**Title:** Exquisite specificity of Pks13 defines the essentiality of trehalose in mycobacteria

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**Abstract**

Mycolic acids (MAs) are the major component of the mycobacterial outer membrane, a key contributor to the intrinsic resistance of mycobacteria to external insults, including multiple antibiotics. After being synthesized in the cytoplasm, MAs are transported across the cell envelope in a sugar-esterified form, generally believed to be trehalose monomycolates (TMMs). However, whether trehalose is the only mycolate carrier during transport is under debate, and why this highly abundant disaccharide is essential for mycobacterial growth is unclear. To address these questions, we leveraged a trehalose-auxotrophic *Mycobacterium smegmatis* strain to investigate the final biosynthetic steps affording TMMs. We show that in addition to TMMs, new MAs are also not produced in the absence of trehalose. During trehalose depletion, mycolate precursors accumulate on Pks13, the polyketide synthase catalyzing the condensation of MAs, and ligation to the sugar head group, possibly blocking the enzyme and preventing the synthesis of new mature MAs. We establish that the native mycolate precursors can only be released by trehalose in vitro, and subsequently processed in a final reduction step. Furthermore, we demonstrate that only trehalose can re-activate MA biosynthesis in trehalose-depleted cells. Our work reveals the exquisite specificity of Pks13 for trehalose, providing a compelling reason for the its essentiality in mycobacteria, as well as new ideas towards the future development of anti-mycobacterial strategies.

## Significance Statement

Tuberculosis and other diseases caused by mycobacteria pose a persistent threat to human health and well-being. One reason why mycobacterial infections are hard to treat is the presence of the outer membrane, which serves as a barrier that confers resistance against multiple antibiotics. The mycobacterial outer membrane comprises mycolic acids, whose biosynthesis at late stages remains to be clarified. In this study, we characterize the penultimate step in mycolic acid biosynthesis, and discover extremely high specificity for the usage of the disaccharide trehalose by the synthase enzyme. Our work answers key questions in outer membrane biogenesis, and provides a molecular basis for why trehalose is essential for mycobacterial growth, a novel insight that is exploitable for future anti-mycobacterial strategies.

## Introduction

Mycobacteria are the cause of a number of severe human diseases, such as tuberculosis (TB) and leprosy. There were more than 10 million new TB cases in a single year, and the disease alone claimed 1.1 million lives in 2023[1]. This situation is compounded by the spread of multi-drug resistant (MDR) *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* strains, and the higher risk of co-infection with TB in patients with human immunodeficiency virus. Non-tuberculous mycobacterial infections, caused by *Mycobacterium abscessus* and related organisms, have also been on the rise[2]. The intrinsic resistance of mycobacteria to multiple antimicrobials and their emerging resistance to current drugs mark an urgent need for the identification of new drug targets.

Mycobacteria possess a distinct cell envelope. Besides the cytoplasmic membrane (IM) and the peptidoglycan (PG) cell wall, cells also contain an outer membrane (OM) bilayer, with the inner leaflet covalently linked to arabinogalactan (AG) polysaccharides extending outward from PGs[3,4]. The essential mycobacterial OM serves as an effective permeability barrier[5], which is largely contributed by the abundance of tightly packed mycolic acids (MAs) in the bilayer. These MAs are either linked to AG-PG as the entire inner leaflet (termed mycolyl-AGP or mAGP), or found as free lipids at the outer leaflet in the forms of trehalose monomycolates (TMMs) and trehalose dimycolates (TDMs). MAs are 2-alkyl, 3-hydroxyl, very long chain, branched fatty acids ($C_{58}$-$C_{86}$) present in mycobacteria, as well as phylogenetically related genera[6,7]. They comprise the shorter α branch ($C_{22}$-$C_{26}$) and the longer meromycolate chain ($C_{36}$-$C_{60}$), which are synthesized by a single FAS-I protein and a multi-protein FAS-II system, respectively[8]. Different functional groups are introduced onto the meromycolate chain, giving rise to different MA classes - *M. tuberculosis* produces α-, methoxy-, and keto-MAs while *Mycobacterium smegmatis* contains α- and epoxy-MAs, in addition to α'-MAs with a much shorter overall chain length ($C_{60}$-$C_{66}$)[8]. Fully extended α-alkyl chains are carboxylated, and then condensed with meromycolate chains by polyketide synthase 13 (Pks13)[9], affording the MA precursors α-alkyl-β-ketoacids that are reduced by CmrA, [10] and esterified by trehalose to form TMMs[11]; the order of these

final two reactions in cells remain to be clarified. TMMs are generally believed to be the final MA product in the IM and are continuously transported across the cell envelope to build the OM. The transport process is largely elusive, however, except for the identification of MmpL3 as the TMM flippase at the IM[12], and Ag85 enzymes as the mycolyltransferases for mAGP and TDM formation at the OM[13]. Targeting the MA biosynthetic and transport pathways has proven to be an important anti-mycobacterial strategy, exemplified by the prevailing application of isoniazid, a first-line anti-TB drug targeting FAS-II[14].

There are knowledge gaps in mycolate biosynthesis that would be important for our understanding of mycobacterial physiology. One intriguing question is why trehalose is an essential metabolite for growth[15]. It has been proposed that the role of trehalose as the final acceptor for MAs accounts for its essentiality. However, in vitro evidence suggested that Pks13 is not strictly specific for trehalose; several other mono- and disaccharides can release α-alkyl-β-ketoacids, albeit non-native short chain versions, from the enzyme to form the corresponding ester[11]. Glycerol and glucose monomycolates have also previously been detected in lipidomic analyses[16,17], although it is unclear whether they are derived directly from Pks13 or via mycolyl transfer reactions catalyzed by Ag85s, leading to sugar headgroup exchange[18]. Therefore, is the predominance of TMM as the mycolate carrier in cells due to the high abundance of trehalose, or the hitherto unknown in vivo specificity of Pks13, which may then explain trehalose essentiality?

To elucidate acceptor specificity in cells, we need to devise a way to study the release of native mycolates from Pks13 by trehalose (or other sugars). We reasoned that we might be able to accumulate mycolates or its precursors on Pks13 by depleting the acceptor and stalling release. In this study, we exploited a trehalose auxotrophic *M. smegmatis* strain (TKO) lacking all three trehalose biosynthetic pathways[19], namely the OtsAB, TreYZ, and TreS pathways[20]. This strain can only grow in the presence of exogenous trehalose actively taken up via the LpqY-SugABC ATP-binding-cassette (ABC) transporter[21]. We conducted extensive lipid profiling of TKO cells depleted of trehalose, and reconstituted the final steps leading to TMM formation using native

substrates from endogenously purified Pks13. We show that upon trehalose depletion, cells stop synthesizing

mature MAs and TMMs, likely due to product accumulation on Pks13 that prevents further substrate turnover.

Interestingly, only adding back trehalose, but not other sugars, can reactivate MA biosynthesis. Furthermore,

we demonstrate that only trehalose can be used by purified Pks13 to release unreduced mycolates, for

subsequent reduction by CmrA. Our work highlights the exquisite specificity of trehalose as the mycolate

acceptor in cells, providing a molecular basis for its essentiality in mycobacteria.

**Results**

**Trehalose depletion causes cessation of de novo MA biosynthesis**

To study MA biosynthetic steps involving Pks13 and trehalose in mycobacteria, we first profiled newly

synthesized lipids upon trehalose depletion in the *M. smegmatis ΔotsAΔtreYZΔtreS* (TKO) trehalose auxotroph.

When trehalose was depleted, cells stopped growing (Fig. S1). At that point, cells were labeled with [$^{14}$C]-

acetate, and newly synthesized lipids in the forms of total extractable lipids (containing TMMs) or total

mycolates (esterified as MA methyl esters, MAMEs) were isolated and analyzed by thin layered

chromatography (TLC). As expected, mutant cells depleted of trehalose (**tre**$^-$ cells) were deficient in TMM

formation (Figure 1a). Surprisingly, trehalose depletion also resulted in essentially no newly synthesized

mycolates (Figure 1b), indicating that MA biosynthesis was possibly disrupted at steps before TMM formation.

When the same cells were exogenously re-supplemented with trehalose during [$^{14}$C]-labeling, both MA

biosynthesis and TMM formation were restored (Figure 1). Importantly, restoration of MA biosynthesis was

not inhibited by several antibiotics that stopped cellular growth (Fig. S2), suggesting that the cessation of MA

synthesis was not due to growth arrest caused by lack of trehalose. The newly synthesized MAs and TMMs,

immediately upon trehalose re-supplementation, exhibited a higher α' to α ratio than those in wild-type cells

(Figure 1), a phenomenon also observed in cells when FAS-II was perturbed[22-24]. Transcriptomic analyses

revealed that genes in the *fabD-acpM-kasA-kasB-accD6* operon but not those encoding other FAS-II

components were up-regulated in trehalose-depleted cells (Figure 2a), consistent with FAS-II perturbation.

Furthermore, we observed up-regulation of the *acpS-fas*, *accD4-pks13-fadD32*, and *iniBAC* operons (Figure

2a and S3), perhaps a result of stalled MA biosynthesis, reminiscent of cellular responses of *M. tuberculosis* to

FAS-I/II inhibitors (cerulenin, thiolactomycin and isoniazid) [25,26]. It is likely that TKO cells exhibit different

metabolic states with or without trehalose. Following prolonged trehalose re-supplementation, the cellular

transcriptomic profile of TKO cells became more similar to wild type cells (Figure 2a). In addition, the ratio

of α'- to α-mycolates was fully restored in a manner dependent on active transcription and translation (Figure

2b). Taken together, our results establish that trehalose is required for de novo MA biosynthesis.

**Trehalose depletion causes accumulation of keto-mycolates on Pks13 that must be released and reduced**

**sequentially to form TMMs**

Both mycolate biosynthesis and TMM formation were abolished in trehalose-depleted cells. We reasoned

that these observations may indicate accumulation of lipids on Pks13, which prevents further turnover of

mycolate substrates. To test this idea, we labeled *M. smegmatis* **tre**⁻ cells with [$^{14}$C]-acetate and analyzed the

whole cell protein profile via SDS-PAGE. Notably, a radioactive band showed up at ~200 kDa (Fig. S4), which

is consistent with the size of Pks13 (197.1 kDa). The radioactivity on the band could be reduced by either

trehalose or isoniazid treatment (Fig. S4), suggesting that the labeled band contains mycolate-related lipids.

We next expressed C-terminally His-tagged Pks13 from an integrative plasmid, and isolated it from [$^{14}$C]-

acetate-labeled **tre**⁻ cells via affinity purification. Remarkably, we detected significant radioactivity on Pks13-

His from these cells (Figure 3a); the signal was much weaker when the same cells had been treated with

trehalose or isoniazid (Figure 3b). These results indicate that mycolate precursors accumulate on Pks13 upon

trehalose depletion, likely accounting for why de novo biosynthesis of mycolates is abolished in the absence of trehalose.

To elucidate what lipid species may have accumulated on Pks13, we attempted to use trehalose to release lipids from affinity-purified Pks13-His in vitro. Interestingly, trehalose indeed facilitated the formation of a new extractable lipid species in the reaction mixture. The lipid migrated slightly faster than TMM on normal-phase TLC, suggesting that it is a less polar derivative of the latter (Figure 4a). By comparing the mobility of this lipid to TMM species synthesized in a strain lacking the reductase CmrA[10], we assigned it to be trehalose α-alkyl-β-ketomeromycolate, the unreduced keto form of TMM (TMM*k*). The release of the α-alkyl-β-ketomeromycolate precursor to form TMM*k* is believed to be catalyzed by the thioesterase domain of Pks13. While this reaction can happen in the absence of the ketoreductase CmrA both in vitro[11] and in cells[27], it is not clear whether the reduction step actually takes place before or after the release. Notably, the observed accumulation of α-alkyl-β-ketomeromycolates in the absence of trehalose demonstrates the inability of endogenous CmrA to reduce this precursor directly on Pks13. Consistent with this idea, only when we also added purified CmrA and NADPH during the reaction, we observed the conversion of TMM*k* to mature TMM. A mutation at the putative CmrA active site (CmrA[Y157F]) reduced the conversion significantly (Figure 3c and d). Therefore, we have effectively recapitulated in vitro the final release and reduction steps in the formation of TMM. We conclude that trehalose release of mycolates from Pks13 allows subsequent CmrA reduction to form TMMs.

**Release of native ketomycolates from Pks13 is highly specific to trehalose**

Having established that unreduced MA precursors can be released from Pks13 and esterified by trehalose in vitro, we further explored if other sugars could act as MA acceptors. In an earlier study, unreduced MA analogs ($C_{30}$) could be synthesized in vitro and released from recombinant Pks13 by a few mono- and

disaccharides other than trehalose[11]. Surprisingly, none of these sugars, including glucose, facilitated formation of ketomycolate sugar esters when added to Pks13 endogenously purified from **tre**⁻ cells (Figure 4a); we reasoned that the longer chain length of native ketomycolates can in fact contribute to the sugar specificity of the MA acceptor. We also tested other trehalose analogs in the release assay. Notably, 6-azido-trehalose, but not 6,6'-diazido-trehalose, could drive the formation of putative 6-azido-TMM*k* in the reaction mixture, consistent with the requirement of a free 6'-OH group. To corroborate this finding on acceptor specificity, we next examined the ability of the various sugars in activating de novo mycolate biosynthesis when re-supplemented to **tre**⁻ cells. Remarkably, only 6-azido-trehalose (in addition to trehalose) enabled the formation of newly synthesized MAs (Figure 4b), consistent with its ability to release accumulated precursors from Pks13. We conclude that Pks13 exclusively uses trehalose as the MA acceptor in cells, which can explain the essentiality of trehalose in mycobacteria.

**TDM is dispensable for mycobacterial growth in vitro**

It is intriguing that 6-azido-trehalose is able to release mycolate precursors from Pks13 (Figure 4a) and facilitate continuous MA biosynthesis (Figure 4b). In fact, we found 6-azido-trehalose alone could support the growth of TKO cells, albeit at a slower rate than that supported by the same amount of trehalose (Figure 5a). This observation implies that *M. smegmatis* cells can survive without TDM; in the trehalose auxotrophic strain grown in 6-azido-trehalose, mAGP but not TDM could be formed, since the mycolyl chain from 6-azido-TMM can still be transferred to AGs but not another 6-azido-TMM molecule lacking the 6-OH group. Using [$^{14}$C]-acetate lipid profiling, we confirmed that 6-azido-trehalose-fed TKO cells made mAGP but not TDM (Figure 5b). Notably, we did not detect any major difference in drug sensitivity between TKO cells with and without TDM (Table S1). Therefore, we assert that the TDM, despite its key role in pathogenicity as the cording factor[28], is not essential for mycobacterial growth and OM permeability function *in vitro*.

## Discussion

By using a trehalose auxotrophic strain, we have demonstrated that trehalose depletion abolishes de novo MA biosynthesis, likely due to intermediates accumulating on Pks13. In addition, we have established that Pks13 is highly specific, and only uses trehalose to release β-keto-mycolates from its thioesterase domain. Furthermore, we have found that CmrA is unable to reduce β-keto-mycolates on Pks13 itself in cells, a process that occurs only after the formation of TMM*k*. Our study has recapitulated the final steps in the MA biosynthetic pathway with native substrates, and the details therein, revealing why the specific disaccharide trehalose is essential in mycobacteria.

Our findings that trehalose is a highly specific acceptor for mycolates on Pks13 differ from an earlier study in vitro[11]. One key factor that may account for this difference is the use of short mycolate analogs in that study, compared to the tracking of native substrates accumulating on Pks13 here, both in cells and in vitro. The thioesterase domain in polyketide synthases (PKSs) often serves as a chain length regulator or a proof-reading enzyme: in the case of shorter products formed on the acyl carrier protein domain, the thioesterase domain may remove the acyl chain to prevent blockage of the synthetic cascade[29]. We therefore reason that the use of shorter mycolate analogs may have rendered Pks13 more promiscuous in the choice of the sugar acceptor. Furthermore, it is conceivable that high specificity for trehalose as the acceptor for mycolates is important for streamlining downstream processes, at least for transport. Specifically, the exquisite synthesis of TMM circumvents the need for multiple redundant transporters to accommodate different hydrophilic sugar headgroups during flipping across the IM, and/or transport to the OM[30].

Mycobacteria leverage multiple PKSs for the biosynthesis of complex lipids to build their unique OM[31]. Among them, Pks13 is essential for mycobacterial growth[9] and has been revealed as the target of a few hit and lead compounds[32-34]. It had not been established whether the reduction of ketomycolates by CmrA happens

before or after the release and esterification by trehalose in the TMM biosynthesis pathway. Cells lacking CmrA still produce TMM$k$[10], indicating that ketomycolates can be released from Pks13 by endogenous trehalose. Notably, we have now demonstrated that cells depleted of trehalose accumulate ketomycolates on Pks13, revealing that endogenous CmrA cannot reduce this precursor. We have further shown that CmrA-mediated reduction would proceed after the formation of TMM$k$ in vitro, establishing that reduction of ketomycolates only takes place after release from Pks13 by trehalose. Such post-release reduction contrasts from most other PKSs where keto-reduction steps occur before final release[35]. Given that β-keto-acids can undergo spontaneous decarboxylation reactions, we speculate that preventing reduction of ketomycolates in the absence of trehalose may provide an avenue for degradation and re-assimilation, especially in the context of corynebacteria where MAs are non-essential[36].

We have shown that trehalose is required for de novo MA biosynthesis, due to accumulation of intermediates on Pks13 without trehalose. However, it is not clear how such inhibition results in a transcriptional response that up-regulates *acpS-fas*, *fabD-acpM-kasA-kasB-accD6* and *accD4-pks13-fadD32* operons, which likely accounts for the high α'- to α-MA ratio when trehalose was re-supplemented. Interestingly, these transcriptomic changes are highly similar to those reported for drugs inhibiting FAS-I or II but not other envelope pathways[25], suggesting that the changes were elicited specifically by lack of mature mycolates. While it is clear that cells depleted of trehalose exhibit general envelope stress, evidenced by up-regulation of the *iniBAC* operon[26], we postulate that mycobacteria may have yet-to-be-identified mechanisms to sense mycolates in the cell, so as to counteract defects in overall envelope assembly. This would be analogous to how Gram-negative bacteria deploy various LPS sensing mechanisms to ensure proper OM assembly[37].

Finally, we have also been able to show that TDM is not essential for in vitro mycobacterial growth. While other studies have alluded to this idea, it was never before possible to remove TDM completely[38,39]; this limitation may also impact the interpretation of in vivo studies that ascribed TDM as a key virulence factor and

immune response modulator[40,41]. A trehalose auxotrophic strain supplemented with 6-deoxy-trehalose analogs

may thus be useful for future studies on TDM in vivo. Our study provides valuable insights into the formation

of MA, TMM and TDM, and serves as a foundation for the development of new anti-mycobacterial drugs,

especially against Pks13.

**Supporting Information**

• Detailed materials and methods.

• Supplementary Figures 1–4 and Supplementary Table 1

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**Figure 1. Trehalose is required for TMM formation and de novo MA biosynthesis. (a)** TLC analysis of [$^{14}$C]-labeled lipids extracted from indicated *M. smegmatis* cells, with (+) or without (-) trehalose re-supplementation (tre re-sup). Developing solvent: chloroform:methanol:water 30:8:1. **(b)** TLC analysis of [$^{14}$C]-labeled fatty acids liberated from indicated strains, esterified as methyl esters. Developing solvent: three times in hexane:ethyl acetate 95:5. TKO cells were depleted of trehalose prior to labelling and lipid extraction. For samples on the same TLC plate, the same amount of radioactivity was loaded. The TLC plates were visualized by phosphor imaging. CL, cardiolipin; PE, phosphatidylethanolamine; PI, phosphatidylinositol; PIMs, phosphatidylinositol mannosides; FAME, fatty acid methyl ester; MAME, mycolic acid methyl ester.

**Figure 2. Trehalose-depleted TKO cells are in a distinct metabolic state. (a)** Heat maps representing changes in transcript levels of indicated genes, either involved in MA metabolism or reportedly induced by FAS inhibitors, when comparing **tre⁻** cells (TKO with trehalose depletion) or **tre⁻** cells with trehalose re-supplementation (4h, +) to WT cells. Three biological replicates were used for each condition. FC, fold change. Dark green color on the heat map (*iniA* and *iniB* in the **tre⁻**/WT column) indicates log$_2$FC > 4. Genes in the same bracket are in the same operon. **(b)** TLC analysis of [$^{14}$C]-labeled lipids extracted from **tre⁻** cells pretreated with 20 μM trehalose in the presence of different drugs for extended periods of time (0, 1, 2.5 or 4 h) before radiolabeling with [$^{14}$C]-acetate. Developing solvent: chloroform:methanol:water 30:8:1. The same amount of radioactivity was loaded for each sample. The TLC plate was visualized by phosphor imaging. Chloramphenicol (CM), rifampicin (RF) and ethambutol (EMB) inhibit translation, transcription and AG biosynthesis, respectively.

Figure 3. Unreduced mycolates accumulate on Pks13 upon trehalose depletion. (a) and (b) SDS-PAGE analyses of Pks13-His affinity purified from **tre**^{-} cells harboring empty vector or pJEB402-*pks13-his₈* grown in the presence of [¹⁴C]-acetate. The gel was visualized by phosphor imaging (top) and Coomassie brilliant blue staining (CBB; bottom). tre re-sup, trehalose re-supplementation. In (b), trehalose (tre re-sup) or isoniazid was added together with [¹⁴C]-acetate. (c) TLC analysis of lipids extracted from affinity purified Pks13-His subjected to in vitro mycolate release by trehalose and reduction by CmrA. The top and bottom spots (#) on the TLC other than TMM*k* and TMM are present even in the absence of trehalose and are likely non-specific lipids bound to TALON resin used for affinity purification of the protein. Developing solvent: chloroform:methanol:water 30:8:1. The TLC plate was visualized by phosphor imaging. (d) Quantification of the conversion of trehalose mono-β-ketomycolate (TMM*k*) to TMM in different conditions. Each data point (mean ± SD) represents the results from three biological replicates. YF, CmrA containing a Y157F mutation. ns, not significant; *, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$.

**Figure 4. Pks13 specifically uses trehalose to esterify MAs. (a)** TLC analysis of lipids extracted from the same amount of affinity purified Pks13-His incubated with the indicated sugar. Total extractable lipids from WT and Δ*cmrA* cells were used as reference for migration positions of TMM and TMM*k*, respectively. The top and bottom spots (#) on the TLC are likely non-specifically bound to TALON resin used for affinity purification of the protein. *, a region where monosaccharide monomycolates are expected to appear; **, a region where monosaccharide monomycolates are expected to appear. **(b)** TLC analysis of [$^{14}$C]-labeled total acyl methyl esters derived from **tre**$^-$ cells re-supplemented with the indicated sugar. Developing solvent: three times in hexane:ethyl acetate 95:5. The TLC plates were visualized by phosphor imaging. tre, trehalose; Az, 6-azido-trehalose; diAz, 6,6'-diazido-trehalose; all, allose; glu, glucose; man, mannose; mal, maltose; suc, sucrose.

**Figure 5. TDM is not required for mycobacterial growth in vitro. (a)** Growth curves of TKO cells in the presence of the indicated trehalose analog. TKO cells were depleted of trehalose before subculture into fresh medium containing 5 μM trehalose (tre), 6-azido-trehalose (Az), or 6,6'-diazido-trehalose (diAz). Each data point (mean ± SD) represents the results from three biological replicates. **(b)** TLC analysis of [$^{14}$C]-labeled lipids extracted from trehalose-depleted cells re-supplemented with trehalose (tre) or 6-azido-trehalose (Az). TMMs and TDMs are fully extracted from cells, while MAs conjugated as mAGP were released by base hydrolysis. Developing solvent: chloroform:methanol:water 30:8:1. The same amount of radioactivity was loaded for each extractable lipid sample, while MAs released from mAGP were loaded in the same volume as extractable lipids from the same cells. The TLC plate was visualized by phosphor imaging.

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