Colibri LED), Hoechst

staining (DAPI, 500ms external lamp), DIC, and overlay.

Figure 4

Figure 4. Enforced protein relocalization using split NBALFA

(A) Relocalization to inclusion bodies. Top section: AFM1996 (mCherry-ALFA, TetON ELK16-

GFP-NBALFA) without (top) and with (bottom) ATc showing GFP inclusion body formation and

colocalization of mCherry-ALFA to inclusions. Bottom section, same as (A), but with a control

mCherry-HA expression strain, AFM1995 (mCherry-HA, TetON ELK16-GFP-NBALFA) without

(top) and with (bottom) ATc to induce GFP inclusion bodies.

(B) Relocalization to the membrane. mCherry-ALFA, or control mCherry-HA, with coexpression

of an inducible membrane targeted MalF$_{(TM1,2)}$-GFP-NBALFA. Top section: MGM7879 (mCherry-

ALFA, TetON MalF$_{(TM1,2)}$-GFP-NBALFA) with ATc. Bottom section: MGM7985 (mCherry-HA,

TetON MalF$_{(TM1,2)}$-GFP-NBALFA) with ATc.

All images contain 2uM scale bar and show GFP (imaged 500ms, 70% Colibri LED), mCherry

(imaged 500ms, 70% Colibri LED), DIC, and GFP/mCherry overlay.

Figure 5. Proximity labeling in *M. smegmatis* expressing ALFA tagged RpoC or MmpL3 with a TurboID-NBALFA fusion.

(A) Immunoblots of lysates from WT *M. smegmatis*, MGM7085 (no ALFA), MGM7105 (encoding RpoC-ALFA), MGM7081 (encoding MmpL3-ALFA), all with a tet inducible TurboID-NBALFA. Lanes 2-4 are uninduced and lanes 5-7 were induced with ATc-50ng/ml for 3 hours. The blot was probed with anti-BirA then anti-rabbit Ig-HRP.

(B) Streptavidin-HRP probed blot to detect biotinylated proteins in WT, no ALFA, RpoC-ALFA and MmpL3-ALFA, all expressing TurboID-NBALFA after biotin labeling. Black arrowheads indicate biotinylated proteins at the predicted size of RpoC-ALFA (lane 3) or MmpL3-ALFA (lane 4)

(C) Volcano plot of RpoC-ALFA compared to No ALFA proximity labeling. Blue points indicate Log2FC>1 and Adjusted P-value <0.05. Significant blue points labeled with protein names, including RpoC bait protein.

Figure 6. Proximity labeling of *M. tuberculosis* PKS13

(A) Immunoblots of strains expressing ALFA tagged PKS13 proteins: no ALFA tag, N-terminal

ALFA tagged PKS13, C-terminal ALFA tagged PKS13, internal ALFA tag (552AA) PKS13, and

Internal ALFA tag (1357AA) PKS13. Top probed using NBALFA then anti-VHH-HRP. Bottom blot

reprobed with anti-SigA then anti-rabbit Ig-HRP.

(B) Streptavidin-HRP detection of biotinylated proteins in triplicate proximity labeling

experiments in *M. tuberculosis* no ALFA control, N-terminal ALFA tagged PKS13, C-terminal

ALFA tagged PKS13, internal ALFA tag (552AA) PKS13, and internal ALFA tag (1357AA)

PKS13. Arrowhead indicates a biotinylated protein of approximate bait (PKS13) size.

(C) Volcano plots of proximity labeling samples N-terminal ALFA-PKS13 compared to No ALFA.

Blue points indicate Log2FC>1 and Adjusted P-value <0.05. with red points highlighting proteins

with known functions in mycolic acid biosynthesis.

(D) Venn diagram depicting position specific proximity interactome (Log2FC > 1 and Adjusted P-

value < 0.001) of PKS13 (also see Table S5 for specific protein lists).

Bibliography

1. WHO. 2024. Global Tuberculosis Report 2024.
2. van Kessel JC, Hatfull GF. 2008. Efficient point mutagenesis in mycobacteria using single-stranded DNA recombineering: characterization of antimycobacterial drug targets. Mol Microbiol 67:1094-107.
3. van Kessel JC, Hatfull GF. 2007. Recombineering in Mycobacterium tuberculosis. Nat Methods 4:147-52.
4. Stover CK, de la Cruz VF, Fuerst TR, Burlein JE, Benson LA, Bennett LT, Bansal GP, Young JF, Lee MH, Hatfull GF, et al. 1991. New use of BCG for recombinant vaccines. Nature 351:456-60.
5. Bosch B, DeJesus MA, Poulton NC, Zhang W, Engelhart CA, Zaveri A, Lavalette S, Ruecker N, Trujillo C, Wallach JB, Li S, Ehrt S, Chait BT, Schnappinger D, Rock JM. 2021. Genome-wide gene expression tuning reveals diverse vulnerabilities of M. tuberculosis. Cell 184:4579-4592 e24.
6. Rock JM, Hopkins FF, Chavez A, Diallo M, Chase MR, Gerrick ER, Pritchard JR, Church GM, Rubin EJ, Sassetti CM, Schnappinger D, Fortune SM. 2017. Programmable transcriptional repression in mycobacteria using an orthogonal CRISPR interference platform. Nat Microbiol 2:16274.
7. Yan MY, Li SS, Ding XY, Guo XP, Jin Q, Sun YC. 2020. A CRISPR-Assisted Nonhomologous End-Joining Strategy for Efficient Genome Editing in Mycobacterium tuberculosis. mBio 11.
8. Lazar N, Fay A, Nandakumar M, Boyle KE, Xavier J, Rhee K, Glickman MS. 2017. Control of biotin biosynthesis in mycobacteria by a pyruvate carboxylase dependent metabolic signal. Mol Microbiol 106:1018-1031.
9. Murphy KC, Nelson SJ, Nambi S, Papavinasasundaram K, Baer CE, Sassetti CM. 2018. ORBIT: a New Paradigm for Genetic Engineering of Mycobacterial Chromosomes. mBio 9.
10. Kang CM, Nyayapathy S, Lee JY, Suh JW, Husson RN. 2008. Wag31, a homologue of the cell division protein DivIVA, regulates growth, morphology and polar cell wall synthesis in mycobacteria. Microbiology (Reading) 154:725-735.
11. Fay A, Glickman MS. 2014. An essential nonredundant role for mycobacterial DnaK in native protein folding. PLoS Genet 10:e1004516.
12. Sukumar N, Tan S, Aldridge BB, Russell DG. 2014. Exploitation of Mycobacterium tuberculosis reporter strains to probe the impact of vaccination at sites of infection. PLoS Pathog 10:e1004394.
13. Holowka J, Trojanowski D, Ginda K, Wojtas B, Gielniewski B, Jakimowicz D, Zakrzewska-Czerwinska J. 2017. HupB Is a Bacterial Nucleoid-Associated Protein with an Indispensable Eukaryotic-Like Tail. mBio 8.
14. Judd JA, Canestrari J, Clark R, Joseph A, Lapierre P, Lasek-Nesselquist E, Mir M, Palumbo M, Smith C, Stone M, Upadhyay A, Wirth SE, Dedrick RM, Meier CG, Russell DA, Dills A, Dove E, Kester J, Wolf ID, Zhu J, Rubin ER, Fortune S, Hatfull GF, Gray TA, Wade JT, Derbyshire KM. 2021. A Mycobacterial Systems Resource for the Research Community. mBio 12.
15. Zhu J, Wolf ID, Dulberger CL, Won HI, Kester JC, Judd JA, Wirth SE, Clark RR, Li Y, Luo Y, Gray TA, Wade JT, Derbyshire KM, Fortune SM, Rubin EJ. 2021. Spatiotemporal localization of proteins in mycobacteria. Cell Rep 37:110154.
16. Hink MA, Griep RA, Borst JW, van Hoek A, Eppink MH, Schots A, Visser AJ. 2000. Structural dynamics of green fluorescent protein alone and fused with a single chain Fv protein. J Biol Chem 275:17556-60.

17.   Pedelacq JD, Cabantous S, Tran T, Terwilliger TC, Waldo GS. 2006. Engineering and
characterization of a superfolder green fluorescent protein. Nat Biotechnol 24:79-88.
18.   Niinae T, Ishihama Y, Imami K. 2021. Biotinylation-based proximity labelling proteomics:
basics, applications and technical considerations. J Biochem 170:569-576.
19.   Lam SS, Martell JD, Kamer KJ, Deerinck TJ, Ellisman MH, Mootha VK, Ting AY. 2015.
Directed evolution of APEX2 for electron microscopy and proximity labeling. Nat
Methods 12:51-4.
20.   Martell JD, Deerinck TJ, Sancak Y, Poulos TL, Mootha VK, Sosinsky GE, Ellisman MH,
Ting AY. 2012. Engineered ascorbate peroxidase as a genetically encoded reporter for
electron microscopy. Nat Biotechnol 30:1143-8.
21.   Branon TC, Bosch JA, Sanchez AD, Udeshi ND, Svinkina T, Carr SA, Feldman JL,
Perrimon N, Ting AY. 2018. Efficient proximity labeling in living cells and organisms with
TurboID. Nat Biotechnol 36:880-887.
22.   Roux KJ, Kim DI, Raida M, Burke B. 2012. A promiscuous biotin ligase fusion protein
identifies proximal and interacting proteins in mammalian cells. J Cell Biol 196:801-10.
23.   Ganapathy US, Bai L, Wei L, Eckartt KA, Lett CM, Previti ML, Carrico IS, Seeliger JC.
2018. Compartment-Specific Labeling of Bacterial Periplasmic Proteins by Peroxidase-
Mediated Biotinylation. ACS Infect Dis 4:918-925.
24.   Jaisinghani N, Previti ML, Andrade J, Askenazi M, Ueberheide B, Seeliger JC. 2024.
Proteomics from compartment-specific APEX2 labeling in Mycobacterium tuberculosis
reveals Type VII secretion substrates in the cell wall. Cell Chem Biol 31:523-533 e4.
25.   Veyron-Churlet R, Saliou JM, Locht C. 2021. Interconnection of the mycobacterial
heparin-binding hemagglutinin with cholesterol degradation and heme/iron pathways
identified by proximity-dependent biotin identification in Mycobacterium smegmatis.
Environ Microbiol 23:3212-3224.
26.   Gotzke H, Kilisch M, Martinez-Carranza M, Sograte-Idrissi S, Rajavel A, Schlichthaerle
T, Engels N, Jungmann R, Stenmark P, Opazo F, Frey S. 2019. The ALFA-tag is a highly
versatile tool for nanobody-based bioscience applications. Nat Commun 10:4403.
27.   Arbabi-Ghahroudi M, Tanha J, MacKenzie R. 2005. Prokaryotic expression of antibodies.
Cancer Metastasis Rev 24:501-19.
28.   Harris KK, Fay A, Yan HG, Kunwar P, Socci ND, Pottabathini N, Juventhala RR,
Djaballah H, Glickman MS. 2014. Novel imidazoline antimicrobial scaffold that inhibits
DNA replication with activity against mycobacteria and drug resistant Gram-positive
cocci. ACS Chem Biol 9:2572-83.
29.   Fay A, Czudnochowski N, Rock JM, Johnson JR, Krogan NJ, Rosenberg O, Glickman
MS. 2019. Two Accessory Proteins Govern MmpL3 Mycolic Acid Transport in
Mycobacteria. mBio 10.
30.   Carel C, Nukdee K, Cantaloube S, Bonne M, Diagne CT, Laval F, Daffe M, Zerbib D.
2014. Mycobacterium tuberculosis proteins involved in mycolic acid synthesis and
transport localize dynamically to the old growing pole and septum. PLoS One 9:e97148.
31.   Wu W, Xing L, Zhou B, Lin Z. 2011. Active protein aggregates induced by terminally
attached self-assembling peptide ELK16 in Escherichia coli. Microb Cell Fact 10:9.
32.   Dey S, Lane JM, Lee RE, Rubin EJ, Sacchettini JC. 2010. Structural characterization of
the Mycobacterium tuberculosis biotin biosynthesis enzymes 7,8-diaminopelargonic acid
synthase and dethiobiotin synthetase. Biochemistry 49:6746-60.
33.   Salaemae W, Azhar A, Booker GW, Polyak SW. 2011. Biotin biosynthesis in
Mycobacterium tuberculosis: physiology, biochemistry and molecular intervention.
Protein Cell 2:691-5.
34.   Oh TJ, Daniel J, Kim HJ, Sirakova TD, Kolattukudy PE. 2006. Identification and
characterization of Rv3281 as a novel subunit of a biotin-dependent acyl-CoA
Carboxylase in Mycobacterium tuberculosis H37Rv. J Biol Chem 281:3899-908.

35. Daniel J, Oh TJ, Lee CM, Kolattukudy PE. 2007. AccD6, a member of the Fas II locus, is
a functional carboxyltransferase subunit of the acyl-coenzyme A carboxylase in
Mycobacterium tuberculosis. J Bacteriol 189:911-7.
36. Rhee KY, Erdjument-Bromage H, Tempst P, Nathan CF. 2005. S-nitroso proteome of
Mycobacterium tuberculosis: Enzymes of intermediary metabolism and antioxidant
defense. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 102:467-72.
37. Portevin D, De Sousa-D'Auria C, Houssin C, Grimaldi C, Chami M, Daffe M, Guilhot C.
2004. A polyketide synthase catalyzes the last condensation step of mycolic acid
biosynthesis in mycobacteria and related organisms. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 101:314-
9.
38. Bon C, Cabantous S, Julien S, Guillet V, Chalut C, Rima J, Brison Y, Malaga W,
Sanchez-Dafun A, Gavalda S, Quemard A, Marcoux J, Waldo GS, Guilhot C, Mourey L.
2022. Solution structure of the type I polyketide synthase Pks13 from Mycobacterium
tuberculosis. BMC Biol 20:147.
39. Kim SK, Dickinson MS, Finer-Moore J, Guan Z, Kaake RM, Echeverria I, Chen J, Pulido
EH, Sali A, Krogan NJ, Rosenberg OS, Stroud RM. 2023. Structure and dynamics of the
essential endogenous mycobacterial polyketide synthase Pks13. Nat Struct Mol Biol
30:296-308.
40. Tudo G, Laing K, Mitchison DA, Butcher PD, Waddell SJ. 2010. Examining the basis of
isoniazid tolerance in nonreplicating Mycobacterium tuberculosis using transcriptional
profiling. Future Med Chem 2:1371-83.
41. Wilson M, DeRisi J, Kristensen HH, Imboden P, Rane S, Brown PO, Schoolnik GK.
1999. Exploring drug-induced alterations in gene expression in Mycobacterium
tuberculosis by microarray hybridization. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 96:12833-8.
42. Cabruja M, Mondino S, Tsai YT, Lara J, Gramajo H, Gago G. 2017. A conditional mutant
of the fatty acid synthase unveils unexpected cross talks in mycobacterial lipid
metabolism. Open Biol 7.
43. Ahamed M, Jaisinghani N, Li M, Winkeler I, Silva S, Previti ML, Seeliger JC. 2022.
Optimized APEX2 peroxidase-mediated proximity labeling in fast- and slow-growing
mycobacteria. Methods Enzymol 664:267-289.
44. Snapper SB, Melton RE, Mustafa S, Kieser T, Jacobs WR, Jr. 1990. Isolation and
characterization of efficient plasmid transformation mutants of Mycobacterium
smegmatis. Mol Microbiol 4:1911-9.
45. Yin Y, Feng X, Yu H, Fay A, Kovach A, Glickman MS, Li H. 2021. Structural basis for
aggregate dissolution and refolding by the Mycobacterium tuberculosis ClpB-DnaK bi-
chaperone system. Cell Rep 35:109166.
672
673

Figure S1

Streptavidin HRP blot (left) and ponceau S staining (right) of the indicated strains and growth conditions showing levels of endogenous biotinylated proteins in *M. smegmatis*.

Figure S2

Functionality testing of PKS13-ALFA alleles via *attB* allelic exchange.

Shown are streptomycin agar media with transformation of a merodiploid BCG strain with a chromosomal deletion of *pks13* (*BCG_3862c*) and a second copy of M. tuberculosis *rv3800c* at the *attB* site conferring nourseothricin-resistance. Transformation of this strain with an *attB* integrating vector conferring streptomycin-resistance encoding nothing (strepR vect) or alleles of *pks13* with no ALFA tag, or four different ALFA tag position in the PKS13 protein.

Figure S3. PKS13-ALFA proximity labeled hits within the mycolic acid biosynthesis pathway. Proteins found in all four ALFA tagged labeling conditions with a Log2FC >1.3 and adjusted P-value < 0.05 in bold, red font.