Extended insight into the *Mycobacterium chelonae-abscessus* complex through whole genome sequencing of *Mycobacterium salmoniphilum* outbreak and *Mycobacterium salmoniphilum*-like strains

Phani Rama Krishna Behra¹, Sarbashis Das¹, B. M. Fredrik Pettersson², Lisa Shirreff², Tanner DuCote², Karl-Gustav Jacobsson³, Don G. Ennis² & Leif A. Kirsebom¹

Members of the *Mycobacterium chelonae-abscessus* complex (MCAC) are close to the mycobacterial ancestor and includes both human, animal and fish pathogens. We present the genomes of 14 members of this complex: the complete genomes of *Mycobacterium salmoniphilum* and *Mycobacterium chelonae* type strains, seven *M. salmoniphilum* isolates, and five *M. salmoniphilum*-like strains including strains isolated during an outbreak in an animal facility at Uppsala University. Average nucleotide identity (ANI) analysis and core gene phylogeny revealed that the *M. salmoniphilum*-like strains are variants of the human pathogen *Mycobacterium franklinii* and phylogenetically close to *Mycobacterium abscessus*. Our data further suggested that *M. salmoniphilum* separates into three branches named group I, II and III with the *M. salmoniphilum* type strain belonging to group II. Among predicted virulence factors, the presence of phospholipase C (*plcC*), which is a major virulence factor that makes *M. abscessus* highly cytotoxic to mouse macrophages, and that *M. franklinii* originally was isolated from infected humans make it plausible that the outbreak in the animal facility was caused by a *M. salmoniphilum*-like strain. Interestingly, *M. salmoniphilum*-like was isolated from tap water suggesting that it can be present in the environment. Moreover, we predicted the presence of mutational hotspots in the *M. salmoniphilum* isolates and 26% of these hotspots overlap with genes categorized as having roles in virulence, disease and defense. We also provide data about key genes involved in transcription and translation such as sigma factor, ribosomal protein and tRNA genes.

Mycobacteria occupy various ecological niches and can be isolated from soil, tap water and ground water and they are divided into slow (SGM) and rapid (RGM) growing mycobacteria. Several cause diseases both in humans and animals (land and aquatic). Among these, *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (*Mtbc*) and *Mycobacterium leprae*, the causative agents of tuberculosis and leprosy, respectively, are well-known pathogenic mycobacteria. *Mycobacterium piscium* was the first *Mycobacterium* spp. to be isolated from fish¹, however, it has been lost. Many different mycobacteria have since been isolated from various infected fish: the fish disease caused by mycobacteria is referred to as mycobacteriosis (fish tuberculosis). Infections are due to three predominant mycobacteria: *Mycobacterium marinum* (*Mma*); *Mycobacterium chelonae* (*Mche*); and *Mycobacterium fortuitum* (*Mfor*). Of these, the SGM *Mma*

¹Department of Cell and Molecular Biology, Box 596, Biomedical Centre, SE-751 24, Uppsala, Sweden. ²Department of Biology, University of Louisiana, Lafayette, Louisiana, USA. ³Department of Neuroscience, Box 593, Biomedical Centre, SE-751 24, Uppsala, Sweden. Phani Rama Krishna Behra and Sarbashis Das contributed equally. Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to L.A.K. (email: Leif.kirsebom@icm.uu.se)
seems to be the most important species infecting a wide array of different fish, in particular in warm water systems, while the coldwater pathogen *Mche* infects predominantly salmonid species. Several other mycobacteria such as *Mycobacterium abscessus* (*Mabs*) and *Mycobacterium salmoniphilum* (*Msal*) have emerged as fish pathogens. The RGM *Msal* belongs to the *Mche*- *Mabs* (MCAC) complex and, as *Mche* it causes mycobacteriosis in cold water living fish. *Msal* was originally identified from salmonids but lost its species status in 1980 due to its high biochemical similarity with *Mche* and *Mabs*. On the basis of phylogenetic analysis of the 16S rRNA gene, *rpoB* and *hsp65* and mycolic acid composition *Msal* regained species status.

Mycobacterial infections are common among wild fish but it is most problematic in aquaculture and aquarium settings. To prevent and treat bacterial infections in aquarium settings antimicrobial agents are used in large quantities worldwide as well as the use of medicated fish food. In addition, the MCAC-complex contains many clinically relevant human pathogens but *Msal* has not been implicated to cause disease in humans. Recently, the clinically isolated human pathogen *Mycobacterium franklinii* (*Mfra*) was classified as a mycobacterial species and member of the MCAC-complex. As exemplified by the emerging pathogen *Mabs*, members of the MCAC-complex display resistance to many clinically relevant antibiotics and hence infections caused by these mycobacteria can be problematic and treatment requires the use of other antibiotics than in treatment of tuberculosis. Together this imposes a potential risk for selecting antibiotic resistant microbes and thereby constitutes a threat to animal and human health.

In 2012, there was an outbreak of a bacterial infection in the animal facility among the mice population at the Biomedical Center, Uppsala University. Subsequently, two different mycobacteria were isolated from the tap water in the animal facility on two different occasions. On the basis of partial 16S rRNA gene sequences and other biochemical tests the single isolate from the first sampling was identified as *Msal*, while the three isolates from the second sampling were classified as *M. salmoniphilum-* (*Msal*)-like. However, it is still not clear whether the sampled mycobacteria caused the outbreak. Neither is it known if the isolates named as *Msal*-like are *Msal* strains or represent different species. On the basis of this and together with the importance of this group of mycobacteria with respect to pathogenicity, emerging antibiotic resistance and the phylogenetic closeness of MCAC-complex members to the mycobacterial ancestor (unpublished) provided the incentives for a comparative genomic analysis of these closely related mycobacterial species.

Here we present the complete genomes of the *Msal* DSM43276 (*Msal*) and *Mche* DSM43804 (*Mche*) type strains, seven *Msal* strains (including outbreak strains), and five *Msal*-like isolates. Our comparative genomic analysis, where we included the genomes of *Mabs*, and 36 additional MCAC-complex members, revealed that *Msal* and *Msal*-like strains represent two different species. Whole genome average nucleotide identity and core gene phylogeny further suggested that the *Msal*-like isolates should be referred to as *Mfra* strains and that they are phylogenetically close to *Mabs*. Our data further suggest that *Msal* constitute three separate groups.

**Results**

**Overall description of the genomes.** To understand the interrelationship between *Msal* and *Msal*-like strains we obtained strains from various sources including *Mche* (*Msal*) (*Mche*) type strains, seven *Msal* strains (including outbreak strains), and five *Msal*-like isolates. Our de novo assembly of the long Pac-bio reads (average length 10 kb) with a coverage of 100x resulted in single scaffolds (one contig for each genome) representing the complete *Msal* and *Mche* genomes (4,776,625 and 5,030,282 bps, respectively; Fig. 1 and Table 1). The average GC-contents were calculated to be 64.3% and 63.9%, respectively. We predicted that the *Msal* and *Mche* genomes encompass 4712 and 4945 genes. Of these, 4652 (4894 for *Mche*) correspond to coding sequences (CDS), 56 tRNA genes (*Mche* 47), one rRNA operon (gene order: 16S, 23S, and 5S rRNA) and one transfer-messenger RNA (tmRNA; Table 1). The genome-wide distribution of the tRNA genes is shown in Fig. S1. Of note, *Msal* and *Mche* encode two tRNA*Gly* and two (Mche) one tRNA*Thr* isoacceptors as previously observed in other mycobacteria (see below; Behra et al. unpublished).

For the other strains, seven *Msal* and five *Msal*-like strains (Table 1; Fig. S2), the average genome coverage of the Illumina reads ranged from 250x to 600x. The reads were assembled into high quality, near complete genomes (approx. 95% complete) supported by high N50 values and few scaffolds (Table 1; Fig. S2). The sizes of the assembled draft genomes vary from 4,802,997 to 5,176,285 base pairs (Table 1). The average GC-content for these strains was determined to be similar as the GC-content calculated for *Msal* and *Mche* (Table 1). Predicted number of CDS varies from 4,802,997 to 5,176,285 base pairs (Table 1). The higher number in the *Msal* genome compared to *Msal*-like *CCUG64054* strains was predicted to encode for 45 ncRNAs (Table 1 and S2). The higher number in the *Msal*-like strains is due to the presence of extra copies of genes encoding Ms_IGR8.

Whole genome alignment of the complete genomes *Msal*, *Mche*, *Mabs* (*Mfra*) and the draft genome *Msal*-like *CCUG64054* revealed high homology. Short inversions were detected in *Mabs* (*Mfra*) and *Msal*-like *CCUG64054* compared to *Msal* and *Mche* (Fig. S1a).

Except for *Msal* (Table 1), we could not identify any plasmid sequences in either of the genomes including *Mche*. Presence of a low number (one or two) of incomplete and intact phages, on the other hand, was predicted in all the genomes. The phage sequences constitute less than one percent of the genome size irrespective of strain.
except for *Msal*-like strains where the phage sequences covers approx. 2.2% (Fig. S3; Table S3). A comparison with other MCAC-members (*Msal*, and *Mfri* strains; see below) revealed that the fraction of phage sequences for the *Mfri* isolates was higher (≈3%; Fig. S3; Table S3; of note, these MCAC strains were also predicted to carry phages classified as questionable). For *Mche* and *Mabs* isolates was higher (≈1.5% of their genomes represent predicted phage sequences.

For *Msal* strains, two insertion sequence (IS) elements belong to the ISA1 and IS701 families were detected. These two IS elements were also detected in the *Msal*-like genomes, where the *Msal*-like-isolates were predicted to have additional IS elements belonging to other families (Table S4). For the *Msal*-like strains we also detected other IS element families, in particular different *Mfri* and *Mspa* strains, which cluster together with *Msal*, see below) carry significantly higher numbers compared to our *Msal* or *Msal*-like strains. The total number of IS elements varied between two and five with *Mche* having three, while *M. sp. D16Q20* carries 54 belonging to 14 different types and *Mabs* of six (five types) IS elements (Table S4).

### Table 1. Summary of genome annotation. Summary of genome annotation and sources of *Msal* and *Msal*-like strains, *Mche* and *Mabs*. Note: All genomes were annotated using PROKKA pipeline. CDS: Coding Sequences (Prodigal), rRNA: ribosomal RNA (rnammer), tRNA: Transfer RNA (tRNAScanSE), ncRNA: non-coding RNA (Rfam) and signal peptides (signalp); Species highlighted in bold are representative genomes in this article. *Strains obtained from the CCUG strain collection, Goteborg, Sweden; Strains obtained from the Deutsche Sammlung von Mikroorganismen and Zellkulturen, Germany.*

| Species | Name tag | Genome size(bp) | (%GC content) | Annotation (number of) | Bioproject ID | Accession no | Source |
|---------|----------|-----------------|---------------|------------------------|---------------|--------------|--------|
| *M. salmoniphilum* CCUG60883 | *Msal* CCUG60883 | 5076038 | 64 | 15 | 4959 | (1;1;1) | 51 | 38 | 458 | PRJNA414709 | PEC00000000 | CCUG strain* |
| *M. salmoniphilum* CCUG60884 | *Msal* CCUG60884 | 4962922 | 64,2 | 16 | 4832 | (1;1;1) | 56 | 36 | 429 | PRJNA414709 | PEC00000000 | CCUG strain* |
| *M. salmoniphilum* CCUG60885 | *Msal* CCUG60885 | 5076073 | 64 | 14 | 4953 | (1;1;1) | 51 | 36 | 455 | PRJNA414709 | PEC00000000 | CCUG strain* |
| *M. salmoniphilum* CCUG62472 | *Msal* CCUG62472 | 5176285 | 64,2 | 16 | 5061 | (1;1;1) | 57 | 34 | 435 | PRJNA414709 | PEC00000000 | CCUG strain* |
| *M. salmoniphilum* DE5483 | *Msal* DE5485 | 5072347 | 64,1 | 11 | 4867 | (1;1;1) | 61 | 39 | 442 | PRJNA414709 | PEC00000000 | Outbreak strain Emenis |
| *M. salmoniphilum* DE5486 | *Msal* DE5486 | 4817070 | 64,5 | 31 | 4615 | (1;1;1) | 55 | 39 | 428 | PRJNA414709 | PEC00000000 | Outbreak strain Emenis |
| *M. salmoniphilum* DE5487 | *Msal* DE5487 | 4802997 | 64,2 | 11 | 4629 | (1;1;1) | 53 | 39 | 427 | PRJNA414709 | PEC00000000 | Outbreak strain Emenis |
| *M. salmoniphilum* DSM43276 | *Msal* | 4776625 | 64,3 | 1 | 4652 | (1;1;1) | 56 | 31 | 414 | PRJNA414709 | CP024633 | DSM strain** |
| *M. salmoniphilum*-like CCUG63695 | *Msal*-like CCUG63695 | 4998469 | 64,2 | 14 | 4847 | (1;1;1) | 53 | 44 | 430 | PRJNA414709 | PEC00000000 | CCUG strain* |
| *M. salmoniphilum*-like CCUG63696 | *Msal*-like CCUG63696 | 4997587 | 64,2 | 9 | 4844 | (1;1;1) | 53 | 44 | 432 | PRJNA414709 | PEC00000000 | CCUG strain* |
| *M. salmoniphilum*-like CCUG63697 | *Msal*-like CCUG63697 | 5008405 | 64,2 | 36 | 4856 | (1;1;1) | 53 | 45 | 430 | PRJNA414709 | PEC00000000 | CCUG strain* |
| *M. salmoniphilum*-like CCUG64054 | *Msal*-like CCUG64054 | 5011360 | 64,2 | 46 | 4866 | (1;1;1) | 53 | 45 | 432 | PRJNA414709 | PEC00000000 | CCUG strain* |
| *M. salmoniphilum*-like CCUG64056 | *Msal*-like CCUG64056 | 4998395 | 64,2 | 8 | 4844 | (1;1;1) | 53 | 45 | 430 | PRJNA414709 | PEC00000000 | CCUG strain* |
| *M. frankii* DSM45524 | *Mfri* DSM45524 | 5408993 | 64,1 | 34 | 5334 | (1;1;1) | 53 | 45 | 474 | PRJNA509866 | KXL00000000 | DSM strain** |
| *M. chelonae subsp. chelonae* DSM43804 | *Mche* | 5002823 | 63,9 | 1 | 4894 | (1;1;1) | 47 | 34 | 445 | PRJNA090802 | CP034833 | DSM strain** |
| *M. abscessus* ATCC19977 | *Mabs* | 5067172 | 64,1 | 1 | 4955 | (1;1;1) | 47 | 31 | 440 | PRJNA61613 | NC_10397 | NCBI_NC_10397 |

**Average nucleotide identity (ANI) analysis reveals that *Msal* and *Msal*-like strains cluster into two groups.** Unsupervised hierarchical clustering of the “all-versus-all” ANI scores clustered *Msal* and *Msal*-like into different groups. The ANI values for the *Msal* and *Msal*-like strains varied between 84–87% (Fig. 2a,b), significantly lower than the threshold 95% to be considered to belong to the same species. Moreover, the *Msal* strains can be sub-divided into groups (see below); group I, *Msal*-like, and *Msal*-like, group II, *Msal*, *Msal*-like, *Msal*-like, and *Msal*-like. The ANI scores between “intra-group” members are >95%, while for “inter-group” members it is ≈92% (Fig. 2a,b). The outbreak strain *Msal*-like could not be referred to any of these two groups (but see below). Moreover, *Msal* strains are closer (ANI ≈ 87%) to *Mche*, while the *Msal*-like strains cluster closer to *Mabs* (ANI > 85%; Fig. 2a).

Expanding the ANI analysis by including 14 MCAC-members, for which the genomes are publicly available (Table S1; ftp://ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genomes/; last accessed Aug 2017; see also ref.23), revealed that the *Msal*-like strains cluster together with *Mfri*; ANI scores higher than 96% (Fig. 2a,b; of note, *Mfri* and *Mfri*-like are the same *Mfri* strain but represent draft genomes sequenced in different laboratories where the *Mfri*-like draft genome was sequenced in connection with the present study, see Table S1). These data also suggested that the *Mycobacterium* sp. D16 strains cluster together with *Msal* group I (D16R12 and D16R18), *Msal* group II (D16Q15) or close to these two groups (D16Q13, D16Q14, D16Q16, D16Q20 and D16R24). Hence, this extended analysis suggested that *Msal*, *Msal*-like, *Msal*-like, *Msal*-like, *Msal*-like, and *Msal*-like constitute a third *Msal* group, group III.
Figure 1. Overview of the Msal\textsuperscript{T} and Mche\textsuperscript{T} genomes. (a) Circos plot showing the complete genome sequence of Msal\textsuperscript{T}. From outer to inner circle: Green track represents the complete genome overlapping with scale along the genome length. The next two circles, marked as brown and violet blocks, represent genes in forward (brown) and reverse (violet) strands. The circle with blue (higher than the mean value) and grey (lower than the mean value) “spikes” show the GC-content distribution calculated using a sliding window of 1000 bp, while each grey circle represents variations of the mean GC-content 64.3\% in ±10 and ±20 units (i.e. outer grey circle = 84.3\% and inner grey circle = 44.3\%). The inner track in red (positive) and green (negative) circle shows the GC-skew using a sliding window of 1000 bp. (b) Same as in (a) for Mche\textsuperscript{T} where the complete genome overlapping with scale along the genome length (outer circle), which is illustrated in dark yellow. The mean GC-value equals to 63.9\%.
To conclude, these data suggested that *Msal* and *Msal*-like strains cluster in distinct groups. Moreover, the *Msal* strains cluster into three groups separating them from *Mche* as expected.

**Core genes and comparative analysis.** To further understand the interrelationship between *Msal* and *Msal*-like strains (in total 12 strains) and their relation to *Mche* and *Mabs* we used the complete *Msal*
Figure 3. Comparative analysis of orthologous genes predicted to be present in Msal and Msal-like strains, Mche$^7$ and Mabs$^{ATCC19977}$. (a) Circos plot showing the presence of protein coding genes in seven Msal, five Msal-like strains, Mche$^7$ and Mabs$^{ATCC19977}$ compared to the reference genome Msal$^7$. The outer track (green) represents the genome for Msal$^7$ with a size scale, while the next circle in blue corresponds to the predicted protein coding sequences (CDS) for Msal$^7$. Subsequent circular tracks represent one genome and the number corresponds to the strain name in the legend on the right. Colored radial blocks represent orthologous genes in the corresponding genome and color intensity (see color scale in the middle) indicates percentage identity at the protein level. The white blocks indicate that no orthologs were identified. (b) Heat map showing presence (red) and absence (white) of orthologous genes (excluding core genes) mapped in different Msal and Msal-like strains, Mche$^7$ and Mabs$^{ATCC19977}$, and clustered using hierarchical clustering. The horizontal and vertical trees represent the heat map clustering of the column and row wise dendograms. (c) Venn diagram showing common and unique coding genes for Msal and Msal-like representative strains as indicated. (d) Venn diagram showing
common and unique genes in *Msal*T, *Msal*-like*CCUG64054*, *Mche*T and *Mabs*ATCC19977. (e) Heat map showing presence (red) and absence (white) of orthologous ncRNA genes mapped as in (b). The ncRNA genes were identified using Rfam, see main text. The horizontal and vertical trees represent the heat map clustering of the column and row wise dendrograms.

gene sequence as a reference genome for identification of orthologous protein coding sequences (CDS). Using amino-acid percentage identity for these CDS clustered *Msal* and *Msal*-like strains into two groups in keeping with the ANI data (Fig. 3a; see above). For the *Msal* strains (relative *Msal*T) the amino-acid percentage identity for the majority of CDS was >95% (Fig. S4a), while for the *Msal*-like strains it ranged between 85% and 95%. Comparing amino-acid percentage identity for *Msal*T, *Mche*T and *Mabs*ATCC19977 revealed that *Msal*T and *Mche*T show higher similarity than *Msal*T and *Mabs*ATCC19977 (Fig. S4a).

To further investigate the variation in gene content across the *Msal* and *Msal*-like strains, we identified core and unique genes where core genes are the set of genes present in all genomes. This analysis also revealed sets of genes predicted to be present in either *Msal* or *Msal*-like strains (Fig. 3b). In total 3817 CDS were present in both *Msal*T and *Msal*-like*CCUG64054*, while 834 and 1048 unique CDS were identified in *Msal*T and *Msal*-like*CCUG64054*, respectively (Fig. 3c). One may argue that this analysis was biased since we compared the *Msal*T complete genome with the draft *Msal*-like*CCUG64054* genome. But, since the *Msal*-like*CCUG64054* genome is estimated to be 95% complete the numbers of unique genes that are false positive are probably few. Including *Mabs*ATCC19977 and *Mche*T in this analysis predicted that 3494 core CDS are present in *Msal*T, *Msal*-like*CCUG64054*, *Mabs*ATCC19977 and *Mche*T (Fig. 3d). For functional classification of CDS (including core and unique genes) in selected species see below.

Considering ncRNAs, while the majority of the Rfam annotated ncRNAs were predicted to be present in these MCAC-members, the T-box category appears to be missing in *Msal* strains and *Mche*T (Fig. 3e; T-boxes are riboswitches present in the leader region of genes/operons in bacteria influencing their expression23). Sequence alignment of the *ileS* gene revealed a putative T-box upstream of *iles* in all MCAC-members (Fig. S4b). However, we did detect structural variations comparing *iles*-T-boxes originating from MCAC-members and *Mycobacterium smegmatis* (*Msmeg*) MC1515, in particular with respect to the S-turn in stem II (Fig. S4c)24,25.

**Phylogenetic analysis.** The data presented above suggest that *Msal* and *Msal*-like strains cluster into two groups. Hence, we generated a core gene phylogenetic tree where we used 937 core genes (see above) present in the 13 *Msal* and *Msal*-like strains, *Mche*T, *Mabs*ATCC19977, and the 14 MCAC-members for which genomes are available (see above and Table S1). As outgroups, we used *Mfor*DSM46621, *Mma* (M strain)26 and *Mycobacterium ulcerans* Agy99 (*MucAy99*). The resulting tree clustered the *Msal* and *Msal*-like strains in separate branches and suggested that the *Msal* strains share a common ancestor with *Mche*T, whereas the *Msal*-like strains are more closely related to *Mabs*ATCC19977 and clustered together with *Mfra* strains [Fig. 4a; of note, a tree based on complete 16S rRNA gene sequences displayed two main branches and it did not discriminate the *Msal*-like strains and *Mche*T (Fig. S5a)]. This clustering into two separate branches is in keeping with the ANI data (see above) as is the tree based on 3623 core genes present in 12 *Msal* and *Msal*-like strains, and *Msal*T (Fig. 4b). Moreover, consistent with the ANI data the *Msal* strains cluster together with *Mycobacterium sp. D16* isolates into at least three groups close to *Mche*T (Fig. 4a; for further details with respect to *M. sp. D* isolates, see ref.27).

Another member of MCAC is *Mycobacterium immunogenum* (*Mimm*) and recently the genome sequences for several *Mimm* and *Mycobacterium* spp. isolates were published (Table S1; ftp://ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genomes/last accessed Aug 2017). We therefore expanded our analysis by including these genomes and generated a core gene phylogenetic tree based on 623 genes present in these strains, *Mche*T, *Mabs* subsp. *bolletii*, *Mabs* subsp. *massilicense*, *Msal* and *Msal*-like strains (using the same outgroups as above). This tree displayed high bootstrap values and revealed that *Mimm* and *Mabs* shared a common ancestor and again clusters *Msal* and *Msal*-like strains in separate branches. In addition, this analysis suggested that *Mche*T and several of the *Mycobacterium* spp. (*M. sp. strains*) H-strains shared a common ancestor and are grouped into three branches. The other H strains cluster together with *Mimm* (Fig. S5b). We conclude that *Msal*-like strains diverged before the separation of *Mimm* and *Mabs*.

**Functional classification of core and unique genes in *Msal*T, *Msal*-like*CCUG64054*, *Mche*T and *Mabs*ATCC19977.** We used the RAST subsystem and classified the function of 3494 core genes, present in *Msal*T, *Msal*-like*CCUG64054*, *Mche*T and *Mabs*ATCC19977, and unique genes, which range between 532 and 810 genes (Fig. 3d; Table S5). This analysis revealed that 62.2% (2173) of the core genes could be classified into different subsystems (Fig. 5a). Considering the total number of CDS in these mycobacteria, the fraction in percentage of functionally classified genes was lower (ranging between approx. 52% and 57%), while the fraction of hypothetical genes was ≈30%. For genes classified into subsystems, the distribution of genes belonging to different categories was similar comparing *Msal*T, *Msal*-like*CCUG64054*, *Mche*T and *Mabs*ATCC19977 (Fig. S6a).

Comparing functional classification of CDS unique (Fig. 3d) to the *Msal*T/*Mche*T (162 genes) and *Msal*-like*CCUG64054*/*Mabs*ATCC19977 (183 genes) pairs showed that the fraction unique genes belonging to in particular the subsystems "Amino acids and Derivatives" and "Carbohydrates" was higher in *Msal*-like*CCUG64054*/Mabs*ATCC19977, while *Msal*/Mche carry higher numbers of genes involved in "Sulfur Metabolism" and "Stress Response" (Fig. 5b). Of note, *Msal*-like*CCUG64054* and *Mabs*ATCC19977 also have four unique genes involved in "Regulation and Cell signaling"; classified as transcriptional regulator whdI, hca operon transcriptional activator, HTH-type transcriptional regulator cynR, and carbonic anhydrase 1 gene. However, *Msal*/Mche carry other genes annotated as the three former genes whereas no carbonic anhydrase 1 gene could be detected in *Msal*/Mche (see Discussion). Moreover, *Msal*-like*CCUG64054*/Mabs*ATCC19977 carry three unique
copper homeostasis genes (\textit{copB}, \textit{copZ} and \textit{copA} homologs) belonging to the “Virulence, Disease and Defence” subsystem, while \textit{Msal}\textsuperscript{T}/\textit{Mche}\textsuperscript{T} appears to have no unique genes in these two latter categories. But analyzing the four species separately, unique genes involved in copper homeostasis were predicted to be present in all species except for \textit{Msal}\textsuperscript{T} (Fig. 5c).

Furthermore, functional classification of unique genes revealed that all four species carry genes in almost all subsystems (Fig. S6b; Table S5b–e). For example, \textit{Mabs}\textsuperscript{ATCC19977} has a high number of unique genes in the “Amino acid and Derivatives” subsystem, while \textit{Msal}-like\textsuperscript{CCUG64054} has higher numbers in the “Carbohydrate” subsystem. In these two subsystems, we noted the presence of unique genes in these four mycobacteria that are involved in the metabolism of specific amino acids and carbohydrates (Fig. S6c,d). In the “Fatty Acids, Lipids, and Isoprenoids” subsystem we observed differences in the presence/absence and copy number variation of genes comparing \textit{Mabs}\textsuperscript{ATCC19977}, \textit{Mche}\textsuperscript{T}, \textit{Msal}\textsuperscript{T}, and \textit{Msal}-like\textsuperscript{CCUG64054} genomes (Fig. S6e). For example, the long-chain fatty acid CoA ligase \textit{fad13} gene, required for maintaining the appropriate mycolic acid composition and permeability of the cell wall\textsuperscript{27,28}, was predicted to be present in nine copies in \textit{Msal}-like\textsuperscript{CCUG64054}. Of these nine copies, five were also predicted to be present in \textit{Msal}\textsuperscript{T}. Interestingly, the number of unique genes belonging to “Virulence, Disease and Defence” appears to be higher in \textit{Mche}\textsuperscript{T} and \textit{Msal}-like\textsuperscript{CCUG64054} relative to \textit{Mabs}\textsuperscript{ATCC19977} and \textit{Msal}\textsuperscript{T} (Fig. S6b).

Identification of SNVs and mutational hotspots in \textit{M. salmoniphilum} strains. Single nucleotide variations (SNVs) for the \textit{Msal} genomes were predicted using \textit{Msal}\textsuperscript{T} as reference and the program MUMmer\textsuperscript{29}. The number of SNVs ranged between 136702 and 291755 for the different \textit{Msal} strains. Mutational hotspots, which are genomic regions where the SNV frequencies are higher relative to the background, were identified for \textit{Msal}. Application of the method described by Das \textit{et al.}\textsuperscript{30} revealed 69 mutational hotspot regions in \textit{Msal} with a high average number of SNVs (>150) per region (Fig. S6f). This corresponds to a frequency of 14.7/Mb. 168 genes overlap with the 69 hotspot regions and of these, 49 were annotated as hypothetical genes and 53 genes were classified into different subsystem categories (Fig. 5d; Table S6). Of the classified genes, >25% were predicted to belong to the category “Virulence, Disease and Defence” with several categorized as \textit{mce} related (mammalian cell entry; Table S6). Interestingly, the ESX-1 associated gene \textit{espR} is among the genes that overlap with the hotspot regions (see Discussion).

Horizontal gene transfer, HGT. The total number of putative horizontally transferred genes ranged from 251 (\textit{Msal}\textsuperscript{DE4587}) to 345 (\textit{Mfra}\textsuperscript{DSM45524T}; Fig. S7a; Table S7). Of these, 66 were predicted to be present in \textit{Mabs}\textsuperscript{ATCC19977}, \textit{Mche}\textsuperscript{T}, \textit{Msal}\textsuperscript{T} and \textit{Msal}-like\textsuperscript{CCUG64054} (Fig. S7b; Table S7). Among possible donors of the HGT genes, members of the order \textit{Streptomyceetales}, \textit{Micrococcales}, \textit{Propionibacterales}, \textit{Streptosporangi}
Pseudonocardiales were predicted to be the most likely donors (Fig. S7c). The gene annotations and function of the HGT genes are presented in Table S7. Among the HGT genes one was predicted, the lactate 2-monooxygenase gene, to be of eukaryotic origin and derived from the fungi Ascomycota. Mann-Whitney-Wilcoxon test with respect to GC-content (version R v3.2.231) suggested that the GC-content deviates from the average GC-contents in the majority of the cases (Table S7) supporting the notion that candidate HGT genes have been horizontally transferred.

Virulence genes and ESX genes. Several MCAC-members cause disease and strains belonging to the Mabs branch is of particular interest (see introduction). Mfra (including Msal-like, see above) is phylogenetically close to Mabs, and Msl-like strains were isolated from the water system at BMC (Uppsala University) after an outbreak in the animal facility. Hence, we were interested in to survey the presence of genes encoding for virulence factors (VF) in the Msal and Msl-like strains. For this purpose, we extracted 326 (including homologs) VF genes from a selected number of mycobacteria, including MtbH37Rv (Table S8a), from the virulence factor database (VFDB; last accessed Aug 2017) and searched for orthologs in the Msl and Msl-like genomes. The presence (and absence) of VF genes in the Msl and Msl-like strains were similar compared to MabsATCC19977 and Mche. Of 326 VF genes, 53 are common to all selected mycobacterial species and orthologs to roughly 40% of the 326 VF genes were predicted to be present in McheT, MabsATCC19977, and in the Msl and Msl-like strains (Fig. S8; Table S8b). A comparison of Msl and Msl-like strains revealed that certain VF genes are unique to Msl such as fadE14 and fadD33 (also known as mbtM and mbtN, which are involved in mycobactin biosynthesis23). Of note, fadE14 and fadD33 are also absent in MabsATCC19977 (Fig. S8; Table S8b) while Msl-like strains have two mbtE orthologs, which might influence mycobactin synthesis. Moreover, sigL is absent in the Msl-like strains while MabsATCC19977 carries one sigL copy (Fig. S8; Table S8b; see below, Fig. 6b).

Two Mabs VFs, adhD and plcC, were predicted to be present in the Msl-like strains (Table S8b). The adhD encodes a potential zinc-type alcohol dehydrogenase, while plcC encodes phospholipase C that hydrolyses membrane phospholipids. The presence of plcC makes Mabs highly cytotoxic to mouse macrophages and, as such plcC is a major virulence factor in Mabs33.
In general, MCAC-members lack ESX-1, ESX-2 and ESX-5 genes (Fig. 6a), where ESX-1 (which encode for \textit{esxA}/ESAT-6 and \textit{esxB}/Cfp-10) and ESX-5 have an impact on mycobacterial virulence\textsuperscript{34,35}. However, a few ESX-1, ESX-2 and ESX-5 homologs were predicted to be present in some of the species, where \textit{Msal}\textsuperscript{CCUG60884} encodes for several ESX-1 genes, including \textit{esxA} and \textit{esxB}. We also noted that \textit{Mycobacterium stephanolepidis} NJB0901 lacks ESX-1, ESX-2 and ESX-5 genes as other MCAC-members (Fig. 6a; see also\textsuperscript{36}). Moreover, homologs of the VF gene \textit{espC} were predicted to be present in the MCAC-members (Fig. 6a). The EspC protein is localized on the \textit{Mtb} surface and is co-secreted with EsxA and EsxB\textsuperscript{37}. In contrast to ESX-1, -2 and -5 genes, ESX-3 and ESX-4 genes were predicted to be present\textsuperscript{38,39} where ESX-4 is considered to be the ancestor of the ESX-systems\textsuperscript{38}. ESX-3 is suggested to be required for mycobactin mediated iron uptake and, as such, have an impact on virulence of \textit{Mtb}\textsuperscript{40} while \textit{Mabs} ESX-4 genes contribute to intracellular survival\textsuperscript{39}. Of note, absence of ESX-3 and ESX-4 genes is possibly due to draft genome status. Moreover, \textit{mce} genes affect virulence\textsuperscript{41} and albeit MCAC-members encode several \textit{mce} genes belonging to \textit{mce4} and \textit{mce9} they lack \textit{mce2}, \textit{mce5}, \textit{mce7} and \textit{mce8} genes (Fig. 6a; Table S7). We also note that none of the MCAC-members carry \textit{cipV}, a putative copper exporter and required for full \textit{MtbH37Rv} virulence\textsuperscript{42}. Together these data imply variation and differences in genes having a role for a successful infection caused by SGM such as \textit{Mtb} and RGM MCAC-members, e.g. \textit{Msal} and \textit{Msal}-like.

**Transcription sigma factor genes.** In bacteria, initiation of transcription requires sigma factors and, as such they have key roles in regulating gene expression\textsuperscript{43–46}. While \textit{MtbH37Rv} is equipped with 13 different sigma factors the number varies between 17 and 19 in MCAC-members (Fig. 6b). Collectively, orthologs for almost all \textit{MtbH37Rv} sigma factor genes (\textit{sigA-M}) were also predicted to be present in MCAC-members. In addition to
that sigL appears to be missing in the Msal-like strains we note the following. The sigma factor C (sigC), which is suggested to have a role for Mtb virulence57, is present in these mycobacteria, while it is absent in the RGM MsmeGMC155. No sigL orthologs could be detected in the Msal-like strains and in MsmegMC155, Msalt-likeCCUG64054, and Msal-likeCCUG64054. An ortholog to the Mtb sigl gene was predicted to be present in the Msal strains but it is missing in all the other strains. For sigf, we predicted three orthologs in Mche2, the Msal and Msal-like strains, and four in MabsATCC19977 (of note, for other mycobacteria it has been reported that the sigl transcript level increases in late stationary phase and during intracellular growth48,49). Moreover, the Msal-like strains carry two sigK orthologs, the Msal strains and Mche2 were predicted to have one, while we were unable to detect any sigk gene in MabsATCC19977. Interestingly, in Mtb SigK influences expression of the MPT70 and MPT80 antigens and it has been inferred that the SigK/anti-SigK regulatory system is conserved among mycobacteria40. Hence, it seems that MsbsATCC19977 constitutes an exception. Together this suggested variation in sigma factor occurrence within MCAC with probable consequences in gene expression patterns in these species.

**Genes related to translation.** Prediction of ribosomal protein (RP) genes revealed that Msal5 encodes 38 large subunit RPs, L1-L36, with two genes encoding L28, L31 and L33, respectively (Table S9a). These genes are also present in Mche2, MabsATCC19977 and Msal-likeCCUG64054, albeit with some variations; two copies of the L30 gene is present in Msal-likeCCUG64054, while the L36 gene was not detected in MabsATCC19977 and Msal-likeCCUG64054. With respect to small subunit RPs, 23 genes were predicted, S1-S20 with two paralogs encoding for S1, S14 and S18 in Msal5, Mche2, MabsATCC19977, and Msal-likeCCUG64054, while two S5 paralogs were also detected in Msal-likeCCUG64054 (Table S9). Compared to MtbH37Rv, we noted some differences; MtbH37Rv encodes three L28 genes, and it lacks second copies of the L31, L33, and S1. As Msal5, Mche2, MabsATCC19977, MtbH37Rv lacks the L36 gene and it does not carry an extra copy of the S5 gene. The presence of extra RP paralogs has been discussed to play a role in adaption to stress and for S18 data suggest that it has a role in zinc homeostasis in Mche247,48.

**Variations in the number of tRNA genes.** MCAC-members carry between 47 and 80 tRNA genes and some also encode for pseudo tRNAs, e.g., Msal(4585) and Msal(53) carry two and three, respectively (Fig. 6c, S1 and S9a–f). Among the tRNA genes, 38 ("core tRNAs") are present in all strains covering all amino acids except SelCys for which no tRNA gene could be identified. For MabsATCC19977, Mche2, Msal5, and Msal-likeCCUG64054, the number of tRNA genes vary with 47 for the two formers and 56, and 53 for Msal-likeCCUG64054. Their locations on the chromosome in these species are similar (Fig. S9b–d). Several of the extra tRNA genes in Msal5 cluster together and were predicted to be present in several Msal strains belonging in particular to Msal group I and II, while those present in Msal-likeCCUG64054 (and Mfra strains; all draft genomes) likely cluster at roughly the same location on the chromosome as in Msal5 (Fig. 6c; Fig. S9a,e). Sequence alignments suggest that these extra tRNA genes probably are of different origins (Fig. S9f). Interestingly, the group III Msal strain, Msal-likeCCUG64054 was predicted to carry 80 tRNA genes where 34 appears to cluster (Fig. S9a). This tRNA gene cluster shows striking similarities, including the presence of the GOLLD RNA gene and an HNH endonuclease gene (not shown), with that detected in e.g., MabsM24 and the Mycobacterium aubagnense type strain19,50 (Behra et al. unpublished).

To conclude, based on that the extra tRNA show differences in their structure compared to the common tRNAs it is conceivable that they have been acquired through horizontal gene transfer after divergence of Msal and Mche, and Mabs and Msal-like strains (and Mfra). In this context, we note that an HNH endonuclease gene is predicted to be present in close proximity to the extra tRNA gene clusters (Fig. S9e). Moreover, given that MCAC-members are the closest mycobacteria to the mycobacterial ancestor2,18 (unpublished) our data suggest that at least 38 tRNA genes were present before mycobacteria diverged into separate species that constitute the genus.

**Discussion**

We present the genomes for 14 mycobacteria, including the complete genomes for Msal5 and Mche2 (type strains), belonging to MCAC. The size of the genomes range between 4.8 and 5.2 Mbp with Msal5 having the smallest genome. Our comparative genomic analysis, ANI, CDS amino-acid percentage identity and core gene based phylogeny, suggested that Msal and Msal-like strains are representatives of different species and close to Mabs. Including Mfra10,12, Mycobacterium sp. "D16" strains and MabsATCC19977 suggest that the Msal-like isolates should be referred to as Mfra strains (Fig. 4). The data further suggested that the Msal strains clustered into three separate groups, where the Mycobacterium sp. D16 (Q13, Q14, Q16, Q20 and R24) constitute one group. Together, our findings expand and provide insight into the phylogenetic and evolutionary relationships within the MCAC and the Mycobacterium genus and clarify species identity17–28,37.

The number and type of IS elements in Msal, Msal-like, Mfra, Mche2 and MabsATCC19977 genomes vary as does the presence of phage sequences, while sequences of plasmid origins were only detected in Msal5. Thus, IS elements and phages appear to have contributed to the evolution of these MCAC members. Differences with respect to IS elements and phage sequences are also observed comparing strains of other mycobacteria, as exemplified by our comparative genomic studies of M. philo and Mma strains33,35. Moreover, the number of SNVs for the Msal strains ranged between 136702 and 291755. This is significantly higher compared to the situation in Mma where the number of SNVs in different strains relative to the Mma M strain varies between 56000 and 890007. But, we emphasize that Mma display a higher frequency of mutational hotspot regions relative to Msal (26.5/Mb vs. 14.7/Mb, respectively). In this context, some mycobacteria use Distributive Conjugal Transfer (DCT) to transfer
DNA and ESX-1 and ESX-4 have been suggested to play a key role in this process. Analysis of Mabs isolates implicates that DCT is in operation in this RGM. Together this makes it plausible that Msal strain variation and clustering into three groups is at least partly the result of DCT.

As other members of MCAC, Msal and Mfra (Msal-like) lack the majority of the ESX-1, ESX-2, ESX-5 and ESX-6 (duplication of ESX-1 in Mma62,63) genes, while genes belonging to ESX-3 and ESX-4 are present. However, some ESX genes such as esxA, esxB and espI (associated with ESX-1) were predicted to be present in some of the strains, while the ESX-1 associated espR is present in all strains (see below). Interestingly, MsalCCUG60884 encodes for several of the ESX-1 genes including esxA and esxB (Fig. 6a). Possibly, these ESX genes have been aquired through horizontal gene transfer. The ESX systems are involved in transport and secretion and available data suggest that ESX-1, ESX-3 and ESX-5 affect virulence for several mycobacteria including Mtb and Mma34,35. That ESX-5 is missing is consistent with that it is present in SGM and has not been detected in RGM (unpublished data).

The transcriptional regulator EspR (espR) is involved in controlling Mtb virulence and expression of ESX-1 genes and espR is present in MCAC-members. Apart from being a regulator of the ESX-1 system, EspR is regulating the expression of genes involved in cell wall synthesis. EspR also operates together with PhoP, which is part of a two-component system, regulating the expression of many VF genes. This provides a rationale for its presence in MCAC-members and given that espR constitutes a hotspot region in Msal raises the possibility that this has an impact on the pathogenicity for the different Msal strains. In this context, we note that espR is not essential in MtbH37Rv62.

An intriguing question is whether other genes/systems functionally compensate for the absence of these ESX systems. For example, there appears to be a coupling between the transporter Mcf1 family proteins and the ESX-1 system. Understanding this and other questions that relates to mycobacterial infections will have an impact on our understanding of the biology of mycobacteria. In this context, the PhoPR regulon and ESX-1 secretion in a MtbCDC1551 derivative is inhibited by ethoxzolamide, which is a known carbonic anhydrase inhibitor. As a consequence, virulence is attenuated. Together, this raises the possibility of coupling between carbonic anhydrase activity and signaling mediated by the two-component PhoPR regulatory system in MtbCDC1551. A carbonic anhydrase 1 gene was predicted to be present in MabsATCC19977 and Msal-likeCCUG64054 but absent in MsalT and McheT. Hence, it would be interesting to study whether this coupling is present in Mabs (and Msal-like i.e., Mfra) and if so, does ethoxzolamide also influence the virulence for these two mycobacteria.

As other MCAC-members, Msal and Msal-like belong to RGM but they only harbor one RNA operon supporting the notion that the number of RNA operons does not explain the difference in growth rate comparing SGM and RGM. Moreover, as Mtb and other SGM, MsalT (complete genome) and other MCAC-members lack the gene encoding the translational release factor RF3, prfC. RF3 is suggested to assist in the dissociation of class I translational release factors from the ribosome, and to abolish competition between the release factors and ribosome recycling factor, RRF, for binding to the ribosome. Inactivation of RF3 in Escherichia coli results in lower growth rates. Together this suggests that the absence or presence of prfC does not dictate whether mycobacteria should be classified as SGM or RGM. Moreover, phylogeny based on whole genome sequencing suggests that MCAC is the earliest diverging mycobacterial lineage17,18,36 (unpublished). Hence, acquisition of prfC in other RGM happened after they diverged from MCAC.

As other MCAC-members, Msal have been implicated to be associated with human diseases. Msal, which belongs to MCAC, causes symptoms similar to those observed in patients infected with Mabs. We cannot conclusively state that the Msal-like strains isolated from the tap water caused the outbreak at the animal facility among the mice population at Uppsala University. To do this the pathogen has to be isolated from infected mice and study whether exposure to the bacteria indeed cause disease. However, on the basis that Mfra causes disease in humans we consider it plausible that Msal-like (i.e., Mfra) also infects and causes disease in animals, such as mice. In this context, Msal-like (and Mfra) strains share several genes coding for virulence factors (VF) with Mabs such as the major Mabs VF plcC, which makes Mabs highly cytotoxic to mouse macrophages. Nonetheless, its presence in tap water suggest that it can be present in the environment. Moreover, we note that neither of the strains analyzed here carry mutations at positions 1408 (16S rDNA; E. coli numbering) or 2058 (or 2059; 23S rDNA). Mutations at these positions in Mabs isolates results in resistance to amikacin and macrolides, respectively.

To conclude, understanding the genome composition of mycobacteria will be instrumental to understand not only their evolution but also provide insight into mycobacterial physiology and pathogenicity, and clarify species identity. This knowledge will be instrumental for treatment of infections caused by mycobacteria such as MCAC-members.

**Methods**

**Strains, cultivation and DNA isolation.** We collected eight Msal and five Msal-like strains isolated from different sources, MfraDSM4524T and McheT where MsalT and McheT represent the type strains Msal DSM43276 and Mche DSM43804, respectively, MsalT, McheT and Mfra DSM4524T were obtained from the Deutsche Sammlung von Mikroorganismen und Zellkulturen, Germany (Table 1 and S1; we refer to the strains such that e.g., strain MsalT corresponds to M. salmoniphilum DE4585). The strains were grown under conditions as recommended by the supplier (for the outbreak Msal “DE-strains”, we followed the recommendation from DSM); aliquots of –80 °C stocks were plated on Middlebrook 7H10 media and incubated at 30 °C. Genomic DNA was isolated as previously described (see also Supplementary information). Prior to submission for genome sequencing we PCR amplified and sequenced 16S rDNA to ensure that the cultures were free from contaminations.

**Genome sequencing, assembly and annotation.** The MsalT and McheT type strains were sequenced using the Pacific Biosciences (PacBio) platform at the NGI-Uppsala Genome Center, while sequencing of the other 12 strains (and MfraDSM4524T) were performed using Illumina short read technology (at the SNP@SEQ Technology Platform, Uppsala University). Genome assembly, annotation, plasmid, phage, identification of IS
elements, horizontal gene transfer (HGT) analysis and identification of SNV and mutational hotspots were done as previously described \(^{13,20,36,57}\) (see Supplementary information and refs \(^{4,5}\)).

**Average nucleotide identity.** The evolutionary distance between two species can be measured as average nucleotide identity (ANI) of homologous genomic regions \(^{45}\). ANI values were calculated for all the sequenced genomes in a pairwise manner using the Jspecies tool \(^{11}\). The ANI values were clustered using an unsupervised hierarchical clustering algorithm and plotted using “R” environment \(^{45}\).

**Identification and analysis of core genes.** To identify core and unique genes, predicted CDS from the genomes were used for “all-vs-all” BLAST search. Based on the BLAST results orthologous genes were identified using PanOCT with minimum 45% identity and 65% query coverage \(^{36}\), see also refs \(^{19,20,57}\).

**Phylogenetic analysis based on single and multiple genes.** We extracted 16S ribosomal RNA (rRNA) gene sequences from the genomes and homologous gene sequences from other mycobacteria as indicated were downloaded from the NCBI database and aligned using MAFFT (version 5) \(^{57}\). Phylogenetic trees, 16S rDNA and core gene based trees, based on the multiple sequence alignment were computed using the FastTree along with default settings, which infers approximately-maximum-likelihood phylogenetic trees from alignments of nucleotide or protein sequences (Jukes-Cantor + CAT model for nucleotide sequences and Jones-Taylor-Thorton + CAT models of amino acid sequences) and 1000 cycles of bootstrapping \(^{88}\). The figures were generated using FigTree (http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/software/figtree/).

**Ethics statement.** All methods were carried out in accordance with relevant guidelines and regulations.

**Data deposition.** This Whole Genome Shotgun project has been deposited at DDBJ/ENA/GenBank under the projects PRJNA414709, PRJNA508902 and PRJNA509866.

**References**

1. Bataillon, E. & Dubard, T. L. Un nouveau type de tuberculose. Comptes rendus des Seances de la Societe Biologique 49, 446–449 (1897).
2. Austin, B. & Austin, D. A. Bacterial Fish Pathogens (SpringerDordrecht Heidelberg New York London) (2013).
3. Whitman, W. B. et al. Bergey’s Manual of Systematic Bacteriology. 2nd ed. Springer New York: New York, NY (2012).
4. Righetti, M. et al. Mycobacterium salmoniphilium infection in a farmed Russian sturgeon, Acipenser gueldenstaedtii (Brandt & Ratzeburg). J Fish Dis 37, 671–674 (2014).
5. Zerihun, M. A., Nilsen, H., Hodneland, S. & Colquhoun, D. J. Mycobacterium salmoniphilium infection in farmed Atlantic salmon, Salmo salar L. J Fish Dis 34, 769–781 (2011).
6. Zerihun, M. A., Colquhoun, D. J. & Poppe, T. T. Experimental mycobacteriosis in Atlantic cod, Gadus morhua L. J Fish Dis 35, 365–377 (2012).
7. Gupta, R. S., Lo, B. & Son, J. Phylogenomics and comparative genomic studies robustly support division of the genus Mycobacterium into an emended genus Mycobacterium and four novel genera. Front Microbiol 9, article 67 (2018).
8. Dong, S. et al. Characterization of Mycobacterium abscessus complex associated with sinopulmonary disease, northeastern USA. Emerg Inf Dis 17, 1692–1700 (2011).
9. Brown-Elliott, B. A. & Philley, J. V. Rapidly growing mycobacteria. Microbiol Spectrum 5(1), TNMI7-0027-2016 (2017).
10. Nogueira, C. L. et al. Mycobacterium saopaulense sp. nov. a rapidly growing mycobacteria closely related to members of the Mycobacterium chelonae-Mycobacterium abscessus group. Int J Syst Evol Microbiol 65, 4403–4409 (2015).
11. Cabello, F. C. et al. Antimicrobial use in aquaculture re-examined: its relevance to antimicrobial resistance and to animal and human health. Environ Microbiol 15, 1917–1942 (2013).
12. Cabello, F. C., Godfrey, H. P., Buschmann, A. H. & Dölz, H. J. Aquaculture as yet another environmental gateway to the development and globalisation of antimicrobial resistance. Lancet Infect Dis 16, e127–33 (2016).
13. Watts, E. M., Schreier, H. J., Lanska, L. & Hale, M. S. The rising tide of antimicrobial resistance in aquaculture: Sources, sinks and solutions. Mar Drugs 15, 158 (2017).
14. Chang, C. T. & Whipp, C. M. Activity of antibiotics against Mycobacterium species commonly found in laboratory zebrafish. J Aquat Anim Health 27, 88–95 (2015).
15. Fedrizzi, T. et al. Genomic characterization of non-tuberculosis mycobacteria. Sci Rep 7, 45258 (2017).
16. Gupta, R. S., Lo, B. & Son, J. Phylogenomics and comparative genomic studies robustly support division of the genus Mycobacterium into an emended genus Mycobacterium and four novel genera. Front Microbiol 9, article 67 (2018).
17. Das, S. et al. Characterization of Three Mycobacterium spp. with Potential Use in Bioremediation by Genome Sequencing and Comparative Genomics. Genome Biol Evol 7, 1871–1886 (2015).
18. Das, S. et al. The Mycobacterium phlei Genome: Expectations and Surprises. Genome Biol Evol 8, 975–985 (2016).
19. Richter, M. & Rossello-Mora, R. Shifting the genomic gold standard for the prokaryotic species definition. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 106, 19126–19131 (2009).
20. Nogueira, C. L. et al. Characterization of Mycobacterium chelonae-like strains by comparative genomics. Front Microbiol 8, 789 (2017).
21. Shen, H. et al. Mycobacterium tuberculosis complex: perspectives and challenges for the new era. Emerg Infect Dis 22, 825–833 (2016).
22. Sherwood, A. V., Grundy, F. J. & Henkin, T. M. T box riboswitches in actinobacteria: translational regulation via a novel tRNA interaction. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 112, 1113–1118 (2014).
23. Singh, A. et al. Requirement of the mymA operon for appropriate cell wall ultrastructure and persistence of Mycobacterium tuberculosis in the spleens of guinea pigs. J Bacteriol 187, 4173–4186 (2005).
24. Anderson, C. S. et al. The Mycobacterium tuberculosis very-long-chain fatty acyl-CoA synthetase: structural basis for housing lipid substrates longer than the enzyme. Structure 20, 1062–1070 (2012).
29. Delcher, A. L. et al. Alignment of whole genomes. *Nucleic Acids Res* **27**, 2369–2376 (1999).
30. Das, S. et al. Identification of hot and cold spots in genome of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* using Shewhart Control Charts. *Sci Rep* **2**, 297 (2012).
31. R Development Core Team: R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing. R. Vienna, Austria: R Foundation for Statistical Computing (2015).
32. Griffiths, M. Iron homeostasis in *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*: Mechanistic insights into siderophore-mediated iron uptake. *J Bacteriol* **198**, 2399–2409 (2006).
33. N’Goma, J. C. B. et al. *Mycobacterium abscessus* Phospholipase C Expression Is Induced during Coculture within Amoebae and Enhances *M. abscessus* Virulence in Mice. *Infect Immun* **83**, 780–791 (2015).
34. Gröschel, M. I., Sayes, F., Simeone, R., Majfessi, L. & Brosch, R. ESX secretion systems: mycobacterial evolution to counter host immunity. *Nat Rev Microbiol* **14**, 677–691 (2016).
35. Bosserman, R. E. & Champion, P. A. Esx systems and the mycobacterial cell envelope: What’s the connection? *Bacteriol* **199**, e00131–17 (2017).
36. Tortoli, E. et al. The new phylogeny of the genus *Mycobacterium*: The old and the news. *Inf Genet Evol* **56**, 19–25 (2017).
37. Lou, Y., Rybniker, J., Sala, C. & Cole, S. T. EspC forms a filamentous structure in the cell envelope of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* and impacts ESX-1 secretion. *Mol Microbiol* **103**, 26–38 (2017).
38. Dumas, E. et al. Mycobacterial pan-genome analysis suggests important role of plasmids in the radiation of type VII secretion systems. *Genome Biol Evol* **8**, 387–402 (2016).
39. Laencina, 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 USA* **115**, e1002–e1011 (2018).
40. Siegrist, M. S. et al. Mycobacterial Esx-3 is required for mycobactin-mediated iron acquisition. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* **106**, 18792–18797 (2009).
41. Casali, N. & Riley, L. W. A phylogenomic analysis of the Actinomycetales mce operons. *BM C Genomics* **8**, 60 (2007).
42. Ward, S. K., Abomoelak, B., Hoye, E. A., Steinberg, H. & Talaat, A. M. CtpV: a putative copper exporter required for full virulence of *Escherichia coli* encoding release factor RF3 in *Escherichia coli* growing mycobacteria: quantification by methods that include the use of a promoter (rrnAP1) as a novel standard.
43. Pavlov, M. Y., Freistroffer, D. V., Heurgué-Hamard, V., Buckingham, R. H. & Ehrenberg, M. Release factor RF3 abolishes competition between release factor RF1 and ribosome recycling factor (RRF) for a robosome binding site. *J Bacteriol* **186**, 715–724 (2004).
44. Rodriguez, S., Provvedi, R., Jacques, P. E., Goudreau, L. & Mangenelli, R. The σ factors of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*. *FEBS Microbiol Rev* **30**, 926–941 (2006).
45. Sachdeva, P., Misra, R., Tyagi, A. K. & Singh, Y. The sigma factors of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*: Regulation of the regulators. *FEBS J* **277**, 665–662 (2010).
46. Pettersson, B. H. F. et al. Comparative sigma factor-mRNA levels in *Mycobacterium marinum* under stress conditions and during host infection. *PLoS One* **10**, e0139823 (2015).
47. Chang, A., Smollett, K. L., Gopal, K. K., Chan, B. H. & Davis, E. O. *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* H37Rv sigC is expressed from two promoters but is not auto-regulatory. *Tuberculosis* **92**, 48–55 (2012).
48. Hulten, K. et al. *In situ* hybridization method for studies of cell wall deficient *M. paratuberculosis* in tissue samples. *Vet Microbiol* **77**, 513–518 (2000).
49. Sechi, L. A. et al. Genome and transcriptome scale portrait of sigma factors in *Mycobacterium avium* subsp. *paratuberculosis*. * Infect Genet Evol* **7**, 424–432 (2007).
50. Veyrier, F., Said-Salim, B. & Behr, M. A. Evolution of the mycobacterial SigK regulon. *Tuberculosis* **30**, 1891–1899 (2008).
51. Moore, C. M. & Helmann, J. D. Metal ion homeostasis in *Bacillus subtilis*. *Curr Opin Microbiol* **8**, 188–195 (2005).
52. Priss, S. et al. Zinc regulates a switch between primary and alternative S18 ribosomal proteins in *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*. *Mol Microbiol* **97**, 263–280 (2015).
53. Cole, S. T. et al. Deciphering the biology of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* from the complete genome sequence. *Nature* **393**, 537–544 (1998).
54. Mohan, A., Padiadpu, J., Baloni, P. & Chandra, N. Complete genome sequences of *Mycobacterium smegmatis* laboratory strain (MC2155) and isonizid-resistant (4XR1/R2) mutant strains. *Genome Announc* **3**, e01520–14 (2015).
55. Weinberg, Z., Perreault, J., Mayer, M. M. & Breaker, R. Exceptional structured noncoding RNAs revealed by bacterial metagenome analysis. *Nature* **462**, 656–659 (2009).
56. Choo, S. W. et al. Genomic recognition of clinical isolates of emerging human pathogen *Mycobacterium abscessus* reveals high evolutionary potential. *Sci Rep* **4**, 4061 (2014).
57. Das, S. et al. Extensive genomic diversity among *Mycobacterium marium* strains revealed by whole genome sequencing. *Sci Rep* **8**, 12040 (2018).
58. Gray, T. A., Krywyy, J. A., Harold, J., Palumbo, M. J. & Derbyshire, K. M. Distributive conjugal transfer in mycobacteria generates progeny with meiotic-like genome-wide mosaicism, allowing mapping of a mating identity locus. *PLoS Biol* **11**, e1001602 (2013).
59. Gray, T. A. et al. Intercellular communication and conjugation are mediated by ESX secretion systems in mycobacteria. *Science* **354**, 347–350 (2016).
60. Gray, T. A. & Derbyshire, K. M. Blending genomes: distributive conjugal transfer in mycobacteria, a sexier form of HGT. *Mol Microbiol* **108**, 601–613 (2018).
61. Sapriel, G. et al. Genome-wide mosaicism within *Mycobacterium abscessus*: evolutionary and epidemiological implications. *BM C Genomics* **17**, 118 (2016).
62. Raghavan, S., Manzanillo, P., Chan, K., Dovey, C. & Cox, J. S. Secreted transcription factor controls Mycobacterium tuberculosis virulence. *Nature* **454**, 717–721 (2008).
63. Johnson, B. K. et al. The carbonic anhydrase inhibitor ethoxzolamide inhibits the Mycobacterium tuberculosis PhoPR regulon and Esx-1 secretion and attenuates virulence. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* **59**, 4346–45 (2015).
64. González-y-Merchán, J. A., Colston, M. J. & Cox, R. A. Roles of multiple promoters in transcription of ribosomal DNA: effects of growth conditions on precursor RNA synthesis in mycobacteria. *J Bacteriol* **180**, 5576–5576 (1998).
65. González-y-Merchán, J. A., Colston, M. J. & Cox, R. A. Effects of growth conditions on expression of mycobacterial murA and tyrS genes and contributions of their transcripts to precursor RNA synthesis. *J Bacteriol* **181**, 4617–4627 (1999).
66. Menedez Mdel, C., Rebollo, M. J., Núñez Mdel, C., Cox, R. A. & Garcia, M. J. Analysis of the precursor RNA fractions of rapidly growing mycobacteria: quantification by methods that include the use of a promoter (rrnAP1) as a novel standard. *J Bacteriol* **187**, 534–543 (2005).
67. Pavlov, M. Y., Freistroffer, D. V., Heurgué-Hamard, V., Buckingham, R. H. & Ehrenberg, M. Release factor RF3 abolishes competition between release factor RF1 and ribosome recycling factor (RRF) for a ribosome binding site. *J Mol Biol* **273**, 389–401 (1997).
68. Mora, L., Zavialov, A., Ehrenberg, M. & Buckingham, R. H. Stop codon recognition and interactions with peptide release factor RF3 of truncated and chimeric RF1 and RF2 from *Escherichia coli*. *Mol Microbiol* **50**, 1467–1476 (2003).
69. Gao, H. et al. RF3 induces ribosomal conformational changes responsible for dissociation of class I release factors. *Cell* **129**, 929–941 (2007).
70. Gentzmann, G., Breeheimer-Baey, D., Heurgue, V., Mora, L. & Buckingham, R. H. Localization and characterization of the gene encoding release factor RF3 in *Escherichia coli*. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* **91**, 5848–5852 (1994).
71. Mikuni, O. et al. Identification of the prfC gene, which encodes peptide-chain-release factor 3 of *Escherichia coli*. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* **91**, 5798–5802 (1994).
72. Bryant, J. M. et al. Emergence and spread of a human-transmissible multidrug-resistant nontuberculous mycobacterium. *Science* **354**, 751–357 (2016).
73. Pettersson, B. M. F. et al. Draft Genome Sequence of Saccharopolyspora rectivirgula. *Genome Announc.* **2**, e01117 (2014).
74. Darling, A. C. E., Mau, B., Blattner, F. R. & Perna, N. T. Mauve: multiple alignment of conserved genomic sequence with rearrangements. *Genome Res.* **14**, 1394–1403 (2004).
75. Lagesen, K. et al. RNAmer: consistent and rapid annotation of ribosomal RNA, *genes*. *Nucl Acids Res.* **35**, 3100–3108 (2007).
76. Guy, L., Kultima, J. R. & Andersson, S. G. E. genoPlotR: comparative gene and genome visualization in R. *Bioinformatics (Oxford, England)* **26**, 2334–2335 (2010).
77. Aziz, R. K. et al. The RAST Server: rapid annotations using subsystems technology. *BMC Genomics* **9**, 75 (2008).
78. Varani, A. M., Sigueri, P., Gourbeyre, E., Charneau, V. & Chandler, M. Issaga is an ensemble of web-based methods for high throughput identification and semi-automatic annotation of insertion sequences in prokaryotic genomes. *Genome Biol.* **12**, R30 (2011).
79. Zhou, Y., Liang, Y., Lynch, K. H., Dennis, J. J. & Wishart, D. S. PHAST: a fast phage search tool. *Nucl Acids Res.* **39**, W347–52 (2011).
80. Tritt, A., Eisen, J. A., Facciotti, M. T. & Darling, A. E. An integrated pipeline for de novo assembly of microbial genomes. *PLoS ONE* **7**, e42304 (2012).
81. Chin, C.-S. et al. Nonhybrid, finished microbial genome assemblies from long-read SMRT sequencing data. *Nat Meth* **10**, 563–569 (2013).
82. Seemann, T. Prokka: rapid prokaryotic genome annotation. *Bioinformatics (Oxford, England)* **30**, 2068–2069 (2014).
83. Hawkey, J. et al. ISMapper: identifying transposase insertion sites in bacterial genomes from short read sequence data. *BMC Genomics* **16**, 667 (2015).
84. Konstantinidis, K. T. & Tiedje, J. M. Genomic insights that advance the species definition for prokaryotes. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* **102**, 2567–2572 (2005).
85. R Development Core Team. *R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing*. Vienna, Austria (2008).
86. Fouts, D. E., Brinkac, L., Beck, E., Inman, J. & Sutton, G. PanOCT: automated clustering of orthologs using conserved gene neighborhood for pan-genomic analysis of bacterial strains and closely related species. *Nucl Acids Res.* **40**, e172–e172 (2012).
87. Katoh, K. & Standley, D. M. MAFFT: iterative refinement and additional methods. *Methods Mol Biol (Clifton, N. J.)* **1079**, 131–146 (2014).
88. Price, M. N., Dehal, P. S. & Arkin, A. P. FastTree: computing large minimum evolution trees with profiles instead of a distance matrix. *Mol Biol Evol* **26**, 1641–1650 (2009).

**Acknowledgements**

We thank our colleagues for discussions, Ms Caroline Sciarrillo is acknowledged for preliminary cultivation of type and outbreak *M. salmoniphlium* strains in the laboratory of DGE, and Dr Santanu Dasgupta for critical reading the manuscript. We acknowledge Ms S. Cardew, CCUG Laboratory, Göteborg, Sweden (email: elisabeth.inganas@vgregion.se) who classified the *Msal* and *Msal*-like isolates obtained from the CCUG strain collection. Sequencing was performed by the SNP&SEQ Technology Platform in Uppsala, which is part of the Science for Life Laboratory at Uppsala University and supported as a national infrastructure by the Swedish Research Council. The computations were performed on resources provided by SNIC through Uppsala Multidisciplinary Center for Advanced Computational Science (UPPMAX) under Project b2011072. This work was funded by the Swedish Research Council (M and N/T), the Swedish Research Council for Environment, Agricultural Sciences, and Spatial Planning (FORMAS), and Uppsala RNA Research Center (Swedish Research Council Linneus support) to LAK. Ms L. Shirreff was funded by a Louisiana Graduate Fellowship award and funds for supplies and travel by the University of Louisiana Graduate Organization to DGE.

**Author Contributions**

L.A.K. and D.G.E. conceived the study. P.R.K.B. and S.D. designed and performed the bioinformatics computations. P.R.K.B., S.D., B.M.F.P., D.G.E. and L.A.K. analyzed and interpreted the data. B.M.F.P. and D.G.E. generated culture extracts and DNA isolation. B.M.F.P., L.S. and T.D. maintained, cultivated and prepared DNA sequencing. P.R.K.B., S.D., B.M.F.P., D.G.E. and L.A.K. analyzed and interpreted the data. B.M.F.P. and D.G.E. conceived the study. P.R.K.B. and S.D. designed and performed the bioinformatics computations. P.R.K.B., S.D., B.M.F.P., D.G.E. and L.A.K. wrote the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final version of the manuscript.

**Additional Information**

Supplementary information accompanies this paper at https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-019-40922-x.

**Competing Interests:** The authors declare no competing interests.

**Publisher’s note:** Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

© The Author(s) 2019