The Prophage and Plasmid Mobilome as a Likely Driver of Mycobacterium abscessus Diversity

Rebekah M. Dedrick, Haley G. Aull, Deborah Jacobs-Sera, Rebecca A. Garlena, Daniel A. Russell, Bailey E. Smith, Vaishnavi Mahalingam, Lawrence Abad, Christian H. Gauthier, Graham F. Hatfull

Department of Biological Sciences, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, USA

ABSTRACT Mycobacterium abscessus is an emerging pathogen that is often refractory to antibiotic control. Treatment is further complicated by considerable variation among clinical isolates in both their genetic constitution and their clinical manifestations. Here, we show that the prophage and plasmid mobilome is a likely contributor to this variation. Prophages and plasmids are common, abundant, and highly diverse, and code for large repertoires of genes influencing virulence, antibiotic susceptibility, and defense against viral infection. At least 85% of the strains we describe carry one or more prophages, representing at least 17 distinct and diverse sequence “clusters,” integrated at 18 different attB locations. The prophages code for 19 distinct configurations of polymorphic toxin and toxin-immunity systems, each with WXG-100 motifs for export through type VII secretion systems. These are located adjacent to attachment junctions, are lysogenically expressed, and are implicated in promoting growth in infected host cells. Although the plethora of prophages and plasmids confounds the understanding of M. abscessus pathogenicity, they also provide an abundance of tools for M. abscessus engineering.

IMPORTANCE Mycobacterium abscessus is an important emerging pathogen that is challenging to treat with current antibiotic regimens. There is substantial genomic variation in M. abscessus clinical isolates, but little is known about how this influences pathogenicity and in vivo growth. Much of the genomic variation is likely due to the large and varied mobilome, especially a large and diverse array of prophages and plasmids. The prophages are unrelated to previously characterized phages of mycobacteria and code for a diverse array of genes implicated in both viral defense and in vivo growth. Prophage-encoded polymorphic toxin proteins secreted via the type VII secretion system are common and highly varied and likely contribute to strain-specific pathogenesis.

KEYWORDS Mycobacterium abscessus, prophages, bacteriophages, plasmids

Bacteriophages are characteristically specific for their bacterial hosts, with preferences that rarely traverse genus boundaries and are sometimes constrained to only a subset of isolates within a bacterial species (1). Phage specificity is determined by numerous factors, including receptor accessibility, restriction-modification, CRISPR-Cas, and abortive-infection systems, many of which can be expressed from prophages or plasmids (2–6). Because prophages and plasmids are highly mobile, these are key contributors to variations in phage infection among otherwise closely related bacterial strains. For using phages therapeutically to control bacterial infections, this specificity is a double-edged sword; it facilitates targeting of particular pathogens without gross microbiome disturbance, but constrains the range of bacterial isolates sensitive to any particular phage (7).

A large collection of mycobacteriophages have been isolated on Mycobacterium smegmatis and genomically characterized (8). They are genetically diverse and are currently grouped into 29 clusters (A to Z, AA to AC) according to overall sequence
relatedness, many of which can be further divided into subclusters (e.g., A1, A2, A3, etc.). Additionally, there are 10 “singletons,” each with no close relative (9–11). More than 50% of these groups contain temperate phages, many of which code for prophage-mediated phage defense systems that interfere with heterotypic (unrelated) phages, often with exquisite specificity (3, 12, 13). A small subset of clusters/subclusters (A2, A3, G, K) also infect *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*, suggesting these have broader host ranges than the many that do not (14). Very few of the phages infect *Mycobacterium abscessus*, but a cocktail of three phages within this subset were used for therapy of a disseminated drug-resistant infection in a cystic fibrosis patient with a bilateral lung transplant (15); two of the phages were engineered to convert from temperate to being obligatorily lytic (15) using a recombineering strategy (16).

Clinical isolates of *M. abscessus* differ greatly in their phage infection profiles, presenting challenges in broadening phage therapeutic applications (17). However, the phage infection profiles do not correlate with whole-genome phylogenies, and mobile elements, including prophages and plasmids, are likely major contributors (18, 19). To understand the potential roles of the mycobacterial mobilome in these properties, we have characterized the prophages and plasmids of a recently genomically defined set of 82 recent *M. abscessus* clinical isolates with well-defined phage infection profiles (17).

RESULTS

**Identification of *M. abscessus* prophages and plasmids.** Using a panel of 82 recent clinical isolates of *M. abscessus*, we identified prophages using PHASTER (20) and manual inspection to precisely map the prophage junctions with conserved common core sequences at both *attL* and *attR*. We identified a total of 122 prophages, 80 for which complete genome sequences could be extracted (Table 1). Each was given a prophiGDxx-# designation according to the parental strain with a numerical suffix to denote multiple prophages in a single strain (Table 1). There are several instances of identical prophages present in different strains, and 67 unique prophage sequences were identified (Table 1); 42 prophages are in multiple contigs, but sufficient sequence information is available to indicate their relationships to other prophages (17). We also extracted prophage sequences from *M. abscessus* subsp. *abscessus* ATCC 19977 (21) and *M. abscessus* subsp. *bolletii* BD7 (22); *M. abscessus* subsp. *massiliense* GO06 (23) is prophage-free (Table 1). The prophage in ATCC 19977 was previously reported to be 81 kbp (21), but is about 20 kbp shorter. Identical prophages are present in strains GD26, GD47, and GD40, and the *attL* and *attR* sites were confirmed by comparison to lytically growing phage relatives (17). Twelve (15%) of the strains are prophage-free, and the other 70 contain 1 to 6 prophages (Fig. 1A). The 75 complete prophages vary in size from 39,188 bp (prophiGD62-1) to 80,793 (prophiGD86-1), with an average size of ~55.3 kbp. Identical prophages are present in some strains from different origins with phylogenetically distinct genomes, reflecting the high phage mobility within this group of bacteria. We similarly identified resident plasmids, all of which are extrachromosomal and circular with the exception of pGD21-2, which is linear (Fig. 1B; Table 2). Approximately one-half of the strains are plasmid-free, and the others have 1 to 3 different plasmids (Fig. 1B).

**Diversity of *M. abscessus* prophages.** The *M. abscessus* prophages are considerably diverse and can be assorted into 17 clusters (e.g., MabA, MabB, etc.), representing distinct genome sequences (with <35% shared gene content) (Fig. 1C to E, Table 1). Clusters MabA and MabE are sufficiently diverse to warrant division into subclusters (Fig. 1C to E, Table 1). Although most of the prophages are generally not closely related to the thousands of genomically defined *M. smegmatis* phages, cluster MabI and cluster MabJ prophages are organized similarly to cluster M (24) and A (25) mycobacteriophages, respectively; both share sufficient gene content to warrant inclusion in these clusters (Fig. 1E). Cluster MabA prophages are the most prevalent and are residents of the major clade of closely related *M. abscessus* subsp. *abscessus* strains (26); however, they are also present in some *M. abscessus* subsp. *bolletii* and *massiliense* strains (Table 1). Twelve clusters have 6 or fewer members, and four have only a single
**Table 1** Prophages resident in *M. abscessus* genomes

| Prophage | Cluster | attb | Coordinates | Length (bp) | ORFs | tRNA (tmRNA) | Accession no. | M'phage |
|----------|---------|------|-------------|-------------|------|-------------|---------------|---------|
| prophGD57-1 | MabC | attb-13 | C1 743264–794604 | 51,341 | 70 | 0 | MW584210 | |
| prophGD35-2 | MabA | attb-2 | C10 36362–77136 | 40,775 | 63 | 1 | MW584205 | |
| prophGD34-2 | MabA | attb-2 | C10 109092–69049 | 40,044 | 63 | 0 | MW584210 | |
| prophGD42-2 | MabB | attb-2 | C14 35327–75397 | 40,071 | 63 | 0 | MW584200 | |
| prophGD43A-2 | MabB | attb-2 | 567429–607575 | 40,147 | 61 | 0 | MW584198 | |
| prophGD61-2 | MabB | attb-2 | C4 25444–293633 | 39,188 | 59 | 0 | MW584194 | |
| prophGD89-1 | MabC | attb-2 | C12 48033–88524 | 40,492 | 63 | 0 | MW584193 | |
| prophGD13-2 | MabC | attb-13 | C1 743264–794604 | 51,341 | 70 | 0 | MW584210 | |
| prophGD33-1 | MabC | attb-12 | C4 300386–351461 | 51,076 | 71 | 0 | MW584203 | |
| prophGD39-2 | MabC | attb-13 | C1 414064–361484 | 52,581 | 71 | 0 | MW584154 | |
| prophGD43A-3 | MabC | attb-13 | 4129439–4180188 | 50,750 | 71 | 0 | MW584182 | |
| prophGD41-1 | MabC | attb-13 | C1 275695–226235r | 53,061 | 76 | 0 | MW584156 | |
| prophGD51-1 | MabC | attb-13 | C1 758678–808079 | 51,204 | 77 | 0 | MW584163 | |
| prophGD52-1 | MabC | attb-13 | C2 403331–453146 | 49,796 | 73 | 0 | MW584208 | |
| prophGD57-1 | MabC | attb-13 | 4009108–405497 | 52,581 | 73 | 0 | MW584181 | |
| prophGD91-1 | MabC | attb-13 | 4267862–4317619 | 49,758 | 72 | 0 | MW584192 | |
| prophGD100A-2 | MabC | attb-12 | 617106–66793 | 50,828 | 71 | 0 | MW584150 | |
| prophGD100B-2 | MabC | attb-12 | 617106–66793 | 50,828 | 71 | 0 | CP065183 | |
| prophGD104-2 | MabC | attb-12 | 617106–66793 | 50,828 | 71 | 0 | MW584203 | |
| prophGD50-1 | MabD | attb-10 | 3676892–3737783 | 60,892 | 95 | 0 | MW584169 | |
| prophGD12-2 | MabD | attb-10 | C1 575019–629478r | 54,460 | 87 | 0 | MW584207 | |
| prophGD14-2 | MabD | attb-10 | C1 769184–714725r | 54,460 | 87 | 0 | JADWYX0000000000 | |
| prophGD17-1 | MabD | attb-8 | 1082962–1134147r | 51,224 | 88 | 0 | MW584165 | |
| prophGD25-1 | MabE1 | attb-4 | 1888601–1949296 | 60,696 | 79 | 0 | MW584148 | |
| prophGD04-1 | MabE1 | attb-4 | C2 449800–510231 | 60,432 | 78 | 0 | MW584209 | |
| prophGD53-1 | MabE1 | attb-4 | C2 573757–513326r | 60,432 | 78 | 0 | CP065033 | |
| prophGD111-1 | MabE1 | attb-4 | C2 272204–60432 | 60,432 | 78 | 0 | JADWYH0000000000 | |
| prophGD54-1 | MabE1 | attb-4 | 1852862–1913557 | 60,696 | 79 | 0 | MW584189 | |
| prophGD68-1 | MabE1 | attb-4 | 1673431–1733862 | 60,432 | 78 | 0 | MW584157 | |
| prophGD102-2 | MabE1 | attb-4 | C1 505277–444582r | 60,696 | 79 | 0 | MW584173 | |
| prophGD91-4 | MabE2 | attb-16 | 3720180–3778677 | 58,498 | 84 | 0 | MW584206 | |
| prophGD08-3 | MabF | attb-3 | C7 175238–2287838 | 52,601 | 77 | 0 | MW584201 | |
| prophGD11-3 | MabF | attb-3 | C7 175238–229977 | 54,740 | 81 | 0 | MW584155 | |
| prophGD62-2 | MabF | attb-3 | C3 66030–120339 | 54,310 | 82 | 0 | MW584175 | |
| prophGD03-1 | MabG | attb-11 | C1 1175998–1230728 | 54,821 | 85 | 0 | MW584178 | |
| prophGD21-3 | MabG | attb-11 | C1 311838–258956r | 52,874 | 79 | 0 | MW584172 | |
| prophGD24-2 | MabG | attb-11 | C1 260970–313844 | 52,875 | 80 | 0 | MW584172 | |
| prophGD58-1 | MabG | attb-11 | C1 1101001–157085 | 56,085 | 83 | 0 | MW584168 | |
| prophGD05-2 | MabH | attb-8 | 3164545–3208415 | 43,869 | 68 | 0 | MW584191 | |
| prophGD36-2 | MabH | attb-8 | C2 280968–332653 | 43,586 | 70 | 0 | MW584170 | |
| prophGD54-2 | MabI | attb-9 | 3370859–3447429 | 79,047 | 134 | 21 | MW584202 | |

(Continued on next page)
TABLE 1 (Continued)

| Prophagea | Clusterb | attBc | Coordinatesd | Length (bp)d | ORFs | tRNA (tmRNA) | Accession no. | M'phagee |
|-----------|----------|------|-------------|-------------|------|-------------|--------------|----------|
| prophiGD6-1 | Mabl | attB-17 | C7 147871–228663 | 80,793 | 144 | 20 | MWS84160 | M |
| prophiGD24-3 | Mabj | attB-7 | C6 248150–303034r | 54,885 | 90 | 4 | MWS84159 | A |
| prophiGD34a-4 | Mabj | attB-7 | 2688955–2634523 | 54,433 | 91 | 2 | MWS84197 | A |
| prophiGD43b-4 | Mabj | attB-7 | C4 19238–73670 | 54,433 | 91 | 2 | CP065278 | |
| prophiGD43a-5 | Mabk | attB-1 | 233518–310058 | 76,541 | 116 | 1 | MWS84167 | – |
| prophiGD43b-2 | Mabk | attB-1 | C7 187106–263646 | 76,541 | 116 | 0 | CP065278 | |
| prophiBoletti-1 | Mabl | attB-10 | 3445614–3524876 | 79,288 | 126 | 0 | AP014547 | – |
| prophiGD43a-6 | Mabl | attB-10 | 3745170–3678804 | 66,367 | 97 | 0 | MWS84174 | – |
| prophiGD43b-1 | Mabl | attB-10 | C1 1282056–1348442 | 66,367 | 97 | 0 | CP065278 | – |
| prophiGD68-1 | Mabl | attB-10 | C9 21158–87513 | 66,356 | 93 | 0 | MWS84166 | – |
| prophiGD53-3 | Mabm | attB-11 | 3814819–3759328 | 55,492 | 76 | 0 | MWS84185 | – |
| prophiGD53-3 | Mabn | attB-13 | C1 1154581–1196507 | 41,918 | 72 | 0 | MWS84183 | – |
| prophiGD62-3 | Mabn | attB-13 | C1 257844–215194r | 42,642 | 68 | 0 | MWS84177 | – |
| prophiGD69-1 | Mabn | attB-13 | C12 39118–81768 | 42,642 | 68 | 0 | CP065269 | – |
| prophiGD108-1 | Mabn | attB-13 | 192650–150009r | 42,642 | 68 | 0 | MWS84186 | – |
| prophiGD91-3 | Mabo | attB-14 | 4808642–4854248 | 45,607 | 73 | 1 | MWS84187 | – |
| prophiGD51-2 | Mabp | attB-6 | C10 89165–141002 | 51,838 | 64 | 0 | MWS84195 | – |
| prophiGD79-1 | Mabq | attB-4 | C2 158082–234229 | 76,148 | 108 | 0 | MWS84153 | – |

Prophages are designated prophiGDXX-1, with GDXX denoting the strain in which it resides and the suffix indicating different prophages in the same strain. Prophages with 100% nucleotide sequence identity are indented related to the identical prophages above them.

Prophages are grouped into clusters (MabA, MabB, etc.) with closely related prophages in the same cluster. Some clusters are divided into subclusters (MabA1, MabA2, etc.) reflecting sequence relationships.

atb integration sites are indicated as shown in Fig. 3A.

Sequence coordinates are shown for completely sequenced genomes. For genomes with WGS sequences, the contig number (e.g., C1, C2 etc.) is shown and the coordinates within that contig. Prophage sequences are similarly oriented and those reverse-complemented are indicated with an "r" suffix.

Prophage lengths include two copies of the attachment core sites, at the left and right ends of each genome.

Cluster designations of similarly organized mycobacteriophages (M'phages) are shown, if any; “–” if not.

Genome lengths and the number of ORFs are not available (NA) for incompletely assembled prophages.

Genomic maps of prophages prophiGD21-3 and prophiGD54-2 (Fig. 2) illustrate some of the interesting and unusual genomic features of these prophages, and detailed genomes of prophages are shown at https://phagesdb.org/documents/categories/14/.

ProphiGD21-3, a member of cluster MabG (Fig. 2A), is organized with most of the genes rightward-transcribed, with the notable exceptions of a cassette adjacent to attR containing a polymorphic toxin (PT), a corresponding immunity protein (27), and an ESAT-6-like WXG-100 protein (Fig. 2A). The PT contains an N-terminal WXG-100 motif and is likely exported by the host type VII secretion system. The PT contains a C-terminal domain related to the tuberculin necrotizing toxin (TNT), which facilitates immune evasion by Mycobacterium tuberculosis (28), thus implicating this prophage in success of M. abscessus in vivo. These PT-Imm cassettes are common in the prophages but highly varied, as discussed in detail below. A second feature of note is genes 20 and 23, which are predicted to be expressed early in lytic growth and code for proteins with motifs common to cysteine dioxygenases and phosphoadenosine phosphosulphate (PAPS) reductases, respectively. It is unusual for these to be phage encoded, but PAPS reductase-like proteins are similar to DndC, which participates in phosphorothioate DNA modifications that are common in M. abscessus (29, 30); gp20 is also implicated in cysteine metabolism.

ProphiGD54-2 (cluster Mabl) is organized similarly to cluster M mycobacteriophages (24). It integrates with a serine-integrase and codes for an array of 21 tRNA genes and a tmRNA, as well as a release factor (Fig. 2B), suggesting substantial translational reprogramming during lytic growth. However, like prophiGD21-3 (Fig. 2A), prophiGD54-2 also codes for a PT-Imm cassette, although it is located proximal to attL (Fig. 2B). The PT also contains an N-terminal WXG-100 motif and has a C-terminal motif distantly related to the AvrE-family of secreted effectors; the Imm protein is a predicted LpqN-like lipoprotein and is likely to be cell wall associated.
FIG 1 Diversity of *M. abscessus* prophages and plasmids. (A and B) Distributions of prophages (A) and plasmids (B) in 82 recent *M. abscessus* clinical isolates. (C) Phylogenetic network representation of *M. abscessus* prophages based on shared gene content, as described elsewhere (9, 63). Individual prophages are represented at the nodes, and colored circles indicate groups of phages forming clusters. Scale marker indicates substitutions/site. (D) Dotplot comparison of *M. abscessus* prophages, comparing one example of each cluster and subcluster, and indicated on both axes. Individual genes are noted at the top. (E) Characteristics of *M. abscessus* prophages showing the numbers of members in each cluster/subcluster group (the number of additional incomplete prophage sequences are shown in parentheses), average genome size in kbp, average G+C% content, presence of a tyrosine-family (Int-Y) or serine-family (Int-S) integrase, and distantly related mycobacteriophage (M’phage) clusters. (F) Characteristics of *M. abscessus* plasmids showing examples, the numbers of members in each cluster, average genome size in kbp, average copy number, and the predicted incompatibility (Inc) group.
**Diversity of *M. abscessus* plasmids.** Although plasmids are not as prevalent as prophages in these clinical isolates and are only present in ~50% of the strains, they are also quite diverse (Table 2, Fig. 1F). There are eight clusters (pA to pH) and nine singletons, each without close relatives in this data set, of which three (pGD58, pGD104, and pGD21-1) are large and are not fully assembled (Fig. 1F). The smallest are cluster pA plasmids (9.5 kbp), but the cluster pH and singleton pGD104 plasmids are over 90 kbp. All are present at low copy number, typically fewer than 5 copies/cell on average (Table 2; Fig. 1F). Comparison of these plasmids with the extant publicly available (>1,500) *M. abscessus* sequences shows that although some plasmid-borne genes are prevalent, there are few examples of near-full-length sequence matches. Notable exceptions are *M. abscessus* subsp. *bolletii* plasmid 2 (31) and *M. abscessus* pJCM30620 (32), which are similar to pGD58 (each with 99% identity spanning 92% coverage), and plasmid *Mycobacterium* sp. djl-10 plasmid djl-10_3 (accession number CP016643.1) that is very similar to pGD25-3. Detailed genome maps of the plasmids are available at [https://phagesdb.org/documents/categories/14/](https://phagesdb.org/documents/categories/14/).

**Table 2: Plasmids of *Mycobacterium abscessus* clinical isolates**

| Name | Cluster | Length (bp) | ORFs | Copy number | Comments |
|------|---------|-------------|------|-------------|----------|
| pGD08 | pA      | 9547        | 11   | 2.9         | Mobilizable |
| pGD42-2 | pA       | 9,547      | 11   | 2.6         | Mobilizable |
| pGD18, pGD62-1, pGD69-1, pGD95-1, | pB       | 25,000     | 37   | 1.9         | Mobilizable |
| pGD108A, pGD108B |         |            |      |             |          |
| pGD23 | pB      | 25,002      | 37   | 1.8         | Mobilizable |
| pGD36-1, pGD47 | pB     | 24,995      | 37   | 2.7         | Mobilizable |
| pGD42-1 | pB       | 24,993     | 38   | 3.0         | Mobilizable |
| pGD72 | pB      | 24,985      | 37   | 1.1         | Mobilizable |
| pGD87 | pB      | 24,994      | 37   | 3.0         | Mobilizable |
| pGD22-2, pGD24, pGD34, pGD75, | pB       | 18,117     | 16   | 1.9         | Mobilizable |
| pGD100A, pGD100B |         |            |      |             |          |
| pGD39 | pC      | 18,117      | 16   | 1.5         | Mobilizable |
| pGD62-2 | pC       | 18,612     | 17   | 2.5         | Mobilizable |
| pGD69-2, pGD95-2 | pC     | 18,611     | 17   | 1.9         | Mobilizable |
| pGD19 | pD      | 18,605      | 20   | 3.1         | Mobilizable |
| pGD45-2 | pD       | 19,406     | 21   | 3.1         | Mobilizable |
| pGD85 | pD      | 23,374      | 26   | 2.4         | Mobilizable |
| pGD33 | pE      | 25,996      | 33   | 1.8         | Mobilizable |
| pGD36-2 | pE       | 24,259     | 34   | 5.0         | Mobilizable |
| pGD02 | pF      | 30,963      | 36   | 2.2         | NA        |
| pGD25-1, pGD54, pGD102-1 | pF     | 31,413     | 32   | 2.5         | NA        |
| pGD86-1 | pF       | 31,343     | 32   | 3.1         | NA        |
| pGD25-2 | pG       | 27,424     | 36   | 2.5         | Mobilizable |
| pGD45-1 | pG       | 27,427     | 36   | 3.9         | Mobilizable |
| pGD86-2 | pG       | 27,424     | 36   | 2.3         | Mobilizable |
| pGD102-2 | pG       | 27,425     | 36   | 3.9         | Mobilizable |
| pGD58 | pH      | 92,821      | 122  | 1.2         | Conjugative |
| pGD13 | pSin    | 21,881      | 29   | 1.7         | Mobilizable |
| pGD21-1 | pSin     | 112,633    | 150  | 1.1         | Conjugative |
| pGD21-2 | pSin     | 155,609    | 233  | 1.3         | Linear     |
| pGD22-1 | pSin     | 19,694     | 21   | 1.6         | Mobilizable |
| pGD25-3 | pSin     | 23,599     | 26   | 5.2         | Mobilizable |
| pGD51 | pSin    | 23,656      | 27   | 3.6         | Mobilizable |
| pGD52 | pSin    | 22,216      | 20   | 3.2         | Mobilizable |
| pGD104 | pSin    | 96,413      | 144  | 1.3         | Conjugative |
| pATCC19977-1 | pSin | 23,319     | 29   | NA          | Mobilizable |

*Plasmids are named according to their parent strains (e.g., pGD22). If there is more than one plasmid in a strain, a -1 or -2 suffix is appended. Plasmids with identical sequences are shown in the same row. 
Cluster designation (pA, pB, etc.) is indicated. Singleton plasmids with no close relatives are indicated as pSin. 
Plasmid DNA length is shown in base pairs (bp). 
The predicted numbers of open reading frames (ORFs) are listed. 
Plasmid copy numbers are calculated as the fold-difference between the average number of sequence reads mapping to the plasmid relative to the corresponding genome. If there is more than one plasmid, the average is reported. 
Plasmids are predicted to be mobilizable if they code for a conjugative type relaxase, and conjugative if they contain an ESX operon. 
Plasmid pATCC19977-1 is the same as the previously reported plasmid in this strain (20).
FIG 2 Genome organization of prophiGD21-3 and prophiGD54-2. The organizations of prophageGD21-3 (A) and prophiGD54-2 (B) are shown, with the genes represented as boxes above and below the genome rulers indicating rightward and leftward transcription, respectively. Genes are colored according (Continued on next page)
Plasmids in different clusters share fewer than 35% of their genes, but most code for one of four sequence types of a RepA replication protein, the exceptions being the large plasmids pGD58 (cluster pH), pGD21-1, and pGD104, for which no RepA was identified. RepA sequences of pA, pC, pD, pE, and pF plasmids are sufficiently similar (>64% pairwise amino acid [aa] identity) that they likely form a single incompatibility (Inc) group (IncMabI) (Fig. 1F). Clusters pB, pG, and singletons pATCC19977, pGD13, pGD22-1, pGD51, and pGD52 have a second group of related RepA proteins (>75% pairwise aa identity), potentially forming a second Inc group (IncMabII), and although 10 strains have two plasmids, none have two plasmids of the same Inc type. GD25 has three plasmids and singleton pGD25-3 likely represents a third Inc group (IncMabIII), although it shares 78% aa identity with IncMabII plasmid pGD25-2 (MabG). GD21 has two plasmids, pGD21-1 and -2, the latter of which is linear and represents a fourth Inc group (IncMabIV) (Fig. 1F).

**Prophage locations and prophage integration.** All of the prophages are chromosomally integrated, and many are expected to impact host physiology; no plasmidial prophages were identified (33). They are inserted at 18 different positions and are distributed broadly around the *M. abscessus* genome (Fig. 3A); the number and variety of attB sites is greater than those used by 1,800 sequenced phages of *M. smegmatis* (34). Phages in most of the clusters use a tyrosine integrase (Int-Y), with the exceptions of clusters MabI and MabJ, which both use serine integrases (Int-S) (Fig. 1E). Of the 15 attB sites used by Int-Y, 10 overlap host tRNA genes, a common organization for these integration systems (35); however, 5 do not (Fig. 3A). MabG and MabM phages use an attB site (attB-11) located within the host tmRNA gene (Fig. 3B). The common core sequences (shared by attB and attP) are typically 25 to 76 bp for the tRNA-attB sites (Table S1), with the phage-derived sequences reconstructing the 3′ end of the host tRNA gene (e.g., attB-1; Fig. 3B); the exceptions are the MabA1 phages that unusually reconstruct the 5′ end of the tRNA*Met* gene at attB (e.g., attB-5; Fig. 3B). For all of these, no host genes are lost upon integration, although the tRNA*Met* gene (Mab_t5028) must be expressed from a phage promoter following MabA1 phage integration at attB-5 (Fig. 3A and B). Int-Y phages integrating at the four non-tRNA attB sites (attB-14, attB-12, attB-13, and attB-8) typically have shorter core sequences (3 to 25 bp), but the consequences of integration are more complex (Fig. 3B). At attB-14, the integration is intergenic (MAB_4442-4443) and flanking gene expression is likely unaltered following integration. However, at attB-12 and attB-13, the common core overlaps the ribosome-binding site and translational start site of MAB_3824 and MAB_3947 (fatty acyl-CoA reductase), respectively, such that transcription of these genes must originate within the prophages (Fig. 3B). The attB-8 site is within the 3′ end of MAB_2979, with the crossover site positioned seven codons from the translation stop codon (Fig. 3B), and, although integration results in replacement of the C-terminal seven amino acids with eight prophage-derived residues, the protein likely retains functionality (Fig. S1).

Three attB sites (attB-9, attB-7, and attB-17) are used by Int-S systems and have characteristically short common core sequences (5 to 8 bp) (36, 37). All integrate within open reading frames which they disrupt, as described similarly for Bxb1 integration into the *groEL1* gene of *M. smegmatis* (36, 38). The cluster MabJ phages integrate at attB-7 located within MAB_2445, which encodes an AraC-like regulator, with potential for wholesale changes in host gene expression. attB-9 and attB-17 are both used by MabI phages and are located within MAB_3230 and MAB_3265, respectively (Fig. 3B). MAB_3230 contains a Snao_4 domain and is related to an oxidoreductase of *Streptomyces* (39). MAB_3265 encodes a dienelactone hydrolase family protein, although its specific role is not known.

FIG 2 Legend (Continued)
to the sequence “phamilies” they are assigned to, and tRNAs are represented as black bars. Putative gene functions are indicated above the genes. Genes 5 to 43 of prophigD21-3 and 57 to 133 of prophigD54-2 are predicted to be transcribed early in lytic growth, with genes 44 to 76 and 20 to 50, respectively, coding for virion structure and assembly proteins that are expressed late in lytic growth.
FIG 3  M. abscessus prophage integration and immunity. (A) Location of attB sites in the M. abscessus genome. The 5-Mbp M. abscessus ATCC 19977 circular genome is represented, with the location of the 18 attB sites (attB-1 to attB-18) indicated inside the circle. Outside
Superinfection immunity and integration-dependent immunity. There is considerable variation in the sequences of immunity repressors, including within clusters of otherwise closely related prophages (Fig. 3C, Table S1). At least 30 distinct immunity groups are predicted, reflecting a broad capacity to influence phage infection profiles by repressor-mediated superinfection immunity (Fig. 3C, Table S2). With the exceptions of the cluster MabI and MabJ phages, the repressors are divergently transcribed from putative cro-like genes and closely linked to the int; they vary considerably in length and sequence, but most contain putative DNA-binding motifs. In the cluster MabJ phages, the repressor is distal from the integrase, reflecting the organization common to cluster A mycobacteriophages. The repressor location in the cluster MabI is unclear.

Nine of these prophages, corresponding to six attB sites (attB-1, attB-2, attB-8, attB-12, attB-13, and att-14), use integration-dependent immunity systems (40). These systems are unusual in that attP is located within the repressor gene such that the viral- and prophage-encoded gene products differ at their C termini. The virally encoded repressor gene product typically has a C-terminal ssrA-like degradation tag and does not confer immunity, and integration is required for removal of the degradation tag and expression of a functional repressor (40). Clusters MabB, MabC, MabH, MabK, MabN, and MabO all have attP within their repressor genes and integrative recombination leads to a 20 to 35 residue shorter gene product truncated at its C terminus due to a translation stop codon at attL (Fig. 3D, Fig. S1). For the MabC, MabK, MabN, and MabO phages (using attB-1, attB-12, attB-13, and attB-14), the stop codon is formed by juxtaposition of the first base of bacterial sequence to the phage sequence at attL. In the MabB phages, seven amino acids are added from the bacterially derived sequence (Fig. S1). For MabB and MabK phages, the attB site overlaps the 3’ ends of tRNA genes such that the tRNA is transcribed toward the truncated repressor (Fig. 3D).

The Imm-7, Imm-9, Imm-8, and Imm-24 virally encoded repressors have C-terminal sequences (-AA) consistent with degradation by the ssrA system and, with the exception of Imm-24, their integrases also have -AA C termini (Fig. 3D), similar to the previously described systems in mycobacteriophages (40). The MabC, MabN, MabO, and MabH repressors do not have ssrA-like tags and presumably use other signals for degradation, similar to phage BPs (40). The integrases of MabC, MabK, MabN, MabO, and MabH also do not have ssrA-tags (Fig. 3D).

Prophage-encoded polymorphic toxin-Imm systems. The presence of PT-Imm cassettes in prophidG21-3 and prophidS4-2 was noted above (Fig. 2), but related cassettes are prevalent in these prophage genomes. Prophages in 14 clusters code for a remarkably diverse set of PT-Imm systems, all implicated in bacterial virulence (41) (Fig. 4A, Table S3). These systems code for a large (~50 kDa) member of the polymorphic toxin (PT) family, and an immunity protein (Imm) that protects from toxicity (41). All of the prophage-encoded toxins include an N-terminal WXG-100 motif targeting the PT for export by the type VII secretion system (TSS), together with a small ESAT6-like protein with a WXG-100 motif that likely forms a heterodimer to promote PT export (Fig. 4A). The variation among the prophage-encoded PTs is consid-
FIG 4 Polymorphic toxin-immunity regions of *M. abscessus* prophages. (A) Fifty of the complete *M. abscessus* prophages identified carrying a region coding for a polymorphic toxin, immunity protein, and WXG-100 genes organized into 21 distinct arrangements (labeled a to u). In each arrangement (Continued on next page)
erable, including at least 10 different sequence groups of the PTs, with additional diversity among their C-terminal regions. For example, prophages prophiGD57-1, prophiGD08-3, prophiGD21-3, prophiGD43A-5, prophiGD43A-6, prophiGD05-3, and prophiGD03-1 code for related PTs, but the C-terminal regions code for different motifs, including Tox-REase-5, tuberculosis necrotizing toxin (TNT), Endo-NS2, and Ntox-15 motifs (Fig. 4A, a to g). The putative Imm proteins immediately downstream of the PTs are also highly diverse and are predicted to interact directly with the toxin (42), and likely coevolve with the PT C-terminal domain (Fig. 4A). Thus, although there are seven different configurations with a toxin related to that in prophiGD57-1 (Fig. 4A), the four different putative Imm proteins correspond to the C-terminal variation of the toxin (Fig. 4A). We note that several of the putative Imm proteins are predicted lipoproteins (Fig. 4A, i, k, and s). Secretion of the PT likely utilizes either the M. abscessus Esx-3 or Esx-4 type VII secretion systems, both of which are important for growth in vivo (43, 44). These prophage-encoded PT-Imm systems are predicted to contribute to M. abscessus in vivo growth and infection via multiple mechanisms.

All of these PT-Imm systems are encoded close to the attachment junctions and adjacent to bacterial genes (Fig. 4A), a common location for prophage-expressed genes among mycobacteriophages (13, 15). Transcriptome sequencing (RNAseq) shows that most prophage genes are transcriptionally silent, but the PT-Imm systems are expressed in several lysogens with transcription initiation originating from prophage promoters (Fig. 4B). The Imm genes are expressed at higher levels than the PT genes, presumably to optimize immunity from the PT prior to export (Fig. 4B). This is in contrast to the MuF-related toxins within the virion structural genes of several Escherichia coli phages, which are secreted by type VI systems (27, 45). We note, however, that PT-Imm expression is not observed in all lysogenic strains, as shown by prophiGD21-1, in which the repressor is the sole lysogenically expressed gene product (Fig. 4B). It is plausible that some PT-Imm systems are expressed only in host cells.

Prophage-encoded toxin-antitoxin systems. Prophages can encode and express multiple functions other than repressor-mediated immunity that prevent phage infection, often with considerable specificity and against genomically unrelated phages (3, 5). Among these are toxin-antitoxin (TA) systems and several are located in att-linked defense loci of mycobacteriophages and are prophage expressed (3). Nineteen M. abscessus prophages code for at least nine different TA systems, although only two (in prophiGD12-2 and prophiGD04-1) are proximal to an attachment site (Fig. 5A). The others are located within early lytic genes but often transcribed on the opposite strand (e.g., prophiGD79-1, prophiGD91-4, prophiGD43A-5, and prophiGD12-2) (Fig. 5A). RNAseq of several lysogens carrying MabA1 phages shows that the TA pair is strongly transcribed, contrasting with the flanking phage (Fig. 5B). These genes are thus implicated in influencing bacterial physiology and likely promote defense against viral infection.

Potential roles of M. abscessus plasmids. The M. abscessus plasmid repertoire is diverse and replete with functions predicted to influence bacterial physiology, including antibiotic resistance, phage defense, and virulence. Most of the plasmids are likely mobilizable and code for conjugative-type relaxases, perhaps using the host TSS sys-

FIG 4 Legend (Continued)
these genes are close to either an attR (a to h, l to u) or attL (i to k) attachment junction (designated according to the attB site used; see Fig. 2A, Table S3) and phages genes are shown as colored boxes above or below genome rulers reflecting rightward and leftward transcription, respectively; black arrows indicate a host gene adjacent to the attachment, designated with the corresponding gene number in M. abscessus ATCC 19977. The genomes are aligned by 5’ end of the toxin gene (a to h, l to u) where transcribed leftward inside attR, and similarly for the three configurations adjacent to attL (i to k), where the genes are transcribed rightward. Genes are colored according to their designated assignment into groups of related proteins (phamilies). All of the polymorphic toxin genes have an N-terminal WXG-100 (WXG) motif common to the type VII secretion system but have variable C termini. A schematic representation is shown in the box at top right indicating the organization of the polymorphic toxin domains and the proposed interaction between the toxin and a protective immunity protein. (B) Expression of the PT-Imm loci. RNAseq profiles for prophiGD43A-5, prophiGD43A-2, prophiGD43A-3, and prophiGD43A-6 show lysogenic expression of the PT-Imm loci; most of the rest of the prophages are transcriptionally silent. RNA was prepared from M. abscessus strain GD43, and only sequence reads mapping uniquely are shown. Also shown is a profile of the entire prophage prophiGD21-1 prophage, in which only the repressor is expressed. RNA was prepared from M. abscessus strain GD21 and RNAseq reads mapping to forward (red) and reverse (purple) strands are shown.
FIG 5 Prophage- and plasmid-borne genes. (A) Toxin-antitoxin (TA) systems in *M. abscessus* prophages. Genome maps for prophage segments are displayed as described in Fig. 2, with the location of TA genes indicated. (B) RNAseq profiles showing lysogenic expression of TA modules. RNA was isolated from GD22, GD17, and GD43A and strand-specific reads were mapped to prophage regions (prophiGD22-1, prophiGD17-2, and prophiGD43A-1). Read mapping to forward (red) and reverse (purple) strands are indicated. (C) Organization of cluster pE plasmids pGD33 and pGD36-2. Both plasmids encode plasmid replication (RepA, ParA, and ParB), site-specific recombination (Recomb), and mobilization (Relaxase, TraM-like) functions, as well as type VII secretion genes (WXG), lipoprotein (LpqN), porin (MspA), and TA systems. pGD33 also codes for a VirB10-like factor. (D) Genome organization of the Exs loci of large plasmids pGD58 and pGD104; only the rightmost 30 kbp of the genomes are shown. Components of the TSS Exs systems are indicated. Pairwise nucleotide sequence similarity is displayed by spectrum color shading between the genomes, with violet as most similar and red as least similar. Genes are shown as boxes either above or below the genome, indicating rightward and leftward transcription, respectively. Gene boxes are colored according to gene families in which they are assigned.
tems for mobilization that are implicated in distributive conjugation (46). We note that clusters pC, pD, and pE plasmids also code for several proteins with WXG-100 domains that are likely also exported through the TSS system, as well as toxin-antitoxin and abi systems (47) implicated in viral defense (Fig. 5C). Abi genes (47) are present in clusters pA, pB, pC, pD, pE, and the singletons pATCC19977, pGD25-3, and pGD104, and TA systems are in plasmids in clusters pD, pE, pH, and singletons pGD104 and pGD21-2. However, we note that of the 28 strains that are not infected by phages, 19 are plasmid free, and the overall phage susceptibility profiles are likely determined by complex combinations of prophage, plasmid, and bacterially encoded functions (17). There are also a variety of genes associated with transport systems, including the MmpL proteins (coded by pB plasmids), MFS-like transporters, and several metal resistance and iron regulators, specifically. These strains are resistant to many different antibiotics and the plasmids are strongly implicated in these resistance phenotypes.

The large (>92 kbp) plasmids (pGD58, pGD104, pGD21-1, and pGD21-2; Table 2) are notable in that they have large (25 to 30 kbp) ESX regions coding for type VII secretion systems that are implicated in conjugative plasmid transfer (Fig. 5D); these ESX systems are similar to that in M. bolletii 50594 plasmid 2, designated ESX-P cluster 3 (48). Related plasmids are reported to be quite widespread (49), but are not highly prevalent in M. abscessus strains; pGD58 and pGD104 each have only ~20 closely related plasmids in over 1,500 sequenced M. abscessus strains (50). The three strains carrying these large plasmids are all M. abscessus subsp. massiliense, two of which have smooth morphotypes, suggesting that abundant surface GPLs do not interfere with plasmid transfer by conjugation.

**DISCUSSION**

*M. abscessus* is an important emergent pathogen and widespread antibiotic resistance presents substantial clinical challenges. Elucidating its pathogenic capacity is complicated by its genetic variability, much of which could be driven by its expansive mobilome of prophages and plasmids, many of which code for genes predicted to influence survival and growth in vivo as well as antibiotic- and phage-resistance profiles (Fig. 4, Fig. 5). Defining these strain differences and their pathogenic behaviors is of considerable importance (17). Most studies of *M. abscessus* have focused on type-strains such as ATCC 19977, but this strain is poorly representative of the pathogenic potential and physiology of most clinical strains, whose mobilomes are revealed to be highly diverse, with individual strains having different properties depending on the variety of prophages and plasmids they carry. Understanding clinical responses to *M. abscessus* infection will require a much broader understanding of these strain differences and their phenotypic consequences.

The widespread antibiotic resistance of *M. abscessus* clinical isolates is a substantial impediment to genetic manipulation, as it greatly limits the use of selectable markers for transformation. The diverse prophage and plasmid repertoires offer a multitude of opportunities for advancing the genetic systems. For example, the numerous superinfection immunity systems are a resource for use as genetically selectable markers that circumvent the use of antibiotics (51). Several of the prophages have been propagated lytically and it is likely that many more can be (17, 52). For each of these, a cloned repressor gene can be adapted as a selectable gene using lytic phage derivatives as selective agents. We note that for the integration-dependent immunity systems (40), it is critical that the truncated-but-active prophage-encoded repressor must be used, not the inactive virally encoded form.

There are relatively few plasmid replicons available for vector development for *M. abscessus*. The plasmids described here represent at least four incompatibility groups (Fig. 1F), each of which could be used to develop low-copy-number extrachromosomal vectors for combinatorial use. There is also considerable potential for construction of additional integration-proficient plasmid vectors taking advantage of the abundance
of newly identified attB sites (Fig. 3A). We note that the commonly used integrative vectors based on mycobacteriophage L5 (53) use a conserved attB site overlapping M. abscessus tRNAQ<sup>γ</sup> gene (t5027), which is not occupied by any of the prophages described here (Fig. 3B), and therefore should be broadly applicable.

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

**Bacterial strains and media.** *M. smegmatis* mc²155 was grown as previously described (14). *M. abscessus* strains were grown in 10 ml of 7H9 medium with oleic acid-albumin-dextrose-catalase (OADC) and 1 mM CaCl₂, for ~72 h at 37°C with shaking. For some *M. abscessus* strains, several individual isolates were recovered either at different times or different morphotypes, including strains GD94, GD35, and GD64, which were designated GD54H, GD35B, and GD64A, respectively. For some isolates, both rough and smooth colony morphotypes were recovered, and designated accordingly (e.g., GD68A, GD68B). GD43A and B have different numbers of prophages in them and they are therefore treated as separate strains. Bacterial DNA was prepped from 1 ml of log-phase culture using standard phenol-chloroform-isooamyl alcohol extraction and ethanol precipitation. Phage DNAs were isolated using similar methods as reported previously (9).

**Genomics.** Genomic DNAs were prepared for sequencing using NEB Ultra II FS kits and then pooled and run on an Illumina MiSeq using v3 reagent kits to generate 300-base paired-end reads. In some cases, Oxford Nanopore sequencing libraries were also constructed from genomic DNA using Rapid Sequencing Barcoding kits, and then pooled and run on a MinION device using FLO-MIN106D flowcells. Illumina reads for each strain were trimmed and quality-controlled using Skewer (54). Trimmed Illumina reads were then assembled using Unicycler (55), incorporating Nanopore reads when available.

In the case of complete genomes, assemblies were viewed, stitched, corrected, and finalized using Consed version 29 (56, 57). GraphMap (58) was used to align long Nanopore reads to provisional assemblies and resolve repetitive regions. The first base and orientation of each complete circular chromosome was chosen to match those of the ATCC 19977 strain and/or to align with the first base of the dnaA gene.

**Prophage and plasmid identification.** Prophages were detected initially by searches using PHASTER (20) followed by careful manual inspection. PHASTER often identifies potential regions with prophages but does not accurately identify attachment junctions. Precise prophage positions were determined by genome comparisons with strains lacking those prophages, and identifying the short repeated sequences corresponding to the common core at the attL and attR sites. Related copies of prophages were identified by extensive sequence searches and genome comparisons. Each prophage sequence was extracted, including the common core sequence at both ends of the prophage genome. Prophages were designated according to the strain in which they reside, i.e., prophGDXX-1, with suffixes used to denote multiple prophages in the same genome.

Potential plasmids were identified primarily as small circularized contigs in genome assemblies, although one linear plasmid was also identified. These contigs were manually inspected to ensure they were valid, complete, and not contaminants. Complete circular plasmids were oriented and cut so that base 1 was the first base of a predicted repA gene whenever possible.

**Other bioinformatics.** Phylogenies were constructed using neighbor joining with ClustalX and NJPlot, or were created using CSI Phylogeny 1.4, a SNP-based concatenated alignment, available on the NCBI. Phylogenies were constructed using neighbor joining with ClustalX andNJPlot. Potential plasmids were identified primarily as small circularized contigs in genome assemblies, although one linear plasmid was also identified. These contigs were manually inspected to ensure they were valid, complete, and not contaminants. Complete circular plasmids were oriented and cut so that base 1 was the first base of a predicted repA gene whenever possible.

**RNAseq.** Total RNA was isolated from logarithmically growing *M. abscessus* cells. Removal of DNA was completed using a Turbo-DNase-Free kit (Ambion) according to the manufacturer’s instructions. The depletion of rRNA was completed using QIAseq FastSelect (Qiagen). The libraries were constructed using the NEBNext Ultra RNA library kit (New England BioLabs) and verified using a BioAnalyzer. The libraries were multiplexed and 4 were run on an Illumina MiSeq for each run. Analysis of the data was as described previously (62). Only unique reads were mapped to each genome set. All RNAseq data have been deposited in Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) repository (GSE161710).

**Data availability.** The data that support the RNAseq findings of this study have been deposited in Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) with number GSE161710. The completed and WGS genome sequencing data for *M. abscessus* clinical isolates, including plasmids and prophages, are available in GenBank, and a complete list of accession and project numbers are provided in the accompanying manuscript (17).

**SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIAL**

Supplemental material is available online only.

**FIG S1**, PDF file, 0.1 MB.
**TABLE S1**, PDF file, 0.6 MB.
**TABLE S2**, PDF file, 0.05 MB.
**TABLE S3**, PDF file, 0.02 MB.
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank Sally Molloy at the University of Maine, Honors College, as well as her SEAPHAGES students for their contributions in characterizing prophage genomes.

This work was supported by grants 1R35 GM131729 and 1R21AI151264 from the National Institutes of Health, 54308198 and GT12053 from the Howard Hughes Medical Institute, HATFUL19GO from the Cystic Fibrosis Foundation, and by a kind donation from The Fowler Fund for Phage Research.

R.M.D. and G.F.H. conceived and designed the experiments; R.M.D., H.G.A., B.E.S., V.M., R.A.G., D.A.R., and L.A. performed the experiments; R.M.D., H.G.A., B.E.S., V.M., D.J.-S., R.A.G., D.A.R., L.A., C.H.G., and G.F.H. analyzed the data; R.M.D. and G.F.H. wrote the paper.

G.F.H. is a consultant for Janssen Pharmaceuticals.

REFERENCES

1. Hyman P, Abedon ST. 2010. Bacteriophage host range and bacterial resistance. Adv Appl Microbiol 70:217–248. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065–2164(10)70007-1

2. Bondy-Denomy J, Qian J, Westra ER, Buckling A, Gutmann DS, Davidson AR, Maxwell KL. 2016. Prophages mediate defense against phage infection through diverse mechanisms. ISME J 10:2854–2866. https://doi.org/10.1038/ismej.2016.79

3. Dedrick RM, Jacobs-Sera D, Bustamante CA, Garlena RA, Mavrich TN, Pope WH, Reyes JC, Russell DA, Adair T, Alvey R, Bonilla JA, Bricker JS, Brown BR, Byrnes D, Cressaw SG, Davis WB, Dickson LA, Edgington NP, Findley AM, Goliebiwksa U, Grose JH, Hayes CF, Hughes LE, Hutchinson KW, Isem S, Johnson AA, Kenna MA, Klyczek KK, Mageney CM, Michael SF, Molloy SD, Montgomery MT, Neitzel J, Page ST, Pizzorno MC, Poxletner MK, Rinehart CA, Robinson CJ, Rubin MR, Teyim JN, Vazquez E, Ware VC, Washington J, Hatfull GF. 2017. Prophage-mediated defense against viral attack and viral counter-defence. Nat Microbiol 2:16251. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41562-016-251.

4. Fineran PC, Blower TR, Foulds U, Humphreys DP, Liley KS, Salmond GP. 2009. The phage abortive infection system, ToxLN, functions as a protein-RNA toxin-antitoxin pair. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 106:894–899. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0808832106.

5. Dy RL, Richter C, Salmond GP, Fineran PC. 2014. Remarkable mechanisms in microbes to resist phage infections. Annu Rev Virol 1:307–331. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-virology-031413-085500.

6. Hampton HG, Watson BNJ, Fineran PC. 2020. The arms race between bacteria and their phage foes. Nature 577:327–336. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586–019-1994-8.

7. Luong T, Salabaria AC, Roach DR. 2020. Phage therapy in the resistance era: where do we stand and where are we going? Clin Ther 42:1659–1680. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.clinthera.2020.07.014.

8. Hatfull GF. 2020. Actinobacteriophages: genomics, dynamics, and applications. Annu Rev Virol 7:37–61. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-virology–122019–070009.

9. Pope WH, Bowman CA, Russell DA, Jacobs-Sera D, Asai DJ, Cressaw SG, Jacobs WR, Hendrix RW, Lawrence JG, Hatfull GF, Science Education Alliance Phage Hunters Advancing Genomics and Evolutionary Science, Mycobacterial Genet. Course. 2015. Whole genome comparison of a large collection of non-mycobacterial virulence genes in the genome of the emerging pathogen Mycobacterium abscessus. mBio 12:e03441-20. https://doi.org/10.1128/mBio.03441–17.

10. Gentile GM, Wetzell KS, Dedrick RM, Montgomery MT, Garlena RA, Jacobs-Sera D, Hatfull GF. 2019. More evidence of collusion: a new prophage-mediated viral defense system encoded by Gordonia phage CarolAnn. mBio 10:e02417–18. https://doi.org/10.1128/mBio.02417-18.

11. Dedrick RM, Jacobs-Sera D, Hendrix RW, Hatfull GF. 2020. Actinobacteriophage resistance to drugs and phages. Trends Microbiol 28:666–679. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tim.2020.02.008.

12. Kangaro K, Derink AK, Incel I, Mungan S, Mirzabeyoglu T, Kocak E, Yanturk M, Rubio O, Rodriguez-Valverde A, Tencali D, Ertunc C, Yuksel A, Aksen S, Sari E, Kaya C, Eroglu E, Ozturk H. 2022. Complete genome sequence of Mycobacterium abscessus BD(T). J Bacteriol 204:2033–2036. https://doi.org/10.1128/jb.00056-22.

13. Gentile GM, Wetzell KS, Dedrick RM, Montgomery MT, Garlena RA, Jacobs-Sera D, Hatfull GF. 2019. More evidence of collusion: a new prophage-mediated viral defense system encoded by mycobacteriophage Sbash. mBio 10:e00196-19. https://doi.org/10.1128/mBio.00196–19.

14. Jacobs-Sera D, Marinelli LJ, Bowman C, Broussard GW, Guerrero Bustamante C, Boyle MM, Petrova ZO, Dedrick RM, Pope WH, Modlin RL, Hendrix RW, Hatfull GF, Science Education Alliance Phage Hunters Advancing Genomics and Evolutionary Science Sea-Phages Program. 2012. On the nature of mycobacteriophage diversity and host preference. Virology 434:187–201. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.virol.2012.09.026.

15. Dedrick R, Guerrero Bustamante C, Garlena RA, Russell DA, Ford K, Harris K, Gilmour KC, Sootihl J, Jacobs-Sera D, Schooley RT, Hatfull GF, Spencer H. 2019. Engineered bacteriophages for treatment of a patient with a disseminated drug-resistant Mycobacterium abscessus. Nat Med 25:730–733. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41591–019-0437-z.

16. Marinelli LJ, Piuri M, Swigonova Z, Balachandran A, Oldfield LM, van Kessel JC, Hatfull GF. 2008. BRED: a simple and powerful tool for constructing mutant and recombinant bacteriophage genomes. PLoS One 3: e3957. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0003957.

17. Dedrick RM, Smith BE, Garlena RA, Russell DA, Aulig HG, Mahalingam V, Divens AM, Guerrero-Bustamante CA, Zack KM, Abd L, Gauthier CH, Jacobs-Sera D, Hatfull GF. 2021. Mycobacterium abscessus strain morphotype determines phage susceptibility, the repertoire of therapeutically useful phages, and phage resistance. mBio 12:e03431-20. https://doi.org/10.1128/mBio.03431–20.

18. Sassi M, Gouret P, Chabrol O, Pantorotti P, Drancourt M. 2014. Mycobacteriophage-driven diversification of Mycobacterium abscessus. Biol Direct 9:19. https://doi.org/10.1186/1745–6150-9-19.

19. Glickman C, Kammlade SM, Hasna NA, Epperson LE, Davidson RM, Strong M. 2020. Characterization of integrated prophages within diverse species of clinical nontuberculous mycobacteria. Virol J 17:124. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12985–020–01394–y.

20. Arndt D, Grant JR, Marcu A, Sajed T, Pan A, Liang Y, Wishart DS. 2016. PHASTER: a better, faster version of the PHAST phage search tool. Nucleic Acids Res 44:W16–21. https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkw387.

21. Arndt D, Grant JR, Marcu A, Sajed T, Pan A, Liang Y, Wishart DS. 2016. PHASTER: a better, faster version of the PHAST phage search tool. Nucleic Acids Res 44:W16–21. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41591-019-0437-z.

22. Choi GE, Cho YJ, Koh WJ, Chun J, Cho SN, Shin SJ. 2012. Draft genome sequence of Mycobacterium abscessus subspp. bolletii BD(T). J Bacteriol 194:2756–2757. https://doi.org/10.1128/jb.00354–12.

23. Raiol T, Ribeiro GM, Maranhão AQ, Bocca AL, Silva-Pereira I, Junqueira-Kipnis AP, Brigido M do D, Kipnis A. 2012. Complete genome sequence of Mycobacterium massiliense. J Bacteriol 194:2756–2757. https://doi.org/10.1128/jb.00354–12.

24. Pope WH, Kris K, Byrnes TD, Pope WH. Bowman CA, Boyle MM, Broussard GW, Chow T, Class KL, Cooper S, Cornely KA, Dejong RJ, Delesalle VA, Deng L, Dunbar D, Edgington NP, Ferreira CM, Weston Hafer K, Hartzog GA, Hatherill JR, Hughes LE, Ipako K, Krukonis GP, Meier CG, Monti DL, Olt...
March/April 2021 Volume 12 Issue 2 e03441-20 mbio.asm.org

41. Zhang D, de Souza RF, Anantharaman V, Iyer LM, Aravind L. 2012. Poly-

38. Ojha A, Anand M, Bhatt A, Kremer L, Jacobs WR, Jr., Hatfull GF. 2005.

37. Smith MCM. 2015. Phage-encoded serine integrases and other large

36. Kim AI, Ghosh P, Aaron MA, Bibb LA, Jain S, Hatfull GF. 2003. Mycobacter-

34. Hatfull GF. 2012. The secret lives of mycobacteriophages. Adv Virus Res

33. Wetzel KS, Aull HG, Zack KM, Garlena RA, Hatfull GF. 2020. Protein-medi-

32. Sun J, Siroy A, Lokareddy RK, Speer A, Doornbos KS, Cingolani G,

31. Kim BJ, Kim BR, Hong SH, Seok SH, Kook YH, Kim BJ. 2013. Complete genome

30. Wang L, Jiang J, Yang H, Deng Z, Dedon PC, Chen S. 2019. DNA phosphorothioate

29. Howard ST, Byrd TF, Lyons CR. 2002. A polymorphic region in Mycobacte-

28. Sun J, Siroy A, Lokareddy RK, Speer A, Doornbos KS, Cingolani G,

26. Davidson RM, Hasan NA, Reynolds PR, Totten S, Garcia B, Levin A,

M. abscessus

25. M. abscessus

24. Jiang H, Lei R, Ding SW, Zhu S. 2014. Skewer: a fast and accurate adapter

23. Lee MH, Pascopella L, Jacobs WR, Jr., Hatfull GF. 1991. Site-speci

22. Amarh ED, Dedrick RM, Garlena RA, Russell DA, Jacobs-Sera D, Hatfull GF.

21. Petrova ZO, Broussard GW, Hatfull GF. 2015. Mycobacteriophage-

20. Radey MC, Peterson SB, Mootha VK, Mougous JD, Liu DR. 2020. A bacterial

19. Ramirez M, Rocha EPC. 2017. A widespread family of polymorphic toxins

18. Jamet A, Touchon M, Ribeiro-Goncalves B, Carrico JA, Charbit A, Nissi X,

17. Jung M, Kim JM, Kim MH, Jo EK, Jang JC. 2017. Mycobacteriophage ab-

16. Kim YS, Yang CS, Nguyen LT, Kim JK, Jin HS, Choe JH, Kim SY, Lee HM,

15. Niederweis M. 2015. The tuberculosis necrotizing toxin kills macrophages

14.1.68

13. Kim YS, Yang CS, Nguyen LT, Kim JK, Jin HS, Choe JH, Kim SY, Lee HM,

12. Gray TA, Derbyshire KM. 2018. Blending genomes: distributive conjugal

11. Ummels R, Abdallah AM, Kuiper V, Aajoud A, Sparrius M, Naeem R, Spaink

10. Garvey P, Fitzgerald GD, Gill H. 1995. Cloning and DNA sequence analysis

9. Ummels R, Abdallah AM, Kuiper V, Aajoud A, Sparrius M, Naeem R, Spaink

8. Dumas E, Christina Boritch E, Vandenbogaert M, Rodriguez de la Vega RC,

7. Jiang JH, Wattam AR, Aziz RK, Brettin T, Butler R, Butler RM, Chinenski P,

6. Davis JJ, Wattam AR, Aziz RK, Brettin T, Butler R, Butler RM, Chinenski P,

5. Inouye M, Shinagawa T, Yamamoto M, Nishiyama M, Hagiwara J, Yama-

4. GroEL1: a dedicated chaperone involved in mycolic acid biosynthesis dur-

3. Garvey P, Fitzgerald GD, Gill H. 1995. Cloning and DNA sequence analysis

2. Jamet A, Touchon M, Ribeiro-Goncalves B, Carrico JA, Charbit A, Nissi X,

1. Zhang D, de Souza RF, Anantharaman V, Iyer LM, Aravind L. 2012. Poly-

mbio.asm.org 17
Dedrick et al.

62. Dedrick RM, Mavrich TN, Ng WL, Cervantes Reyes JC, Olm MR, Rush RE, Jacobs-Sera D, Russell DA, Hatfull GF. 2016. Function, expression, specificity, diversity and incompatibility of actinobacteriophage parABS systems. Mol Microbiol 101:625–644. https://doi.org/10.1111/mmi.13414.

63. Pope WH, Mavrich TN, Garlena RA, Guerrero-Bustamante CA, Jacobs-Sera D, Montgomery MT, Russell DA, Warner MH, Hatfull GF, Science Education Alliance-Phage Hunters Advancing Genomics and Evolutionary Science (SEA-PHAGES). 2017. Bacteriophages of Gordonia spp. display a spectrum of diversity and genetic relationships. mBio 8:e01069-17. https://doi.org/10.1128/mBio.01069-17.