

# **THE OCCURRENCE AND MOLECULAR CHARACTERIZATION OF NON-TUBERCULOUS MYCOBACTERIA IN CATTLE, AFRICAN BUFFALO (SYNCERUS CAFFER) AND THEIR ENVIRONMENTS IN SOUTH AFRICA AND GENOMIC CHARACTERIZATION AND PROTEOMIC COMPARISON WITH**  *MYCOBACTERIUM BOVIS*

**BY** 

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## **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

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- BRIG BLAST Ring Image Generator
- TCA Tri-chloro acetic acid
- IAA Iodoacetamide
- TEAB Triethylammonium bicarbonate



## **SUMMARY**

## <span id="page-19-0"></span>**THE OCCURRENCE AND MOLECULAR CHARACTERIZATION OF NON-TUBERCULOUS MYCOBACTERIA IN CATTLE, AFRICAN BUFFALO (***SYNCERUS CAFFER***) AND THEIR ENVIRONMENTS IN SOUTH AFRICA AND GENOMIC CHARACTERIZATION AND PROTEOMIC COMPARISON WITH** *MYCOBACTERIUM BOVIS*

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 $\mathbf{xx}$  | P a g e The aim of this study was to investigate the diversity and prevalence of non-tuberculous mycobacteria (NTM) in cattle, African buffaloes and their environments in South Africa and the potential of these NTM to elicit cross- reactive immune responses in these animal species which may in turn lead to false diagnosis of bovine tuberculosis. A total of 40 NTM species were identified during a countrywide survey. *Mycobacterium terrae, Mycobacterium nonchromogenicum, Mycobacterium vaccae/ Mycobacterium vanbaalenii* and a group of isolates closely related to *Mycobacterium moriokaense* (*M. moriokaense*-like isolates) were the four most frequently isolated species. Further characterization of *M. moriokaense-* like



isolates revealed two novel NTM species which were named *Mycobacterium malmesburii* sp.nov. and *Mycobacterium komanii* sp.nov. respectively. Genomes of *M. nonchromogenicum, M. malmesburii* sp. nov., *M. komanii* sp. nov., and *M. fortuitum* ATCC 6841 were elucidated and investigated for genes encoding homologues of *M. bovis* predominant immunogenic proteins. These included genes encoding for the Esx family proteins (*esx* genes), *mpb70*, *mpb63*, *mpb64, hspX, tpx, Rv1120c, canA* and *dnaK*. The e*sx* gene orthologs encoded in ESX-1 (*esxA* and *esxB*), ESX-3 (*esxH* and *esxG*), *esxR*, and ESX-4 (*esxT* and *esxU*) loci were identified in the NTM genomes while those encoded in ESX-2 locus were absent in all the four NTM genomes and only *esxN* (encoded in the ESX-5 locus) and its homologue, *esxK* were present in *M. nonchromogenicum*. Gene orthologs encoding for MPB70 (*M. malmesburii* sp.nov. and *M*. *komanii* sp.nov.), DnaK (all four NTM species), CanA (all four NTM species), MPB64 (all four NTM species), Rv1120c (in all four NTM species), TpX, MBP63 and HspX (all in *M. nonchromogenicum* and *M. fortuitum*), were found in the NTM genomes. In contrast orthologs of *mpb83* and *espC* were not detected in any of the four NTM. We could not judge just based on the overall protein sequence homologies of the antigens whether the NTM homologues will give rise to cross-reactive immune responses. We consequently checked the existence in NTM of epitopes shown to be immunogenic in *M. bovis* and *M. tuberculosis.* Amino acid sequence alignment of the EsxA and EsxB of the NTM sequenced in this study as well as *M. smegmatis, M. bovis* and *M. tuberculosis* respectively was done to investigate their similarities at "immunogenic" epitope level. In this analysis, we found that the six bovine T-cell recognized epitopes of *M. bovis* ESAT-6 described by Vordermeier *et al.,* 2003 and 2007 had similarities to those of *M. fortuitum* and *M. nonchromogenicum* (showing sequence similarity of as high as 81.28% and as low as 52.9% ). Likewise a certain degree of sequence similarity between the six *M. bovis* CFP 10 immunogenic epitopes and those of the NTM species (highest similarity of 75% observed between all NTM and *M. bovis* and lowest similarity of 50% between *M. komanii* sp.nov, *M. malmesburii* sp.nov and *M. bovis.*) was observed. Still, with sequence homologies of less than 100% between the *M. bovis*



immunogenic epitopes and those of the NTM*,* it was difficult to unambiguously predict T-cell crossrecognition. Comparison of the EsxR and EsxH amino acid sequences at immunogenic epitope level, revealed higher sequence similarities in the epitopes of NTM and those of *M. bovis* than the predicted protein sequences of EsxA and EsxB. A sequence similarity of 100% was observed between two of the five *M. bovis* immunogenic epitopes of EsxR and those of *M. fortuitum, M. malmesburii* sp. nov. and *M. komanii* sp.nov. Full cross- recognition of these NTM EsxR epitopes is therefore highly likely, and may lead to misdiagnosis of bovine Tuberculosis (BTB). The other three EsxR/EsxH epitopes shown to be immunogenic in *M. bovis* also exist in the three NTM showing similarity of as low as 77.7%.

Two immunogenic epitopes of the *M. bovis* MPB70 described by Pollock *et al*., 2004 were also observed in *M. malmesburii* sp.nov. and *M. komanii* sp.nov. predicted MPB70 homologues with sequence similarities of 83.3% and 80% at amino acid level to the *M. bovis* antigen. The occurrence of these immunogenic epitopes in these NTM predicted antigen sequences may, despite sequence differences, lead to cross- reactive immune responses and therefore need to be tested on animal models for their immunogenicity. Their use as markers for BTB diagnosis warrants further investigation taking into consideration pre-exposure of animals to these NTM especially in regions where they are endemic, especially considering the fact that *M. fortuitum* is widely distributed across the globe and has been found to infect cattle and buffalo from different countries.

We could not unambiguously predict expression and T-cell recognition of the NTM protein coding sequence (CDS), we therefore investigated the protein composition of purified protein derivatives (PPDs) prepared from *M. fortuitum* ATCC 6841 strain (PPD-F), *M. nonchromogenicum* (PPD-N), *M. malmesburii* sp. nov. (PPD-M), *M. kansasii* ATCC 12478 (PPD-K) and compared to those of PPD-B and PPD-A used in the commercial immunological assays for TB by mass spectrometry. This analysis revealed the presence of immunogenic proteins shared between PPD-B and NTM PPDs. These include



the CFP 10 (shared with *M. malmesburii* sp. nov.), DnaK (shared with all the NTM PPDs except PPD-M), GroES (shared with all NTM PPDs except PPD-M) and GroEL (shared with all NTM PDs). NTM homologues of other proteins described as immunogenic in *M. bovis*/ *M. tuberculosis* include *M. fortuitum* MPB63 (identified in PPD-F and PPD-N), *M. fortuitum* Ag85C and Ag85A (both identified in PPD-F and PPD-N), *M. kansasii* Ag85B (identified in PPD-K), *M. avium* MPB64 (identified in PPD-A), *M. avium* Ag85A and Ag85B (both identified in PPD-A). The occurrence of these immunogenic proteins in NTM PPDs equates to their expression and potentially could be cross-recognized by T-cells leading to false diagnosis of *M. bovis*. They therefore need to be investigated further in animal experiments.

Since it was apparent that the *esx* genes of the ESX-1 locus genes (*esxA* and *esxB*) occur in nonpathogenic NTM, we set up experiments to screen isolates belonging to different NTM species that are available in our laboratory collection for the presence of *esxA* and *esxB* gene fragments by PCR and sequencing. We showed the presence of *esxA* and *esxB* sequences in *M. fortuitum* ATCC 6841 and *M. mageritense.* 

In conclusion, using the combined genomics and proteomics approach, we report the occurrence of NTM homologues of *M. bovis* immuno-dominant antigens. These *M. bovis* antigens have been investigated and applied as markers for bovine (Tuberculosis) B (TB) diagnosis. The acquired knowledge will allow rational design of TB assays using specific markers that are not cross- reactive with NTM species.



## **CHAPTER 1. GENERAL INTRODUCTION AND LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### <span id="page-23-0"></span>**1.1 General Introduction**

<span id="page-23-1"></span>Tuberculosis (TB) primarily caused by *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* has been and still is one of the most prevalent infectious causes of death globally, affecting humans of all ages. It typically affects the lungs (pulmonary TB) but can affect other organs as well (extra pulmonary TB). On the other hand, bovine tuberculosis (BTB), primarily caused by *Mycobacterium bovis* is mainly a disease of animals but can be zoonotic (be responsible for the diseases in both humans and animals), resulting in a significant economic loss world-wide (Cosivi *et al.,* 1998). Other mycobacteria of the *Mycobacterium tuberculosis complex* including *M. tuberculosis* can also be zoonotic (Ameni *et al.,* 2013).

Control strategies for human tuberculosis include vaccination, diagnosis and consequently effective treatment which can be achieved if the disease is diagnosed early and accurately (Dye and Floyd 2006). *Mycobacterium bovis* Bacillus Calmette Guérin (BCG) has been widely used for vaccination of humans against TB, but with variable efficacy in different countries (Brandt *et al.,* 2002; Abubakar *et al.,* 2013). The disease in animals is controlled in many countries by the use of test and slaughter strategies which are very costly for developing countries. Treatment is not practical especially in the context of free ranging wildlife and hence has not been attempted because of high costs, lengthy time, larger goal of eliminating the disease and risk of the animals serving as reservoirs if treatment is not effective (OIE Terrestrial Manual 2014; Michel *et al.,* 2006). Therefore effective vaccines and appropriate vaccination strategies are necessary. *M. bovis* BCG vaccine has been tested in different animal species with variable efficacies (Buddle *et al.,* 2013). The availability of the genomes of the tubercle bacilli, allows selection of vaccine candidates and evaluation of vaccination strategies against BTB in different animal species (Buddle *et al.,* 2011). Other mycobacterial strains have been evaluated as vaccine candidates in animals



(Waters *et al.,* 2012). However, with all the efforts of vaccine development in both livestock and wildlife, BCG is still the most promising vaccine (Waters *et al.,* 2012). Until an effective vaccine against BTB is developed, diagnosis is always a cornerstone of control.

The most common method for diagnosis of TB in humans is by sputum smear microscopy in which acid fast bacilli are identified, radiology and clinical signs These methods however, are not able to distinguish the species responsible for the disease, the sputum smear microscopy method merely identifies mycobacteria in general (Cosivi *et al.,* 1998). *Mycobacterium* species identification in both humans and animals is most reliably done by culture based methods followed by molecular identification, which is time consuming as pathogenic mycobacteria may take up to ten weeks to grow and sometimes may fail to do so. Direct PCR or other molecular based tests on clinical specimens are a diagnostic option in some cases (Scherer *et al*., 2011). In addition serological and immunological tests are available for diagnosis of TB in both humans and animals (Ernst *et al.,* 2007; Schiller *et al*., 2010). Bovine TB is often diagnosed in live animals on the basis of the delayed type hypersensitivity reaction elicited by the intradermal injection of biologically active tuberculin/ purified protein derivative (PPD) using the tuberculin skin test (TST) and the Interferon gamma assay (IFN $\gamma$ ). The latter is either used in many countries either in a serial testing regime as a confirmatory test after TST to enhance specificity or in a parallel testing regime to enhance sensitivity of the TST (Schiller *et al*., 2010).

**2 |** P a g e Control of TB in both humans and animals can be hampered by prior exposure to non-tuberculous mycobacteria (NTM) (Farhat *et al.,* 2006; Buddle *et al.,* 2008). NTM, otherwise known as "mycobacteria other than tuberculosis" (MOTT) or environmental mycobacteria (EM) have been isolated from the environment as well as animals and humans. NTM are believed to be natural inhabitants of the environment, even though some species have been isolated from only clinical samples and not the environment (van Ingen *et al.,* 2009). These bacteria have been neglected for many years, probably because their clinical or veterinary significance was always doubtful. NTM are in general of low



virulence and most species are known to rarely or never cause any disease hence they have always been recognized as environmental contaminants or colonizers (Covert *et al.,* 1999). Finding immune compromised hosts, especially with the emergence of the acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS) pandemic, some NTM species are now recognized as potential opportunistic pathogens of humans (Mirsaeidi *et al.,* 2014). Various NTM species have also been implicated in diseases of animals, highlighting the importance of these species as potential animal pathogens (Bercovier and Vincent, 2001). The term 'mycobacteriosis' is used for diseases caused by NTM. Opportunistic mycobacterial diseases have been classified as skin lesions, localized lymphadenitis, TB-like pulmonary lesions and disseminated diseases (Primm *et al.,* 2004). Transmission of NTM is thought to be from the environment as there is no evidence of human to human or animal to animal infection and is supposed to occur by inhalation of aerosols or ingestion of water and soil (van Ingen *et al.,* 2009). NTM cannot be differentiated from the pathogenic turbercle bacilli by acid fast staining/ Ziehl- Neelsen (ZN) staining, likewise members of the tubercle bacilli (known as *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* complex or MTBC) cannot be differentiated from each other by simple ZN staining. Differentiation of all mycobacteria from cultured isolates is often done by either a series of phenotypic tests or molecular based tests like Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR), restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP), and sequencing of the *Mycobacterium* housekeeping genes (Niva *et al.,* 2006; Pontiroli *et al.,* 2013; Bahram *et al.,* 2014).

Some NTM species are believed to elicit cross-reactive immune responses in both humans and animals that interfere with the tuberculin based immunological diagnostic tests for TB, such as the TST and IFN $\gamma$ assay. Likewise *M. bovis* (BCG), the only approved vaccine against TB in humans is also believed to elicit cross- reactive immune responses that interfere with the tuberculin tests for TB in both humans and animals (Farhat *et al.,* 2006; Buddle *et al.,* 2008). This is attributed to the fact that PPD used in these tests, contains a mixture of somatic and antigenic proteins, some of which are present in pathogenic mycobacteria, BCG and NTM (Thom *et al*., 2008; Schiller *et al.,* 2010).



These cross-reactive immune responses induced by NTM are believed to also play a role in the reduced efficacy of BCG (Brandt *et al.,* 2002; Buddle *et al.,* 2003; Thom *et al*., 2008). Variation in results of BCG efficacy ranging from non-effective to successful in both human and animal population studies are therefore thought to reflect the differences in population exposure to cross-reacting NTM (Brandt *et al.,*  2002; Buddle *et al.,* 2011).

Continued research on the involvement of NTM in induction of cross reactive immune responses is therefore a priority as these species may play a pivotal role in the control of TB. NTM diversity and prevalence studies may help streamline the investigation of the role played by prevalent NTM species in a particular region in cross-reactive immune responses against TB.

#### **1.2 Literature Review**

#### <span id="page-26-0"></span>**1.2.1 The genus** *Mycobacterium*

<span id="page-26-1"></span>The genus *Mycobacterium* belongs to the *Mycobacteriaceae* family, *Actinomycetales* order and *Actinomycetes* class*.* Mycobacteria are a group of Gram positive bacteria, displaying diverse phenotypes. These are acid fast bacilli with a lipid bilayer. There are more than 150 species and about 13 subspecies of mycobacteria listed in the public database: List of prokaryotic names with outstanding nomenclature (http/ [www.bacterio.net\)](http://www.bacterio.net/).



#### **1.2.1.1 Mycobacterial taxonomic classification by phenotype**

<span id="page-27-0"></span>The early classification of mycobacteria was based on growth rate, pigmentation and clinical significance (Runyon, 1959; Shinnick and Good, 1994). One fundamental taxonomic division was tied to growth rate. Based on this, mycobacteria can be divided into two main groups: the fast/rapid growers (RGM), referring to those mycobacteria that take less than 7 days for colonies to appear on solid medium and the slow growers (SGM) where colonies take more than 7 days to appear on solid medium. Further subdivision of mycobacteria into four Runyon groups was based on pigmentation, where Group 1 consists of photo-chromogens (colonies are capable of producing carotenoid pigment in the presence of light) and Group 2 of scoto-chromogens (colonies produce carotenoid pigment regardless of the light). The third Runyon group consists of species which do not produce any pigmentation, the nonchromogenic mycobacteria. The slow growers were assigned to the three groups. The fourth Runyon group consists of rapid growing non-chromogens and chromogenic species (Runyon, 1959).

Mycobacteria are also classified based on their biochemical and physiological properties, called Adansonian classification. In this classification, for instance, *M. fortuitum*, *M. acapulsensis*, *M. flavescens, M. marinum* were grouped together on the basis that they all utilize only a limited number of carbohydrates (Bojalil *et al.,* 1962; Tsukamura *et al.,* 1966).

#### **1.2.1.2 Taxonomic classification based on clinical significance/pathogenicity**

<span id="page-27-1"></span>Classification of mycobacteria based on clinical significance separated pathogens and non-pathogens. The slow growing mycobacteria consist of many species which are able to cause disease. These include a group of species collectively known as *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* complex (MTBC), *Mycobacterium* 



*leprae* as well as certain species of non-tuberculosis mycobacteria (Rastogi *et al.,* 2001; Gutiérrez *et al.,*  2009)**.** Pathogenic MTBC species include those mycobacteria that cause tuberculosis in humans and different animal species, like *M. bovis, M. tuberculosis, M. africanum, M. cannetii, M. mungi, M. pinnipedii, M. microti, M.caprae, M. orygis, the Dassie bacillus* and *M. suricattae* (Brosch *et al.,* 2002; Smith *et al.,* 2006a; Huard *et al.,* 2006; Alexander *et al.,* 2010; Parsons *et al.,* 2013). The common slow growing pathogenic NTM include species collectively known as *Mycobacterium avium* complex (MAC) that causes diseases in both humans and animals (Rastogi *et al.,* 2001**)**. *Mycobacterium leprae* causes leprosy in humans and has been isolated from wild armadillos in Southern United States, suggesting potential zoonotic nature of this species (Gutiérrez *et al.,* 2009; Truman *et al.,* 2011). Fast growing mycobacteria commonly known as RGM (rapidly growing mycobacteria) are usually non-pathogenic but some are opportunistic pathogens and still belong to the NTM (van Ingen *et al.,* 2009; Parte, 2014). They are commonly encountered in the environment where they are normal inhabitants (van Ingen *et al.,* 2009). The low virulence in most NTM and the lack of human to human or animal to animal transmission are the most important distinguishing features between these species and the MTBC as well as *M. leprae* (De Groote *et al.,* 2006; Gutiérrez *et al.,* 2009; van Ingen *et al.,* 2009).

#### **1.2.1.3 Molecular based and phylogenetic classification**

<span id="page-28-0"></span>Advancement in molecular biology has led to identification tools for mycobacteria, which give enough information for phylogenetic classification of these species (Fig 1). Mycobacteria are thought to have one or two *rrn* operons per genome. Slow growing pathogenic mycobacteria, like *M. tuberculosis, M. bovis,* and *M. leprae* have single *rrn* operons and most fast growing mycobacteria are reported to have two, with exception of *M. chelonae* and *M. abscessus* which, although they are fast growers, each have single copy of the *rrn* operon (Liesack *et al.,* 1990; Kempsell *et al.,* 1992; Cole *et al.,* 1998; Menendez



*et al.,* 2002). The apparent correlation between the growth rate and the number of *rrn* operons present in a genome provides possible explanation regarding mycobacteria being classified as either fast or slow growers.

Different phylogenies for mycobacteria have been developed using analysis of the 16S rRNA (Cloud *et al.,* 2002; Devulder *et al.,* 2005). The 16S rRNA is encoded by the 16S rDNA sequence that is approximately 1500bp. The 16S rDNA is a highly conserved gene, however, there are sequence variations that are located at specific areas of the gene. The sequence stretches that are common to all mycobacteria, together with the hyper variable regions (region A and region B) that define species specificity make this gene very useful for species identification (Tortoli, 2003). The secondary structure of the 16S rRNA contains helices: 8, 9, 10 and 11 falling within region A, while helix 18 is in region B. The correlation between slow growth and a long helix 18 was first proposed by Stahl and Urbance (1990). Nucleotide insertion (varying in size) in helix 18 occurs with slow growers, while a short helix (no insertion) is associated with rapid growers (Stahl and Urbance, 1990). However this proposed classification was later found contradictive since other slow growing mycobacteria, like *M. simiae, M. intermedium* and *M. triviale,* have a short helix 18 (Menendez *et al.,* 2002).

**7 |** P a g e Identification of the nucleotide sequence in region A of the 16S rRNA is sufficient for speciation (Harmsen *et al.,* 2003). The only drawback with the use of the 16S rRNA for species identification is very high interspecies similarities, ranging from 94%-100% (Adékambi and Drancourt, 2004; Adékambi *et al.,* 2006). Some species have identical 16S rRNA sequences. For instance, members of the *M. tuberculosis* complex have virtually identical 16S rRNA sequences, and cannot be differentiated with this locus. Likewise this gene typing can neither differentiate between members of the MAC nor the *M. fortuitum* complex; *M. kansasii* and *M. gastri*, *M. vaccae* and *M. vanbaalenii* as well as between other closely related mycobacterial species (Devulder *et al.*, 2005; Adékambi *et al.,* 2006; Gcebe *et al.,* 2013). However, it provides robust phylogenetic trees and enough information for *Mycobacterium* taxonomy



(Devulder *et al.*, 2005). Other molecular targets of diagnostic interest in *Mycobacterium* investigations include the *hsp65* gene encoding the 65-kDA heat shock protein (Telenti *et al.,* 1993). The *hsp65* gene is also highly conserved among *Mycobacterium* species, but contains hyper variable regions at nucleotide positions 624 to 664 and 683 to 725 making this gene useful for identification and taxonomic purposes. PCR restriction analysis (PRA) of the 441bp fragment of the *hsp65* gene commonly known as the Telenti fragment has been used as an identification tool for *Mycobacterium* species (Telenti *et al.,* 1993; Devulder *et al.,* 2005). MTBC except *M. africanum* cannot be differentiated with the use of the *hsp65* sequence analysis (Devulder *et al.,* 2005).

The region between the genes encoding the 16S and the 23S rRNA commonly known as the internal transcriber subunit (ITS) is also of taxonomic interest. Sequence determination as well as the PRA of the ITS were shown to be useful in differentiating most phylogenetically related slow growing *Mycobacterium* species (Roth *et al.,* 1998). However, some mycobacteria like *M. marinum* and *M. ulceris*  share the same ITS and cannot be separated by the use of ITS (Roth *et al.,* 1998).

Other loci including, among others, *gyrB* encoding the beta subunit of the DNA gyrase (Kasai *et al.,*  2000), *rpoB* encoding the beta subunit RNA polymerase (Adekambi *et al.,* 2006)*, dnaJ* (Takewaki *et al.,*  1993)*, dnaK* (Dai *et al.,* 2011)*, recA* (Blackwood *et al.,* 2000)*, sodA* encoding the superoxide dismutase (Adekambi and Drancout 2004), *ssr*A (Mignard and Flandrois, 2007), *tuf* (Mignard and Flandrois2007 ) and *secA* (Zelazyn *et al.,* 2005) have been reported as being useful in *Mycobacterium* identification.

The *rpoB* gene contains a single copy and thus problems of sequence ambiguity associated with the use of 16S rDNA have not been experienced. However, the *rpoB* gene sequence is also not able to differentiate members of the MTBC. This gene was only used for predicting rifampicin resistance of *M. tuberculosis* strains until recently, when it was applied for *Mycobacterium* identification (Adekambi *et* 



*al.,* 2006). Phylogenetic trees based on the *rpoB* gene are reported to be not as robust as trees based on the *hsp*65 and the 16S rDNA (Devulder *et al.*, 2005).

Primer failure for *sodA* and *dnaJ* has been reported for mycobacterial identification. Both these genes cannot differentiate MTBC (Adekambi and Drancourt 2004; Yamada-Noda *et al.,* 2007).

The gyrase gene has only been tested in slowly growing mycobacteria, like MTBC and its identification allows differentiation between members of the MTBC but cannot differentiate *M. bovis* and *M. bovis* BCG (Nieman *et al.,* 2000)*.*

The recently identified *dnaK* locus has been tested in both slowly and fast growing species, but only 64 *Mycobacterium* species were included in the study (Dai *et al.,* 2011), and therefore further studies of these loci (*dnaK* and *gyrB)* in other *Mycobacterium* species are still needed.

While the 16S rDNA and *hsp65* are still the most widely used genes for *Mycobacterium* identification and phylogenetic studies, they have limitations as discussed above, as a result the use of multiple gene sequences for taxonomic classification of mycobacteria has been proposed. Phylogenetic trees derived from concatenated sequences of a panel of genes have been explored as a taxonomic model and were shown to classify mycobacterial species accurately (Devulder *et al.,* 2005). Figures 1.1, 1.2a and 1.2b illustrate the phylogenetic classification of mycobacteria based on the 16S rDNA as well as comparing the trees based on *hsp65* and the 16S rDNA sequences respectively. These illustrations show how these gene sequences can be used as a taxonomic tool to separate slow growing mycobacteria (SGM) from rapidly growing mycobacteria (RGM).



**Fig 1.1: Phylogenetic tree of the genus** *Mycobacterium* **computed from 16S rRNA gene sequences by the neighborjoining method and Kimura's two-parameter model as the substitution model. The tree includes 97 strains and was rooted using** *N. abscessus* **DSM 44432(extracted from: Devulder** *et al.,* **2005).** 





**Fig 1.2: Extracted from Kim** *et al., (***2005), illustrating the phylogeny of mycobacteria based on a): the hsp65 and b): the 16S rDNA. The** *hsp65* **sequence tree was constructed from 56 mycobacterial reference strains but the 16S rDNA tree was constructed from 41 mycobacterial reference strains. Both trees were constructed using the neighbor-joining method.** 



#### **1.2.2 Species of MTBC and their clinical relevance**

<span id="page-34-0"></span>The number of members of the MTBC is likely to increase as new genetic differences between strains of the existing members are identified*.* Many species and subspecies of these tubercle bacilli show a specific host association (Smith *et al.*, 2006b). Despite the difference in host tropisms, MTBC are characterized by a 99.9% or greater similarity at nucleotide level and by virtually identical 16S rRNA sequences (Smith *et al.,* 2006b). In addition to historic taxonomic segregation of the MTBC, based on growth, morphology, physiological and biochemical characteristics and their host range, the elucidation of the complete genome sequences of both *M. tuberculosis* and *M. bovis*, together with comparative genomics between the MTBC members, has led to a better understanding of the genetic variability within this group. The existence of chromosomal deletions (Regions of difference; RD), together with single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), direct repeat region (DR, or spoligotype) and variable number of tandem repeat patterns (VNTR) , allow discrimination between these bacteria (Kamerbeek *et al.,* 1997; Brosch *et al.,* 2002; Mostowy *et al.,* 2002; Smith *et al.,* 2003, Hlokwe *et al.,* 2014). At present, genetic criteria are used routinely to identify MTBC clinical and veterinary isolates to species and sub-species level (Barnes and Cave, 2003; Huard *et al.,* 2006; Warren *et al.,* 2006). Figure 1.3 illustrates how the RD can be used to differentiate MTBC members to species and sub-species level (Gey van Pittius *et al.,*  2012).

*Mycobacterium tuberculosis* and *Mycobacterium bovis* are the most studied members of the MTBC, probably due to their greatest significance in human and animal diseases as well as their worldwide distribution (Michalak *et al.,* 1998; Ocepek *et al.,* 2005; Ameni *et al.,* 2013). Of the members of the MTBC, *M. bovis* has the broadest host range (Cosivi *et al.,* 1998, Wedlock *et al.,* 2002a). *Mycobacterium* 



*caprae* has been recognized mainly in central Europe, where it has been occasionally isolated from cattle, pigs, red deer, sheep, goats, wild boars a fox and humans (Kubica *et al.,* 2003; Rodriguez *et al.,* 2011). *Mycobacterium mungi* infects banded mongooses (*Mungos mungo*) while *Dassie bacillus* infects rock hyraxes (*Procavia capensis)* and were both isolated in Southern Africa (Parsons *et al.,* 2008; Alexander *et al.,* 2010). *Mycobacterium africanum* is prevalent in West Africa causing up to half of the human tuberculosis infections (de Jong *et al.,* 2010), but has also been reported in pigs and cattle (Afserden and Saxegaard*,* 1995). *Mycobacterium microti*'s natural hosts are small rodents such as field voles, bank voles, wood mice and shrews. Sporadic cases of infection in other animals like pigs, cattle, cats, dogs and badgers have been reported (van Soolingen *et al.,* 1998). Also cases of human infection by *M. microti*  have been reported (Panteix *et al.,* 2010). The natural hosts of *Mycobacterium pinnipedii* are pinniped species, like the fur seals and the most frequently affected being the sea lion (Cousins *et al.,* 2003). The organism is also pathogenic in Guinea pigs, rabbits, humans and tapir (Cousins *et al.,* 2003). *Mycobacterium cannettii* infects humans (van Soolingen *et al.,* 1997). *Mycobacterium orygis* is known to infect antelopes but has also been isolated from humans as well as African buffalo (Smith *et al.,* 2006a; Gey van Pittius *et al.,* 2012)*.* Recently, a new member of the MTBC, named *M. suricattae* was found to occur in meerkats in South Africa (Parsons *et al.,* 2013). *Mycobacterium bovis* is the progenitor of the TB vaccine, *M. bovis* bacillus Calmette-Gúerin (BCG), a strain that was attenuated by serial passaging of *M. bovis* on potato slices soaked in ox bile and glycerol over 13 years. The precise mutations that led to this attenuation are still unknown, although the key deletion of the region of difference (RD1) appears to have played a role (Behr *et al.,* 1999; Pym *et al.,* 2002).

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**Fig 1.3: The phylogeny of MTBC based on regions of difference (RD) as described by Gey van Pittius** *et al.,* **2012.** 



#### **1.2.3 Bovine tuberculosis in Africa**

BTB has been reported in both wildlife and domestic animals in different countries of Africa. According to a review by De Garine-Wichatitsky *et al.,* 2013, during the period 1996-2011 the majority of African countries (38/54) reported BTB in livestock (infection or clinical disease) to the Office International ses Epizooties (OIE), with an additional four countries reporting suspected cases, while only four countries that implemented general or targeted surveillance reported the absence of the disease. During the same period, BTB (clinical cases) in wildlife were confirmed in only 6/54 countries, all located in Southern and Eastern African countries. Additional five countries reported suspected cases, while 11 countries that implemented targeted or general surveillance of the disease reported absence of the disease, and 33 African countries indicated unavailability of data (De Garine-Wichatitsky *et al.,* 2013). In Southern Africa, BTB caused by *M. bovis* has been confirmed in free ranging wildlife in countries like Zambia, South Africa and Zimbabwe. In South Africa, *M. bovis* has been detected in nyala, black rhino, leopard, warthog, wild dog, lion, hyena, kudu, cheetah, baboon, wildebeest, honey badger, genet, bushbuck, eland and impala (Hlokwe *et al.,* 2014; Hlokwe unpublished) while *M. tuberculosis* has been isolated from cattle, non-human primates and an elephant (Hlokwe *et al.,* unpublished). Other species of the MTBC as discussed in section 1.2.2, including *M. orygis, Dassie bacillus, M. suricattae* and *M. mungi* have also been isolated from different wildlife species in Southern Africa. BTB has been confirmed in antelopes (*Kobus leche kafuensis)* in Zambia, and in buffalo in Zimbabwe and presence of infection by *M. bovis*  has been suspected in African buffalo in Botswana and more recently in buffalo and cattle in Mozambique (De Garine-Wichatitsky *et al.,* 2013). In East Africa, BTB has been confirmed in cattle and several wildlife from Ethiopia, Uganda and Tanzania (Cleaveland *et al.,* 2005; 2007; Olaya *et al.,* 2007; 2008; Durnez *et al.,* 2009; Tschopp *et al.,* 2010). BTB in buffalo and baboon has also been confirmed



in Kenya (Tarara *et al.,* 1985; De Garine-Wichatitsky *et al.,* 2013). In West Africa, suspected cases of BTB in cattle of Niger, Ghana, Mali, and Togo were reported (Bonsu *et al.,* 2000; Muller *et al.,* 2008; Boukary *et al.,* 2011; De Garine-Wichatitsky *et al.,* 2013). In central African countries, no reports of BTB in wildlife have been published, but cases of BTB from cattle in Chad were published (De Garine - Wichatitsky *et al.,* 2013). Figure 1.4 illustrates the distribution of bovine tuberculosis in Africa during 1996-2011 (De Garine-Wichatitsky *et al.,* 2013).



**Fig: 1.4: Distribution map of bovine tuberculosis in Africa during 1996–2011. The figure was extracted from De Garine –Wichatistsky** *et al.,* **2013. (***a***) Cattle status at country level; (***b***) wildlife status at country level. Asterisk (\*) indicates countries (i.e. Botswana, Ethiopia, Kenya, Zimbabwe) where suspected and confirmed cases have been detected but not yet reported to OIE.** 

#### **1.2.4 NTM and their relevance in human and animal infections**

For more than 80 years after its discovery by Robert Koch, *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* was believed to be the only clinically significant *Mycobacterium* species. Other acid fast bacilli isolated in humans,

animals and the environment were usually dismissed as saprophytes of little consequence (Covert *et al.,* 



1999). It was not until the 1950s that changes in attitude towards NTM occurred when these species were cultured from pathological material under circumstances that led to the belief that they might be of clinical or veterinary significance (Covert *et al.,* 1999). There is convincing evidence that the environment is the source of NTM even though other NTM species have only been isolated from humans and animals, and not the environment (van Ingen *et al.,* 2009). NTM include those mycobacteria that are not part of the MTBC, but exclude *Mycobacterium leprae,* and these include both slow growing (SGM) and rapidly growing mycobacteria (RGM). Because of the ubiquity of NTM, human infections have been reported from most geographic areas in the world. NTM species distribution in humans is thought to be regional (Martin–Casabona *et al.,* 2004; van Ingen *et al.,* 2009). It has also been suggested that the differences in species distribution in the environment, humans and animals may partly determine the frequency and manifestations of NTM disease in each geographical location (Hoefsloot *et al.,* 2013). In recent years there has been a rise in the number of reported infections by non-tuberculous mycobacteria, mainly in immune compromised individuals (Hoefsloot *et al.,* 2013). Likewise cases of nosocomial as well as iatrogenic transmission of NTM, leading to either harmless colonisation or harmful infections have been observed (Phillips and Reyn, 2001). Certain species of NTM like *M. kansasii, M. xenopi, M. chelonae, M. fortuitum* and *M. gordonae* have been implicated in cases of nosocomial and iatrogenic infections (Sniadack *et al.,* 1993, Phillips and Reyn, 2001, Brown Elliot and Wallace, 2002). The reason for the apparent rise of the observed mycobacterial infections is the increasing awareness of these mycobacteria as opportunistic or potential pathogens of humans and animals and improvements in methods of their detection (van Ingen *et al.,* 2009). Among NTM, the RGM species have recently gained increasing attention because of their extensive resistance to a number of antibacterial drugs and their association with specific disease types in specific patient categories (Sexton and Harrison*,* 2008). Twenty nine new NTM species were isolated from both humans and animals between the years 2003 to 2006 as reviewed by Tortoli*,* (2006).



By far the most studied slowly growing opportunistic NTM pathogens of both animals and humans are the members of the *Mycobacterium avium* complex (MAC) consisting of closely related species: *M. avium* subsp *avium, M. avium* subsp *paratuberculosis, M. avium* subsp *hominissuis, M. intracellulare, M. sylvalticum*, *M. colombiense, M. bouchedurhonense, M. timonense, M. chimaera, M. arosiense, and M. marseillense* (Cayrou *et al.,* 2010)*.*

Other SGM as well as RGM species have been reported to cases diseases in humans and the most common are *M. kansasii, M. marinum, M. haemophilum, M. szulgai, M. fortuitum, M. chelonae, M. wolinskyi, M. scrofulaceum, M. abscessus*, *M. xenopi* and *M. genavense* (Troesch *et al.,* 1999, Martin-Casabona *et al.,* 2004). *M. kansasii* is one of the first NTM pathogens shown to be responsible for pulmonary diseases in humans and together with MAC they infect many sites of the body but primarily cause pulmonary and cervical lymphadenitis (Buhler and Pollock, 1953*). M. ulcerans*, *M. marinum* and *M. haemophilum* are the primary causes of localized skin and soft tissue lesions (Horsburgh, 1991; Portaels, 1995). Pulmonary presentation caused by *Mycobacterium szulgai* is the most common although extra-pulmonary and disseminated diseases have been reported (Tortoli *et al.,* 1998; van Ingen *et al.,*  2008). The *M. fortuitum* and *M. chelonae* are associated with infections of injection sites or wound sites in hospitals (Brown –Elliot and Wallace, 2002). *M. fortuitum* was isolated from a suspect cases of pulmonary tuberculosis in Zambia (Malama *et al.,* 2014). *Mycobacterium wolinskyi* is most commonly associated with post traumatic wound infections. A few cases of *M. wolinskyi* including bone infections, hip prosthesis, and bacteremia have been reported (Brown *et al*., 1999; Pulcini *et al*., 2006; Chen *et al*., 2008). Infections of the cervical lymph node by *M. scrofulaceum* in children are common, and far less frequently observed clinical manifestations in adults include pulmonary diseases and disseminated diseases in immune compromised patients (Wolinsky*,* 1995; Marrazi *et al.,* 2009). Pulmonary cases due to *M. abscessus* and *M. xenopi* have been reported (Martin –Casabona *et al.,* 2004; De Groote and Huitt, 2006; Park *et al.,* 2007).



A number of NTM species have also been reported to cause diseases in animals. Like in humans, among the slowly growing NTM species, diseases caused by MAC in animals have received the most attention. Avian TB caused by *Mycobacterium avium* subspecies *avium* (MAA) is a serious disease of animals. Birds are particularly susceptible to MAA, often leading to fatal organ tuberculosis (Dvorska *et al.,* 2003; Thegerstrom *et al.,* 2005). Avian TB in birds may cause serious economic losses including the death of rare and endangered species (Marco *et al.,* 2000)*. Mycobacterium avium* subspecies *paratuberculosis*  (MAP) causes Johne's disease in livestock and occurs worldwide. *M. avium* subsp *hominissuis* has also been isolated in different species but most often in pigs (Pavlik *et al.,* 2003) and less frequently in nonvertebrates (Fisher *et al.,* 2001, 2003 a; b; 2004 a; b), wild boar (Machackova *et al.* 2003) and wild ruminants (Machackova *et al.,* 2004). MAC strains have also been isolated from horses and cattle (Pavlik *et al.,* 2005). *M. intracellulare, M. chimaera* and *M. colombiense* have been isolated from African rodents and insectivores in Tanzania (Durnez *et al.,* 2008; 2011). *M. kansasii* has been detected in wild animals in Africa, Europe, Asia and America. It has been isolated from cattle, pigs and a goat (Bercovier and Vincent, 2001). *Mycobacterium simiae* has been isolated from monkeys and ornamental fish (Bercovier and Vincent, 2001). *M. xenopi* is principally a pathogen of pigs but was originally isolated from a toad and later more frequently from pigs (Bercovier and Vincent, 2001). *M. marinum* is reported to be a pathogen of fish but they may rarely infect domestic pigs, cattle and wildlife (Bercovier and Vincent, 2001). *M. chelonae* has been isolated from cats, dogs, turtles, and cattle (reviewed by Bercovier and Vincent, 2001). *M. scrofulaceum* has been isolated worldwide and frequently from lymph nodes of cattle, buffaloes, deer, swine, feral pigs, patas monkeys, and fish (Bercovier and Vincent, 2001). *M. szulgai* has been detected in cattle in Tanzania (Durnez *et al.,* 2009). Among RGM, the most common animal opportunistic pathogens are *M. fortuitum, M. porcicum, M. farcinogens, M. senegalense,* and *M. genavense. M. fortuitum* has been isolated worldwide from wild animals including African buffaloes,



reptiles, amphibians, seals, cattle and invertebrates (Bercovier and Vincent, 2001, Michel *et al.,* 2011, Malama *et al.,* 2014). In the review by Bercovier and Vincent (2001), *M. porcicum* was reported to have been isolated in Japan from lymph nodes of pigs with tuberculosis-like lymphadenitis. In this review, *M. farcinogenes* and *M. senegalense* were reported to be responsible for bovine farcy, pathology found in Africa and *M. genavense* is recognized as the most frequent etiological agent of avian mycobacteriosis in pet birds. Rare animal NTM pathogens include *M. smegmatis* which has been isolated from diseased cats, dogs and more frequently from cattle (Bercovier and Vincent, 2001) and *Mycobacterium goodii* which was reported to have caused infection in a hyena in South Africa as well as in African rodents in Tanzania (van Helden *et al.,* 2009; Durnez *et al.,* 2011)*.*

#### **1.2.5 NTM in the environment and factors associated with their diversity and distribution**

NTM are ubiquitous in nature and can be found in a variety of ecosystems. The environment is of interest as a source of NTM infection and exposure. NTM have commonly been found in soil (Covert *et al.,*  1999) and water (Collins *et al.,* 1984; Shitaye *et al.,* 2009). They have also been isolated from biofilms (September *et al.,* 2004), dust (Kamala *et al.,* 1994) and animal feeds (Pavlik *et al.,* 2007). There is still a debate of whether soil or water is the natural habitat of NTM (van Ingen *et al*., 2009, Botha *et al.,*  2013). The distribution and prevalence of NTM in the environment is likely to be influenced by human and animal activities (Portaels, 1995). Most NTM diversity studies in the environment have concentrated on NTM distribution in both human engineered water systems as well as natural water systems like rivers and lakes. Soil sampling is less frequently done than water sampling, probably because of technical difficulties in isolation due to high levels of contamination that hampers culture (van Ingen *et al.,* 2009). A review of 24 studies on NTM isolation and diversity mainly in natural and man-made water systems, soil, dust and biofilms in the habitats of humans and animals worldwide is summarized in table 1.1. These



studies employed different methods for assessing *Mycobacterium* diversity in different geographic areas at different environmental conditions. In this review *Mycobacterium fortuitum* appears to be the most frequently isolated NTM in 14/24 studies, followed by *Mycobacterium gordonae* (10/24) and MAC (4/24). Unlike with human and animal samples, identification of mycobacteria from environmental samples may be difficult due to the complexity of the environment and contamination of samples with other micro-organisms. In addition, there may be other factors that influence the distribution of NTM in different environments. Factors determining the survival and growth of NTM in the environment are still largely unknown. However, several factors like chemical properties of soil and water, seasonal and temperature differences as well as the methods used for assessing *Mycobacterium* diversity and distribution have been investigated.

#### *Seasonal differences*

Parashar *et al.,* (2009) observed seasonal difference in the isolation rate and diversity of *Mycobacterium* species between winter, rainy and summer seasons, with higher isolation rates and more variable *Mycobacterium* species in winter than in summer and rainy season. Similarly, Chilima *et al.,* (2006) noted a higher *Mycobacterium* recovery rate during the dry season than the wet season. The authors also noted geographic variations between the different regions and *Mycobacterium* counts during the wet and the dry seasons.

#### *Temperature*

The association of NTM presence with high temperatures was reported (Harvelaar *et al.,* 1985; Kirschner *et al.,* 1992). To the contrary, other studies associated NTM presence with low temperatures in water and



soil (Kamala *et al.,* 1994; Bland *et al.,* 2005; Chilima *et al.,* 2006), or did not observe effect of temperature on NTM counts (Le Dantec, 2002a). The effect of temperature on *Mycobacterium* count is still a controversial issue probably because survival of mycobacteria in different temperatures differs from species to species, may be influenced by moisture and linked to survival of other bacteria at different temperatures that can hamper the detection of NTM (Livanainen *et al.,* 1997).

#### *Chemical treatment*

The presence of many NTM species in municipal drinking water supplies has been associated with their innate chlorine and biocide resistance (Falkinham *et al.,* 2001; Bland *et al.,* 2005; Steed and Falkinham*,*  2006). Le Dantec *et al.,* 2002a have shown that resistance of different *Mycobacterium* species to free chlorine is dependent on the concentration as well as other factors like temperature and pH. For instance, *M. gordonae* and *M. aurum* were shown to be more susceptible to chlorine than *M. fortuitum* and *M. chelonae.* However, even the most susceptible *Mycobacterium* species are more resistant to chlorine than *E. coli* (Le Dantec *et al.,* 2002a). Chlorine resistance was also reported to be dependent on the type of matrix in which the cells are grown (Steed and Falkinham, 2006). It was shown that *M. avium* and *M. intracellulare* grown in biofilm were more resistant to chlorine than cells grown in solution (Steed and Falkinham*,* 2006).

#### *pH*

The association of the acidity of the environment with *Mycobacterium* survival has been noted. Several studies have suggested that an increase in acidity increases the count of mycobacteria and decreases the counts of activity of other heterophobic bacteria (Brooks *et al.,* 1984). However, other studies have noted a positive correlation between the *Mycobacterium* counts and the number of heterotrophic bacteria



(Livanainen *et al.,* 1997). Humic and fulvic acids have been shown to positively favor growth of *Mycobacterium avium* (Kirtchner *et al.,* 1999). Mycobacteria have been isolated from acidic soil and waters (Brooks *et al.,* 1984; Livanainen *et al.,* 1993; 1999; Niva *et al.,* 2006). Contrarily, other studies noted no significant correlation between pH and environmental *Mycobacterium* counts (Bland *et al.,*  2005; Chilima *et al.,* 2006).

#### *Ability of mycobacteria to form biofilm*

The ability of certain *Mycobacterium* species to form biofilms has been reported as a survival strategy. MAC, in particular *M. avium* and *M. intracellulare* (Steed and Falkinham*,* 2006), *M. kansassii, M. flavescens* , *M. fortuitum* and *M. chelonae* (Schulze-Röbbecke *et al.,* 1992; Hall-Stoodley and Lappin-Scott, 1998), *M. gordonae, M. gilvum, M. abscessus* (September *et al.,* 2004), *M. terrae* and *M. non chromogenicum* (Schulze-Röbbecke *et al.,* 1992)are capable of forming biofilms and hence they can persist in flowing systems like water distribution systems and rivers, although they grow slowly. Organic substances such as plastic and rubber were reported to enable a large number of mycobacteria to form biofilm than inorganic substances such as copper and glass (Schulze-Röbbecke *et al.,* 1992).

#### *Different methods for identification of mycobacteria in the environment*

Methods for isolation and identification of NTM species from environmental samples may affect reported NTM distribution and diversity. Currently there is no standard method for *Mycobacterium* identification from environmental samples. Traditional culture methods for *Mycobacterium* isolation employing different decontaminating agents at different concentrations as well as different growth media and incubation temperatures and periods have been investigated (Neumann *et al.,* 1997; Parashar *et al.,* 2004;



Thomson *et al.,* 2013). Decontamination is employed in order to kill a maximum of non-mycobacterial contaminants like other water borne or soil borne bacteria and fungi and a minimum mycobacteria. Others have employed the use of direct polymerase chain reaction (PCR), cloning, followed by sequencing of the target gene and others have used denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis (DGGE) and pyro sequencing (Niva *et al.,* 2006; Pontiroli *et al.,* 2013). *Mycobacterium* identification from cultured isolates is either done by phenotypic methods including demonstration of acid fast bacilli by Ziehl Neelsen staining followed by microscopy and biochemical tests (Bahram *et al.,* 2014). Molecular based identification methods like PCR and sequencing of Mycobacterium housekeeping genes has proven to perform more accurately than phenotypic tests (Le Dantec *et al.,* 2002b). Even better, combined molecular approaches have been shown to enable more accurate diagnosis of mycobacteria from environmental samples (Pontiroli *et al.,* 2013). The use of these molecular approaches, whether directly or on culture isolates, has provided an important contribution to the understanding of *Mycobacterium* taxonomy and diversity**.** However, use of different *Mycobacterium* isolation and identification methods from environmental samples in different studies may have led to selection of certain mycobacteria over the others, resulting in different diversities reported. In addition, NTM diversity and distribution studies in the environment in different countries have only focused on certain regions, and no proper country wide surveys have been conducted. Hence NTM distribution in the environment is still poorly understood.



**Table 1.1: Summary of NTM diversity in environmental samples based on 24 studies published between the years 1994 and 2013 in different countries: 1.**  Kamala et al., 1994 (India); 2. Thomson et al., 2013 (Australia), 3 Chilima et al., 2006 (Malawi); 4 Torvinen et al., 2004 (Finland), 5 De Groote et al., 2006 (USA); 6 Le Dantec et al., 2002 (France), 7 Covert et al., 1999 (USA); 8 Parashar et al., 2009 (India); 9 Beran et al., 2006 (Czech Republic); 10 Kankya et al., 2011 (Uganda); 11 Rahbar et al., 2010 (Iran); 12 Shitaye et al., 2009 (Czech republic); 13 September et al., 2004 (South Africa); 14 Neumann et al., 1997 (Germany), 15 Narang et al., 2009 (India); 16 Bland et al., 2005 (USA), 17 Bahram et al., 2014 (Iran); 18 Pavlik et al., 2007 (Czech republic), 19 Wang et al., 2006 (Japan), 20 Pontiroli et al., 2013 (UK/Ethiopia), 21 Michel et al., 2007 (S.A), 22 Niva et al., 2006 (Finland); 23. Leoni et al., 1999 (Italy), 24. Portaels, 1995.







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SDW, water distribution system; PCR, polymerase chain reaction; PRA, PCR-restriction endonuclease analysis; DGGE, denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis; spp, species; \*, only isolated in USA in a study by Portaels, 1995 .



#### **1.2.6 Bovine tuberculosis: Epidemiology and Pathology**

Bovine tuberculosis causes significant losses in agriculture worldwide and is a public health hazard (Smith *et al.,* 2003; Phillips *et al*., 2003; Biet *et al.,* 2005). More than 50 million cattle are infected with *M. bovis* resulting in global economic loss of approximately 3 billion dollars a year (Schiller *et al.,* 2010). This disease has been has been reported in many species including domestic cattle, sheep, goat, pig, horse, cat, dog, deer, bison, buffalo, badger, possum, hare, ferret, wild boar and feral pig, antelope, Ilama, alpaca, and nonhuman primates (O'Reilley and Darbon, 1995, Hlokwe *et al.,* 2014).

Human infections with this micro-organism occur when infected, unpasteurized milk or infected meat is ingested, or when there is close contact with animals that have the disease. Transmission by ingestion often leads to extra-pulmonary TB where infection is usually seen in the cervix and axillary lymph nodes. The aerogenous infection of humans by aerosols from infected cattle also occurs. (Cosivi *et al.,* 1998; Kazwala, 1998; Biet *et al.,* 2005; Shitaye *et al.,* 2007). The incidence of bovine tuberculosis in humans is much lower than the disease caused by the human tubercle bacillus; however, the AIDS epidemic has increased the risk of transmission of *M. bovis* to humans. In fact, HIV infection results in increased susceptibility to all forms of mycobacterial disease (Collins, 2000, Karne *et al.*, 2012). This not only poses a risk of infection for other humans, but results in livestock and other animals being exposed to higher levels of BTB (Wedlock *et al.,* 2002). *M. bovis* pulmonary infections in humans are clinically, radiologically and pathologically indistinguishable from that caused by *M. tuberculosis* (Cosivi *et al.,*  1998).

Transmission amongst animals and from humans may occur from cases with open tuberculosis via the aerogenous route, spitting, coughing, congenital route, urinating or ingestion of contaminated material (Phillips *et al.,* 2003; Ayele *et al.,* 2004; Shitaye *et al.,* 2007). The pattern of lesions observed in



slaughtered animals is indicative of the route of transmission. Transmission by inhalation of aerosols is thought to result in the formation of lesions restricted to thoracic cavity, while animals with lesions in mesenteric lymph nodes are presumed to have been infected by ingestion (Pollock and Neill, 2002). The most common route of cattle-cattle as well as wildlife-wildlife transmission is the aerogenous route facilitated by respiratory excretion and inhalation of the bacterium (horizontal transmission). Vertical transmission is another alternative way of aerogenous transmission of the bacillus from cattle-cattle or wildlife-cattle and wildlife-wildlife. It occurs by inhalation of the contaminated environmental material like dust and grazing in infected pastures (Phillips *et al.,* 2003; Biet *et al.,* 2005). Transmission by ingestion (the oral route) is considered a secondary route of *M. bovis* transmission in cattle and occurs in scavenging animals like the cheetah and lion through ingestion of contaminated meat of their prey (De Lisle *et al.,* 2002).

Transmission studies suggest that the success of transmission is dependent on various factors such as host susceptibility, infective dose, frequency of excretion, the route of infection and the period of communicability. Animal experimental studies by Buddle *et al.,* (1994), and Neill *et al.,* (1988), where cattle were infected intratracheally and intranasally with different doses of *M. bovis* provided evidence that the infective dose has a profound influence on the severity of the diseases. Dean *et al.,* (2005), demonstrated that < 10 viable bacteria are sufficient to establish TB pathology that is similar to that seen in natural infection. Transmission studies conducted with housed cattle have also shown that bacterial shedding involves low numbers of the bacilli, suggesting that natural infection is usually initiated by a relatively low dose of *M. bovis* (Neill *et al.,* 1988; McCorry *et al.,* 2005). Transmission of *M. bovis* in many species is primarily by the aerogenous route.

During the course of infection, bacteria gain access to macrophages, once present in phagosomes they prevent their fusion with lysosomes, hence can multiply undisturbed (Aldwell *et al.,* 1997). When the pathogen reaches sufficient numbers, the cell dies and the released organisms are ingested by freshly

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recruited monocytes or macrophages. The infected macrophages produce cytokines and chemokines that attract other phagocytic cells including monocytes, other alveolar macrophages and neutrophils which eventually form the tubercle lesions (Dannenberg and Rook, 1994; van Crevel *et al.,* 2002; Ernst, 2012). The organism is subsequently disseminated to the lymph nodes and blood stream, and is deposited in the liver, spleen, kidney, bone, brain, meninges and the lung. Infected animals can remain for years without any clinical signs of disease even in advanced stages, until they are sent for slaughter (Collins *et al.,*  2000).

#### **1.2.7 Control of bovine tuberculosis in cattle and wildlife animals**

#### **1.2.7.1 Test and slaughter**

*M. bovis* eradication or reduction to very low levels in cattle has been achieved by implementation of control programs based on the test and slaughter principles, due to lack of effective vaccines. In some countries abattoir surveillance is used as a control strategy (Schiller *et al.,* 2010). Accurate diagnosis of BTB is crucial for these control strategies to be effective. With the advent of tuberculin, control programs based on test and slaughter were initiated as early as 1917 (Cousins and Roberts, 2001). These strategies included diagnosis via the tuberculin based tests, isolation of affected herds, sub-isolation of infected animals within affected herds, slaughter of the infected animals, and border testing policies. In countries with low BTB prevalence, these strategies were successful (Buddle *et al.,* 2006; Hope and Villareal-Ramos, 2008). In Australia BTB was officially eradicated in 1997 (Cousins and Roberts, 2001), and BTB prevalence was reduced from 5% to 0.0002% in USA (Palmer *et al.,* 2011). However, wildlife species such as the badger in the United Kingdom and Ireland (Gormley and Collins, 2000; Griffin *et al.,* 2005; Corner *et al.,*2011), the brush tail possum in New Zealand (Wedlock *et al.,* 2002), Cape buffalo and kudu



in South Africa (Bengis *et al.,* 2001), white-tailed deer and the bison in the United States of America and Canada, wild boar in Spain (Aranaz *et al.,* 2004), and several others elsewhere, are considered maintenance hosts for *M. bovis*. These species act as reservoirs of (re-) infection of both domestic animals and other wildlife species and thus are a severe hindrance to control and eradication programs in these countries. Once bovine tuberculosis establishes itself in a wildlife maintenance host, eradication of the disease becomes highly unlikely (Michel *et al.,* 2006)*.*

#### *Host immune responses are important for diagnosis and control of bovine tuberculosis*

A spectrum of immune responses develops in course of time after infection with *Mycobacterium bovis* and (Schluger and Rom 1998). These are generally categorized as cellular and humoral (antibody) immune responses. The cellular immune responses consist of both innate and the adaptive components and is driven by the intracellular nature of the bacillus. T cells respond to infection through production of several cytokines such as among others interferon gamma (IFNγ) which is considered to be involved in activation of macrophages, neutrophils, monocytes and dendritic cells (Ernst, 2012). Cell mediated immune responses to the tubercle bacilli have been shown by *in vitro* assays and skin testing *in vivo* in experimental animal models including mice, guinea pigs and cattle. These models have yielded considerable information on the mechanism of immunity (Ernst, 2012). The prominent role of IFN $\gamma$ , thought to be protective, is well established and therefore widely used as a marker of infection/protection**.** Other cytokines produced in *M. bovis* specific immune responses may have a role in diagnosis of BTB. These are among others, tumor necrosis factor, (TNF-α), interleukin 1 beta (IL-1ß) (Jones *et al.* 2010), IL-6, IL-12, IL-18, IL15, IL 17 (Armanda-Cortes *et al.,* 2012). It is generally accepted that cell mediated responses predominate early in the disease and Interferon gamma, measured in the IFNγ assay also



known as the Interferon gamma release assay (IGRA) almost co-incides with a positive tuberculin skin test and later on humoral responses develop, reflected by the presence of antibodies in serum as illustrated in Figure 1.5. Finally cell mediated immune responses may gradually wane. While it is generally accepted that very recently infected cattle fail to respond to the tuberculin skin test, there is an uncertainty on the actual time course of the infection/immune responsiveness. (Pollock and Neill 2002, Welsh *et al.,* 2005). The shift from cellular immune response to antibody production is associated with progression to clinical signs of BTB. (Yaersley *et al.,* 1998). The most widely used immunological diagnostic test internationally for control of bovine tuberculosis through test and slaughter strategies is the tuberculin skin test. So far the IFN gamma assay is applied either as a confirmatory test of skin test reactors or alongside the TST to increase the sensitivity (Schiller *et al.,* 2010). Both assays measure cell mediated immunity (CMI).



**Fig 1.5: Immunology of tuberculosis (extract from Pollock and Neill, 2002)** 



#### **1.2. 7.1.1 Cell mediated immunity based assays for BTB.**

#### *Tuberculin skin test (TST)*

TST has been a convenient and cost effective method for assessing cell mediated immune responses to a variety of antigens (Schiller *et al.,* 2010). TST measures dermal swelling which peaks three days after intradermal injection of purified protein derivative (PPD). BTB eradication programs around the world have successfully relied on the TST to diagnose *M. bovis* infection in cattle and some wildlife species. Two types of TST are in use *i.e.* the single intradermal test (SIT) and the single intradermal comparative cervical tuberculin test (SICCT). Both rely upon the delayed type hypersensitivity response to tuberculins or PPD. The SIT uses PPD made from *M. bovis* (PPD-B) alone and can be carried out as the caudal fold test (CFT) (mainly used in countries like USA, Australia and New Zealand ) or as an injection into the skin on the side of the neck. The SICCT (mainly applied in countries like South Africa and other parts of Africa) uses PPD-B and PPD prepared from *Mycobacterium avium* (PPD-A) (Vordermeier *et al.,*  2006). PPD-A is used as a control antigen representative of the background responses induced by environmental mycobacterial antigens (Schiller *et al.,* 2010). Responses to bovine and avian tuberculins are then compared according to OIE guidelines (standard interpretations) or those developed by national eradication programs (Schiller *et al.,* 2010). For standard interpretations, if the reaction to bovine tuberculin is more than 4mm greater than the reaction to avian, the animal is considered to be infected with BTB and is called a reactor (OIE-terrestrial manual, 2009). Sometimes severe interpretations involving lowering the cut-off for animals to be classed as reactors are used so as to enhance the sensitivity of the test (de la Rua-Domenech, 2006).

Several lines of evidence support very high estimated specificity of the CFT. Estimates of as high as 98% have been reported in Australia (Whipple *et al.,* 1995) and 98% in USA (Francis *et al.,* 1976). The test's



relative sensitivity remains moderate, with estimates ranging from 55.1%-90.9% when the standard interpretations are used (Neill *et al.,* 1994; Costello *et al.,* 1997). Sensitivity estimation of TST is challenging as it is always based on animal population it is applied to but not necessarily the population of animals the test will be used on. Therefore sensitivity may differ from country to country. In addition, sensitivity of the SICCT is reported to increase when severe interpretations are used instead of standard interpretation, but at the expense of reduced test specificity. SIT is found to have a relatively higher sensitivity than SICCT, but the test specificity is compromised by lack of the control of immune responsiveness to environmental mycobacteria (de la Rua-Domenech, 2006).

The main disadvantages of the TST test in Africa, especially in the wildlife context, are the need for trained technicians for correct reading and interpretation of the skin swelling and the fact that reading can only be done 72 hours after intradermal injection of tuberculin, which requires two immobilizations and potentially a period of captivity (Michel *et al.,* 2011). Test performance may vary because of differences in tuberculin doses, commercial PPD preparations used and differences in interpretation schemes (Schiller *et al.,* 2010).

#### *Interferon-gamma (IFNγ) assay*

The IFNγ assay measures the production of this Interferon gamma after antigenic stimulation of whole blood with PPD (Schiller *et al*., 2010). As such it broadly measures the same response as the intradermal skin test. Blood samples are collected and transported to the laboratory within 8 hours of sampling where they are stimulated with PPD-B and PPD-A and incubated at 37°C. The supernatant is harvested after 24 hours and the IFNγ produced is quantified by an ELISA using the commercial BOVIGAMTM kit (Prionics, Netherlands/ Switzerland). The BOVIGAMTM assay is applied only in bovine species. In its basic form, the BOVIGAMTM test positivity is determined by comparing responses to PPD-B and PPD-



A. An advantage of the IFNγ assay is that both sensitivity and specificity can be adjusted by altering the criteria (cut-off values) for defining a positive reactor (Whipple *et al.,* 2001; Palmer *et al.,* 2006). Other practical advantages of the IFNγ assay as an *in vitro* assay include more repeat testing when necessary without having to wait for several days between the TST to avoid desensitization of reactivity of the animals towards the tuberculins. Furthermore the IFNγ assay gives an opportunity to employ a range of *M. bovis* specific (recombinant) antigens or PPDs prepared from other mycobacteria when maximizing specificity or relative sensitivity. Different studies have reported estimates of the assay sensitivity ranging from 73% - 100% and specificity from 85%-99.6% (de la Rua-Domenech, 2006). Just like with the skin test, these discrepancies could be due to among other factors, differences in the commercial PPD preparation and test protocols. Even though the relative sensitivity of IFN gamma assay is reported by several studies to be higher than that of the TST, lower test specificity raises a lot of concerns (Schiller *et al.,* 2010). Efforts to improve the specificity involved replacement of the PPD with defined antigens (Vordermeier *et al.,* 1999).With the advancement in molecular biology (and in particular the elucidation of the genomes of *M. bovis, M. bovis* BCG and *M. tuberculosis* and the use of comparative genomics), identification of regions in the genomes of *M. tuberculosis* and *M. bovis* which are absent in the *M. bovis*  BCG strain and most NTM species provides an opportunity for the development of new diagnostic tools which can be useful in improving the specificity of the IFNγ assay (Pollock *et al.,* 2003). These *M. tuberculosis* complex 'specific' regions encode a number of proteins that are immunogenic. One example is the use of the Region of Difference 1 (RD1) in the *M. tuberculosis* complex, containing operons encoding dominant T-cell antigens. The predominant antigens in this region are the Early Secreted Antigenic Target-6 (ESAT-6), and Culture Filtrate Protein 10 (CFP 10). Genes encoding the ESAT-6 and CFP 10 antigens have been shown to be absent in *M. bovis* BCG strains and most NTM strains that have been investigated so far, but present in the members of the *M. tuberculosis* complex (Harboe *et al.,*  1996). Due to their absence in many of the species, especially *M. bovis* BCG, tthese antigens are



nowadays employed in whole blood IFNγ assays for the detection of *M. tuberculosis* complex infection (Pollock *et al*., 2003). Although the use of a single antigen or a pool of defined antigens might be more specific than the use of PPD, sensitivity might be compromised. Several studies using ESAT-6 and CFP 10 have overall demonstrated a reduced sensitivity of approximately 10% compared to PPD (Pollock *et al.,* 2000; Buddle *et al.,* 2003; Vordermeier *et al*., 2006). Therefore, a wider range of antigens in addition to antigens like ESAT-6 and CFP 10 is needed to improve sensitivity. Several other defined antigens encoded in the *M. bovis* genome and not in BCG have been evaluated as diagnostic markers for BTB. When a cocktail of ESAT-6, CFP 10 combined with Rv3615c was used an improved specificity of 97% and relative sensitivity of 89% was demonstrated (Vordermeier *et al.,* 2009).

#### **1.2.7.1.2. Antibody based assays for BTB diagnosis**:

Application of antibody-based assays for TB diagnosis and surveillance offer the possibility of convenient, flexible and cost-effective test platforms. The establishment of these assays has proven to be stagnant most probably due the slow and progressive nature of the disease; the assays cannot diagnose early infections. In the early development of these assays, the use of crude mycobacterial preparations generated satisfactory sensitivity but specificity was very poor, probably due to cross reactivity with NTM. Identification of defined immuno-dominant antigens for use in the different antibody assays offered potential to improve specificity (Schiller *et al.*, 2010). These antigen discovery efforts have led to the development of a number of antibody based assays employing single antigens, antigen cocktails or multiple epitope fusion peptides. The two most sero-dominant antigens of *M. bovis* are MPB70 and MPB83 have been applied in several of these assays. MPB83 has been the cornerstone in development of the assays employing multiple-antigens (Schiller, 2010). Antigen cocktails and multi epitope fusion proteins have been used to demonstrate improved sensitivity (Waters *et al.,* 2006; Lyashchenko *et al.,* 

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2008). The multiple antigen print immunoassay or MAPIA has been useful for screening responses by various host species to determine antigen recognition pattern and kinetics of responses to various antigens during the course of infection or even in response to antibiotic therapy. The optimal antigens (improved specificity and sensitivity) as defined by MAPIA, were incorporated in a lateral flow immunoassay format, called the 'Rapid test' (Greenwald *et al.,* 2003, Michel and Simões, 2008). The sensitivity and specificity estimates of the 'Rapid test' in badgers were reported to be 53% and 98% respectively, an improvement from the ELISA test employing a single MPB83 antigen (sensitivity estimates of 47% and specificity of 89%) (Greenwald *et al.,* 2003). Other promising developments include a fluorescence polarization assay (FPA) (Jolley *et al.,* 2007), a 96- well plate multiplex system (Whelan *et al.,* 2008), a dual platform assay (Green *et al.,* 2009), a chemilumiscent platform (Green *et al.,* 2009), and an improved ELISA (Schiller *et al.,* 2010). Field studies with these assays have shown to be encouraging, with high estimated specificities of >95% (Meyer and Orloski, 2007; Whelan *et al.,* 2008). However, exact estimates of test accuracy under varying herd prevalence rates are still pending and more work still needs to be done to improve the sensitivities of these assays (Schiller *et al.,* 2010). The FPA detects antibody responses to a small peptide of MPB70. Though the assay is highly specific (>99%), it has also been shown to lack sensitivity (26%), probably due to the nature of bovine immune responses to this antigen (Meyer and Orloski 2007; Ngandolo *et al.,* 2009; Schiller *et al.,* 2010). A systematic review and metaanalysis of 67 studies published between May 2006 and June 2010, based on serological TB assays for pulmonary and 25 studies of extra- pulmonary human TB revealed that, these assays produce inconsistent estimates of sensitivity (0%-100% for both pulmonary and extra pulmonary) and specificity (31%-100% for pulmonary and 59%-100% for extra pulmonary TB). The authors concluded that quality evidence still remain low for serological diagnosis of human TB (Steingart *et al.,* 2011).



#### **1.2.7.2 Vaccination as a strategy for BTB control**

Vaccination of livestock and wildlife represents an alternative to test and slaughter for control of BTB that should prevent the disease from persisting in the maintenance host on the longer term. Vaccination of livestock against BTB could be an import control strategy for BTB especially in countries with a wildlife reservoir or that cannot afford implementation of the 'test and slaughter' control strategy (Buddle *et al.,* 2013). Currently the only registered vaccine against BTB is the human vaccine, the *M. bovis* BCG. The development, successes and failures of the attenuated *M. bovis* BCG vaccine strains for human immunization against TB have been documented (Anderson and Doherty, 2005). Clinical trials evaluating the efficacy of BCG in humans have demonstrated variability in efficacy, ranging from 0% in South India and Africa to 80% in the UK (Brandt *et al.,* 2002; Black *et al.,* 2002). High levels of exposure to NTM of human populations where BCG vaccination is less effective have triggered investigation of the effect of NTM in both humans and animals. For instance, protection against pulmonary TB after BCG vaccination could not be observed in Africa and South India where NTM-PPD responders are more abundant than in UK (Black *et al.,* 2002). Likewise variable efficacy of BCG vaccination has been observed in cattle (Buddle *et al.,* 2011). There are several proposed explanations for this variability, but the most compelling hypothesis is the interference or inhibition of protection by environmental mycobacteria (Fine *et al.,* 1995; Buddle *et al.,* 2002; Thom *et al.,* 2008).



#### **1.2.7.2.1 BCG vaccination against tuberculosis in cattle**

BCG was first evaluated in cattle ten years before its delivery to a human infant in 1921 (Locht, 2010). Since the 1900s numerous experimental and field studies have been performed in cattle to investigate the use of BCG as a vaccine against BTB and efficacies reported in cattle ranged from complete success (Calmette and Guérin, 1920; 1924; Sibgatullin, 1982), minimal benefit (Haring *et al.,* 1930; Doyle and Stuart*,* 1958) to no benefit (Watson, 1928; Berggren, 1977; 1981). Several other studies conducted have failed to demonstrate a suitable level of efficacy of BCG in cattle (Waters *et al.,* 2012). Potential reasons for BCG failure in these field trials in general included the use of high doses of BCG  $(10^8\t{-}10^{10} \text{ CFU})$ now known to be less effective than lower doses; BCG trials were often performed in regions with high *M. bovis* prevalence and cows may have been exposed to *M. bovis* early in their lives (Waters *et al.,*  2012). Other tested parameters included the suitable routes of delivery which ranged from oral, intravenous, intradermal and subcutaneous; and also the use of killed or live bacilli, and single or booster doses (Haring *et al.,* 1930, Buddle *et al.,* 2011).

Even though the study designs, bacterial strains used as well as the doses and routes of infections in most of initial studies and the more refined recent studies varied, additional observations are still applicable, such as: single dose provides significant protection against subsequent experimental challenge with virulent *M. bovis*, field vaccination results in variable efficacy (0%-80%), live bacilli are required for protection , and re-vaccination does not improve efficacy and vaccine can be delivered orally but needs higher doses to achieve equivalent protection with parenteral administration (Buddle *et al.,* 2003; Wedlock *et al.,* 2011; Buddle *et al.,* 2011; Buddle *et al.,* 2013). In addition, in recent BCG field trials it was shown that vaccination at birth induces high levels of protection; sensitization of very young animals

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to environmental mycobacteria by 6 weeks of age do not affect the effectiveness of BCG (Howard *et al.,*  2002; Buddle *et al.,* 2003; Hope *et al.,* 2005; de Lisle *et al.,* 2005; Thom *et al.,* 2008); revaccination of neonatal calves (after 6 weeks) with BCG reduces the protective effect of BCG (Buddle *et al.,* 2003); Pasteur and Danish strains provide similar efficacy (Wedlock *et al.*, 2007); 10<sup>4</sup> - 10<sup>6</sup> CFU of BCG induce similar levels of protection (Buddle *et al.,* 1995). Immunization with *Mycobacterium avium* has been shown to induce some protection against *M. bovis* (Buddle *et al.* 2002; Hope *et al.,* 2005; Bastida and Juste 2011). Highlights on the history of BTB vaccine research as reviewed by Waters *et al.,* 2012 are summarized in Table 1.2.

A recent study for the evaluation of BCG by field trials in cattle performed in Mexico indicated a reduction in the number of cattle being infected **(**Buddle *et al.,* 2011). Another study in Ethiopia demonstrated an encouraging protective effect of BCG, showing at least 56% protection of cattle against bovine tuberculosis in a natural transmission setting (Ameni *et al.,* 2010).

Another major problem with the use of BCG vaccination in cattle is that vaccination causes sensitization thus compromising diagnosis by tuberculin based tests like TST or interferon gamma assay. This is due to the fact that most antigens present in the *M. bovis* purified protein derivative (PPD) are also present in *M. bovis* BCG. Differentiation of infected from vaccinated animal (DIVA) strategies using defined antigens that are absent in BCG but present in MTBC, have been applied for the assurance of infection status prior to movement of vaccinated cattle.(Vordermeier *et al.,* 1999;Millington *et al.,* 2011; Marongui *et al.,* 2013).



#### **1.2.7.2.2 Other candidate vaccines against BTB in cattle**

In spite of efforts to test other mycobacterial strains as vaccine candidates, like *Mycobacterium microti*  and *Mycobacterium vaccae, M. bovis* BCG is still the most promising vaccine candidate for BTB. *M. vaccae* was not shown to be effective in cattle against experimental challenge with *M. bovis* (Waters *et al.,* 2012). Practical applications of *M. microti* as a vaccine were infeasible despite the demonstrated protection superior to BCG and the fact that revaccination after 4-6 months provided boosting of the immunity, probably due to variations of its virulence in cattle (Waters *et al.,* 2012). There have been several other approaches for TB vaccine development in cattle including the use of: attenuated *M*. *tuberculosis* complex strains, DNA vaccines, protein sub-unit vaccines and live-virus vectored vaccines. The review by Buddle *et al.,* 2011, of vaccination trials conducted in cattle using different vaccines and showing variable effects is summarized in table 1.3.

#### **1.2.7.2.3 BCG vaccination trials in wildlife for control of BTB**

Vaccination of wildlife species is being considered by several countries as a strategy to control BTB (Buddle *et al.,* 2013). It is believed that problems associated with TB vaccination in cattle may not necessarily apply in vaccination of wildlife and protection does not have to be complete (Buddle *et al.,*  2013). In most countries, diagnostic tests are rarely available/ used for wildlife. In South Africa however, it is a regulation that buffaloes be tested for BTB and other diseases before movement (http://www.daff.gov.za). Vaccination in wildlife can, however, present several challenges. The choice of vaccine is limited as the most practical method of vaccine delivery is by oral baits and revaccination of animals may not be a practical option (Buddle *et al.,* 2011). Challenges associated with control of variables relevant to oral delivery include: dose of vaccine consumed, the number of animals receiving



the vaccine, age of vaccination, uptake by non-target species, prior exposure to *Mycobacterium* species, and vaccine viability in the field (Waters *et al.,* 2012; Buddle *et al.,* 2013). An alternative strategy for some wildlife species would be to capture, TB test, and mark, vaccinate (parenteral) and release the animal. This strategy can be applied in a limited area as it is too labor intensive and costly for large scale applications (Buddle *et al.,* 2013).

Studies have been conducted to evaluate the critical variables that influence the efficacy, safety, and application of BCG in several wildlife species including the white tailed deer, (Nol *et al.*, 2008; Palmer *et al.*, 2009), brush tail possums and ferrets (Aldwell *et al.*, 2003; Buddle *et al.,* 2006; Tompkins *et al.,*  2009; 2013), Eurasian badgers (Corner *et al.,* 2008a; b; c; Lesellier *et al*., 2009; Chambers *et al.,* 2011); wild boar (Garrido *et al.,* (2011) and African buffalo (de Klerk *et al.,* 2010).

Results on the efficacy ranged from no protection in African buffaloes (de Klerk *et al.,* 2010), poor in wild boar (Garrido *et al.,* 2011) and to a very high level of efficacy (95%) in possums (Tompkins *et al.,* 2009). Some of the observations from these trials are that there was no difference in performance between the Danish and the Pasteur strains and that there was no difference observed when a  $10^7$  or  $10^8$  CFU were used in possums (Buddle *et al.,* 2006). It was also shown that protection of badgers increased when intramuscular vaccination was increased by tenfold to  $10^6$  CFU (Lesellier, *et al.*, 2011). Oral or subcutaneous vaccination of white tailed deer was shown to significantly reduce the severity of the disease (Palmer *et al.,* 2007; Nol *et al.,* 2008). Another observation was that BCG could persist for nine months in deer vaccinated subcutaneously (Palmer *et al.,* 2009).

Other vaccine trials included evaluation of attenuated *M. bovis* vaccine which gave more protection in brush tail possums against experimental tuberculosis infection than BCG (Collins *et al.,* 2007). On the other hand, killed *M. bovis* as a vaccine evaluated against BTB in wild boar gave some protection, as did



the BCG (Garrido *et al.,* 2011). Re-vaccination of wild boar with BCG showed strong protective response (Gortazar *et al.,* 2014). An increased protection against BTB was observed in brush tail possum when a heat killed *M. vaccae* was used in combination with BCG (Skinner *et al.,* 2002). A summary of recent trials for wildlife vaccination is shown in table 1.4, adopted from Buddle *et al.,* 2013.



### Table 1.2: Highlights in tuberculosis vaccine research from 1901-2010 (reviewed by Waters *et al.,* 2012)







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### **Table 1.3: Recent vaccination trials in cattle to assess protection against bovine tuberculosis (2005-2009) (reviewed by Buddle** *et al.,* **2011)**



This table was extracted from Buddle *et al.,* 2011.

<sup>a</sup> Greater than  $(>)$ , less than  $(>)$  or similar  $(=)$  protection compared to BCG; these differences were not statistically assessed


# **Table 1.4: Vaccination / challenge trials of tuberculosis vaccines administered to wildlife by injection or oral routes**



The table was extracted from Buddle et al., 2013 and modified. BCG, bacilli Calmette Guérin; <sup>a, p</sup>rotection is defined as a significant reduction in bacterial counts or lesion severity compared with non-vaccinated animals



# **1.2.8 Consequences of prior exposure of animals to NTM on** *M. bovis* **BCG vaccination and diagnosis of BTB**

It has been hypothesized that exposure to some NTM species results in inappropriate priming of host immune responses. Exceptionally, a consistently high protective efficacy has been demonstrated when BCG is used to vaccinate neonates (less likely to be exposed to NTM) but wanes over years, and was not able to protect adult cattle (Buddle *et al.,* 2002; Thom *et al.,* 2008). Two mechanisms for the variable efficacy of BCG have been hypothesized *viz* 'blocking', which implies that the previous immunity induced by the exposure to environmental mycobacteria restricts the growth of BCG; or 'masking', which implies that BCG is unable to confer any additional immunity to that already induced by the natural NTM exposure that may not necessarily be protective (Brandt *et al.,* 2002; Weir *et al*., 2006). The possibility that cross-reactive immune responses may have a direct antagonistic effect due to antigens that are present in NTM and absent in BCG have also been investigated (Checkley *et al.,* 2011). These responses may result in reduction in antigen- specific IFNγ, an essential component of BCG vaccine induced resistance as well the diagnosis of tuberculosis. Several lines of evidence also suggest that differences in exposure to NTM and cross-sensitization to shared mycobacterial antigens may be important determining factors to the observed BCG efficacy variations (Demangel *et al.,* 2005). The possibility that various NTM species can trigger immune responses that can cross-protect against subsequent infection with pathogenic mycobacteria, was evaluated by Youmas and others in 1961 in guinea pigs, in particular against *M. tuberculosis* infection. Further studies to test the hypothesis were conducted by Palmer and Long in 1966 where they found that infection with *M. fortuitum* and *M. kansasii* could actually provide as much as 50% and 85% protective efficacy respectively against *M. tuberculosis* as that produced by BCG alone. Further evidence has subsequently shown that exposure of laboratory animals to different *Mycobacterium* species can provide some protection against infection with *M. tuberculosis* or *M. bovis*



which might interfere with immune response to subsequent BCG vaccination. *M. avium* complex (Brandt *et al.,* 2002; Poyntz *et al.,* 2014); *M. vaccae*; *M. scrofulaceum* (Black *et al.,* 2001; Demangel *et al.,* 2005) and *M. marinum* (Weir *et al.,* 2006) have been reported to induce immune responses that later interfere with BCG vaccination in mice experiments. It is suggested that since immune responsiveness to environmental mycobacteria correlates with genetic relatedness to *M. bovis* BCG, the inhibitory effect of environmental mycobacteria critically depends on the extent of cross- recognition of antigens shared with *M. bovis* BCG (Demangel *et al.,* 2005).

This is one major hindrance to control of BTB. A concern especially in Africa is that BCG is still the only available licensed vaccine against tuberculosis and there is a high TB prevalence in both humans and animals.

Similarly, the cross- reactive immune responses elicited by NTM are also thought to have a negative impact on the diagnosis of BTB using tuberculin based immunological assays (Michel, 2008; Schiller *et al.,* 2010). Likewise, *M. bovis* BCG may influence the outcome of immunological assays because of cross-reactive immune responses to antigens common to MTBC, NTM and *M. bovis* BCG, leading to false positive results (Vordermeier *et al.,* 2007; Vordermeier *et al.,* 2009). These specificity constraints are thought to be mainly associated with the use of PPD a crude mixture of proteins that may contain common epitopes present in both NTM and MTBC (including *M. bovis* BCG). Even though PPDs are widely used in immunological assays for BTB, little is known about the active components of these derivatives. Therefore, although the measure of the response to PPD is an important aid in TB diagnosis, it is possible that in some cases it only gives an indication of exposure to mycobacteria, and not necessarily the true BTB status of an animal. Even though the DIVA strategies have been introduced to differentiate between infected and vaccinated animals, these may not necessarily apply to differentiate between NTM infected and *M. bovis* infected animals. This is because the targeted genes like those



encoding for ESAT-6 and CFP 10 antigens are also present in some non-tuberculous mycobacteria, most notably *M. kansasii, M. marinum, M. leprae, M. szulgai* and *M. smegmatis* (Gey van Pittius *et al.,* 2002, Geluk *et al.,* 2004). In some of these NTM, like the *M. kansasii,* the antigen homologues have been reported to be expressed and even recognized by bovine T-cell (Vordermeier *et al.,* 2007).

Since animals are frequently exposed to NTM, tuberculin based tests as well as BCG vaccination strategies may suffer from problems of cross- reactive immune responses. (Mazurek *et al.,* 2001; Schiller *et al.,* 2010). This is a hindrance in control of BTB.

Therefore; future diagnostic assays including CMI and antibody based tests will likely employ the use of PPD for improved test sensitivity and defined antigens for improved test specificity. Santema *et al.,*  (2009) have used proteomic analysis of PPD from *Mycobacterium avium* subsp. *paratuberculosis*  (MAP), *Mycobacterium avium* subsp. *avium* and *Mycobacterium bovis* in order to identify MAP specific proteins and to investigate their immunogenicity. The proteome analysis showed that the PPDs possess shared proteins which may most likely be responsible for cross- reactive immune responses. Therefore, knowledge of the composition of the PPDs may enable the rational design of tuberculins with selected immunogenic non-cross-reactive proteins or peptides. Comparative genomic and proteomic studies of the prevalent NTM species (animals most likely exposed to) in a particular region and *M. bovis* may help in selection of *M. bovis* specific immuno-dominant antigens as candidates for diagnosis of mycobacterial infections.

In South Africa, cattle and buffalo are maintenance hosts for *M. bovis*. In this study we first determined NTM prevalence and defined the abundant species in South African cattle and buffaloes and their environments in order to mitigate and understand the potential role of NTM in cross reactive -immune responsiveness of these hosts species against BTB. We identified novel NTM species which were among the abundant and characterized them by a series of phenotypic assays as well as determination of the



genetic sequences of the four of the mycobacterial housekeeping genes. Whole genomes of the abundant NTM species were deciphered and searched for genes encoding proteins that are considered immunogenic in pathogenic mycobacteria *i.e.* mainly *M. bovis.* We produced PPDs from these NTM species and determined their protein composition and compared to the proteome of commercial PPDs derived from *M. bovis* (PPD-B) and *M. avium* (PPD-A) used in TST and IFNγ assays.



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# **1.4 Problem statement**

South African livestock and wildlife are exposed to environmental mycobacteria, whether concurrently with *M. bovis* or alone. These NTM may potentially elicit broadly cross-reactive immune responses which may interfere with current standard diagnostic assays for BTB, namely TST, the IFN $\gamma$  and serological tests.

# **1.5 Hypothesis**

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There are highly prevalent NTM species in South Africa which possess immunogenic proteins with a potential to induce significant cross-reactive immune responses in cattle and African buffaloes. These immune responses interfere with the current immuno-diagnostic assays for BTB, *viz* TST, IFNγ assay, as well as serological assays.

# **1.6 Objectives of the study**

1. To investigate the diversity, distribution and prevalence of NTM in South African cattle, African buffaloes and their environments by conducting a survey from samples (bovine and buffalo tissues, nasal and pharyngeal swabs, soil, water and milk) collected from different regions.

2. To characterize the selected abundant NTM isolates by molecular and phenotypic methods.

3. To decipher the genomes of the selected prevalent NTM species and compare them to those of pathogenic mycobacteria, *viz M. bovis* and *M. tuberculosis* with a particular focus on genes encoding immunogenic proteins.



4. To conduct comparative proteomic analysis of PPD derived from the selected prevalent NTM species to the commercially available PPDs (Bovine and Avian PPDs) used in the tuberculin based tests.

5. To investigate the potential of the selected NTM species to elicit an immune response using combined genomic and proteomic analysis.



# **CHAPTER 2. PREVALENCE AND DISTRIBUTION OF NON-TUBERCULOUS MYCOBACTERIA (NTM) IN CATTLE, AFRICAN BUFFALOES (SYNCERUS CAFFER) AND THEIR ENVIRONMENTS IN SOUTH AFRICA**

*GCEBE N, RUTTEN V, GEY VAN PITTIUS NC, MICHEL A (2013)*. *Transboundary and Emerging Diseases* **60:74-84.** 



# **2.1 Abstract**

It has been hypothesized that a variety of NTM species to which livestock and wildlife species are naturally exposed, induce broadly cross reactive anti-mycobacterial immune responses which interfere with current standard diagnostic assays. NTM have also been implicated in *Mycobacterium bovis* specific immune responsiveness, hence potentially the development of tuberculosis. Cattle and African buffaloes are both maintenance hosts of bovine tuberculosis (BTB) in South Africa, yet the effective diagnosis and control in these species may be hampered by adverse effects of NTM. As part of an investigation of the role of NTM in the immune responsiveness of cattle and African buffalo to NTM, we conducted a countrywide survey to establish the prevalent NTM species and their distribution in the natural environments (water and soil) of cattle and African buffaloes. A total of 1123 samples (water, soil, nasal and pharyngeal swabs) were collected for Mycobacterium isolation. In addition, NTM isolated from tissue samples between 1991 and 2011 were included in the analysis. Mycobacteria were isolated from 56% of the samples from the countrywide survey. A total of 420 NTM isolates from soil, water, animal tissues, and animal derived swab samples were genotyped with the following results: 302 belonged to 40 known NTM species, 79 were found to be closely related to 23 known NTM species, and 38 isolates were found to be potential novel species that are not currently listed in the RIDOM and NCBI BLAST databases. The four NTM species or closely related groups most frequently isolated in this survey included *Mycobacterium terrae* (11.2% of isolates)*,* a group of mycobacteria closely related to *Mycobacterium moriokaense* (referred to as *M. moriokaense-*like) (8.1 % of isolates), *Mycobacterium nonchromogenicum* (7.4% of isolates) and *Mycobacterium vaccae/ M. vanbaalenii* (5.2% of isolates). The phylogenetic analysis of the *M. moriokaense* like isolates, based on the 16s rRNA sequences, revealed at least 8 clusters, possibly associated with 8 different NTM species. Our findings provide account of NTM species diversity and associated prevalences in cattle and African buffaloes and their



environments in South Africa. The identification of the most prevalent NTM species in this study will allow for a targeted investigation of their effects on host immune responses.

**Keywords: NTM,** *Mycobacterium nonchromogenicum, Mycobacterium moriokaense, Mycobacterium terrae, Mycobacterium vaccae, M. vanbaalenii*

# **2.2 Introduction**

It is hypothesized that different non-tuberculous Mycobacterium (NTM) species induce broadly cross reactive immune responses in livestock and wildlife species to which they are exposed. These immune responses interfere with current standard diagnostic assays, namely the skin test and the interferon γassay (Michel, 2008; Michel *et al.,* 2010; Schiller *et al.,* 2010), as well as with the efficacy of the *M. bovis* BCG vaccine against tuberculosis (Brandt *et al.,* 2002; Weir *et a*l., 2006). The use of purified protein derivative (PPD), a crude mixture of proteins that may contain epitopes common in NTM as well as *M. bovis*, in the tuberculin skin test (TST) and the gamma interferon assay, is thought to be the cause of these cross reactive immune responses (Schiller *et al., .* 2010). The efficacy of *M*. *bovis* BCG vaccine varies from about 70% to 0% protection in cattle (Berggren, 1981; Vordermeier *et al.,* 2002; Ameni *et al.,* 2010). Variability of the efficacy of *M. bovis* BCG is also observed in humans, ranging from 80% to 0%, with consistently low efficacy in many tropical regions of the world (Fine, 1989; Hart and Sutherland; Ponnighaus *et al.,* 1992; Arbeláez *et al.,* 2000). However, a consistent high efficacy is seen when BCG is used to vaccinate newborns (Rodrigues *et al,* 1991; Colditz *et al.,* 1995). It is hypothesized that exposure to NTM may affect the efficacy of *M. bovis* BCG due to antigens that are common to both BCG and NTM that may provide cross-priming effects with either positive or negative consequences (Kamala *et al.,* 1996; Brandt *et al.,* 2002; Young *et al.,* 2007). Similarly, NTM may influence the



development of tuberculosis in animal hosts after natural infection (Buddle *et al.,* 2002; Brandt *et al.,* 2002). NTM distribution in animal populations and the epidemiology of these bacterial species is poorly understood, compared to that of *M. bovis*, but it is assumed that NTM species isolated from animals and their environment in a particular region represent the distribution of the NTM species in that region. This may give the opportunity to study immune responsiveness due to NTM as well as the consequences of these immune responses for experimental vaccination and disease progression after infection with *M. bovis.* Worldwide, cattle are the main hosts of *M. bovis* amongst domestic animals (Cousins, 2001). In South Africa, African buffaloes (*Syncerus caffer*) are considered the most important wildlife maintenance host for *M. bovis* (de Vos *et al.,* 2001; Rodwell *et al.,* 2001), and *M. bovis* has been isolated from buffalo on numerous occasions in South African national parks and private game reserves (Bengis *et al.,* 1996; Michel *et al.,* 2006; 2009, Hlokwe *et al.,* 2011). Sequencing and phylogenetic analysis of the Mycobacterium house- keeping genes, like the 16S rRNA has been used routinely to identify NTM and investigate their diversity (Harmsen *et al.,*2003) . This study aimed to identify the NTM species diversity and associated prevalences in cattle and African buffalo, and their environments in South Africa, by sequencing of the 16S rRNA of the isolated NTM as well as phylogenetic analysis of the very closely related sequences.



# **2.3 Materials and Methods**

## **2.3.1 Sample collection**

A countrywide survey was conducted for sample collection for NTM isolation between April 2010 and December 2012. In addition NTM isolates collected from tissue samples between the years 1991-2011 and stored at -20°C were used. Samples from both the country wide survey and the stored isolates were collected at 119 sites distributed across geographic and climatic regions in South Africa. Sampling sites were selected by accordingly identified State Veterinary Offices and largely represented convenience sampling.

A total of 1123 samples (570 nasal and pharyngeal swabs, 143 water samples and 410 soil samples) were collected during the country wide survey (during no particular season) from Kruger National Park, private game reserves, and livestock farms (communal and commercial) across South Africa. The criteria for sample collection during this survey were: 1) Samples included water, soil, and nasal/pharyngeal swabs from cattle at each sampling site; 2) country wide distribution of sampling sites including all geographical and climatic areas; 3) In pertinent cases, isolation of two or more NTM species from the same sample would be considered as separate isolates.

Nasal and pharyngeal swab samples were collected from live buffalo and cattle, as well as soil and water from the habitats of these animals. Soil samples were collected from the cattle grazing camps, crush pens, kraals, commonages, and buffalo capture bomas and around parks where buffalo are seen. In certain cases only environmental samples were collected due to logistical constraints in obtaining samples from animals. Water samples were collected from dams where these animals drink, animal drinking pans,



troughs and stagnant river sites. From each site soil samples were collected at 5-25cm depth, and 150ml of water samples were collected in sterile sampling bottles, about 25cm deep. Nasal and pharyngeal swabs were collected using sterile cotton swabs, and then immediately immersed in distilled water or phosphate buffer saline (PBS) ( PH= 7) in the field. These were collected from a minimum of 5 randomly selected animals per site. The samples were kept at 4°C until they were processed for NTM isolation.

Tissue samples (lymph nodes, liver, spleen and lungs, with or without visible lesions) from cattle were collected during routine meat inspection by state veterinarians or meat inspectors according to standard operating procedures at abattoirs. Tissue samples from buffalo were collected as part of bovine tuberculosis research projects, using approved sampling protocols, and sent to ARC-OVI Tuberculosis laboratory for diagnosis of mycobacterial diseases by culture. These were: lymph nodes, liver and lungs and spleen.

#### **2.3.2 Isolation of NTM from different sample types**

For nasal or pharyngeal swabs, the samples were soaked in 7 ml of sterile distilled water overnight. The swab was then discarded and the solution centrifuged at 2360 g for 10 min at room temperature. Hydrochloric acid (HCl) at a final concentration of 2% was added to the pellet and the sample was incubated at room temperature for 10 min. The solution was then centrifuged for another 10 min at 2360 g at room temperature, where after the supernatant was discarded. The pellet was washed with 7 ml distilled water and centrifuged again for 10 min at 2360 g at room temperature.

For soil and water samples, a modified protocol by Livanainen*,* (1995), was used for processing of soil and water samples for mycobacterial isolation. For soil, 20 ml of distilled water was added to 5 g of soil in a 50 ml Falcon tube, and shaken by hand for at least 1 min. The solution was allowed to stand at room

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temperature for 30 min to allow the sediment to settle. The sample was centrifuged at 800 x g for 5 min. The turbid supernatant was transferred to a clean tube and centrifuged again at 3900 g for 30 min at room temperature. The supernatant was discarded; 20 ml of 2% NaOH was added to the pellet and incubated at room temperature for 10 min. The suspension was centrifuged at 3900 g for 10 min at room temperature. The supernatant was discarded and the pellet was suspended in 20 ml of 5% oxalic acid. The suspension was allowed to stand at room temperature for 15 min and again centrifuged at 3900 g for 10 min. The supernatant was discarded, 20 ml of water was added and the suspended pellet was centrifuged at 3900 g for 10 min at room temperature. Thereafter, the supernatant was discarded, leaving approximately 1ml fluid with the pellet. For water samples, an aliquot of 100 ml from each water sample was allowed to settle at room temperature for 30 min, after which approximately 50 ml of the upper part was transferred to a clean 50 ml Falcon tube and centrifuged at 3900 g for 30 min. The supernatant was discarded and the tube refilled with approximately the remaining 50 ml from the 100 ml aliquot, and centrifuged again at 3900 g for 30 min at room temperature. The supernatant was discarded and the procedure for processing of soil samples as described above was followed.

For all the sample types the sediment was inoculated onto Löwenstein Jensen (LJ) slopes supplemented with glycerol and an antibiotic cocktail of PolymyxinB, AmphotericinB, Carbenicillin and Trimethoprim (PACT) (National Health Laboratories, South Africa, and Becton Dickinson, Germany). Two LJ slopes of each sample were incubated at 37˚C and monitored for colony growth of mycobacteria at 2 days, 7 days, and thereafter weekly for 10 weeks. When growth of bacteria was observed, based on morphology of mycobacterial colonies (Csillag, 1961), individual colonies were selected for Ziehl Neelsen staining, and suspensions of the acid fast bacteria were prepared for further identification using polymerase chain reaction (PCR) and the remaining cultures were stored at -20°C for further investigations. Tissue samples were processed for mycobacterial isolation according to Bengis *et al*. 1996. In short, ±5g of sample was suspended in 10ml of distilled water and homogenized. Two aliquots of 7ml were decontaminated with



1% HCl and 2% NaCl respectively for 10 min. These were centrifuged, the supernatant was discarded and the pellet was then washed with distilled water followed by centrifugation. The resulting pellets were inoculated on LJ slopes and incubated at 37˚C.

The sources of the isolates were classified into the source categories, i) "environmental" samples from soil, water and, since isolation of NTM from swabs could be an indication of contamination from the environment, also swabs and ii) "animal" the tissue samples.

#### **2.3.3** *In vitro* **amplification and sequencing of the 16S rRNA for identification of mycobacteria**

Individual colonies from cultures were picked and boiled culture suspensions were prepared as DNA templates for PCR amplification of the 16S rRNA of mycobacteria. A 25 µl PCR reaction mixture (Qiagen HotStar Taq, Germany) was prepared, containing 12.9 µl deionised water, 2.5 µl of 10x PCR buffer {Tris.Cl, KCl,  $(NH_4)_2$ ,  $SO_4$ }, 2 µl  $MgCl_2$ , 1 µl dNTP's (10 mM), 0.1 µl Taq Polymerase, 5 µl of 5x Q-solution, 1 µl of each forward and reverse primers (50 pmol) and 1-2 µl of DNA template. Primers 16S-F (5'-AGA GTT TGA TCM TGG CTC AG-3') and 16S-R (5' -GCG ACA AAC CAC CTA AGA G -3') were used for the 16S ribosomal RNA amplification (Harmsen *et al.,* 2003). The PCR cycling parameters were as follows: initial denaturation at 95°C for 15 min, followed by 35 cycles of denaturation at 95°C for 30 sec, annealing at 60 °C for 30 sec and elongation at 72°C for 30 sec, and a final extension at 72°C for 10 min. The PCR products of 577bp were sent to the DNA sequencing unit at the Central Analytical Facility of Stellenbosch University, South Africa for sequencing of the forward strands using an ABI sequencer (Applied Biosystem Inc.). Sequences were then analysed using the RIDOM 16S ribosomal RNA database (RIDOM-www.ridom-rdna.de) and NCBI BLAST [\(www.blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi\)](http://www.blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi) for mycobacterial speciation.



## **2.3.4 Phylogenetic analyses of the NTM isolates**

Phylogenetic analyses of isolates based on the partial 16S rRNA (577bp) of a variety of *M. moriokaense*like isolates were performed using Molecular Evolutionary Genetics Analysis (MEGA) platform (www.megasoftware.net) (version 5.05). Two *M. moriokaense* isolates were also included in the analysis, and a *Nocardia* spp sequence retrieved from Genbank [\(www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov\)](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/) was used as an out-group species. Sequence alignments were performed using Clustalw (Thompson *et al.,* 1994). Phylogenetic trees were constructed using the neighbor-joining method (Saitou and Nei, 1987). The p-distance parameters were used as a substitution model. A thousand bootstrap replicates were run. The neighbourjoining trees were also compared to trees constructed using the maximum likelihood method and Kimura-2 was used as a substitution model.



# **2.4 Results**

#### **2.4.1 Sample collection and NTM isolation**

Samples were collected from 114 cattle farms, 2 wildlife conservation areas (Kruger National Park, and Hluhluwe Imfolozi Park) and 3 private game farms, during the country wide survey (fig 2.1). At eight of the 114 cattle farms, only soil and water samples were collected due to difficulty in accessing animals.

Six hundred and twenty nine isolates of acid fast bacteria were detected from 1123 samples (including all sampling sites) collected during the countrywide survey (56% detection rate). These were 285 isolates from 570 samples from nasal and pharyngeal swabs ( 50 % detection rate) , 262 from 410 soil samples (66% detection rate) and 82 from 143 water samples (57% detection rate). Hundred and five (9.3%) cultured samples were contaminated before growth of mycobacteria. Stored NTM isolates from tissue (n=91) and soil (n=2), were derived from samples in the Hluhluwe Imfolozi Park, Kruger National Park, 1 game farm and 32 cattle farms during routine diagnostic isolation of mycobacteria. The NTM isolates from the tissue samples were isolated in pure culture.

#### 2.4.2 Characterization of NTM isolates

A total of 420 out of the 629 mycobacterium isolates were sequenced for species identification. Of these 420 isolates 160 were recovered from soil (n=160) from water (n=66) from swabs (n=103) and from



tissue (n=91) (Table 2.1). We could not analyse all the 629 isolates mainly for budget purposes. The remaining 209 isolates were stored away.



# **Table 2. 1 a: NTM species identified per sample type from environmental and animal sources**

 n, number of isolates belonging to the respective NTM species; NTM, non-tuberculous mycobacteria; a, percentage of isolates per sample type. *Mycobacterium avium* complex include *M. avium* subp avium/paratuberculosis, *M. vulneris*, *M. intracellular*e and *M. colombiense*. *Mycobacterium fortuitum* complex include *M. fortuitum fortuitum* and *M. fortuitum acetamidolyticum*. **This table was modified into 2.1a , 2.1b and 2.1c after publication for the purpose of the thesis**







n, number of isolates belonging to the respective NTM species; NTM, non-tuberculous mycobacteria; a, percentage of isolates

per sample type.

# **Table 2. 1 c: NTM species isolated from animal sources only**



n, number of isolates belonging to the respective NTM species; NTM, non-tuberculous mycobacteria; a, percentage of isolates per sample type. .



## **2.4.3 NTM species diversity and associated prevalence**

Identification of NTM to species level was performed by sequencing of a partial region of their 5' 16S rDNA sequence. Forty species were identified from 303 isolates based on their availability on the NCBI and RIDOM databases. In addition, a total of 117 NTM isolates did not belong to any species represented in these databases. Of these, 79 were closely related to 23 known species of which 34 were identified as closely related to *Mycobacterium moriokaense* (here referred to a *M. moriokanese*like isolates). Finally 38 isolates were identified as potentially novel species as they were not related to any species represented in the databases. Of the isolates not belonging to species represented on the databases, 34 were derived from soil, 24 from water, 42 from swabs and 17 from tissue. Of the 40 characterised NTM species, 37 were from environmental sources (water, soil and swabs), and 25 from animal tissue samples. Most of the NTM species recovered from the environmental sources were also found in animal tissue, except for *M. parafortuitum, M. kumanotonense, M. arupense, M. holsaticum, M. paraffinicum, M. austroafricanum, M. neoaurum, M. senuense, M. floroanthenivorans, M. monasence, M. engbackii, M. triplex/ M. montefirionse, M. thermoresistible, M. madagascariense* and *M. nebraskense/M. gastri/ M. bohemicum/ M. kansasii/ M. malmoense* which were not isolated from animal tissues. These species except *M. paraffinicum, parafortuitum, M. neoaurum* and *M. engbackii*  were, however, detected at very low frequencies of  $\langle 1\% \rangle$  of total isolates. Isolates identified as *M*. *wolinsky, M. lacticola and M. chelonae or M. abscessus* were isolated from animal sources but not from the environment. These isolates were also detected at low frequency of <1.1% of total isolates. Twenty eight of the known NTM species were recovered from soil, 14 from water, and 16 from animal swabs. Ten NTM species were isolated from both soil and water samples and these are *M. nonchromogenicum, M. terrae, M. triviale, M. intermedium, M. paraffinicum, M. moriokaense, M.* 



*austroafricanum, M. engbackii, M. triplex* or *M. monteferionse* and *Mycobacterium avium* complex (MAC) ), including *M. avium* subsp *avium, M. colombiense, M. vulneris* and *M. intracellulare*. Except for *M. fortuitum* complex (*M. fortuitum* subsp *fortuitum* and *M. fortuitum* subsp *acetamidolyticum*) and *M. septicum or M. peregrinum* whose detection rate were 5% and 4.4%, respectively (percentage per sample type), the NTM isolates detected from either soil or water occurred at very low frequencies of <1.9% (percentage per sample type). Ten NTM species and *M. moriokaense –*like isolates were detected from both swab samples and either soil and water. These are *M. nonchromogenicum, M. terrae, M. vaccae* or *M. vanbaalenii, M. duvalii, M. acapulcensis, M. morioakense, M. septicum, M. asiaticum, M. parafortuitum* and *M. neoaurum.* Some isolates belonging to the closest related species could not be differentiated from each other by partial sequencing of the 16S rRNA gene, including *M. triplex* and *M. montefiorense; M. septicum* and *M. peregrinum; M. vaccae* and *M. vanbaalenii; M*. *flavesence and M. novocastrense; M. pulveris* and *M. elephantis, M. chelonae* and *M. abscessus* as well as *M. nebraskense M. kansassii, M. gastri, M. bohemicum* and *M. malmoense.* The species identified by the RIDOM and NCBI databases and their prevalence are shown in figure 2.2; their distribution across sample types (water, soil, nasal and pharyngeal swabs and animal tissue ) from different sample source (environmental and animal) are shown in Tables 2.1 a and 2.1 b and 2.1c. In cases where samples were collected from both the animals and their environments the same NTM species were occasionally isolated from both sources. For example, three *M. moriokaense* and three *M. moriokaense –*like isolates were isolated from 16 buffalo in Hluhluwe iMfolozi Park (HiP), and 1 isolate of each NTM species was isolated from eight soil samples collected from the same Park. Isolates from the four most commonly isolated species are in decreasing order: *M. terrae* (n=47)*;* a group of isolates belonging to species closely related to *M. moriokaense:* referred to as *M. moriokaense-*like isolates (n=34); *M. nonchromogenicum* (n=31); and *M. vaccae / M. vanbaalenii* (n=22). The distribution of these isolates across sample sources is summarised in Table 2.2. All four of these NTM


species/groupings were isolated from both environmental as well as animal sources. Members of *Mycobacterium avium* complex (MAC) represented 6.2% of the isolates and were isolated from both sample sources, while *M. fortuitum* complex isolates represented 3.8% of the isolates and were also isolated from both sample sources.





n, number of isolates belonging to the respective NTM species; NTM, non-tuberculous mycobacteria; a, percentage of isolates per sample source; b, Percentage of isolates per total number of isolates (420).

#### **2.4.4 Phylogenetic analysis of multiple** *M. moriokaense-***like isolates**

Phylogenetic classification of *M. moriokaense-* like isolates is shown in Figure 2.3. The neighbour joining tree shows genotypes belonging to 8 or more different clusters. One of the *M. moriokaense* isolates (*M. moriokaense* C-22) grouped with the one cluster consisting of 13 (38%) *M. moriokaense–* like isolates. These groupings were also supported by analysis using a maximum likelihood tree (results not shown).



## **2.5 Discussion and conclusion**

NTM have been isolated ubiquitously in nature, i.e. in the environment: in soil (Covert *et al.,* 1999; Martin-Casabona *et al.,* 2004), and water (Collins *et al.,* 1984; Shitaye *et al.,* 2009), as well as in animals and humans (Kazwala *et al*., 1998; Berg *et al.,* 2009). Some NTM species have occasionally been isolated from animals in the Kruger National Park and the Hluhluwe iMfolozi Park in South Africa (van Helden *et al.,* 2005; Michel, 2007; Michel *et al.,* 2008) but no countrywide NTM survey was conducted. The species diversity and prevalence of NTM detected in this study in the environments of cattle and freeranging buffaloes in South Africa were defined. NTM species were recovered from samples collected from geographically and climatically different sites in the natural environments of cattle and African buffaloes in South Africa, indicating their distribution in the environment. Twenty seven per cent of known NTM species isolated from environmental samples were found to be shared between soil and water on one hand and animal swabs on the other hand, suggesting that NTM are readily exchanged between these two environments (water and soil) and the animals' mucous membranes. When comparing isolates from animal tissues, and from environmental sources (water and soil and animal swabs), we found that 55% of the known NTM species occurred in both animal and environmental samples. This number is likely to be higher due to additional isolates from both sources which were classified as unknown species. This confirms the well accepted fact that the main niche of NTM is the environment, and animals are thought to be infected from environmental sources through inhalation or ingestion (Primm *et al*., 1994). Furthermore most isolates detected only from either the environmental or animal samples were detected at very low frequencies (<1.1%). The isolation of NTM from animal tissues and the correlation between the isolates from tissue of animals and those from environmental samples, also suggests that most species in this study have the ability to be transmitted from the environment to animals, where they either cause colonisation without causing pathological changes or they may, in some cases,



lead to disease. The four most frequently isolated NTM species in this study were *M. terrae, M. nonchromogenicum, M. moriokaense –*like isolates and *M. vaccae/ M. vanbaalenii,* whose effects on the immune responsiveness of animals and humans are unknown. *M. vaccae* has been suggested to enhance immune function, hence making it helpful in treatment of TB patients (Yang *et al.,* 2011). NTM closely related to *M. moriokaense* have been isolated previously in a buffalo and environmental samples in South Africa (Michel *et al.,* 2007). The occurrence of these *M. moriokaense*-like species, as well as the discovery of several other unknown NTM in South Africa suggest the occurrence of a number of uncharacterised Mycobacterium species in these environments and warrants further characterisation of these species. The abundance of *M. moriokaense-*like isolates prompted us to investigate their phylogenetic relatedness especially in view of their potential immune modulating role in cattle and buffaloes. The phylogenetic analysis of these isolates based on their 16S rRNA revealed at least 8 groups, suggesting that we may have isolated at least 8 different NTM species that are closely related to *M. moriokaense*. Studies on isolation of NTM from bovine tissue sources in Africa have mainly focused on either cattle from slaughter houses or on NTM that were coincidentally isolated from animal lesions while looking for *M. bovis* (Kazwala *et al.,* 1998; Tschopp *et al.,* 2010)*.* In one of these studies in Ethiopian cattle, more than 40% of culture positive isolates were NTM and *M. nonchromogenicum* was isolated as a predominant species (Berg *et al.,* 2009). A study from Chad published in 2006, found *M. nonchromogenicum* together with MAC and *M. fortuitum* to be common in humans and cattle (Diguimbaye-Djaibé *et al.,* 2006). *M*. *terrae* was isolated as a frequently occurring species in a study on Ethiopian wildlife (Tschopp *et al.,* 2010), and was isolated from cattle in Tanzania (Kazwala, *et al.,* 1998; Cleaveland *et al*, 2005), and in the wildlife environment in South Africa (Michel *et al.,* 2007). In Uganda Kankya *et al.,* 2011 isolated non-tuberculous mycobacteria in 15.5% of environmental samples, they identified 15 NTM species, from 48 samples, and *M. nonchromogenicum, M. fortuitum* complex, *M. avium* complex and *M. gordonae* were identified as most frequently detected species. A study in Zaire



also identified *M. nonchromogenicum* and *M. terrae* to be among the most prevalent NTM species in the environment (Portaels, 1995). *M. nonchromogenicum* has also been detected in small mammals and cattle in Tanzania (Durnez *et al.,* 2011). This suggests that *M. nonchromogenicum* and *M. terrae* are ubiquitous NTM species in Africa although percentages differ in different countries Identification of 40 known NTM species, 79 unknown isolates related to other NTM species in the RIDOM and NCBI databases, as well as 38 unknown, potential novel species and a 56% overall Mycobacterium detection rate in environmental samples served to demonstrate that the diversity of NTM species in South Africa is high. Other studies performed in central, south and north India, even though their NTM detection rates (43% , 54%, 40% respectively) were comparable to that observed in this study, only 7 , 20 and 10 different characterised NTM species were recovered from 60 ,717 and 291 environmental samples respectively. (Kamala *et al.,* 1994; Narang *et al.,* 2009; Parashar *et al.,* 2009). All three of these studies employed culture based methods followed by PCR restriction analysis of the Mycobacterium housekeeping genes. Similarly in another study conducted in Ohio (1999), 33% NTM detection rate led to identification of 18 NTM species from 139 environmental samples using culture and 16S rDNA PCR-sequencing assay (Covert *et al.,* 1999). In another study in Iran (2004) 10 NTM species were identified from 72 NTM isolates recovered in 490 environmental samples (Rahbar *et al.* 2010). In this study, NTM detection was performed using phenotypic assays. In a study conducted in Czech Republic between 2003 and 2004, 12 characterised NTM species were detected from 400 isolates that were recovered in 1389 environmental samples and detection was done by a combination of biochemical test on cultured isolates as well as PCR that detected mycobacteria to genus level (Beran *et al.,* 2006). Different reported diversities in the different countries could have been influenced by the differences in the detection techniques, as it is a fact that molecular based detection methods like PCR- sequencing assays employed in this study offer more accurate results than the classical phenotypic assays (Turenne *et al.,* 2001)



*M. avium* PPD is used mostly for application in both the comparative TST and the gamma interferon test for TB in most countries based on the knowledge that *M. avium* is among the most frequently isolated NTM in both animals and humans and has been shown to prime immune responsiveness (Prichard, 1988; Wood and Jones, 2001; Palmer *et al.,* 2006). *M. fortuitum* PPD is used in the modified gamma interferon assay based on the isolation of *M. fortuitum* from IFNγ test positive buffaloes in the Kruger National Park (Michel *et al.,* 2008; 2011). Although potentially cross reactive among NTM, members of the *Mycobacterium avium* complex (MAC) (6.2%) as well as *M. fortuitum* (3,8%) complex, were not isolated as frequent as the abundant species defined here, therefore, their exclusive use as environmental controls in TST and gamma interferon in South Africa may be reconsidered to include further investigation of the prevalent NTM. The identification of these abundant and common NTM species now allows a targeted investigation of their effects on host immune response and BCG vaccination.

In conclusion, we have for the first time shown that NTM are highly abundant and diverse in the environment of South African cattle and buffalo and potential novel NTM species exist in South Africa for which no information is yet available on the international databases. We have shown that NTM are readily exchanged between water or soil and animals via their mucous membranes. Even though we have classified the swabs as environmental samples, they may have colonised and stimulated the host's immune response in some cases. We have also shown that certain NTM species occur more frequently in the environment than others *viz M. terrae, M. nonchromogenicum, M. vaccae/ M. vanbaalenii* and *M. moriokaense* –like isolates. This suggests that cattle and buffalo are not only exposed to a variety of NTM species, but they are exposed more to some species than to others, with potential implications for TB diagnosis, vaccination and *M.bovis* infection due to cross reactive immune responsiveness



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**Fig 2.1: Geographical and climatical distribution of sampling sites for country wide survey in South**  Africa. Sampling sites are indicated by ( $\bigcirc$ ).





## **Fig 2.2: NTM pie chart diagram indicating NTM prevalence**



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**Fig 2.3: Phylogenetic tree of Mycobacterium moriokaense-like isolates based on the partial 16S rRNA gene sequences. One thousand bootstrap replicates were run. The tree was constructed using MEGA v5.05, and the criterion was neighbour joining. Branch support values on the nodes are shown as percentages, and values <60% are not shown. Nocardia spp. was used as an outgroup sequence.**



# **CHAPTER 3. TWO NOVEL SPECIES OF NON-TUBERCULOUS MYCOBACTERIA REVEALED BY MULTIPLE GENE SEQUENCE CHARACTERIZATION**

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## **3.1 Abstract**

Non-tuberculous mycobacteria (NTM) are ubiquitous in the environment and an increasing number of NTM species have been isolated and characterised from both humans and animals, highlighting the zoonotic potential of these bacteria. Host exposure to NTM may impact on cross-reactive immune responsiveness which may affect diagnosis of bovine tuberculosis and may also play a role in the variability of the efficacy of *Mycobacterium bovis* BCG vaccination against tuberculosis. In this study we characterized 18 NTM isolates originating from water, soil, nasal swabs of cattle and African buffalo as well as bovine tissue samples. These isolates were previously identified during an NTM survey and were found to be among the four most abundant NTM. They had not been described to species level and were all found to be closely-related to *Mycobacterium moriokaense*. A polyphasic approach that includes phenotypic characterisation, antibiotic susceptibility profiling, sequencing, and phylogenetic analysis of three gene loci, *viz hsp6*5, *sodA*, and *rpoB* was employed to characterize these isolates. Sequence data analysis of the three gene loci revealed that these isolates belong to unique *Mycobacterium* species. This evidence was further supported by several differences in phenotypic characteristics between the isolates and the closely related species. Further evidence that the isolates belonged to novel species was provided by their phylogenetic position in the neighbour joining trees of the individual gene sequences which revealed the existence of two distinct clusters, representing two novel species. We proposed the names, *Mycobacterium malmesburii* sp.nov. and *Mycobacterium komanii* sp.nov. for these two new species. Isolation of these novel NTM species from different regions in the environment, as well as animal tissue samples confirms the existence of as yet unidentified NTM species that animals are exposed to. Their relevance needs to be investigated, especially in light of cross- reactive immune responses that they may elicit.

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Key words: **Non-tuberculous mycobacteria,** *Mycobacterium malmesburii* **sp. nov.,** *Mycobacterium* 

*komanii* **sp. nov., multiple gene sequences**

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## **3.2 Introduction**

Currently more than 100 non-tuberculous mycobacterial species are listed in public databases (http//:www.bacterio.net). An increasing number of NTM species has recently been isolated and characterized from both humans and animals, highlighting the zoonotic potential of these species (reviewed by Tortoli *et al.,* 2006, van Helden *et al.,* 2009 and Botha *et al.,* 2013). An increased interest in these organisms has developed in view of the potential impact of host exposure to NTM on crossreactive immune responsiveness which may affect diagnosis of bovine tuberculosis (BTB) (Michel, 2008; Michel *et al.,* 2011; Schiller *et al.,* 2010) and may also play a role in the variability of the efficacy of *Mycobacterium bovis* BCG vaccination against tuberculosis (Buddle *et al.,* 2002; Brandt *et al.,* 2002; Weir *et al.*, 2006). NTM are ubiquitous in the environment and there is no evidence of animal-to-animal or human-to-human transmission (Primm *et al*., 1994; Falkinham, 2002). Characterization of NTM isolates from environmental as well as clinical samples is important as these may lead to identification of emerging pathogens. For instance, *Mycobacterium avium* was essentially a rare human pathogen before the acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS) pandemic, and since then this NTM species has become a very important pathogen of AIDS patients (Karne *et al.,* 2012). Isolation of a large number of NTM from human and animal samples does not contradict the hypothesis that the environment is the main niche of NTM (Falkinham, 2002). The reference molecular method for the identification of mycobacteria is the sequencing of the 16S rDNA, which has contributed to the discovery of novel NTM isolates beyond possibilities offered by conventional methods such as phenotypic characterisation (Turenne *et al.,* 2001). However, this approach has its limitations as there are instances where the sequence of this gene has been found to be similar, if not identical between species of the genus. For example, analysis of the 16S rDNA sequence could not delineate *Mycobacterium triplex* and *Mycobacterium montefiorense; Mycobacterium septicum* and *Mycobacterium peregrinum;* 

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*Mycobacterium vaccae* and *Mycobacterium vanbaalenii; Mycobacterium flavesence and Mycobacterium novocastrense; Mycobacterium pulveris* and *Mycobacterium elephantis; Mycobacterium chelonae* and *Mycobacterium abscessus* as well as *Mycobacterium nebraskense Mycobacterium kansassii, Mycobacterium gastri, Mycobacterium bohemicum* and *Mycobacterium malmoense* (Gcebe *et al.,* 2013). In addition ambiguous results can be obtained with sequencing of the 16S rDNA due to the possible presence of two copies of ribosomal RNA with different sequences in the same organism, making it necessary to find alternative specific sequences (Adékambi and Drancourt, 2004; Adékambi *et al.,* 2006). Other DNA sequences, loci or genes present in all mycobacteria have been described for the differentiation of species, among others, the *hsp65* (Telenti *et al.,* 1993; Senna *et al.,* 2008); *gyrB* (Kasai *et al.,* 2000)*, recA,* (Blackwood *et al.,* 2000; Adekambi *et al.,* 2004); *rpoB* (Adékambi *et al.,* 2003; 2006), *dnaK* (Dai *et al.,* 2011) and *sodA (*Adékambi and Drancourt, 2004). It has been shown that multiple locus analysis provides a more detailed and accurate identification of *Mycobacterium* species than the use of a single locus (Devulder *et al.,* 2005). We previously described the prevalence of NTM isolates in cattle, African buffaloes and their environments in South Africa and found a group of isolates (closest related by analysis of 16S rDNA to *Mycobacterium moriokaense*) that were not well described in literature at the species level. These isolates were found to be among the four most abundant NTM species (8.1%) in the study comprising of 6% isolated from environmental and 2.1% from animal samples. The other abundant NTM species were *Mycobacterium terrae* (11.2%), *Mycobacterium nonchromogenicum* (7.4%) and *M. vaccae / M. vanbaalenii* (5.2%) (Gcebe *et al.,* 2013). From these results it can be hypothesized that cattle and African buffaloes are likely to be more frequently exposed to these species than to other NTM. This has potential implications for BTB diagnosis due to cross reactive immune responsiveness of host animals to these species, as shown by Michel *et al.,* 2011. The aim of the present study was to conduct an in depth characterisation of this group of isolates closely related to *M.* 

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*moriokaense*. The investigation included phenotypic characterization, antimicrobial susceptibility profiling, and sequence based analysis of three mycobacterial housekeeping genes.

## **3.3 Materials and Methods**

#### **3.3.1 Mycobacterium cultures**

Eighteen isolates were recovered from soil, water, nasal and pharyngeal swabs of cattle and buffalo, as well as tissue samples of cattle during a survey conducted between April 2010 and December 2012 to determine the prevalence and distribution of NTM, and analysis of isolates from routine diagnostic samples collected in different geographic and climatic regions of South Africa (Table 3.1). All the cultures were maintained on either Middlebrook 7H11 agar plates (Becton Dickinson, USA) supplemented with 0.1% OADC (Merck Chemicals, South Africa), and glycerol as well as on Löwenstein Jensen (LJ) slopes supplemented with glycerol and an antibiotic cocktail of PolymyxinB, AmphotericinB, Carbenicillin and Trimethoprim (PACT) (Becton Dickinson, USA) for subsequent biochemical testing.



# **Table 3. 1: Origin of NTM isolates used in the study**



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#### **3.3.2 Phenotypic characterisation of the isolates**

Slopes and plates were incubated at  $37^{\circ}$ C,  $45^{\circ}$ C and  $25^{\circ}$ C in order to evaluate the ability of each isolate to grow at different temperatures. We also observed colony morphology (rough or smooth), pigmentation, acid fastness and different growth rates of the isolates. The cultures for all the biochemical as well as antibiotic susceptibility/ resistance tests were grown at 37°C.

Sodium chloride (NaCl) tolerance (5%) of each isolate was evaluated by supplementing the Middlebrook 7H11 agar with 5% NaCl and observing the growth of each isolate against media that was not supplemented with 5% NaCl, after 2-10 days. The isolates were tested for the ability to reduce nitrate, for urease activity and niacin accumulation, using the commercial test strips (Becton Dickinson, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. They were also tested for the 3 day and 14 day arylsulphatase activity (Wayne, 1961). We tested all the isolates for pyrazinamidase activity as described by Singh *et al.,* 2007, except that Middlebrook 7H11 agar was used and the culture incubation period was 4 days. In addition, the isolates were also tested for the ability to hydrolyze Tween 80 using the method described by Kilburn *et al.,* 1973. Semi quantitative catalase activity of the isolates was tested using 3% hydrogen peroxide and observing formation of gas bubbles (Kent and Kubica, 1985). Finally the isolates were tested for their ability to hydrolyze aesculin, for citrate utilization (National Health Laboratory Services, South Africa) as well as their ability to utilize the following sugars as sole carbon

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sources: D-mannitol, inositol, L-rhamnose and L-arabinose (Selecta media, South Africa). Since no standard antibiotics are prescribed for taxonomic classification of NTM, only eight of those antibiotics that have been used in literature for classification of NTM were applied in this study (Brown -Elliot, 2002). Antibiotic susceptibility to amikacin (30 µg), cefoxitin (10 µg), ciprofloxacin (10 µg), clarithromycin (15 µg), doxycycline (30 µg), imipenem (10 µg), amoxylin (30 µg) and tobramycin (10 µg) (Oxoid LTD, UK) was determined for all the isolates, using a modified Kirby Bauer disk diffusion method on Middlebrook 7H11 agar plates supplemented with 0.1% OADC and incubated for up to 3 days (for the rapid growing mycobacteria) and 10 days (for the slow growing mycobacteria) at 37°C, after which the zones of inhibition were measured (Brown-Eliot and Wallace*,* 2002). Since other antibiotics used in this study are not routinely applied to rapidly growing mycobacteria (RGM) in a clinical context; we reported the profiles as size of the inhibition zones. If a minimum of 3 mm zone of inhibition is obtained, that was interpreted as inhibition.

#### **3.3.3 Genetic and phylogenetic analysis of the isolates**

#### *Genetic markers targeted:*

In addition to the partial sequencing of the 16S rRNA gene, used previously to identify the isolates (Gcebe *et al.,* 2013), three molecular targets including a 439 bp region of the gene encoding the 65 kDA heat shock protein (*hsp65*) (Telenti *et al.,* 1993), part (764 bp) of the RNA polymerase beta subunit (*rpoB*) gene (Adékambi *et al.,* 2003; 2006) and part (464 bp) of the superoxide dismutase (*sodA)* gene (Adékambi and Drancourt, 2004) were amplified and sequenced.

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#### *Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR)*

Boiled culture suspensions from individual isolates were used as DNA template in the various PCR protocols.

*Hsp65* **PCR**: Tb11 (5'ACCAACGATGGTGTGTCCAT 3') and Tb12 (5' CTTGTCGAACCGCATACCCT 3') primers were used for the amplification of the *hsp65* gene fragment. A 50 µl PCR mixture was prepared, containing 28.5 µl de-ionized water, 3 µl MgCl<sub>2</sub> (25 mM), 1 µl dNTP mix (10 mM), 4.75 µl of 10x PCR buffer (160 mM) (Tris -HCl, MgCl<sub>2</sub>, Tween 20, (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>, SO<sub>4</sub>), 0.75 µl Taq DNA Polymerase (5 U/ µl) (Supertherm <sup>TM</sup>), 1 µl of each forward and reverse primers (50 pmol) and 10 µl of DNA template. The PCR cycling parameters were as follows: Fourty five cycles of denaturation at 94°C for 1 min, annealing at 60°C for 1 min, and elongation at 72°C for 1 min and final extension at 72°C for 10 min.

*RpoB* **PCR**: MycoF (5' GGCAAGGTCACCCCGAAGGG 3') and MycoR (5' AGCGGCTGCTGGGTGATCATC 3') primers were used for amplification of *rpoB* gene fragment. A 50 µl PCR mixture was prepared as described for the *hsp65* PCR. The cycling parameters were as follows: Initial denaturation at  $94^{\circ}$ C for 1 min, followed by 35 cycles of denaturation at  $94^{\circ}$ C for 30 s, annealing at 64°C for 30 s, elongation at 72°C for 90 s, and final extension at 72°C for 5 min.

*SodA* **PCR**: SodF (5'ACATCTCGGGTCAGATCAACGACG 3') and SodR (5'GACGTTCTTGTACTGCAGGTA 3') primers were used for the amplification of the *sod*A gene fragment. A 50 µl PCR mixture was prepared as described for the *hsp65* PCR. The cycling parameters

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were as follows: Initial denaturation at 95°C for 2 min, followed by 35 cycles of denaturation at 94°C for 30 s, annealing at 60°C for 30 s, elongation at 72°C for 2 min, and final extension at 72°C for 5 min.

#### *Sequencing and phylogenetic analysis***:**

The amplicons were sequenced at the Central Analytical Facility of Stellenbosch University, South Africa, using the same primer sequences that were used for amplification of the respective gene fragments. Sequences from both strands were edited manually and pairwise alignments undertaken using the BioEdit Sequence alignment editor (version 7.1.9) and Molecular Evolutionary Genetics Analysis (MEGA) platform (www.megasoftware.net) (version 6) (Tamura *et al.,* 2013). The resulting consensus sequences were analysed on the NCBI BLAST platform for species identification [\(www.blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi\)](http://www.blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi) by megablast. For phylogenetic analysis, all the sequences were first trimmed at both the 5' and the 3' ends to encompass the most corresponding gene fragment sequences of mycobacteria deposited in Genbank. The resulting fragments used for phylogenetic analysis was 424 bp for *hsp-65* gene, 711 bp for *rpoB* and 411 bp for *sodA*. The resulting fragment used for the concatenated nucleotide sequences in the following order (*hsp65*, *rpoB* and *sodA*) was 1546 bp. Multiple sequence alignments of the individual genes as well as the concatenated sequences were performed using Clustalw (Thompson *et al.,* 1994) from MEGA (version 6), to determine percentage similarity between each of the gene sequences. Evolutionary divergences between the sequences were estimated using maximum the composite likelihood method. Phylogenetic trees resulting from individual gene fragment sequences of the isolates and those of other mycobacteria, (both slow and rapidly growing) retrieved from Genbank (www.ncbi.nlm.gov/genbank), were constructed using the neighbour-joining method (Saitou and Nei, 1987) and validated using the maximum composite likelihood method. One thousand

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bootstrap replicates were run and *Nocardia farcinica* species DSM43665 and *Nocardia brasiliensis*  ATCC 700358 were used as the outgroup*.*

#### **3.3.4 Genbank nucleotide accession numbers**

The partial gene sequences (16S rRNA, *hsp-65*, *rpo*B and *sodA*) for the two proposed novel species, *viz Mycobacterium malmesburii* sp. nov. and *Mycobacterium komanii* sp. nov*.* were deposited in Genbank (www.ncbi.nlm.gov/genbank) and the following accession numbers provided**:** 16S rRNA, KJ 873241*; hsp-65*, KJ 873243*; rpoB*, KJ 873245*; sodA*, KJ 873247 for *M. malmesburii* sp.nov and **16S** rRNA, KJ 873240*; hsp-65*, KJ 873242*; rpoB*, KJ 873244*; sodA*, KJ 873246 for *M. komanii* sp.nov.

## **3.4 Results**

#### **3.4.1 Phenotypic characteristics and antibiotic susceptibility profiles**

Phenotypic characteristics of the isolates in comparison with those of *M. moriokaense*, *M. elephantis, M. novocastrense, M. flavescens,* and *Mycobacterium arupense* strains are summarised in Table 3.2. The antibiotic susceptibility profiles are summarized in Table 3.3. Colonies of all the other isolates except for isolate TB 6607 appeared on LJ slants and Middlebrook 7H11 agar at  $25^{\circ}$ C,  $37^{\circ}$ C and  $45^{\circ}$ C in 2-5 days. Colonies for isolate TB 6607 appeared at 10 days and showed growth at 25°C, 37°C and 45°C. All the isolates showed a yellow pigment, except for isolate Uyenvlei swab 3, which showed an orange pigment. Except for isolate TB 6607 which appeared as smooth colonies, all the other isolates appeared rough on both LJ slants and Middlebrook 7H11 agar. All isolates were positive for the catalase activity, Tween

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80 hydrolysis and the 14 day aryl sulphatase activity tests except for isolate Vryburg swab 3 which was negative for the 14 day aryl sulphatase activity. Isolates Honing S2, Uyenvlei swab 3 and TB 6607 were positive for the 3 day aryl sulphatase activity test, whereas the others were negative. All the isolates did not grow in the presence of 5% NaCl and neither did they utilize D-mannitol, inositol, L-rhamnose and L-arabinose as sole carbon sources. The isolates were negative for the aesculin hydrolysis and citrate activity tests except for isolate Honing S2 which was positive for the aesculin hydrolysis test. All the isolates were positive for pyrazinamidase activity tests, urease and nitrate reductase activity except for isolate swab 242 which was negative for nitrate reductase. For the niacin production test all the isolates with the exception of isolate swab 242 were negative.

The identified differences in phenotypic characteristics of the isolates with those of the closely related species *i.e. M. moriokaense, M. novocastrense, M. flavescens, M. elephantis* and *M. arupense*, illustrated in Table 3.2, include pigmentation, growth ability as well as other biochemical traits. The most apparent feature that distinguished the isolates from both *M. moriokaense,* and *M. arupense* was pigmentation, as all the isolates appeared to be scoto- chromogens whereas both these NTM were previously reported to be non-chromogenic (Cloud *et al.,* 2006; Turenne *et al.,* 2002; Tortoli, 2003). Other characteristics that further segregated the isolates from *M. arupense* was their ability to degrade urea as well as to reduce nitrate to nitrite (except for isolate Swab 242). *M. arupense* was previously reported to lack these traits (Cloud *et al.,* 2006)*.* Contrary to what is reported for *M. novocastrense, M. flavescens* as well as *M. elephantis,* all the isolates were unable to grow in the presence of 5% NaCl (Tortoli, 2003; Shojaei et al., 1997; Bojalil *et al.,* 1962; Turenne *et al.,* 2002; Tortoli *et al.,* 2004). In addition, the ability of the isolates to grow at 45°C further separated them from *M. flavescens* as well as *M. arupense,* which were previously reported not to grow at this temperature (Tortoli *et al.,* 2004; Cloud *et al.,* 2006).

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The antibiotic susceptibility profiles determined for the isolates in this study have only been used as a tool for taxonomic classification. All isolates with the exception of Uyenvlei swab 3 which was not inhibited by ciprofloxacin and amikacin, showed zones of inhibition of  $>20$  mm, to the two antibiotics as well as doxycycline. Most of the isolates were not inhibited by imipenem (except TB 5614 and TB 5612, both showing inhibition zones of 10 mm), tobramycin (except Honing S2 and Western Cape swab 5 showing inhibition zones of 20 mm and 12 mm, respectively), amoxylin (except TB 5960A, C4 and Trigaarspoorts swab 03027 for which 10 mm inhibition zones were observed) and cefoxitin (except for Pan2S1, where a 20 mm zone of inhibition was observed). Isolates TB 6607 ; TB 5614 ; Uyenvlei swab 3 ; C4 ; Vryburg swab3; Middledrift swab 2341 ; and Villanora H<sub>2</sub>O were not inhibited by clarithromycin whereas the growth of the other isolates, i.e. TB 5960A, C28, TB 5612, W. Cape swab 5, Pan2S1, Trigaarspoort swab 03027, Swab242, Balasi H2O, Honing S2, Komani H2O, and Mbekweni H2O.3 was inhibited by the antibiotic.



## **Table 3.2: Comparison of phenotypic characteristics of the NTM isolates with those of the closely related species**



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a, data retrieved from Tortoli , 2003; b, Data retrieved from Turenne *et al.,* 2002; c, Shojaei et al., 1997; d, data taken from Cloud *et al.,* 2006; e, data retrieved from Tsukamura *et al.,* 1986; f, data taken from Adékambi *et al.,* 2006; g, data taken from Tortoli *et al.,* 2004; h, data taken from Bojalil *et al.,* 1962; v, variable results based on a and c; +, positive; -, negative; +++, optimum growth; Bo, bovine; Bu, buffalo; Ref, reference strain; swab, nasal swab**.**





# **Table 3.3: Antibiotic susceptibility profiles of the NTM isolates**





Inhibition zone: The diameter of the clear zone around the antimicrobial disc, indicating bacterial growth inhibition by the respective antibiotic**.** 

#### **3.4.2 Genetic characteristics and phylogenetic analysis**

The 18 NTM isolates were shown to have a 95% - 98% sequence similarity with *M. moriokaense* based on partial 16S rDNA sequence (Gcebe *et al.,* 2013). Of the 18 isolates, 16 had at least 97% 16S rDNA sequence similarity to that of *M. moriokaense,* except isolates TB 6607 and Honing S2, with 95.6% and 96.5% sequence similarity to that of *M. moriokaense,* respectively. The sequence analysis data of the isolates for different gene fragments is summarised in Table 3.4 and (highest sequence similarities to known *M*y*cobacterium* species were reported). The distance matrices (Table 3.5-3.7) illustrate the estimated divergence between the respective gene sequences (*hsp65, rpo*B and *sod*A).

When we characterised the isolates in this study by sequencing of their *hsp65* gene (439 bp fragment), 10/18 isolates (namely, Middledrift swab 2341, Balasi H2O, Vryburg swab3, W. Cape swab 5, TB 5612,

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Swab 242, TB 5960A, C28, Uyenvlei swab 3 and C4) showed 95% sequence similarity to *Mycobacterium novocastrense*. Alignment of the *hsp65* gene fragment showed only a 0.3% sequence divergence that occurred between isolate Uyenvlei swab 3 and the other nine isolates and no variation was observed among the nine isolates (Table 3.5). Honing S2 showed 93% similarity to *Mycobacterium novocastrense* and *Mycobacterium flavescens*; Villanora H2O showed 96% sequences similarity to *M. novocastrense*; whereas isolate TB 6607 showed 99% sequence similarity to *Mycobacterium* isolates, *Mycobacterium* sp G1368 or *Mycobacterium* sp variant Ms430 (sequences deposited in the Genbank database). Isolates Mbekweni H<sub>2</sub>O.3, TB 5614, Trigaarspoort swab 03027, and Pan2S1 showed 98% similarity to *M. novocastrense*; while Komani H<sub>2</sub>O exhibited 97% sequence similarity to *M*. *novocastrense*. A 0.5% sequence *M. novocastrense* divergence was the maximum observed between Pan2S1 and Komani H<sub>2</sub>O (Table 3.5).

Partial sequence analysis of the *rpoB* gene identified these same 10 isolates as well as isolates Honing S2, Komani H2O and Villanora H2O to share 95% sequence similarity with *M. novocastrense, M. flavescens* and *M. arupense.* Despite these isolates sharing same percentage sequence similarities with *M. novocastrense*, there were higher sequence variations between each of the three isolates (Honing S2, Komani H<sub>2</sub>O and Villanora H<sub>2</sub>O) and the other ten isolates, than among the ten isolates. Komani H<sub>2</sub>O showed at least 5% sequence divergence from the other ten isolates while Villanora H<sub>2</sub>O and Honing S2 exhibited at least 3% and 7.1% divergence from the other ten isolates, respectively. The maximum sequence variation that occurred among the ten isolates was 2.2%, and was observed between isolates Uyenvlei swab 3 and TB 5960A (Table 3.6). Isolates TB 5614 showed 92% sequence similarity of the partial region of the *rpoB* gene to that of *M. arupense, M. moriokaense* and *M. barrasiae* whereas Mbekweni H2O.3, Trigaarspoort swab 03027 and Pan2S1 showed 96% similarity to *M. novocastrense,* 

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*M. flavescens* and *M. arupense.* A 0.9% sequence divergence was observed between isolates Mbekweni H<sub>2</sub>O.3 and Trigaarspoort swab 03027 as well as between isolates Mbekweni H<sub>2</sub>O.3 and Pan2S1. On the other hand, isolate TB 6607 showed 99% sequence similarity of the *rpo*B gene fragment to *M. flavescens.*

Characterization of the isolates by sequencing of the partial fragment of the *sodA* gene showed eight isolates from the group of ten together with isolates Pan2S1, Honing S2, Trigaarspoort swab 03027, Villanora H<sub>2</sub>O, Honing S2, Mbekweni H<sub>2</sub>O.3 and Middledrift swab 03027 to share between 91% and 93% sequence similarity with *M. flavescens* and *M. novocastrense.* Two isolates *viz* Balasi H2O and TB 5612 could not be amplified with the *sodA* primers used. The other isolates TB 6607 had *sodA* gene sequence that was 99% similar to *M. elephantis* whereas isolate TB 5614, shared 97% sequence similarity of the *sod*A gene fragment with *M. elephantis.* Table 3.7 illustrates *sodA* sequence divergence between the isolates.

Phylogenetic relatedness of the isolates and other *Mycobacterium* species, based on individual gene fragments, *viz hsp65*, *rpoB*, and *sodA* as well as concatenated gene sequences are illustrated by the phylogenetic trees in Fig 3.1 A-D. Phylogenetic analysis of the isolates based on the *hsp65* gene fragment revealed the 10/18 isolates, namely Middledrift swab 2341, Balasi H<sub>2</sub>O, Vryburg swab3, W. Cape swab 5, TB 5612, Swab 242, TB 5960A, C28, Uyenvlei swab 3 and C4 to form a single cluster and were designated, *M. malmesburii* with a single branch of isolate Uyenvlei swab 3, indicating the observed sequence variation between this isolate and the others in the cluster (Fig 3.1A). The highest level of bootstrap support value (100%) identified these isolates as belonging to the same *Mycobacterium* species. Despite that these isolates showed 95% sequence similarity to *M. novocastrense,* they did not cluster phylogenetically with this species. Isolates Komani H2O, Pan2S1, Trigaarspoort swab 03027 and Mbekweni  $H<sub>2</sub>O.3$  clustered together with a minimum bootstrap support value of 86% and were

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designated *M. komanii*. This cluster did not group with any other *Mycobacterium* species. Both *M. novocastrense* and *M. flavescens* as well as *M. elephantis* and *M. pulveris* were positioned in between the two clusters i.e. *M. malmesburii* and *M. komanii*. The branch supporting isolates TB 5614 and Honing S2 in the tree showed a rather low bootstrap value of 39% between them but they did not group with any of the other isolates or known NTM species. Isolates Villanora  $H_2O$  and TB 6607 did not group with each other or with any of the other isolates or known NTM species.

Figure 3.1B illustrates the phylogenetic analysis of the isolates and other *Mycobacterium* species based on the *rpoB* gene fragment. In this analysis, both the *M. malmesburii* and *M. komanii* clusters, showed 96% and 99% intra-cluster bootstrap support values respectively, separated by two of their closest related species, namely *M. novocastrense* and *M. flavescens.* Isolate TB 6607 clustered together with *M. flavescens*. Isolates Villanora H<sub>2</sub>O, TB 5614, and Honing S2 did not group with any of the other isolates.

Figure 3.1C illustrates the phylogenetic tree, based on the *sodA* gene fragment. This analysis revealed 8 isolates of the *M. malmesburii* cluster branch with bootstrap support value of 94%, with the exception of Balasi H2O and TB 5612, which could not amplify. Clustering of the *M. komanii* isolates was supported by a minimum bootstrap value of 100%. *M. novocastrense* and *M. flavescens* separated these two clusters. Isolates TB 6607 and TB 5614 clustered together with *M. elephantis* whereas Villanora H2O and Honing S2 did not cluster with any of the isolates included in this analysis.

The phylogenetic tree derived from the concatenated sequences also displayed the *M. malmesburii* cluster to be distinct from the *M. komanii* cluster with bootstrap values of 100% observed for each branch

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supporting the clusters (Table 3.1D). Isolates TB 6607, Honing S2, Villanora H<sub>2</sub>O and TB 5614 were positioned separate from the other isolates.

As these two clusters clearly represented two novel species not previously described in literature, we proposed the names *Mycobacterium malmesburii sp.nov.* (for the *M. malmesburii* cluster isolates) and *Mycobacterium komanii sp.nov.* (for the *M. komanii* cluster isolates) respectively**.** 

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# **Table 3.4: Genetic characterisation of the NTM isolates by sequencing of different Mycobacterium house -keeping genes, showing highest homology results**









# **Table 3.5: Estimates of evolutionary divergence between** *hsp65* **gene sequences**





# **Table 3.6: Estimates of evolutionary divergence between the** *rpoB* **gene sequences**





# **Table 3. 7: Estimates of evolutionary divergence between** *sodA* **sequences**





#### **3.4.3 Description of** *Mycobacterium malmesburii* **sp. nov.**

*Mycobacterium malmesburii* is named after a town (Malmesbury) in South Africa, where one of the isolates of this species originated from.

The organisms are acid fast bacilli. Colonies form a yellow-orange pigment in the dark, and grow on LJ slants supplemented with PACT, as well as on Middlebrook 7H11 at 25°C, 37°C and 45°C, within 2-5 days but optimally at 37°C. The bacteria are positive for semi quantitative catalase test (>45 mm foam), Tween 80 hydrolysis, nitrate reductase, urease and pyrazinamidase activity tests. Different isolates show variable activity for the 3 day and 14 day arylsulphatase tests, as well as niacin production, but were most were negative for the 3 day test, positive for the 14 day test and negative for niacin accumulation. The bacteria do not grow in the presence of 5% NaCl and neither do they utilize D-mannitol, inositol, Lrhamnose and L-arabinose as sole carbon sources. The organisms are negative for the aesculin hydrolysis and citrate activity tests. Growths of most strains is not inhibited by imipenem, tobramycin, cefoxitin, amikacin and amoxylin, but are inhibited by ciprofloxacin, clarithromycin and doxycycline. These bacteria are mainly found in the environment at the escarpment, semi-arid plateau, moderate eastern plateau, subtropical coastal regions, as well as areas with mediterranean climate in South Africa. Isolates from bovine lymph node samples have been encountered in multiple parts of the country. No clinical relevance has been defined for this species.



#### **3.4.4 Description of** *Mycobacterium komanii* **sp. nov.**

*Mycobacterium komanii* is named after a town in South Africa where one of the isolates originated from. Komani is the Xhosa name for Queenstown (South Africa). These bacteria grow at 25°C, 37°C and 45°C on LJ slants supplemented with PACT, as well as on Middlebrook 7H11 within 2-5 days, but optimally at 37°C. The colonies form yellow pigments in the dark. The bacteria are positive for semi quantitative catalase test (>45 mm foam), Tween 80 hydrolysis, nitrate reductase, urease, pyrazinamidase, 3 day and 14 day arylsuphatase activity tests. The organisms do not grow in the presence of 5% NaCl; neither do they utilize D-mannitol, inositol, L-rhamnose and L-arabinose as sole carbon sources, and are negative for niacin accumulation test. The organisms are negative for aesculin hydrolysis and citrate activity tests. Growth of these bacteria is inhibited by ciprofloxacin, clarithromycin, doxycycline and amikacin, but not by imipenem, tobramycin, amoxylin and cefoxitin (for most strains). The bacteria were isolated from the environment at the escarpment, moderate eastern plateau as well as subtropical coastal regions of South Africa.

## **3.5 Discussion**

In a survey to determine the prevalence of NTM in cattle, African buffalo and their environments in South Africa, we found a group of NTM isolates that had not been previously described in literature. These were among the four most abundant species in this survey and were found to be closely related to *M. moriokaense,* by analysis of the 16S rDNA sequences (Gcebe *et al,* 2013). It was the aim of this study to conduct an in-depth characterisation of 18 of these NTM isolates. Multiple gene sequence characterisation, as well as phylogenetic analysis of three other gene loci, revealed that 14/18 of these

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belong to two novel NTM species. We proposed *M. malmesburii* sp. nov. (comprised of 10/18 isolates) and *M. komanii* sp. nov. (comprised of 4/18 isolates) as names for these two new species. The clustering of the isolates of the same proposed new species on the phylogenetic tree was supported by high bootstrap values (>85% for each gene sequence as well as concatenated sequences). This together with the absence of significant phylogenetic clustering neither between the clusters of the new species nor with known *Mycobacterium* species, formed the basis of our conclusion that the two clusters represent two novel NTM species. Greater sequence divergence of the three gene fragments (*hsp65*, *rpoB*, and *sodA*) of the isolates and the closely related species also suggested that these are unique sequences of novel species.

Further supporting evidence that the isolates represent novel species was that, even though they shared some common phenotypic characteristics with their closely related species *i.e. M. moriokaense, M. novocastrense, M. flavescens* and *M. arupense* there were clear differences, like pigmentation, biochemical as well as growth characteristics suggesting that these isolates do not belong to any of the known species. Even though the isolates of the two novel NTM species could be clearly differentiated from their closest related species by phenotypic characterisation, these profiles could not differentiate them from each other, suggesting that these two species are very closely related. The other remaining isolates did not seem to belong to any of the two novel species, neither did they belong to any other known *Mycobacterium* species, but they could not be classified as novel species as they occurred as a single isolates only (as per recommendations by Christensen *et al.,* 2001 and Janda *et al.,* 2002: a minimum of 5-10 isolates from geographically unrelated areas). Antibiotic susceptibility profiles of the isolates were not able to separate them unequivocally from their closest relatives, but were useful in the description of the novel species.



The polyphasic approach employed in this study showed clear differences between the two proposed novel species and their closest related species. Determining the 16S rDNA sequence is a very important first molecular based step which has been shown to contribute towards the discovery of new species (Cloud 2006). However sequencing of multiple genes together with phenotypic characterisation has revealed advantages over use of a single gene, in the description of the novel species. Phylogenetic analysis of the different *Mycobacterium* housekeeping genes has long been used in taxonomic studies. This analysis based on the three loci, was able to separate isolates belonging *M. malmesburii* sp. nov. from those of *M. komanii* sp. nov. It has been reported that trees derived from the *rpo*B gene are not as robust as those derived from the 16S rDNA and *hsp65* sequences, but in this study they gave useful taxonomic classification of the isolates (Devulder, 2005).

The identification of novel NTM species from the environment (in different regions of South Africa) of cattle and African buffaloes as well as from tissue samples, confirms the existence of a number of as yet unidentified NTM species that animals are exposed to. Their relevance needs to be further investigated, especially in light of cross-reactive immune responses they may elicit as shown by Michel *et al.,* 2011. Our motivation to further characterize this group of isolates was that, they appear to be among the abundant in cattle, African buffaloes and their environments in South Africa. Therefore animals are more likely to be exposed to the NTM species, with potential implications in BTB diagnosis and vaccination due to cross reactive immune responsiveness of hosts to these *Mycobacterium* species (and consequently development of BTB).

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**Fig 3.1A: Phylogenetic tree constructed using neighbour joining method, illustrating the position of the isolates. Genbank accession numbers for the sequences are shown in parenthesis. The tree is based on the partial** *hsp65* **gene sequences. The percentage of replicate trees in which the associated taxa clustered together in the bootstrap test (1000 replicates) are shown next to the branches (Felsenstein, 1985). The tree was drawn to scale, with branch lengths in the same units as those of the evolutionary distances used to infer the phylogenetic tree. The evolutionary distances were computed using the Maximum Composite Likelihood method (Tamura** *et al.,* **2004) and are in the units of the number of base substitutions per site. Nocardia spp was used as an out group sequence.**





**Fig 3.1B: Phylogenetic tree constructed using neighbour joining method, illustrating the position of the isolates. Genbank accession numbers for the sequences are shown in parenthesis. The tree is based on the partial** *rpo***B gene sequences. The percentage of replicate trees in which the associated taxa clustered together in the bootstrap test (1000 replicates) are shown next to the branches (Felsenstein, 1985). The tree was drawn to scale, with branch lengths in the same units as those of the evolutionary distances used to infer the phylogenetic tree. The evolutionary distances were computed using the Maximum Composite Likelihood method (Tamura** *et al.,* **2004) and are in the units of the number of base substitutions per site. V5.05.Norcadia spp was used as an out group sequence.**





**Fig 3.1C: Phylogenetic tree constructed using neighbour joining method, illustrating the position of the isolates. Genbank accession numbers for the sequences are shown in parenthesis. The tree is based on the partial** *sod***A gene sequences. The percentage of replicate trees in which the associated taxa clustered together in the bootstrap test (1000 replicates) are shown next to the branches (Felsenstein, 1985). The tree was drawn to scale, with branch lengths in the same units as those of the evolutionary distances used to infer the phylogenetic tree. The evolutionary distances were computed using the Maximum Composite Likelihood method (Tamura** *et al.,* **2004) and are in the units of the number of base substitutions per site. .Nocardia spp was used as an out group sequence.**





**Fig 3.1D: Phylogenetic tree constructed using neighbour joining method, illustrating the position of the isolates. The tree is based on concatenated sequences of:** *hsp65* **(424bp),** *rpoB (***711bp) and** *sodA* **(411bp) gene fragments. The percentage of replicate trees in which the associated taxa clustered together in the bootstrap test (1000 replicates) are shown next to the branches (Felsenstein, 1985). The tree was drawn to scale, with branch lengths in the same units as those of the evolutionary distances used to infer the phylogenetic tree. The evolutionary distances were computed using the Maximum Composite Likelihood method (Tamura** *et al.,* **2004) and are in the units of the number of base substitutions per site. Nocardia spp was used as an out group sequence.**



# **CHAPTER 4. COMPARATIVE GENOMICS OF FOUR NTM SPECIES AND M. BOVIS / M. TUBERCULOSIS: OCCURRENCE OF SHARED GENES WITH EMPHASIS ON THOSE ENCODING IMMUNOGENIC PROTEINS**

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## *CONTENTS OF CHAPTER 4 and CHAPTER 5 WERE SUBMITTED FOR PUBLICATION*



#### **4.1 Abstract**

It is not known whether colonization of a host with NTM expressing immunogenic proteins that are to a certain degree homologous to those of pathogenic mycobacteria, without actual infection, could lead to significant cross- reactive immune responses that may interfere with diagnosis of BTB. In this study, we employed comparative genomics of four NTM species *viz Mycobacterium komanii* sp. nov., *Mycobacterium malmesburii* sp. nov., *Mycobacterium nonchromogenicum*, *Mycobacterium fortuitum*  ATCC 6841 and *Mycobacterium bovis/ Mycobacterium tuberculosis* to assess their potential to elicit cross-reactive immune responses against *M. bovis* antigens by searching the NTM genomes for the presence of shared genes shown to be encoding for immunogenic proteins in *M. bovis*. The four NTM species had *esxA* and *esxB* sequences. Five bovine T-cell recognized epitopes of *M. bovis* ESAT-6 (*esxA*) were detected in *M. fortuitum* and *M. nonchromogenicum* genome while four CFP 10 (*esxB*) immunogenic epitopes were detected in *M. komanii* sp. nov. and *M. malmesburii* sp.nov. genomes. Genes of the ESX-3 locus (*esxG*, *esxH*) and *esxR* were also found in the four NTM species. Two of the five *M. bovis* immunogenic epitopes of *esxR* showed 100% similarity to *M. fortuitum, M. malmesburii* sp. nov. and *M. komanii* sp.nov. sequences. Full cross recognition of these NTM *esxR* epitopes is therefore highly likely, and may lead to misdiagnosis of BTB. The *mpb70* orthologs as well as four *M. bovis* immunogenic epitopes were identified in *M. malmesburii* sp.nov. and *M. komanii* sp.nov. *CanA, mpb64, Rv1120c* and *dnaK* sequences were also detected in all the four NTM while *mpb63, tpx* and *hspX* occurred in *M*. *nonchromogenicum* and *M. fortuitum..* This study has laid a foundation into investigation of these NTM and their cross-reactivity with *M. bovis* immunogenic proteins.

*Key words: NTM, Esx family, esx-1, esx-2, esx-3, esx-4 esx-5, mpb70, mpb63, mpb64, Rv1315, NTM, M. fortuitum, M. malmesburii sp.nov., M. komanii sp.nov., M. nonchromogenicum, M. bovis, M. tuberculosis, mpb83, espC, cross-reactive immune responses, BTB immunodiagnosis.* 

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## **4.2 Introduction**

The hypothesized interference of NTM and the TB vaccine strain, BCG, in tuberculin based assays for B(TB) immuno-diagnosis has triggered investigation of 'specific' or defined antigens which are uniquely present in pathogenic mycobacteria, mainly *M. bovis* and *M. tuberculosis* and absent in *M. bovis* BCG and NTM. Comparative genomics has led to the identification and characterisation of certain genetic regions in the genomes of mycobacteria that are absent in *M. bovis* BCG and most NTM, but present in *M. tuberculosis* and *M. bovis*. The genomes of *M. tuberculosis* and of *M. bovis* are 99.95% identical*.*  Several studies employing different techniques of genomic biology such as bacterial artificial chromosome array, DNA micro- array, subtractive genomic hybridization and whole genome sequence analysis revealed a number of genomic regions of difference (RD) among *M. bovis, M. tuberculosis* and *M. bovis* BCG (Mahairas *et al.,* 1996; Ganguly *et al.,* 2008). Examples of these genomic regions deleted during the evolution of *M. bovis* BCG are: RD1, RD2, RD3 and RD14 encompassing 29 open reading frames (ORF) (Maharais *et al.,* 1996; Ganguly *et al.,* 2008).

Proteins encoded in these regions in pathogenic mycobacteria are investigated on the assumption that they may be involved in the virulence of pathogenic mycobacteria and in activation of cells involved in host immune responses and therefore hold potential as candidates for the diagnosis of B (TB). Since host humoral responses against tuberculosis only appear at later stages of infection most studies have mainly focused on antigens that are targets for cell mediated immune responses. Open reading frame sequences for these proteins encoded in these regions are selected and peptides or conjugate proteins derived from these sequences are synthesized and tested for their immunogenicity (Skjøt *et al*., 2002; Cockle *et .al*  2002). Since RD1 deletion seems to have been the early event in the attenuation of the vaccine strain, proteins within this region are the most studied. The RD1 which is 9.5 kb in size and comprises of nine

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open reading frames, Rv3871 to Rv3879c (annotation of the *M. tuberculosis* genome) or Mb3900 to Mb3908c (annotation of the *M. bovis* genome). The two most predominant proteins, namely the 6 kDa early secreted target antigen (ESAT-6) also known as ESXA, (encoded by *Rv3875* in *M. tuberculosis* and *Mb3905* in the *M. bovis* genome); and the 10 kDa culture filtrate protein (CFP 10) also known as ESXB ( encoded by *Rv3874* in the *M. tuberculosis* genome and *Mb3904* in the *M. bovis* genome) are being widely investigated as candidate vaccines and used as antigens in the diagnosis of B(TB) (Pym *et al.,* 2003; Vordermeier *et al.,* 2006; Ganguly *et al.,* 2008). PPE 68 encoded by *Rv3873* or *Mb3903* has also been identified as an immunogenic component of RD1. ESAT-6 and to a lesser extent CFP 10 and PPE 68 have been shown to induce T-cell responses in animal models (Demangel *et al.,* 2004; Mustafa *et al.,* 2014). Functional studies have shown that RD1 constitutes a specialised system for secretion in mycobacteria, involving genes lying inside the RD1 locus as well as the regions flanking this RD. The system is named the ESAT-6 secretion system (Brondin *et al.,* 2004). Secretory proteins that subvert host defences and impair the development of protective immunity have since been the focus of research aimed at development of TB vaccines and immunodiagnostic assays, because they are thought to have a potential to induce protective immunity and immune responses of diagnostic value (Ize and Palmer; 2006; Ganguly *et al.,* 2008; Marongui *et al.,* 2013). In addition, proteins of the Proline Glutamate (PE) or Proline Proline Glutamate (PPE) family which are localised to the cell surface or secreted have been investigated as TB vaccine and diagnostic candidates (Akhter *et al.,* 2012).The availability of the whole genomes of *M. bovis*, *M. tuberculosis* and *M. bovis* BCG has contributed immensely to the identification of a number of these immunogenic proteins. Among proteins involved in secretion are the 14kDa heat shock protein HSPX encoded by *Rv2031c/Mb2057c*, the probable conserved secreted protein TB22.2/ MPB64 encoded by *Rv3036c/Mb3062c*, TB 10.3 encoded by *esxR*/ *Rv3019c/Mb3045c*, TB 10.4 encoded by *esxH/Rv0288/Mb0296*, *esxI*/ *Rv1037c/ Mb1066c*, *esxJ*/ *Rv1038/ Mb1067,* EspC encoded by



*Rv3615c/Mb3645c, Rv2660c/Mb2678c,* Tpx encoded *Rv1932/Mb1967,* CanA encoded *by Rv1284/Mb1315,* hypothetical protein, *Rv1120c/Mb1151c* and secreted antigenic proteins, Ag85 complex (Millington *et al.,* 2011; Marongui *et al.,* 2013).

Other antigens that have been shown to play a pivotal role in host humoral immune response and have been investigated for their potential as candidates for B (TB) diagnosis are MPB70/ MPT70, MPB83/ MPT83, MPB63/ MPT63. These proteins are highly homologous (amino acid similarities of 98%-100%) within the members of the *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* complex (including *M. bovis* BCG) (Ganguly *et al.,* 2008).

The two predominant antigens, MPB70, a major secreted immunogenic protein and MPB83, cell surface lipoprotein are highly expressed in *M. bovis* and considerably less abundantly expressed in *M. tuberculosis*. Some strains of *M. bovis* BCG express only minute amounts of MPB70 and MPB83, *viz* the Pasteur, Danish 1331, Glaxo, Tice and Beijing strains. *M. bovis* BCG strains expressing high levels of MPB70 and MPB83 are the Tokyo, Moreau, Russian, Sweden, Birkhaug and Romanian strains (Wiker 2009). These proteins including MPB80 are encoded by two genes in an operon of six genes spanning from *Rv2871- Rv2876* (in the *M. tuberculosis* genome) or *Mb2896-Mb2901* (in the *M. bovis* genome). MBP83 is encoded by *Rv2873/Mb2897* in the operon while MPB70/80 is encoded by *Rv2875/Mb2900*. Several studies using recombinant MPB83 in assays such as MAPIA and lateral flow immunochromatography have confirmed MPB83 to be among the most promising antigens for serodiagnosis of BTB in a range of animal species such as cattle, badgers, white tailed deer, wild boar and possums (Goodger *et al.,* 1994; Greenwald *et al.,* 2003; Liu *et al.,* 2007; Lerselier *et al.,* 2008; Lyashchenko *et al.,* 2008). It has also been established that the antibodies to MPB83 can be detected

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relatively earlier (4 weeks) than the anti-MPB70 response which usually develops after 18-22 months post infection (Wiker *et al.,* 2009).

Cell mediated immune responses of humans and animals to these antigens have also been explored for diagnosis of tuberculosis. The T-cell response to MPB70 is much better characterised than the T-cell response to MPB83 (Wiker, 2009). It was shown that MPB70 causes strong skin test reactivity upon sensitisation of guinea pigs with BCG, but not with *M. tuberculosis* (Nagai *et al.,* 1986). Roche *et al. (*1994), also showed that vaccinated individuals demonstrated T-cell responses to MPB70 *in vitro*. Other studies have reported that individuals infected with *M. tuberculosis* show T-cell responses to MPB70. In these studies MPB70 was shown to induce IFNγ as well as tumour necrosis factor (Al Attiya *et al.,* 2003; 2006). Studies in cattle infected with *M. bovis* also demonstrated T cell immune responses to MPB70. (Wood *et al.,* 1994; Pollock *et al.,* 1994). On the other hand, MPB83 has been shown to induce stronger T-cell immune responses in *M. bovis* infected animals than MPB70 (Vordermeier *et al.,* 1999).

Genes encoding antigenic proteins like ESAT-6, CFP 10 and PPE 68 have been shown not to be specific to MTBC but also occur in *M. leprae* as well as in NTM like *M. kansasii, M. marinum*, *M. smegmatis*, *M. szulgai* (Sorensen *et al.,* 1995; Harboe *et al.,* 1996; Gey van Pittius *et al.,* 2001). Even though the amino acid sequences of the corresponding proteins vary among these species, expression of these proteins was detected most notably in *M. kansasii* (Vordermeier *et al.,* 2007). Likewise, homologues of MPB70 and MPB83 in *M. kansasii* and MPB70 in *Nocardia asteroids* were found, and these proteins were demonstrated to be expressed in these species (Woolford *et al.,* 1997). In addition, *M. kansasii*  homologues have been described for genes encoding for other immunogenic antigens of *M. bovis*/ *M. tuberculosis* such as TB10.4 encoded by *Rv 0288*/ *esxH*, and TB 10.3/ *esxR* (Skjøt *et al.,* 2002). Studies have shown that some of these proteins are not only expressed in the NTM species but that cattle



experimentally infected with *M. kansasii* also demonstrate cell mediated immune responses to ESAT- 6 and CFP 10 as well as antibody responses to a cocktail of ESAT- 6, CFP 10 and MPB83 (Waters *et al.,*  2010). Contrary in a study by Demangel *et al* (2005), mice sensitised with *M. scrofulaceum, M. avium*  or *M. vaccae* did not produce cellular immune responses cross reacting with ESAT- 6 probably because the *esat*-6 gene is not available in the genomes of these mycobacterial species (Demangel *et al.,* 2005).

Potential NTM specific immunogenic antigens and their role in priming T cell immune response were assessed by Checkley *et al.* (2011). This study used a bioinformatics comparative genomics approach (comparing whole genome sequences of the most commonly isolated NTM in humans to those of MTBC) to identify antigens specific to NTM and use them as targets of T cell immune responses to NTM infection. In this study a cluster of mammalian cell entry (Mce) proteins was shown to be specific to NTM and low level responses to these proteins were detected in NTM infected individuals (Checkley *et al.,* 2011).

The aim of the present study was to compare the genomes of the four NTM species *viz M. nonchromogenicum*, *M. fortuitum*, *M. malmesburii* sp.nov. and *M. komanii* sp.nov. to those of M*. bovis* and *M. tuberculosis*. The comparison was done in order to investigate the occurrence of shared genes, known to encode for immunogenic proteins in *M. bovis*/ *M. tuberculosis,* in the NTM genomes. The NTM genomes were searched for genes for *Mycobacterium* secretory proteins mainly from the ESAT - 6 family as well as MPB70, MPB63 and MPB83 proteins and other proteins. The NTM selected for this analyses, except *M. fortuitum,* were found to be among the most frequently occurring NTM species in cattle, African buffalo and their environments in South Africa (Gcebe *et al.,* 2013) and a PPD derived from *M. fortuitum* is used in the modified BOVIGAMTM assay in South Africa as an additional NTM tuberculin to the one derived from *M. avium* derived (Michel *et al.,* 2011).

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# **4.3 Materials and Methods**

# **4.3.1 Origin of bacterial cultures**

*M. malmesburii* sp.nov. strain WCM 7299, *M. komanii* sp.nov. strain GPK 1020 and *M. nonchromogenicum* strain NCK 8460 were isolated during a NTM survey in South Africa (Gcebe *et al*, 2013). The two former strains were identified and characterised as novel NTM species in chapter three of this thesis. The *M. nonchromogenicum* strain was isolated from soil and species identification was done by PCR and sequencing of 16S rDNA, *hsp65, rpoB* and *sodA*. *M. fortuitum* ATCC 6841 was supplied by the Tuberculosis laboratory of the ARC-Onderstepoort Veterinary Institute and its species identity was confirmed by PCR- sequencing assays targeting 16S rDNA, *hsp65*, *rpoB*, and *sod*A*.* 

# **4.3.2 DNA extraction for whole genome sequencing**

DNA was extracted from bacterial cultures in solid media using the Qiagen nucleic acid extraction kit (Whitehead Scientific, South Africa).



# **4.3.3 Library preparation and sequencing**

Genomic DNA paired -end libraries were generated using the Nextera DNA sample preparation kit (Illumina) and indexed using the Nextera index kit (Illumina). Sequencing was performed as paired end reads (2x250bp) employing the Illumina Miseq system using the Miseq reagent kit v2 at the Agricultural Research Council.

# **4.3.4 Sequence quality control and trimming**

Adapter contents were removed using Cutadapt<sup>2</sup>. All reads were trimmed for quality with Trimmomatic (sliding window=4, trimming when average quality<15), clipped at 20-150 bases for *M. fortuitum* and *M. malmesburii* sp.nov. or 20-240 bases for *M. nonchromogenicum* and *M. komanii* sp.nov. using the FASTX Toolkit [\(http://hannonlab.cshl.edu/fastx toolkit/\)](http://hannonlab.cshl.edu/fastx%20toolkit/); and reads with less than 80% bases with a quality score of less than 20 were removed (FASTX Toolkit). FASTQC was used to analyse the sequence quality of the processed reads at the Centre for Proteomics and Genomics Research (CPGR, South Africa).

# **4.3.5 Whole genome sequence analysis:**

# **4.3.5.1 Alignment**

To gauge the similarity of the NTM species to *M. bovis* AF2122/97 (NC 002945.3) and *M. tuberculosis* H37Rv (NC 000962.2), alignment of each of the processed sets of reads to these reference genomes

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was performed using BWA (Li and Durbin, 2009).

#### **4.3.5.2 De Novo assembly**

Assembly of the sequencing reads was performed using SPAdes, which mainly involves construction of DNA sequences of contigs and the mapping of reads to contigs (Bankevich *et al.,* 2012). Each assembly was evaluated using QUAST (Gurevich *et al.,* 2013).

# **4.3.5.3 Annotation**

The assembled genome sequences were annotated using Prokka annotation pipeline (Seemann, 2014). This involved predicting tRNA, rRNA and mRNA genes in the sequences and assigning putative gene products to the protein-coding genes (CDSs) based on their similarity to sequences in a database of curated Mycobacterium genes.

#### **4.3.5.4 Comparison of NTM predicted proteins to those of reference genomes**

The list of annotated genes for each NTM was compared to those of the reference genomes (*M. bovis* AF2122/97 and *M. tuberculosis* H37Rv). Basic local alignment search tool of proteins (BLASTP) (Altschul *et al.,* 1990; 1997) was used to identify putative homologous proteins as the best Basic local alignment search tool (BLAST) hits between each pair of genomes.

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#### **4.3.5.5 Genomic similarity search among the NTM strains,** *M. bovis* **and** *M. tuberculosis*

To examine the similarities among the four newly sequenced genomes and the two reference genomes, *viz M. bovis* AF2122/97 and *M. tuberculosis* H37Rv*,* pairwise BLAST was performed between the full sets of amino acid sequences for all strains. The similarity of a pair of strains was estimated as a proportion of protein- coding genes that have homologues in both strains (*i.e*. number of genes shared/ total number of genes). To estimate the similarity for only the highly conserved genes, the same metric was calculated using the subset of the best BLAST hits with amino acid sequence identity ≥90% that were aligned along  $\geq 50\%$  of the sequence length.

#### **4.3.5.6 Investigating the closest sequence relatives of the NTM strains**

BLAST search of the largest contigs from each NTM assembly was performed against the NCBI Genbank database to identify the closest known sequence relative of each NTM species. BLAST searches were also performed for the annotation CDS features for each NTM species against the reference genomes for their respective best hits and visualized using BLAST Ring Image Generator (BRIG) (Alikhan *et al.,* 2011).

#### **4.3.5.7 Genome assembly visualisation**

BLAST Ring Image Generator (Alikhan *et al.,* 2011) was used to visualize the pairwise BLAST results of CDS features in *M. bovis* and each NTM annotation against that of *M. tuberculosis* and against the respective closest NTM relative*.* 

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# **4.3.5.8 Identification of immunogenic proteins in NTM annotations**

BLAST searches were conducted to quantify the similarity of the annotated amino acid sequences in the NTM assemblies (*M. fortuitum, M. malmesburii* sp.nov*., M. komanii* sp.nov. and *M. nonchromogenicum*) to immunogenic proteins including the Esx family (ESX-1 to ESX-5) in *M. bovis, M. tuberculosis* and *M. smegmatis,* (see table 4.1 for the list of the targeted proteins). BLASTP searches against NCBI Genbank database were also conducted for the respective NTM protein sequences to quantify similarity to other sequences in the database. Amino acid and nucleotide sequences of the *M. bovis, M. tuberculosis*  and *M. smegmatis* proteins were retrieved from Genolist database [\(http://Genolist.pasteur.fr/Tuberculist\)](http://genolist.pasteur.fr/Tuberculist). Multiple amino acid sequence alignments of the individual amino acid sequences (ESAT-6 and CFP 10 [ESX-1], TB10.4, TB10.3 [ESX-3], MPB70 and CanA) from different mycobacteria were performed using Clustalw (Thompson *et al.,* 1994) from MEGA (version 6), to assess sequence similarities of the *M. bovis* and the NTM homologues at immunogenic epitope level. NTM protein homologues that showed amino acid sequence similarities of <50% to the respective *M.bovis* antigen were not included in the alignments.



# **Table 4.1: List of target genes (other than the e encoding immunogenic proteins in** *M. bovis* **and** *M. tuberculosis*















# **4.4. Results**

De Novo assembly, sequence annotation, genome similarity check, alignment as well as comparison to *M. bovis* and *M. tuberculosis* reference genomes of the four NTM reads (*M. fortuitum, M. nonchromogenicum, M. malmesburii* sp.nov, and *M. komanii* sp.nov.) (referred to as the 'four NTM' in the different result sections) is reported. The occurrence of the predicted NTM Esx-family proteins and the targeted immunogenic proteins in the four NTM genomes as well as other NTM is also reported. Multiple amino acid sequence alignment and comparison at epitope level of the four NTM homologues



of ESAT-6, CFP 10, CanA, MPB70, ESXG and ESXR/ESXH, to those of *M. smegmatis, M. bovis* and *M. tuberculosis* is also reported.

# **4.4.1 Alignment of the four NTM reads with** *M. bovis* **and** *M. tuberculosis* **genomes**

The results of the alignment of the NTM reads (DNA sequences) and *M. bovis* or *M. tuberculosis* are summarised in Table 4. 2. From these results it is clear that there is very little similarity (ranging from 8.83% between *M. malmesburii* sp.nov. and *M. tuberculosis* to 18.69% between *M. komanii* sp.nov. and *M. tuberculosis* at DNA level) between any of the sets of the NTM sample reads and the reference genomes *i.e. M. bovis* (NC 002945.3) and *M. tuberculosis* (NC 000962.3), hence De Novo assembly was performed. High GC contents of 66.19% -67.33% which are typical of mycobacterial genomes were observed in the NTM genomes.







#### **4.4.2 De Novo assembly results**

The summary of the assembly results is shown in Table 4.3. The assembly for *M. komanii* sp.nov. produced 63 contigs, its largest contig was 292 570 bases in size. While the assembly for *M. nonchromogenicum* produced the largest contig of all the samples (425 774 bases) it also produced the largest number of contigs. The overwhelming majority of the sequenced bases fall within the few largest contigs, but each assembly also produced a large number of very short contigs. The assembly of *M. fortuitum* and *M. malmesburii* sp.nov. resulted in high total number of contigs (179 and 255 respectively). This is probably due to the small reads sizes present in these datasets (125 bases) compared to those of *M. nonchromogenicum* and *M. komanii* sp.nov (210 bases). Both *M. komanii* sp.nov. and *M. nonchromogenicum* sp.nov. assemblies displayed improved N50 (the length for which the set of contigs that length or longer contains at least half the assembly bases) and L50 (the number of contigs of length **≥** N50) metrics over that of *M. fortuitum* and *M. malmesburii* sp. nov. assemblies. These results suggest that the order of assembly quality from highest to lowest is: *M. komanii* sp. nov., *M. nonchromogenicum*, *M. fortuitum* and *M. malmesburii* sp. nov.

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# **Table 4.3: Summary of the De Novo assembly results**



# **4.4.3 Assembled genome sequence annotation**

The summary of the annotation is provided in Table 4.4. The numbers of protein coding genes, sequences encoding tRNA and rRNA and signal peptides identified in each of the four NTM genome are indicated. The whole genome sequences were deposited into the European Nucleotide Archive (ENA) the accession numbers are also indicated in Table 4.4.

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**Table 4.4: Assembled genome annotation, showing number of CDS, tRNA, rRNA and signal peptides** 



**4.4.4 Comparison of predicted proteins of the four NTM to those of reference genomes.** 

Table 4.5 summarizes the results for comparison of the four NTM genomes to the reference genomes (*M. bovis* AF2122/97 and *M. tuberculosis* H37Rv)*.* The number of putative homologues between each NTM and the two reference genomes as well as the number of genes for which no homologues were found (mainly hypothetical proteins) are indicated in the table. A higher number of gene homologues seem to be shared between *M. bovis*/ *M. tuberculosis* and each NTM than there were unique genes identified for each *Mycobacterium* species.



# **Table 4.5: Gene list comparison of the four NTM and** *M. bovis/ M. tuberculosis* **reference genomes**



**4.4.5 Esx family orthologs in NTM genomes (including the four newly sequenced NTM genomes and other NTM sequences available in NCBI Genbank database)** 

The four NTM annotations displayed the presence of the *esx* genes situated within the ESX-1 locus (*esxA* and *esxB*) as well as *esx* gene orthologs of the ESX-4 locus (Table 4.6). Orthologs of *esxA* and *esxB* were detected in *M. fortuitum* (71.58% and 64% similar to *M. bovis* respectively, at amino acid level), *M*. *malmesburii* sp.nov. (displaying 50% and 57.73% similarity to *M. bovis* respectively at amino acid level),



*M. nonchromogenicum* (displaying 71.58 and 64% similarity to the *M. bovis* orthologs respectively) and *M. komanii* sp.nov. (48.75% and 57.73% similar to the *M. bovis* at amino acid level). Interestingly, the BLAST searches using these sequences revealed the existence of their orthologs in additional NTM species, most notably *M. vulneris* (98% similarity to *M. fortuitum* at amino acid level for both genes), *M. mageritense* (82% and 74% similarity to *M. fortuitum* respectively, at amino acid level) and *M. farcinogenes* (96% and 92% similarity to *M. fortuitum* respectively, at amino acid level). The *esx* genes of the ESX-2 locus were not detected in any of the four NTM annotations. The *esx* genes of the ESX-3 locus (*esxG, esxH*) as well as *esxR* were found in the different NTM annotations while *esxS* and *esxQ* were both absent from all four NTM genomes as illustrated in table 4.6. The only NTM species that was found to harbor *esx* gene orthologs of the ESX-5 locus (*EsxN)* as well as *esxK* was *M. nonchromogenicum*  (Table 4.6)*.*



# **Table 4.6: Orthologs of the** *esx genes* **in the four NTM genomes**





no, no ortholog found



**4.4.6 Genes encoding homologues of immunogenic proteins (Outside the** *esx* **cluster) shared between the NTM and** *M. bovis* **genomes** 

Orthologs of genes encoding immunogenic proteins in *M. bovis* and *M. tuberculosis* were identified from the four sequenced NTM genomes. The respective amino acid sequence homologies of these target proteins are shown in table 4.7. Only amino acid sequences of NTM showing homology of  $\geq 50\%$  to those of *M. bovis/ M. tuberculosis* are described. Orthologs of *tpx* were identified in *M. fortuitum* and *M. nonchromogenicum* while *dnaK* and *canA (Mb1315/ Rv0284)* were identified in all four NTM species. Other *canA* gene sequence orthologs (sequence positions: *Mb3301, Mb3619c*, *Mb3555c* in the *M. bovis* genomes) were also identified in NTM. Most of these were found to be shared among the four NTM species but the *Mb3301* ortholog was not identified in *M. malmesburii* sp.nov. and *M. komanii* sp.nov. The *mpb70* orthologs were identified in both *M. malmesburii* sp.nov. and *M. komanii* sp.nov. and the corresponding amino acid sequences of this gene were found to be 97.4% homologous between the two NTM species and 63% between the two NTM and *M. bovis*.

Two copies of *mpb63* were identified only in *M. fortuitum* and *M. nonchromogenicum*. Orthologs of *mpb64* were identified in all the four NTM genomes. While orthologs of *hspX* were identified in only *M. fortuitum* and *M. nonchromogenicum.*



**Table 4.7: Orthologs of genes encoding** *M. bovis* **/** *M. tuberculosis* **immunogenic proteins and their copy numbers in each of the four NTM genomes. Only genes of NTM showing >50% amino acid (AA) sequence similarity to those of** *M. bovis* **are were described** 



no, no or <50% amino acid homology identified, \* shows a second copy of the sequence ortholog which in all cases was

<50% similar to the *M. bovis* homologue at amino acid level.



**4.4.7 Comparison of amino acid sequence of the** *M. bovis* **ESAT-6, CFP 10, TB9.8, MPB70, TB10.4, TB10.3, and CanA to the NTM homologues, as well as immunogenic epitopes (ESAT, CFP 10, TB10.3, TB10.4, and MPB70)** 

#### ESAT-6 (*esxA*)

The amino acid sequence alignment of *M. fortuitum, M. nonchromogenicum, M. smegmatis, M. bovis/ M. tuberculosis esxA/* ESAT-6 homologues is demonstrated in Fig 4. 1a. Immunogenic epitopes of *M. bovis* ESAT-6 as demonstrated by Vordermeier *et al.,* (2000, 2003 and 2007) were found in *M. fortuitum, M. nonchromogenicum* as well as in *M. smegmatis* orthologs. Comparison of *M. bovis*, *M. smegmatis, M. nonchromogenicum* and *M. fortuitum* immunodominant epitopes revealed the following results: amino acid sequence similarities of 13/16 (81.28%) for the epitope at position 1-16 ; 9/17 (52.9%) and 10/17 (58.8%) amino acid residues*.* were identical between *fortuitum* and *M. bovis* and between *M. nonchromogenicum* and *M. bovis* respectively for the epitope at position 16-32, while 12/17 (70%) for the epitope at position 47-64; 12/19 (63%) for the epitope at position 56-74; 15/17 (88%) for the epitope at position 65-81 and finally 11/15 identity between *M. fortuitum* and *M. bovis,* and 12/15 between *M. nonchromogenicum* and *M. bovis* for epitope at position 81-95. Amino acid sequence similarities of 90% and 95% for the ESAT-6 were observed between *M. smegmatis* and *M. fortuitum* as well as *M. smegmatis*  and *M. nonchromogenicum* respectively.

A 90% amino acid sequence similarity of ESAT-6 was observed between *M. smegmatis* and *M. fortuitum*. When we compared the *M. smegmatis, M. nonchromogenicum* and *M. fortuitum* ESAT-6 orthologs at immunogenic epitope level, the following percentages of similarities were observed: 100% identity was

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observed for epitope at position 1-16 (88.2%), 29/31 (93.5) for epitope at position 16-32, 23/26 (88.4%) for epitope position 65-95 and finally 15/17 (88%) for epitope at position 57-72.

#### CFP 10 (*esxB*)

Comparison of amino acid sequences of the CFP 10 / *esxB* homologues of *M. fortuitum*, *M. smegmatis*, *M. malmesburii* sp.nov, *M. nonchromogenicum, M. komanii* sp.nov, *M. bovis* and *M. tuberculosis* is illustrated by the amino acid alignment in Fig 4.1b and immunogenic epitopes as demonstrated by Vordermeier *et al., (*2003; 2007) are underlined.

Comparing the *esxB* amino acid sequences of *M. bovis*, and the NTM orthologs revealed the following: for epitope at position 1-19, 14/19 (73.7%) amino acid residues were identical between *M. bovis*, *M. smegmatis, M. nonchromogenicum* and *M. fortuitum*, while only 12/19 (63%) amino acid residues were identical between *M. bovis*, *M. komanii* sp.nov and *M. malmesburii* sp.nov. For epitope at position 13- 28, 11/ 16 (68.75%) amino acids were found to be identical between *M. smegmatis*, *M. fortuitum, M. nonchromogenicum* and *M. bovis* while 10/16 (62.5%) were identical between *M. komanii* sp. nov., *M. malmesburii* p. nov. and *M. bovis*. The epitope at position 28-44, had 9/16 (56.25%) amino acid residues identical between *M. bovis*, *M. fortuitum, M. nonchromogenicum* and *M. smegmatis*, while 8/16 (50%) were identical between *M. bovis*, *M. komanii* sp.nov. and *M. malmesburii* sp.nov. The epitope at positon 55-72, showed sequences identity of 12/16 (75%) of amino acid residues between *M. bovis*, *M. fortuitum*, *M. smegmatis*, *M. nonchromogenicum, M. komanii* sp. nov. and *M. malmesburii* sp. nov. For the epitope at position 56-76, 12/20 (60%) amino acids were identical between all five NTM and *M. bovis.* Finally, for epitope at position 76-93, 9/18 (50%) of the amino acid residues were identical between *M. bovis*, *M.* 

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*fortuitum*, *M. nonchromogenicum* and *M. smegmatis,* while 6/18 (33.3%) were identical between *M. bovis, M. komanii* sp. nov. and *M. malmesburii* sp. nov.

#### TB10.3 (*esxR*) and TB 10.4 (*esxH*)

Alignment of the NTM, *M. bovis* and *M. tuberculosis* EsxR and EsxH amino acid sequences is illustrated in Fig 4.1c. The epitope at position 1 -12, was found to be 100% identical for all the species except a deletion at position 2-in *M. nonchromogenicum*. The epitope at position 5-13 was also 100% identical between all the species except for *M. nonchromogenicum* where a deletion of this region was observed, while the epitope at position 6-16, 09/11 (84.6%) amino acid residues were similar between *M. smegmatis*, *M. fortuitum* and *M. bovis/ M. tuberculosis* and . The epitope at position 51-59 had 7/9 (77.7%) amino acid residues that were similar between all the NTM species. For the epitope at position 54-62, 8/9 (88.8) amino acid residues were similar between all species for epitope.

#### MPB70 (*Rv2875*)

Alignment of the corresponding amino acid sequences of the *mpb70* gene orthologs of *M. komanii* sp. nov., *M. malmesburii* sp.nov, *M. bovis* and *M. tuberculosis* is illustrated in Fig 4.1d. Immunogenic epitopes of *M. bovis* MPB70 described by Pollock *et al.,* 2004 are underlined .A high degree of sequence variability (85%) was observed for the region at position 1-60 between the two NTM and *M. bovis* MPB70. This region was 90% similar between the two NTM species. Amino acid sequence similarities (71% for *M. komanii* sp. nov. and 68.5% for *M. malmesburii* sp.nov) were observed between each of the

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two NTM species and *M. bovis* for region at position 61-222. For the immunogenic epitopes 'KTNSSLLTSILTYHVVAG' and 'GVSTANATVYMIDSVLMPPA described by Pollock *et al.*'1994, there was sequence identity of 15/18 (83.3%) and 16/20 (80%) respectively between *M. bovis* and *M. komanii* sp.nov and 83.3 % and 85% amino acid similarity respectively between *M. bovis* and *M. malmesburii* sp.nov.

#### CanA (*Rv1284/Mb1315*)

Alignment of the corresponding amino acid sequences of *canA* (*Mb1315/ Rv1284*) orthologs of the NTM species, *M. bovis* and *M. tuberculosis* is illustrated in Fig4.1e. The amino acid sequence similarities between the different NTM orthologs and *M. bovis canA* range between 76.07%-79%. The alignments show higher sequence similarities for sequences stretching from position 55-102 (95%) and also at position 131-162 (93.75%) than other regions of the protein.

#### TB9.8 (*EsxG*)

Alignment of the amino acid sequences of the *esxG* orthologs of the NTM species and *M. bovis* is illustrated in Fig 4.1f. *M. nonchromogenicum* and *M. fortuitum* EsxG orthologs showed the highest amino acid sequence similarity to those *M. bovis* and *M. tuberculosis* with 81.05% and 81.5% of their amino acid residues identical to those of *M. bovis* and *M. tuberculosis,* respectively, followed by orthologs of *M. komanii* sp.nov.and *M. malmesburii* each displaying 78.35% similarity to those of *M. bovis* and *m. tuberculosis*.

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**4.4.8 Closest sequence relatives of the novel NTM genomes** *M. malmesburii* **sp.nov. and** *M. komanii* **sp. nov.** 

Table 4.8 shows the BLAST results for each of these NTM. , *Mycobacterium fortuitum* and to a lesser extent, *M. nonchromogenicum* have the closest resemblance to *M. smegmatis*  $MC^2$  155 (accession number CP001663.1) with *M. malmesburii* sp.nov. displaying similarity to *M. rhodesiae* (CP003169.1). *M. komanii* sp. nov. seems to be the most novel organism scoring its highest BLAST score with *Mycobacterium.* sp. JLS (CP000580.1).

**Table 4.8: BLAST results for the largest NTM contig against Genbank nucleotide database (Evalue <1x10<sup>6</sup> ) for closest sequence relative search**.



# **4.4.9 Genome similarity among the NTM strains, M. bovis and M. tuberculosis**

Genome similarity among the NTM strains as well as between NTM, *M. bovis* and *M. tuberculosis* is demonstrated by the metrix in Fig 4.2a and b. Fig 4.2a shows the proportion of all protein coding genes



shared among the strains, and Fig 4.2b demonstrates the proportion of protein coding genes with 90% sequence identity aligned along ≥ 50% of their length. Among the NTM, *M. malmesburii* sp.nov. shared more CDS with M*. komanii* sp.nov than with the other two NTM species. Likewise, *M. fortuitum* and *M. nonchromogenicum* exhibited genome similarity to each other. However, the shared CDS of *M. komanii*  sp.nov. and *M. malmesburii* are not as highly homologous as those shared between *M. fortuitum* and *M. nonchromogenicum.* 

# **4.4.10 Genome assembly visualisation by alignment to reference genomes (***i.e***.** *M. rhodesiae***,** *M. smegmatis* **MC<sup>2</sup>155,** *M. tuberculosis* **H37Rv and** *Mycobacterium.* **sp. JLS)**

Visualization of the alignment of the *M. bovis* and the predicted CDS regions of the four NTM species, *i.e*. *M. nonchromogenicum*, *M. malmesburii* sp.nov, *M. komanii* sp.nov. and *M. fortuitum* to those of *M. tuberculosis* using BLAST Ring Image Generator is given in Fig 4.3, while alignment to each NTM predicted CDS to their closest relatives is shown by the images in Fig 4.4 a, 4.4 b, 4.5 and 4.6 for *M.*  fortuitum predicted CDS aligned to those of M. smegmatis MC<sup>2</sup>155, M. nonchromogenicum CDS aligned to those of *M. smegmatis* MC<sup>2</sup>155, *M. malmesburii* sp.nov. CDS aligned to those of *M. rhodesiae*, and *M. komanii* sp.nov. CDS aligned to those of *Mycobacterium* sp. JLS respectively. The position of the immunogenic proteins of interest in the reference genomes are also highlighted. While it is common knowledge that most of the predominantly studied immunogenic genes in *M. bovis* and *M. tuberculosis* also occur in *M. smegmatis*, our BLAST searches also revealed that single copies of genes encoding for ESAT-6, CFP 10, HSPX and TB22.2/MPB64 as well as three of each of MPB70 and CanA do occur in *Mycobacterium* sp. JLS. In *M. rhodesiae*, a single copy of MPB70 and five copies of CanA were detected.



# **4.5 Discussion**

In this study we compared whole genome sequences of four NTM species to those of *M. tuberculosis* and *M. bovis*, mainly focusing on the presence of shared genes in NTM encoding immunogenic proteins in *M. bovis/ M. tuberculosis*. Three of these species were previously described as among the abundant NTM in South Africa, and *M. fortuitum* ATCC 6841 derived tuberculin PPD is used in the modified BOVIGAMTM assay (Michel *et al.,* 2011; Gcebe *et al.,* 2013). All of these NTM have been isolated from cattle and African buffaloes as well as their environments in South Africa in a study by Gcebe *et al.,*  2013. While two of these NTM are novel RGM (*M. malmesburii* sp. nov. and *M. komanii* sp.nov) species, *M. nonchromogenicum* (slow growing Mycobacterium (SGM) and *M. fortuitum* (RGM) have also been isolated from cattle tissue in Great Britain, France and Northern Ireland as well as from buffalo in South Africa (Pollock and Anderson 1997; Hughes *et al.,* 2005; Vordermeier *et al.,* 2007; Michel *et al.,* 2007; Biet *et al.*, 2014) where they may interfere with diagnosis of bovine tuberculosis. These two species were also reported to be among the most frequently isolated NTM in cattle in other parts of Africa (Diguimbaye-Djaibe *et al.,* 2006*;* Berg *et al.,* 2009). Though colonisation in cattle in the absence of disease is known to occur, it is not known whether it can lead to T-cell activation (Pollock and Anderson*,*  1997; Vordermeier *et al.,* 2007). Given the latter, exposure of cattle to these NTM species may constitute a possible source of cross-reactive immune response to tuberculin and may lead to false positive diagnosis of BTB. This highlighted the need to investigate these NTM in much more detail for their genetic make-up and subsequently assess their potential to induce immune responses potentially crossreactive with MTBC antigens. The comparative genomics approach employed in this study was aimed mainly at searching for shared genes encoding immunogenic proteins of *M. bovis* and *M. tuberculosis* in



the NTM. We elucidated and described the draft genomes of *M. nonchromogenicum, M. komanii* sp. nov., *M. malmesburii* sp. nov., and *M. fortuitum* ATCC 6841*.* As was expected there was very little similarity observed between the NTM genomes and those of *M. bovis* and *M. tuberculosis*. The NTM's closest relatives were found to be other NTM species; *viz M. smegmatis, M. rhodesiae* and *Mycobacterium* sp. JLS. However, though there were huge differences between the genomes of NTM and those of *M. bovis* as well as *M. tuberculosis*, orthologs of CDS of some of the targeted immunogenic proteins of *M. bovis* that have been studied for their role in BTB specific diagnosis existed in NTM. Proteins of the Esx family, in particular those encoded by *esxA* and *esxB* have been extensively investigated for their role in immune response owing to their presence in MTBC and absence in *M. bovis* BCG vaccine and hence their application for differentiation of *M. bovis* infected from vaccinated animals (Vordermeier *et al.,* 2007; 2009). In NTM, it is mainly in pathogenic slow growing NTM that are phylogenetically closely related to MTBC; like *M. kansasii* and *M. marinum* as well as in *M. leprae* that ESAT-6 and CFP 10 have been investigated for their role in cross-reactive immune responses (Geluk *et al.*, 2002; Vordermeier *et al*., 2007). The occurrence of the *esx* genes of the ESX-1 locus (*esxA* and *esxB*) in all four of the annotated non- pathogenic NTM that were sequenced in this study and its gene orthologs in other NTM genomes available in the NCBI Genbank database, like *M. vulneris* (slow growing NTM); *M. farcinogenes* (slow growing NTM)*,* and *Mycobacterium sp.* JLS (RGM)*,* suggests that perhaps, despite sequence differences, the *esx* genes of this locus is not only a characteristic of pathogenic, slow growing mycobacteria, but does occur in several non-pathogenic RGM*.* This view supports several studies that detected orthologs of these genes in other non-pathogenic RGM like *M. smegmatis, M. ridhayense, M. flavescens* and *M. mageritense* (Harboe *et al.*, 1996, Colangeli *et al*., 2000; Gey van Pittius *et al*., 2001; van Ingen *et al*., 2009). Expression of the *esxA* and *esxB* orthologs in nonpathogenic RGM have not been investigated, despite their occurrence in several of these species.



However, if expressed in these NTM they could induce cross reactive immune responses that interfere with BTB diagnosis. It was not surprising that the NTM orthologs of these proteins were more similar to each other than to MTBC proteins as they are phylogenetically more closely related to each other than to members of MTBC (Devulder *et al.,* 2005). For instance, *M. fortuitum*, *M. nonchromogenicum, M. malmesburii* sp.nov. and *M. komanii* sp.nov. were found to harbor protein coding sequences of EsxA and EsxB that are highly similar to those of *M. smegmatis.* A 90% amino acid sequence similarity was observed between the *M. fortuitum* and the *M. smegmatis* orthologs of EsxA, while a 71.58% and an 80% were seen between these respective NTM orthologs and that of *M. bovis*. A similar finding was observed with EsxB orthologs. The protein products of the non-pathogenic RGM *esxA* and *esxB* orthologs also need to be investigated for their role in cross- reactive immune responses.

The *esx* genes situated within the ESX-2 locus were not found in any of the four NTM annotations while orthologs of the *esx* genes of the ESX-4 locus were found in all four NTM. The functions of the proteins of both ESX-2- and ESX-4 are unknown. The existence of the *esx* genes situated in the ESX-4 locus in all the four NTM also supports the comparative genomics studies which suggested that the ESX loci in mycobacteria evolved from a series of duplication events, where ESX-4 was the progenitor. Absence of the ESX-2 locus seems to be a characteristic of the non -pathogenic RGM as this locus is also absent in the genome of *M. smegmatis* (Gey van Pittius, 2001).

Esx family proteins encoded in the ESX-3 *i.e.* EsxH, EsxG as well as theis homologue, EsxR have also been investigated as vaccine candidates and markers for TB diagnosis due to their immunogenic characteristic and have been shown to be highly homologous (>75% at amino acid level) (Skjøt *et al.,*  2000; Hoang *et al.,* 2013). Protein coding sequences of EsxR, EsxG and EsxH were found in the four NTM genomes in this study with homologies at amino acid level of as high as 81.05% to *M. bovis* (*M.* 

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*fortuitum* and *M. nonchromogenicum* EsxG) and lowest homology of 64.79 % was observed between the *M. malmesburii* sp.nov. and *M. bovis* EsxR. Comparative genomics study by Gey van Pittius *et al* 2001 have noted the occurrence of ESX-3 locus genes in *M. smegmatis*, *M. leprae*, and *M. avium* (Gey van Pittius *et al.,* 2001).

ESX-5 proteins are known to be necessary for the secretion of PE/ PPE proteins, in *Mycobacterium marinum* (Abdalla *et al.,* 2008). Among the four NTM, only *M. nonchromogenicum* was found to harbor the predicted proteins sequences, EsxN of the ESX-5 locus as well as EsxK. It was reported that some genes of the ESX-5 locus are also absent in *M. bovis* BCG and were shown to be absent in avirulent *M. smegmatis* but present in *M. avium* and in pathogenic *M. leprae*. Therefore the use of proteins of this locus as candidates for TB diagnosis could be limited to areas were *M. leprae* and *M. avium* infections are not predominant.

The occurrence of other CDS of the predominant *M. bovis* immunogenic proteins, like CanA (Rv1315) (identified in all four NTM)*,* HspX, TpX and Mpb63 (all identified in *M. fortuitum* and *M. nonchromogenicum*)*,* MPB70 (identified in *M. malmesburii* sp.nov. and *M. komanii* sp.nov)*,* and MPB64 (identified in all four NTM in the annotated NTM, including their closely related species also suggest the potential of these proteins to be expressed and therefore causing cross- reactive immune responses with *M. bovis.* CDS of MPB70, MPB64, HspX and CanA were also detected in *M. rhodesiae* and it was also discovered that *Mycobacterium* sp JLS harbors three copies of *mpb70 as* well as three copies of *CanA*, while *M. rhodesiae* genome had five copies of *canA*. These proteins could potentially be expressed in these species. This could also have implications for their use as markers for BTB diagnosis where exposure to these NTM is endemic.

Based on the overall protein sequence homologies of the antigens we could not judge whether the NTM homologues will give rise to cross-reactive immune responses. We consequently checked the existence

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in NTM of epitopes shown to be immunogenic in *M. bovis* and *M. tuberculosis.* Amino acid sequence alignment of the EsxA and EsxB of the newly sequenced NTM in this study, as well as *M. smegmatis, M. bovis* and *M. tuberculosis* respectively was done to investigate their similarities at "immunogenic" epitope level. In this analysis, we found that the six bovine T-cell recognized epitopes of *M. bovis* ESAT-6 (EsxA), described by Vordermeier *et al.,* 2003 and 2007 had similarities to those of *M. fortuitum* and *M. nonchromogenicum* (showing sequence similarity of as high as 81.28% and as low as 52.9% ). Likewise a certain degree of sequence similarity between the six *M. bovis* CFP 10 (EsxB) immunogenic epitopes and those of the NTM species (highest similarity of 75% observed between all NTM and *M. bovis* and lowest similarity of 50% between *M. komanii* sp.nov., *M. malmesburii* sp.nov. and *M. bovis.*) was observed. Still, with sequence homologies of less than 100% between the *M. bovis* immunogenic epitopes and those of the NTM*,* it was difficult to unambiguously predict T-cell cross-recognition. Vordermeier *et al.,* 2004, had demonstrated that changing a single amino acid residue within a 20-mer amino acid peptide could result in peptide derivative not being recognized by T cells specific for the wild type peptide (Vordermeier *et al.,* 2004). Conversely, Vordermeier *et al.,*2007 also demonstrate that sequence identity between epitopic regions from unrelated mycobacterial antigens of >50% in the 16- 20 mer regions indicated cross-reactivity at epitopic level in cattle, however, on the other hand Hewinson *et al.,* 2006 showed that other peptides that displayed similar degrees of sequence identity were not crossreactive. Antigen cross-recognition has also been observed with *M. leprae* ESAT -6 and CFP 10 on *M. tuberculosis* patients despite very low sequence identity (36% and 40% respectively at amino acid level) to *M. tuberculosis* homologue of ESAT -6 (Geluk *et al.,* 2002; Geluk *et al.,* 2004). Therefore antigen cross- recognition as well as species specificity of these NTM proteins need to be investigated at individual peptide level recognition by T- cells from infected animals.

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Comparison of EsxR and EsxH amino acid sequences at immunogenic epitope level, revealed higher sequence similarities in the epitopes of NTM and those of *M. bovis* than the predicted Esx family protein sequences of the ESX-1 locus. A sequence similarity of 100% was observed between two of the five *M. bovis* immunogenic epitopes of EsxR and those of *M. fortuitum, M. malmesburii* sp. nov. and *M. komanii* sp.nov. Full cross- recognition of these NTM EsxR epitopes is therefore highly likely, and may lead to misdiagnosis of BTB. The other three EsxR/EsxH epitopes shown to be immunogenic in *M. bovis* also exist in the three NTM showing similarity of as low as 77.7%.

Two highly immunogenic epitopes of the *M. bovis* MPB70 described by Pollock *et al*., 2004 were also observed in *M. malmesburii* sp.nov and *M. komanii* sp.nov. predicted MPB70 homologues with high sequence similarities of 83.3% and 80% at amino acid level respectively. The occurrence of these immunogenic epitopes in these NTM predicted antigen sequences, despite sequence differences may lead to cross-reactive immune responses and therefore need to be tested on animal models for their immunogenicity.

The occurrence of immunogenic antigens in RGM and epitope similarities to *M. bovis* may also explain the interference of *M. fortuitum* in BTB diagnosis in cattle and African buffalo in South Africa which was first noted by isolation of this NTM species from BTB free buffalo which showed positive results when tested using PPD based BOVIGAM (Michel *et al.,* 2008). These cross-reactive immune responses were possibly due to these shared antigens between *M. bovis* and *M. fortuitum* harboring immunogenic epitope homologues as shown in this study. Subsequent inclusion of a PPD derived from *M. fortuitum* in the modified BOVIGAM assay has led to successful identification of cattle and buffalo exposed to this species and possibly other NTM (Michel *et al.,* 2011, Michel *et al., unpublished*). Therefore use of these antigens as markers for BTB diagnosis may be hampered by exposure of cattle and buffalo to these NTM. Their use as markers for BTB diagnosis warrants further investigation taking into consideration pre-

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exposure of animals to these NTM especially in regions where they are endemic, especially considering the fact that *M. fortuitum* is widely distributed across the globe and has been found to infect cattle and buffalo from different countries.

In this study no orthologs of MPB83 and EspC were identified in the four NTM genome annotations. The *mpb70*, *mpb83* and *espC* genes have not been described in other non- pathogenic RGM before. In NTM, MPB70, EspC and MPB83 orthologs of *M. kansasii* and *M. marinum* have been detected and MPB70 and MP83 have been found to be expressed in these species (Woolford *et al.,* 1997). Perhaps MPB83 and EspC proteins are specific to pathogenic mycobacteria and might play a role in virulence. Therefore the use of these antigens for diagnosis of BTB may possibly only be hampered by exposure of animals to other pathogenic mycobacteria and not complicated by non-pathogenic mycobacteria.

In conclusion we have identified NTM orthologs of genes encoding predominant immunogenic proteins in *M. bovis viz* the Esx family, like ESAT-6, CFP 10, EsxH, EsxR and EsxG as well as MPB70, in the four non-pathogenic NTM sequenced in this study and in several other non-pathogenic NTM available in the NCBI database. The identification of the *esx* genes situated within ESX-1, ESX-3 and ESX4 and outside these loci in the four sequenced NTM in this study confirms and extends observations from other studies and further suggests that the presence of the *esx* genes in these three loci is a characteristic of both pathogenic and non-pathogenic mycobacteria. The absence of *esx* genes of the ESX-2 locus in all the newly sequenced NTM as well as the *esx* genes of the ESX-5 locus in the RGM species in this study also confirms the absence of the *esx* genes of these loci in other NTM species such as *M. smegmatis.*  NTM homologues of the *M. bovis* immunogenic epitopes were also detected even though there were sequence differences, except for two epitopes in the EsxR sequence*,* and hence we could not unambiguously predict T-cell recognition. *M. fortuitum* and *M. nonchromogenicum* ESAT- 6 and CFP

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10 amino acid sequences revealed higher homology to those of the *M. bovis* proteins than the *M. malmesburii* sp. nov., and *M. komanii* sp.nov. orthologs. These two genes were also found in *Mycobacterium* sp. JLS and other NTM in the Genbank database like *M. vulneris*, *M. mageritense*, and *M. flavescens* Orthologs of *esxG, esxH* and *esxR* were also found in the four NTM species. Therefore investigations of antigens of the Esx family for BTB diagnosis should also seriously consider their occurrence in NTM. The MPB70 orthologs of *M. malmesburii* sp.nov. and *M. komanii* sp.nov. as well as their closely related NTM *viz M. rhodesiae* and *Mycobacterium* sp. JLS were identified, and the gene encoding this protein has not been described in non-pathogenic RGM before and therefore this study has laid a foundation for further investigation of this protein as a diagnostic marker for BTB considering the occurrence of its gene and possibility of its expression in these RGM species and T-cell recognition. Genes encoding CanA, DnaK, Mpb64 were also detected in all the four NTM as well *Mycobacterium* sp.

JLS, while *canA* was also detected in *M. rhodesiae.*

The impact of these proteins on the T-cell responses needs to be investigated, especially *M. fortuitum* homologues, considering that its isolation from animals from different countries. This study has laid a foundation into investigation of these NTM and their cross-reactivity with *M. bovis* immunogenic proteins. It will also contribute to investigations and development of BTB as well as NTM specific diagnostic markers for use in immunological assays.

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# **4.6 References**

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**Fig 4.1a: Alignment of EsxA AA sequences of** *M. fortuitum* **ATCC 6841 (M. fortuit), MC<sup>2</sup> 155 (M. smegmat),** *M. nonchromogenicum* **(M. nonchro),** *M. bovis* **and** *M. tuberculosis* **(M. tubercu). \* represents identical sequences observed in all species, and > represents same AA residue in at least one of the NTM species. Highly immunogenic epitopes of bovine as described by Vordermeier et al., 2000, 2003, 2007 are underlined.** 

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**Fig 4.1b: Alignment of EsxB AA sequences of** *M. fortuitum* **ATCC 6841 (M. fortuit),** *M. nonchromogenicum* **(M. nonchro),** *M. smegmatis* **MC<sup>2</sup> 155 (M. smegmat),** *M. malmesburii* **sp.nov. (M. malmesb),** *M. komanii* **sp. nov.,** *M. bovis* **and** *M. tuberculosis* **(M. tubercu). \* represents same aa residue identified across all species, and > represents same aa residues in at least one NTM species,** *M. bovis* **and** *M. tuberculosis***, + represents aa sequence identical in** *M. fortuitum, M. smegmatis, M. bovis* **and** *M. tuberculosis***, - represents same aa residues in** *M. malmesburii* **sp.nov.and** *M. komanii* **sp.nov.,** *M. bovis* **and** *M. tuberculosis***. Highly immunogenic epitopes of bovine as described by Vordermeier et al., 2003; 2007 are underlined.**

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**Fig 4.1c: Alignment of EsxR/ EsxH AA sequences of** *M. fortuitum* **ATCC 6841 (M. fortuit),** *M. smegmatis* **MC<sup>2</sup>155 (M. smegmat),** *M. malmesburii* **sp.nov (M. malmesb),** *M. komanii* **sp. nov.,** *M. nonchromogenicum* **(M. nonchro),** *M. bovis* **and** *M. tuberculosis* **(M. tubercu). The following symbols at the bottom of each alignment stand for: \* indicates same AA residue identified across all species, and > indicates same sequences in at least one of the NTM and** *M. bovis/ M. tuberculosis***, -, indicates same AA sequences in** *M. komanii* **sp.nov. ,** *M. malmesburii* **sp. nov., and** *M. bovis/ M. tuberculosis***, and +, indicates same AA residues in** *M. smegmatis, M. fortuitum, M. bovis* **and** *M. tuberculosis* **AA sequences, (blank) indicate different amino acid residue between the NTM and** *M. bovis***/** *M. tuberculosis***. Immunogenic epitopes of bovine as described by Vordermeier** *et al***., 2003, 2007 are underlined. H,** *esxH***; R,** *esxR***.** 



 **.....|....| ....|....| ....|....| ....|....| ....|....| 10 20 30 40 50 M. malmesb MKIEFRK-SV TAAGVAAAAI LTVSACSNDT ST-AAPTAAA ESSSTSVAPT M. bovis M--KVKN-TI AATSFAAAGL AALAVAV--- ----SPPAAA G--------- M. tubercu M--KVKN-TI AATSFAAAGL AALAVAV--- ----SPPAAA G--------- M. komanii MKIDFRK-SV TAAGVAAAAI LTVSACSNDT STSAAPTAAA ESTSTSVAPA \* \* \*\*\* \* \*\*\* ....|....| ....|....| ....|....| ....|....| ....|....| 60 70 80 90 100 M. malmesb PMNQSMDPAA GLVGPGCADY AAQNPTGPGS VNGMALDKVT VAAANNPMLT M. bovis ---------- DLVGPGCAEY AAANPTGPAS VQGMSQDPVA VAASNNPELT M. tubercu ---------- DLVGPGCAEY AAANPTGPAS VQGMSQDPVA VAASNNPELT M. komanii PMNQPMDPAA GLVGPGCADY AAQNPTGPGS VNGMALDKVT VAAANNPMLT \*\*\*\*\*\*\* \* \*\* \*\*\*\*\* \* \* \*\* \* \* \*\*\*\*\*\*\* \*\* ....|....| ....|....| ....|....| ....|....| ....|....| 110 120 130 140 150 M. malmesb TLTSALSGRL NPNVNLVETL DGSQFTVFAP TDDAFAKIDP ATIETLKTDS M. bovis TLTAALSGQL NPQVNLVDTL NSGQYTVFAP TNAAFSKLPA STIDELKTNS M. tubercu TLTAALSGQL NPQVNLVDTL NSGQYTVFAP TNAAFSKLPA STIDELKTNS M. komanii TLTAALSGQL NPNVNLVDTL NGSQFTVFAP TDDAFAKIDP ATIETLKTDS \*\*\*>\*\*\*\*>\* \*\* \*\*\*\*>\*\* > \* \*\*\*\*\* \* \*\* \* \*\* \*\*\* \* ....|....| ....|....| ....|....| ....|....| ....|....| 160 170 180 190 200 M. malmesb ELLTSILTYH VVPGQADPAQ VIGTHKTVQG ADVRVAGGGQ DITVNDAGVV M. bovis SLLTSILTYH VVAGQTSPAN VVGTRQTLQG ASVTVTGQGN SLKVGNADVV M. tubercu SLLTSILTYH VVAGQTSPAN VVGTRQTLQG ASVTVTGQGN SLKVGNADVV M. komanii DLLTSILTYH VVPGQADPAQ VIGTHKTVQG ADVTVAGGGQ DITVDDAGVV \*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\* \*\* \*\* \*\* \* \*\* \* \*\* \* \*>\* \* \* \* \* \*\* ....|....| ....|....| .... 210 220 M. malmesb CGGVRTANAT VYLIDTVLMP PAN M. bovis A CGGVSTANAT VYMIDSVLMP PA -- M. tubercu CGGVSTANAT VYMIDSVLMP PA M. komanii CGGVRTANPT VYLIDTVLMP PAN \*\*\*\* \*\*\*>\* \*\* \*\* \*\*\*\* \*\***

**Fig 4.1d: alignment of MPB70 AA sequences of** *M. fortuitum* **ATCC 6841 (M. fortuit),** *M. smegmatis* **MC<sup>2</sup> 155 (M. smegmat),** *M. malmesburii* **sp.nov (M. malmesb),** *M. komanii***,** *M. bovis* **and** *M. tuberculosis* **(M. tubercu). \* indicates identical AA sequences in all species, and > indicates same AA residue in at least one of the NTM species and** *M. bovis/ M. tuberculosis***. Immunodominant epitopes as described by Pollock** *et al.,* **2004 are indicated by solid lines.** 





**Fig 4.1e: Alignment of CanA** *(Mb 1315/ Rv1284)* **AA sequences of** *M. fortuitum* **ATCC 6841 (M. fortuit),** *M. smegmatis* **MC<sup>2</sup> 155 (M. smegmat),** *M. malmesburii* **sp.nov (M. malmesb),** *M. komanii* **sp. nov.,** *M. nonchromogenicum* **(M. nonchro),** *M. bovis* **and** *M. tuberculosis* **(M. tubercu). \* indicates same AA residue in all species, and > indicates same AA residue in at least one of the NTM species and** *M. bovis/ M. tuberculosis***.** 





**Fig 4.1f: Alignment of EsxG AA sequences of** *M. fortuitum* **ATCC 6841 (M. fortuit),** *M. smegmatis* **MC<sup>2</sup> 155 (M. smegmat),** *M. malmesburii* **sp.nov (M. malmesb),** *M. komanii* **sp. nov.,** *M. nonchromogenicum* **(M. nonchro),** *M. bovis* **and** *M. tuberculosis* **(M. tubercu). \* indicates same AA residue in all species, and > indicates same AA residue in at least one of the NTM species and** *M. bovis/ M. tuberculosis***.** 

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**Figure 4.2 a: Genome similarity matrix, showing proportion of protein-coding genes shared (color intensity and numbers in grey). E.g., the first column shows how many genes in** *M. tuberculosis* **have homologues in each of the other strains. The black numbers along the diagonal represent the number of all genes identified.**





**Figure 4. 2b: Genome similarity matrix, showing proportion of protein-coding genes shared (color intensity and numbers in grey). E.g., the first column shows how many genes in** *M. tuberculosis* **have homologues in each of the other strains. The black numbers along the diagonal represent the number of genes with ≥ 90% sequence identity aligned along ≥ 50% of their length. M. malmes,** *M. malmesburii* **sp. nov.; M. nonchromo,** *M. nonchromogenicum*

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**Figure 4.3: Alignment of** *M. bovis* **and NTM predicted CDS regions to those of** *M. tuberculosis* **visualised using BRIG. Immunogenic proteins of interest are highlighted in red (see Table 4.1).** 

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**Figure 4.4 a: Alignment of** *M. fortuitum* **predicted CDS regions to those of** *M. smegmatis* **MC<sup>2</sup> 155 (CP001663.1) using BRIG. Immunogenic proteins of interest identified in M. smegmatis are highlighted in red (esxB: locus tag MSMEG\_0065, product hypothetical protein; esxA: locus tagMSMEG\_0066, product early secretory antigenic target, 6 kDa; dnaK: locus tag MSMEG\_0709, product of chaperone protein DnaK; mpt63: locus tag MSMEG\_0828, product immunogenic protein MPT63; mpt64: locus tagMSMEG\_2331, product immunogenic protein MPB64/MPT64; mpt70: locus tag MSMEG\_5196, product fasciclin domain-containing protein; canA: locus tag MSMEG\_4985, product carbonic anhydrase; tpx: locus tagMSMEG\_3479, product thiol peroxidase).** 



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**Figure 4.4 b: Alignment of** *M. nonchromogenicum* **predicted CDS regions to those of** *M. smegmatis* **MC<sup>2</sup> 155 (CP001663.1) using BRIG. Immunogenic proteins of interest identified in M. smegmatis are highlighted in red (esxB: locus tag MSMEG\_0065, product hypothetical protein; esxA: locus tagMSMEG\_0066, product early secretory antigenic target, 6 kDa; dnaK: locus tag MSMEG\_0709, product of chaperone protein DnaK; mpt63: locus tag MSMEG\_0828, product immunogenic protein MPT63; mpt64: locus tagMSMEG\_2331, product immunogenic protein MPB64/MPT64; mpt70: locus tag MSMEG\_5196, product fasciclin domain-containing protein; canA: locus tag MSMEG\_4985, product carbonic anhydrase; tpx: locus tagMSMEG\_3479, product thiol peroxidase).** 



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**Figure 4.5: Alignment of** *M. malmesburii* **sp.nov. predicted CDS regions to those of** *M. rhodesiae* **NBB3 (CP003169.1) using BRIG. Immunogenic proteins of interest identified in M. rhodesiae are highlighted in red (dnaK: locus tagMycrhN\_1341, product chaperone protein DnaK; mpt70: locus tag MycrhN\_3596, product secreted/surface protein with fasciclin-like repeats; canA\_1: locus tag MycrhN\_1479, product sulfate permease-like transporter, MFS superfamily; canA\_2: locus tag MycrhN\_2217, product carbonic anhydrase; canA\_3: locus tagMycrhN\_2307, product isoleucine patch superfamily enzyme, carbonic anhydrase/acetyltransferase; canA\_4: locus tag MycrhN\_3599, product isoleucine patch superfamily enzyme, carbonic anhydrase/acetyltransferase; canA\_5: locus tag MycrhN\_3776, product carbonic anhydrase. Carbonic anhydrase genes have been numbered according to genomic position).**

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**Figure 4.6: Alignment of** *M. komanii* **sp.nov. predicted CDS regions to those of M. sp. JLS (CP000580.1) using BRIG. Immunogenic proteins of interest identified in M. sp. JLS are highlighted in red (esxB: locus tag Mjls\_0060,product hypothetical protein; esxA: locus tag Mjls\_0061, product 6 kDa early secretory antigenic targetEsaT6; hsp20: locus tag Mjls\_1109, product heat shock protein Hsp20; Mjls\_1343: locus tag Mjls\_1343, product of polysaccharide biosynthesis protein; cfp6: locus tag Mjls\_1885, product low molecular weight protein antigen 6; cfp2: locus tag Mjls\_3145, product low molecular weight antigen; Mjls\_5331: locus tag Mjls\_5331,product lipoprotein antigen family protein; dnaK: locus tag Mjls\_0449, product molecular chaperone DnaK;mpt64: locus tag Mjls\_1842, product immunogenic protein MPB64/MPT64; mpt70\_1: locus tag Mjls\_2023,product beta-Ig-H3/fasciclin; mpt70\_2: locus tag Mjls\_2024, product beta-Ig-H3/fasciclin; mpt70\_3: locus tagMjls\_4307, product beta-Ig-H3/fasciclin; Mjls\_1176: locus tag Mjls\_1176, product peptidase M22, glycoprotease; gcp: locus tag Mjls\_1178, product putative DNAbinding/iron metalloprotein/AP endonuclease; canA\_1: locus tag Mjls\_3936, product carbonic anhydrase; canA\_2: locus tag Mjls\_4306, product carbonic anhydrase;canA\_3: locus tag Mjls\_5131, product carbonic anhydrase; Mjls\_0685: locus tag Mjls\_0685, product alkyl hydro peroxide reductase/ Thiol specific antioxidant/ Mal allergen; Mjls\_3070: locus tag Mjls\_3070, product alkyl hydro peroxide reductase; Mjls\_3370: locus tag Mjls\_3370, product alkyl hydro peroxide reductase; Mjls\_3657: locus tag Mjls\_3657, product alkyl hydro peroxide reductase).**



# **CHAPTER 5. Comparative proteome analysis of purified protein derivatives (PPDs) of four abundant NTM species, and the commercial tuberculins, PPD- B and PPD- A**

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# *CONTENTS OF CHAPTER 5 and CHAPTER 4 WERE SUBMITTED FOR PUBLICATION.*



# **5.1 Abstract**

Purified protein derivatives (PPDs) of *Mycobacterium bovis*, *Mycobacterium tuberculosis,* and *Mycobacterium avium* have been used for more than 60 years as antigens in the diagnosis of human and bovine TB based on the delayed type hypersensitivity (skin) reaction they are able to induce.

Very little is known about the composition of PPDs and their active components. Despite specificity constraints, associated with cross-reactivity due to exposure of animals and humans to NTM and *M. bovis* BCG vaccine, PPDs are still widely used. In this study, we elucidated the proteomes of commercial PPD-B and PPD-A (Prionics-Lelystad, The Netherlands) as well as our own PPD preparations from four NTM species previously found to be abundant in South Africa using mass spectrometry. The NTM included *Mycobacterium fortuitum* ATCC 6841 (PPD-F), *Mycobacterium nonchromogenicum* (PPD-N)*, Mycobacterium malmesburii* sp.nov (PPD-M) and *Mycobacterium kansasii* ATCC 12478 (PPD-K). Two of these *(M. fortuitum* and *M. nonchromogenicum*) were also found to be abundant in other parts of the world. In total we identified 561 proteins in the six PPD preparations. In our analysis a total of 17 proteins were identified as shared between PPD-B and the NTM PPDs. Of these shared proteins several have been described as immunogenic in the literature before and they include CFP 10 (ESXB) identified in PPD-B and PPD-M, the 10 kDA chaperonin (GroES) protein (identified in all the PPDs except PPD-M), DnaK chaperonin (identified in all PPDs except PPD-M), the 60 kDA chaperonin (GroEL) (identified in all the PPDs) as well as antigen Ag85B and Ag85C (both identified in PPD-A and PPD-B). Identification of these shared proteins in NTM PPDs warrants further investigation of their ability to cause cross reactive immune responses with *M. bovis* antigens. Apart from 111 unique PPD-B proteins, 434 proteins were identified as either specific for some NTM preparations or shared between certain



NTM species. The identification of these proteins, unique in (some) NTM PPDs is expected to contribute

towards investigation of antigens that may allow specific diagnosis of NTM infections.

*Key words: PPD, NTM, M. bovis cross-reactive immune responses*

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# **5.2 Introduction**

Purified protein derivatives (PPDs) also known as tuberculins have been used for more than 60 years as antigens in the diagnosis of human and bovine TB, as well as other mycobacterial diseases like leprosy and bovine paratuberculosis, based on the delayed hypersensitivity (skin) reaction they induce. The first preparation of PPD was introduced by Robert Koch in 1890, where a boiled crude extract of Mycobacterium in glycerin, referred to as 'old tuberculin', was prepared as a potential vaccine against tuberculosis in humans. This tuberculin was not properly standardized, impure and toxic, and therefore could not be used in humans but formed the foundation for the modern PPD preparations (Burke, 1993). Later Von Pirquote introduced the tuberculin skin test (TST) for TB diagnosis using Koch's old tuberculin (Von Pirqoute, 1909). In the early 1940's Florence Seiberb replaced Koch's tuberculin by introducing a standardized PPD (Borsuk *et al.,* 2009). Tuberculins derived from *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (PPD-T)*, Mycobacterium bovis* (PPD-B)*,* and *Mycobacterium avium* (PPD-A) have since been used in immunological assays for B (TB) diagnosis. The PPD is prepared by heat sterilization of *Mycobacterium* cultures grown in liquid growth medium, followed by filter sterilization and protein concentration (Landi*,* 1963).

Diagnostic testing for BTB by tuberculin skin test (TST) and interferon gamma assay (both based on cell mediated immune responsiveness (CMI)) has proven to be more effective for detection of subclinical infections compared to serological tests (Schiller *et al.,* 2010). The major drawback to the tuberculin based immunological assays is the reduced specificity presumably associated with cross-reactive immune responses due to exposure of animals and humans to NTM and *M. bovis* BCG vaccine. These crossreactive immune responses are most likely due to the presence of immunogenic proteins conserved across



the *Mycobacterium* genus as major components of PPD-B (Schiller *et al.,* 2010). Some studies have compared protein composition of different commercial PPD preparations *i.e*. PPD-B, PPD- A and PPD-T respectively and noted differences (Borsuk *et al.,* 2009; Prasad *et al.,* 2013). In addition, discrepancies in immunological test results from different PPD preparations of the same Mycobacterium species have also been reported (Lifson *et al.,* 1993; Rupp *et al.,* 1994), which could be attributed to the differences in their protein composition. Increased specificity through replacement of PPD-B with defined antigens or inclusion of NTM derived PPD like PPD-A in single intradermal comparative cervical test (SICCT ) and the BOVIGAM assay (Prionics) as well as PPD-F in South Africa added in the modified BOVIGAM assay, has been shown (Vordermeier *et al.,* 2007; 2009; Michel *et al.,* 2011). Currently in many countries PPD-B and PPD-A (Brazil, Netherlands, and the United Kingdom) preparations are used for diagnosis of BTB by delayed hypersensitivity test (skin) as recommended by the OIE (OIE Terrestrial Manual, 2014). PPD-F is included in the BOVIGAM assay in South Africa as an additional non MAC control antigen representative to mitigate background responses induced by environmental mycobacterial antigens (Michel *et al.,* 2011). A handful of studies have determined the proteome composition of different PPD-B and PPD-A preparations (Borsuk *et al.,* 2009; Santema *et al.,* 2009); however protein composition of PPD-F was never studied in more detail. From these studies it was observed that some of the antigens that have been tested as candidates for BTB diagnosis in animals to differentiate between infected and vaccinated individuals as well as vaccine targets are also present in PPD-B (Borsuk *et al.,*  2009; Vordermeier *et al.,* 2007; 2009). Despite its specificity constraints PPD is still widely used. One of the limitations of the use of defined antigens as markers for BTB is the exposure to NTM since some of immunogenic proteins *e.g*. ESAT-6 and CFP 10 have been identified in pathogenic NTM like *Mycobacterium kansasii* and *Mycobacterium marinum* (Vordermeier *et al*., 2007; 2009). NTM orthologs of genes encoding for these proteins have also been identified in various non-pathogenic NTM like

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*Mycobacterium smegmatis, Mycobacterium flavescens*, *Mycobacterium* sp. JLS, *Mycobacterium rhodesiae* and *M. fortuitum* (Gey van Pittius *et al.,* 2001; Gcebe *unpublished* data). Where these NTM species are endemic, BTB diagnosis may still be faced with a lack of specificity despite the introduction of the new generation antigens.

Knowledge of the protein composition of PPDs derived from prevalent NTM species in a particular region compared to PPD-B proteome could allow for effective elucidation of PPD-B associated specificity constraints arising from exposure of animals to environmental mycobacteria and henceforth the rational design of BTB diagnostic assays. The information on NTM PPD composition would also help researchers in making informed decisions on inclusion of NTM PPD in the CMI based diagnostic tests which could improve their specificity.

With the advent of high-resolution mass spectrometry it is now possible to analyze complex protein mixtures by comparing the patterns obtained to what is possible in the genome and quickly identify many of the proteins. Proteins are typically digested in-gel or in-solution using proteolytic enzymes (Habermann *et al.,* 2004). The resulting peptides are then analysed by peptide mass mapping and/or tandem mass spectrometry (Liska and Shevchenko, 2003). Database search of the peptides is done for protein identification using algorithms like basic local alignment (BLAST) or Fast-all (FASTA). The process involves matching masses of intact proteins (protein mass mapping) or their fragments (tandem mass spectrometry) to the corresponding masses of peptides and/or peptide fragments obtained by *in silico* processing of protein sequences from database entries (Liska and Shevchenko, 2003). This process requires either a complete genome and/or a substantial number of cDNA sequences to be available in a database. The advantage of having a complete genome sequence is the increased specificity and the speed of database searching, but restricts the reach of proteomics down to a handful of sequenced species (Habermann, 2004). For organisms with unsequenced genomes, cross species protein identification using

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MS and available protein sequences can be achieved by partial aligning an analyzed protein from an organism with the unsequenced genome to a database sequence from the related organism (Liska and Shevchenko, 2003). Sequence identity of at least 80% between the reference database entry and the subject protein was proposed for identifying a protein (Liska and Shevchenko, 2003). Peptide mass mapping allows for cross- species protein identification in some cases because only a subset of all peptides from a protein digest need to be recognized. Several database searching approaches like mass spectrometry driven BLAST (MS –BLAST) have also been designed to identify unknown proteins using sequence similarity to homologous proteins of other organisms available in the database (Habermann *et al.,* 2004). De Novo interpretation of the tandem mass spectra can also be used to identify proteins that are not available in the databases. This method employs the peptide fragment mass of a protein and assigns an amino acid. Resulting sequences are used to design degenerate probes and the related gene is cloned. The approach has its inherent limitation mainly of inaccuracy as other amino acids such as leucine and isoleucine share identical masses (Habermann *et al.,* 2004). Another approach is to interpret tandem mass spectra of peptides using specialized software that creates amino acid sequences *de novo* (Liska and Shevchenko, 2003).

For more accurate proteome annotation, the genomic data is therefore essential. The availability of the genomes of several Mycobacterium species makes it possible to elucidate their proteomes and crossspecies protein identification is achievable for unsequenced organisms that are phylogenetically closely related to the sequenced genomes.

The key aim of this study was to carry out comparative proteomic analysis of the commercial PPD- B and PPD-A (Prionics-The Netherlands), and PPDs derived from NTM species (NTM PPDs) and produced in-house in order to assess the potential of these NTM to prime cross-reactive immune

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responses to *M. bovis* antigens. This study is expected to set a foundation in identification of PPD-B antigens that may be used in more specific BTB tests.

# **5.3 Materials and Methods**

## **5.3.1 Bacterial cultures**

*Mycobacterium nonchromogenicum,* a soil sample isolate, *M. malmesburii* sp. nov. isolated from a bovine nasal swab, *M. fortuitum* ATCC 6841 and *M. kansasii* ATCC 12478 were cultured on either Middlebrooks 7H11 agar plates (Becton Dickinson, USA) supplemented with 0.1% OADC (Merck Chemicals, South Africa) and glycerol, as well as on Löwenstein Jensen (LJ) slopes supplemented with glycerol and an antibiotic cocktail of PolymyxinB, Amphotericin B, Carbenicillin and Trimethoprim (PACT) (Becton Dickinson, USA). For PPD production, liquid cultures were prepared in Middlebrook 7H9 media (Becton Dickinson, USA) supplemented with 0.1% OADC and glycerol, incubated under continued shaking at 200 *g* at 37 ºC for four weeks for the rapid growing mycobacteria and six weeks for the slow growing NTM or until turbid growth was observed. The liquid cultures were screened for contaminants before PPDs were prepared by spread plating each culture on two nutrient agar plates. The plates were then incubated at 25 ºC and 37 ºC respectively, and evaluated after 2 days and 5 days for fungal or any growth not typical of mycobacteria. Ziehl Neelson staining was done on typical Mycobacterium colony cultures.

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#### **5.3.2 PPD production from NTM**

PPDs were prepared from *M. nonchromogenicum* (PPD- N)*, M. malmesburii* sp. nov. (PPD-M), *M. fortuitum* ATCC 6841 (PPD-F), and *M. kansasii* ATCC 12478 (PPD-K) following the modified protocol by Land, 1963. Briefly, the cultures were inactivated by steaming at 121ºC for 20 min. and filtersterilized using the Whatman 40 filter paper and a vacuum pump. Each filtrate was then precipitated by adding 40% trichloroacetic acid (TCA) to a final concentration of 4% v/v) and left for at least 12 hours at 4-8 ºC. Afterwards the precipitated filtrates were mixed manually by shaking and centrifuged at room temperature for 20 min at 3900 *g*. The supernatants were discarded and the pellets washed twice by suspending them in 1% TCA and careful mixing, followed by centrifugation at 3900 *g* for 20 min at room temperature. The supernatants were discarded and the pellets suspended in 10% NaCl, then centrifuged for 20 min at 3900 *g*. After discarding the supernatant, the pellet was harvested by turning the tube upside down, on a piece of sterile filter paper and allowed to dry, weighed, diluted with 0.005% tuberculin buffer (0.005% Tween 80 in PBS: PH= 7.38) and stored at 4-8ºC until peptide digestion (see section 5.3.3).

The purified protein derivatives from *M. bovis* (PPD-B) and *M. avium* (PPD-A) were obtained from Prionics at the Netherlands.

#### **5.3.3 In-Solution Digest with trypsin (IAA)**

Trypsin digestion was done at the Centre for proteomics and genomics research (CPGR, South Africa). All reagents used were analytical grade or equivalent. Twenty microgram of protein was aliquoted into

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a 1.5 ml centrifuge tube and the volume adjusted to 10 µl with 50 mM triethylammonium bicarbonate (TEAB; Sigma). Protein was reduced by adding 1 µl of 100 mM tris (2-carboxyethyl) phosphine (Sigma) prepared in 50 mM TEAB, and the tubes were incubated at 60  $\degree$ C for 1 hour. Samples were cooled to room temperature and then protein was alkylated by adding 1 µl of 200 mM iodoacetamide (Sigma) prepared in 50 mM TEAB. Samples were incubated at room temperature in the dark for 30 min. The sample volume was adjusted to 50  $\mu$ l with 50 mM TEAB and then 5  $\mu$ l of 1  $\mu$ g/ $\mu$ l trypsin (Promega) prepared in MilliPore water was added and digestion was allowed to take place at  $37 \degree C$  for 18 hours, followed by vacuum centrifugation.

#### **5.3.4 Mass spectrometry**

#### *LC MS/MS analysis*

LC−MS/MS analysis was conducted with a Q-Exactive quadrupole-Orbitrap mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA) coupled with a Dionex Ultimate 3000 nano-HPLC system at CPGR. The mobile phases consisted of solvent A (0.1% formic acid in water) and solvent B (80% ACN, 10% water, and 0.1% formic acid). The peptides (as an estimate 500 ng for each sample) were re-suspended in sample loading buffer (95% water, 5% Acetonitrile, 0.05% TFA) and loaded on a C18 trap column (100  $\mu$ m  $\times$ 20 mm  $\times$ 5 µm). Chromatographic separation was performed with a C18 column (75 µm  $\times$ 1 50 mm  $\times$ 3 µm). The gradient was delivered at 300 nl /min and consisted of a linear gradient of mobile phase B initiating from solvent B, 6–60% over 156 min. The mass spectrometer was operated in positive ion mode with a capillary temperature of 250 °C. The applied electrospray voltage was 1.95 kV. Details of data acquisition are listed in table 5.1.

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## **Table 5.1: Data acquisition**



# **5.3.5 Data analysis**

#### *Database searching*

All MS/MS samples were analyzed using Mascot (Matrix Science, London, UK; version 2.4.1) and X! Tandem (The GPM, thegpm.org; version CYCLONE (2010.12.01.1). Mascot was set up to search the Mycobacterium database (derived from UniProtKB, 843597 entries) assuming the digestion enzyme trypsin. X! Tandem was set up to search a subset of the Mycobacterium database including *M. avium*  strain 104, *M avium* subp *avium* 10-9275*, M. colombiense, M. avium* subsp *sylvaticum* ATCC 49884, *M. avium* subsp *hominissuis* TH135, *M. avium* subsp *paratuberculosis* S5, *M. avium* subsp *paratuberculosis* 

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S397 *, M. fortuitum* subsp *fortuitum* DSM 46621, *M. bovis* AF2122/97, *M. bovis* BCG Pasteur 1173P2, *M. bovis* BCG strain Korea 1168P,*M. kansasii* ATCC 12478, *M. smegmatis* mc<sup>2</sup>155ATCC (ATCC 700084), *M. smegmatis* J5623, *M. gastri* 'Wayne', *M. parascrofulaceum*, *M. tuberculosis* KZN strain1435, *M. tuberculosis* Haarlem strain, *M. tuberculosis* H37Ra (ATCC 25177), *M. ulcererans* strain Agy99, *M. szulgai, M. africanum* k85, *M. marinum* ATCC BAA-535, *M. marinum* strain Europe, *M. canettii* CIP 140070017, *M vaccae* ATCC 25954 and *M. rhodesiae* J560 also assuming trypsin. Mascot and X! Tandem were searched with a fragment ion mass tolerance of 0.020 Da and a parent ion tolerance of 10.0 PPM. Carbamidomethyl of cysteine were specified in Mascot and X! Tandem as fixed modifications. Gln->pyro-Glu of the n-terminus, deamidation of asparagine and glutamine, oxidation of methionine were specified in Mascot and X! Tandem as variable modifications.

#### *Criteria for protein identification*

Scaffold (version Scaffold\_4.3.4, Proteome Software Inc., Portland, OR) was used to validate MS/MS based peptide and protein identifications. Peptide identifications were accepted if they could be established at greater than 9.0% probability to achieve an FDR less than 0.1% by the Scaffold Local FDR algorithm (Keller *et al.,* 2002). Protein identifications were accepted if they could be established at greater than 100.0% probability to achieve an FDR less than 1.0% and contained at least four identified peptides (Keller *et al.,* 2002). Protein probabilities were assigned by the Protein Prophet algorithm (Nesvizhskii *et al.,* 2003). Proteins that contained similar peptides and could not be differentiated based on MS/MS analysis alone were grouped to satisfy the principles of parsimony.

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# **5.4 Results**

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## **5.4.1. Identification of proteins present in all PPD preparations**

Five hundred and sixty one different proteins were identified in all the PPD preparations combined. One hundred and twenty six were identified in PPD-B. Among the NTM PPDs, PPD-A showed the showed the highest number of proteins  $(n=222)$  followed by PPD-F  $(n=189)$ , PPD-N  $(n=159)$ , while only 21 and 20 proteins were identified in PPD-M and PPD-K, respectively. The molecular mass of the majority of the proteins was found to be in the range of 10-50 kDA. The list of the identified proteins is presented in Appendix A. Unique as well as shared proteins were identified in each PPD preparations as illustrated in the Venn diagrams in fig 5.1 a-d.

## **5.4.2. Shared proteins between PPD-B and NTM PPDs and their functions**

Seventeen proteins were identified as shared between the NTM PPD preparations and PPD-B. Identities and functions of these proteins are listed in table 5.2. The Venn diagrams in figures 5.1 a-d illustrate shared proteins between PPD-B, PPD-A and different NTM PPDs. There was a higher degree of protein overlap between PPD-A and PPD-B (13/17 shared proteins) than between the other NTM PPDs and PPD-B. Six proteins were shared between PPD-B and PPD-K, PPD-B and PPD-F as well as PPD-B and PPD-N while only four proteins were shared between PPD-B and PPD-M. Most of the shared proteins have been described as immuno-dominant in *M. bovis* and *M. tuberculosis* or have been analysed for their potential as B (TB) diagnostic markers. These include CFP 10 /ESXB (Vordermeier *et al.,* 2009), the 10 kDA chaperonin (GroES) (Prasad *et al.,* 2013), DnaK chaperonin (Das Gupta *et al.,* 2002), the 60

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kDA chaperonin (GroEL) (Prasad *et al.,* 2013), Ag85B and Ag85C (Vordermeier *et al.,* 2006; Prasad *et* 

*al.,* 2013) and EsxN (Prasad *et al.,* 2013).

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# **Table 5.2: Common proteins identified among the six PPD preparations**







+, proteins identified in the respective PPDs; Uniprot, Uniprot database (www.uniprot.org)


#### **5.4.3 Proteins shared among NTM PPD preparations**

This analysis included proteins only present in NTM PPD preparations and those shared among these PPDs including the commercial PPD-A. Four hundred and thirty four proteins were identified (table 5.3a and 5.3b). Proteins unique to the commercial PPD-A were 196. No proteins were shared across all NTM PPDs. Some of the proteins described as immunogenic in *M. bovis*/ *M. tuberculosis* were also detected in the NTM database entries and include most notably: *M. fortuitum* MPB63 (identified in PPD-F and PPD-N), *M. fortuitum* Ag85C (identified in PPD-F, PPD-M and PPD-N), *M. fortuitum* Ag85A (identified in PPD-F and PPD-N), *M. kansasii* Ag85B (identified in PPD-K), *M. avium* MPB64 (identified in PPD-A), *M. avium* Ag85A and Ag85B (both identified in PPD-A).



### **Table 5.3a: Proteins unique and shared among NTM PPDs**





































# **Table 5.3b: Proteins unique to PPD-A**



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#### **5.4.4 Proteins identified exclusively in PPD-B**

Proteins identified as unique to PPD-B are listed in table 5.4. One hundred and eleven of these were detected. Some of these proteins have been investigated as candidate antigens for B (TB) diagnosis. These include most notably the PPE family proteins (Akhter *et al.,* 2012), MPB83 (Wiker 2009), TpX (Prasad *et al.,* 2013), MPB70 (Wiker, 2009), EspC (Millington *et al.,* 2013), ESAT-6 (Vordermeier *et al.,* 2007), HspX (Marongui *et al.,* 2013), MPB64 (Elhay *et al.,* 1998; Prasad *et al.,* 2013). Other proteins identified have been found in other studies to be associated with human host immune response in cases with active tuberculosis. These include malate synthetase G and Aconitate hydratase and were identified in PPD-B. (Prasad *et al.,* 2013).



#### **Table 5.4: List of proteins present in PPD-B only**















### **5.5 Discussion**

Despite the identification of a dozen antigens for development of next generation cocktails for TB diagnosis, it is challenging to replace PPD-B in spite of its specificity constraints, presumably associated with exposure to NTM. It is not known whether immune responses are elicited only when infection persists or whether colonization without disease may also lead to immune responses (Vordermeier *et al.,* 2007). Some of these next generation antigens are probably represented in PPDs but extended knowledge of the composition of PPDs, including NTM PPD preparations is crucial for the development of specific BTB assays. Knowledge of contribution of individual antigens in TB immunodiagnostic assays would allow researchers to select a combination of proteins specific to *M. bovis*/ *M. tuberculosis*. The key aim of this study was to compare the proteomes of the commercial PPDs (PPD-A and PPD-B) and those prepared from NTM field isolates or commercially available NTM strains (*eg* ATCC), in order to assess the potential of these NTM to elicit cross- reactive immune responses against *M. bovis* antigens. We have used LC-MS/MS, which is at best a semi quantitative tool. If a protein is detected it is present in the sample, but the converse is not true depending on the abundance of the protein, the level of degradation that may occur during PPD preparation as well as the efficiency of the trypsin digest (Borsuk *et al.,* 2009). Since a combination of sequenced and unsequenced mycobacteria were investigated, a Mycobacterium database derived from all Mycobacterium sequences in the UniProtKB database was searched for protein identification, to avoid biases of this analysis towards certain species. It was possible to detect as many as 561 proteins in the combined six PPD preparations by trypsin in- solution digestion, LC-MS/MS, and the database search strategy applied. Clearly, although the proteins are largely degraded during PPD preparation (Borsuk *et al.,* 2009), degradation was incomplete so that



several peptides remain intact for identification by LC-MS/MS. We detected 222 and 126 in the commercial PPD-A and PPD-B, respectively. In our NTM PPD preparations most proteins were detected in PPD-F ( $n=189$ ) and PPD-N ( $n=159$ ). However, only a few proteins were identified in PPD-K ( $n=20$ ) and PPD-M ( $n=21$ ), most likely due to degradation or lack of detection because of low abundance or expression. In case of PPD-M it could also be due to the fact that this species' genome is not available in the public database. The previously characterized immuno-dominant *M. tuberculosis/ M.bovis* antigens including: ESAT-6, CFP 10, MPB70, MBP83, EspC, MPB64, MPB63, HspX, Ag85A, Ag85C, GroES, DnaK, EspC, TpX, EsxN were detected as either unique to PPD-B or shared with the NTM PPDs (Cob and Frothingham, 1999; Vordermeier *et al.,* 2007; Wiker*,* 2009; Millington *et al.,* 2011; Tsolaki *et al.,* 2013, Morangui *et al.,* 2013). Identification of these proteins in PPD-B correlates with findings from previous studies (Borsuk *et al.,* 2009). The immunogenic proteins shared with NTM include the *M. tuberculosis* CFP 10 (shared between PPD-M and PPD-B), the GroEL and GroES (shared between PPD-B and all the other NTM PPDs except PPD-M, for GroES). *M. bovis* Ag85C (shared between PPD-A and PPD-B), and *M. bovis* BCG EsxN (shared between PPD-B and PPD-K). Some of the proteins described as immunogenic in *M. bovis/ M. tuberculosis* were also available in the NTM database entries and identified in the NTM PPDs. These include *M. fortuitum* MPB63 (identified in PPD- F, PPD-M and PPD- N), *M. avium* MPB64 (identified in *M. avium*), *M. fortuitum* Ag85C (identified in PPD-F, PPD-M and PPD-N), *M. fortuitum* Ag85A (identified in PPD-F and PPD-N), *M. kansasii* Ag85B (identified in PPD-K), *M. avium* MPB64 (identified in PPD-A), *M. avium* Ag85A and Ag85B (both identified in PPD-A). Identification of *M. bovis/ M. tuberculosis* immunogenic proteins in NTM PPDs warrants further investigation of these proteins as candidate BTB markers taking into serious consideration their occurrence in NTM. Of course the impact of these NTM on the host immune responsiveness will depend on the level of T-cell recognition of their 'antigens'.



Immune responsiveness induced by these NTM proteins therefore need to be evaluated in animal experiments in order to unequivocally determine their cross-reactivity. The occurrence in NTM PPDs especially in *M. fortuitum,* of these proteins described as immunogenic in *M. bovis* could explain the cross-reactive immune responses observed against PPD-F and PPD-B in the modified BOVIGAM assay in South Africa (Michel *et al.,* 2011; Michel *et al., unpublished*).

The elucidation and annotation of the genomes of NTM species may also improve investigations of NTM PPD proteomes. Draft genomes of *M. fortuitum* ATCC 6841, *M. malmesburii* sp.nov., *M. non chromogenicum* species reported in the previous chapter of this thesis, have indicated the presence of orthologs of some of the genes encoding the expressed immunogenic proteins (Gcebe *et al., unpublished*). These include *esxB* gene encoding for CFP 10 (identified in *M. malmesburii* /PPD-M), *dnaK* (Identified in *M. fortuitum-/* PPD-F*, M. malmesburii/* PPD-M and *M. nonchromogenicum/* PPD-N) and *mpb63* (identified in *M. fortuitum/* PPD-F and *M. nonchromogenicum/* PPD-N)*.* Depending on the level of crossrecognition by T-cells, exposure to the NTM expressing these immunogenic proteins may lead to cross- reactive immune responses with *M. bovis* antigens. On the other hand, even though a large number of proteins were identified in PPD-F as compared to others among our NTM PPD preparations, some of the genes encoding immunogenic proteins that were detected in the draft genomes (Chapter 4 of this thesis) were not represented as proteins in the PPDs and these include notably ESAT-6, CFP 10 of *M. fortuitum* and *M. nonchromomogenicum*, and MPB64. This could be due to degradation of these proteins during PPD preparation, lack of expression or low abundance of expression due to which they could not be detected. Likewise, immunogenic proteins of *M. kansasii* that have been reported to be recognized bovine T-cell*,*  like MPB70, MPB83, MPB64, ESAT-6 and CFP 10 were not detected in PPD-K, probably due to degradation during PPD preparation or strain differences leading to differences in protein



expression profiles (Woolford *et al.,* 1997; Skjøt *et al.,* 2002; Vordermeier *et al.,* 2007). The absence of these immunogenic proteins in PPD-K could lead to reduced potency of the PPD making it invaluable if it were to be used as a diagnostic marker for background NTM responses.

The identification of immunogenic proteins unique in PPD-B confirms and strengthens their use as BTB diagnostic markers. These include most notably MPB83 and EspC which were not been detected in any of the NTM PPD preparation including PPD-A in this study (Borsuk *et al.,* 2009; Wiker *et al.,* 2009; Millington *et al.,* 2011). To the best of our knowledge genes of these proteins have neither been detected in nonpathogenic NTM species, but in pathogenic *M. kansasii* and *M. marinum* (Wiker *et al.,* 2009; Millington *et al.,* 2011). Therefore serological and immunological assays employing MPB83 and EspC as antigens will probably not display any cross -reactivity due to exposure to non-pathogenic mycobacteria.

Identification of proteins unique to NTM will contribute towards investigations of NTM specific antigens as diagnostic candidates for NTM infections. Immunogenicity of these proteins is as yet unknown. Checkley *et al.,* 2010 had identified Mce family proteins as the most shared proteins among NTM, using genomics and a bio-informatics approach. These proteins were, however, not identified in the NTM PPDs in this study.

In conclusion, we have for the first time elucidated the proteome of PPDs prepared from *M*. *fortuitum* (PPD-F) which is used as an additional non-MAC NTM representative in the modified BOVIGAM assay. We also deciphered proteomes of other NTM species that are abundant in South Africa and other countries as well, *viz M. nonchromogenicum* (PPD-N) and *M. malmesburii* sp. nov. (PPD-M) (known to be abundant in South Africa only). We identified in these NTM, proteins that are recognized as immunogenic in *M. bovis* explaining the crossreactive immune responses against PPD-F and PPD-B seen in the BOVIGAM assays in South

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Africa. Since PPD-F has already been shown to induce immune responses (Michel *et al.,* 2011; Michel *unpublished*), and since several of the *M. bovis* immunogenic proteins detected in PPD-F are also shared with PPD-N and PPD-M, the follow up to this study will be to investigate the individual contribution of the PPD-F 'immunogenic' proteins on a T-cell recognition level.

In general the presence of immunogenic proteins in NTM PPDs warrants re-consideration of their use as diagnostic markers for BTB diagnosis, until these NTM proteins are shown not to play any role in induction of cross- reactive immune responses against bovine antigens. This study has built a foundation for such investigations.

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**a** b



**c d** 

**Fig 5.1: Venn diagrams illustrating overlap of proteins identified among a) PPDA-PPD-B, PPD-F, b) PPD-A, PPD-B, PPD-K, c) PPD-A, PPD-B, PPD-M, d) PPD-A, PPD-B and PPD-N**



# **Chapter 6. Genes encoding highly immunogenic WXG 100 family proteins present in the genomes of non-tuberculous Mycobacterium (NTM) species**

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#### **6.1 Abstract**

The Esx family proteins of *M. bovis* and *M. tuberculosis* have been evaluated as candidates for TB diagnosis in both humans and animals. The immunodominant ESAT-6 and CFP 10 proteins encoded by *esxA* and *esxB* genes respectively have been shown to be absent in *M. bovis* BCG vaccine and also lack sequence homology with other members of the Esx family as a consequence they have been used to differentiate between infected and vaccinated individuals. The presence of homologues of proteins of EsxA, EsxB and other members of the Esx family proteins in NTM (both pathogenic and non -pathogenic) and *M. leprae* pose limitations to their use for specific diagnosis of TB. In this study we evaluated various rapidly growing NTM species for the presence of *esxA* and *esxB* genes using primers whose sequences were derived from the *M. smegmatis*  $MC^2$ 155 orthologs. Among the rapidly growing mycobacteria (RGM) *M. fortuitum* was the only species in addition to *M. smegmatis* that we could demonstrate to have sequences of both *esxA* and *esxB*. The *esxA* and *esxB* orthologs were also detected in two isolates belonging to *M. septicum-peregrinum* group (*esxA*) and *M. mageritense* (*esxB*), respectively. Either no amplification or non-specific amplification of both gene fragments was demonstrated in the following RGM: *M. acapulcensis, M. paraffinicum, M. chitae, M. confluentis, M. vaccae/ M. vanbaalenii, M. parafortuitum, M. austroafricanum, M. neoaurum, M. elephantis, M. engbackii* and *M. moriokaense*. These results confirm the presence of *esxA* and *esxB* in non-pathogenic NTM, and *M. fortuitum, M. mageritense* and *M. septicum/ M. peregrinum* stood out among the rest. Their presence in NTM may pose limitations to their use in diagnostic assays for tuberculosis.

#### *Key words: esxA, esxB, non-tuberculous mycobacteria*



#### **6.2 Introduction**

The elucidation of the genomes of *M. bovis* and *M. tuberculosis* revealed 23 genes (11 gene pairs and singleton, esxQ) named *EsxA* to *esxW,* related to the WXG100 family, which is characterized by a size of  $\sim$ 100 amino acids and the presence of a Trp-Xaa-Gly (W-X-G) motif (Pallen *et al.,* 2002). Proteins encoded by these genes are among the most immuno-dominant antigens recognised by the bovine immune system (Brodin *et al.,* 2005). RD1 encoded ESX-1 locus proteins (ESAT-6 encoded by *esxA* and CFP 10 encoded by *esxB*) are the most widely investigated for immunodiagnosis of TB in both humans and animals (Vordermeier *et al.,* 2007; Ganguly *et al.,* 2008). ESAT-6 and CFP 10 have been shown to lack sequence homology with other Esx family proteins of *M. bovis* and *M. tuberculosis* and they are absent in *M. bovis* BCG*,* thus they are used to differentiate between TB infection and *M. bovis* BCG vaccination (Mustafa *et al.,* 2013). Genes encoding these proteins have been described in both pathogenic and non-pathogenic NTM but so far investigations of immunodominance of the NTM homologues of these proteins have mainly focussed on pathogenic NTM that are phylogenetically related to *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* complex like *M. kansasii* and *M. marinum* (Vordermeier *et al.*, 2007). This is despite the occurrence of these genes in nonpathogenic mycobacteria like *M. smegmatis* (Gey van Pittius *et al.,* 2001), *M. riyadhense* (van Ingen *et al.,* 2009), *M. gastri* (Congalel *et al.,* 2005), *M. fortuitum*, *M. malmesburii* sp. nov., *M. komanii* sp. nov., *Mycobacterium.* sp. JLS, *M. farcinogenes* and *M. vulneris* (Gcebe *et al.,*  unpublished). Contrasting results regarding the occurrence of *esxA* and *esxB* in *M. flavescens* were also reported (Harboe *et al.,* 1996; van Ingen *et al.,* 2009), which were probably due to technical reasons like the difference in primer sequences used for screening. The *M. leprae*  homologues of ESAT-6 and CFP 10 have sequence homologies of 32% and 40% to the *M. bovis* protein counterparts, and have been shown to induce significant immune responses that



may be used for diagnosis of leprosy (Geluk *et al.,* 2002, Geluk *et al.,* 2004). The presence of ESAT-6 (*esxA*) and CFP 10 (*esxB*) in NTM as well as in *M. leprae* pose potential limitations for their use for specific diagnosis of bovine tuberculosis (BTB).

It is very apparent that the ESX-1 locus is a characteristic of both pathogenic and nonpathogenic mycobacteria and therefore extensive investigation of the protein products of this locus is needed taking into consideration their occurrence in NTM.

This prompted us to investigate the presence of *esx* genes of this locus (*esxA* and *esxB*) in the genomes of NTM species available in our laboratory database. Other studies assessing NTM for the presence of *esxA* and *esxB* have used primers designed from the *M. bovis/ M. tuberculosis* sequences of these genes (Hughes *et al.,* 2005; van Ingen *et al.,* 2009). We reasoned that the *esxA* and *esxB* genes sequences from rapidly growing NTM species by virtue of them being phylogenetically distant from the *M. bovis/M. tuberculosis* will have sequence differences to the *M. bovis* and *M. tuberculosis* orthologs. Alignment of the *esxA* and *esxB* nucleotide sequences of *M. smegmatis* MC<sup>2</sup>155 and *M. tuberculosis/M. bovis* showed sequence differences as illustrated in figures 1A and 1B. We hypothesised that primer sequences derived from a rapidly growing Mycobacterium (RGM) species will have a greater chance to anneal and amplify gene sequences of other RGM. Using primers designed from the *M. smegmatis*  MC<sup>2</sup>155 sequences of the two genes, isolates belonging to different NTM species available in our laboratory collection were screened for the presence of *esxA* and *esxB* sequences by PCR and sequencing. This study is aimed to contribute towards the investigation on NTM crossreactivity with *M. bovis* antigens and is therefore believed to assist in the development of BTB diagnostic assays with increased specificity in the long term.


# **6.3 Materials and Methods**

## **6.3.1 Origin of mycobacterial strains**

With the exception of the ATCC strains all the NTM isolates were derived from different sources and were previously identified to species level (Gcebe *et al.,* 2013).

### **6.3.2 Invitro amplification and sequencing**

### *Primer design and evaluation***:**

Primers were designed from the *M. smegmatis* nucleotide sequences of the different genes using NCBI primer BLAST. The *M. smegmatis* sequences of *esxA* and *esxB* were retrieved from Smegmalist database (http://mycobrowser.epfl.ch/smegmalist.html). The primer sequences for the respective genes are illustrated in table 6.1 and figures 1A and 1B respectively. The primers were first evaluated on *M. smegmatis* ATCC 14468 by PCR and sequencing.





### **Table 6.1: Primer sequences used in the study**

### *Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR):*

Boiled culture suspensions were prepared from colonies as DNA template for amplification. The following PCR conditions were used for amplification of the two gene fragments: A 50 µl PCR mixture was prepared, containing 28.5 µl de-ionised water,  $3 \mu$ l MgCl<sub>2</sub> (25 mM), 1  $\mu$ l dNTP mix (10 mM), 4.75 µl of 10x PCR buffer (160 mM) (Tris -HCl, MgCl<sub>2</sub>, Tween 20, (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>, SO<sub>4</sub>), 0.75 µl Taq DNA Polymerase (5 U/ µl) (Supertherm <sup>TM</sup>), 1 µl of each forward and reverse primers (50 pmol) and 10 µl of DNA template. The PCR cycling parameters were as follows: Fourty five cycles of denaturation at 94°C for 1 min, annealing at 60°C for 1 min, and elongation at 72°C for 1 min and final extension at 72°C for 10 min. The PCR products were ran on a 1.5% agarose gel and visualised under ultra violet light (UV).

## *Sequencing and sequence analysis:*

Sequencing of the PCR products was done at Inqaba Biotechnologies (Pretoria, South Africa). Sequencing was performed in both directions using the forward and reverse primers sequences



that were initially used for amplification. Sequences from both strands were edited manually and pairwise alignments undertaken using the BioEdit Sequence alignment editor (version 7.1.9) and Molecular Evolutionary Genetics Analysis (MEGA) platform (www.megasoftware.net) (version 6) (Tamura *et al.,* 2013). The resulting consensus sequences were analysed on the NCBI platform for gene sequence identity/ similarity using Basic local alignment tool (BLAST) [\(www.blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi\)](http://www.blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi).

### **6.4 Results**

#### **6.4.1 Evaluation of the primers**

Amplification of the *esxA* and *esxB* gene fragments was demonstrated in *M. smegmatis* ATCC 14468 strain, (yielding products of between 250bp -300bp). BLAST search results for the respective gene fragment sequences indicated that the amplified sequence using *esxB* primers was 100% identical to *M. smegmatis* INHR2 strain (CP009496.1), position 87041-87295 of the genome sequence, and the amplified sequence when *esxA* primers were used was also *M. smegmatis* INHR2 strain (CP009496.1), position 87348-87617 of the genome sequence.

#### **6.4.2 Screening of NTM for the presence of** *esxA* **and** *esxB*

Among the RGM as shown in table 6.2 , *M. fortuitum* ATCC 6481 is the only species that amplified both e*sxA* (~269bp) and *esxB* (~255bp) in PCR, while an isolate belonging to the *M. septicum-peregrinum* group amplified for *esxA* (~265bp) and another that belongs to *M. mageritense* amplified for *esxB* (~256bp) PCR . No amplification was demonstrated in isolates



belonging to *M. acapulcensis* (n=3)*, M. paraffinicum* (n=2)*, M. chitae* (n=1)*, M. confluentis*  (n=1), *M. vaccae/ M. vanbaalenii* (n=5)*, M. parafortuitum* (n=3)*, M. engbackii* (n=3), *M. austroafricanum* (n=1), *M. madagascariense* (n=2) and *M. moriokaense* ATCC 43059 strain (n=1)*.* Isolates belonging to *M. neoaurum,* yielded the expected band size for *esxA*, but ambiguous sequences were obtained, while non-specific amplifications (~400bp) and ambiguous sequences were obtained for isolates belonging to *M. moriokaense* and *M. elephantis.* PCR for all the isolates that did not amplify for both *esxA* and *esxB* PCR (n=23) was repeated and yielded the same results. Integrity of DNA of all the isolates that yielded negative results for *esxA* and *esxB* was tested by amplification of their *hsp65* gene which amplified in all cases.













# **6.4.3 Sequence analysis**

*EsxB***:** 

BLAST search results of each of the sequences are summarised in table 6. 3a.





# **Table 6.3a: BLAST results of sequences obtained from** *esxB* **PCR**

(http://mycobrowser.epfl.ch/smegmalist.html).

## *EsxA:*

BLAST search results of each of the sequences is summarised in table 6.3b.





# **Table 6.3b: BLAST results of sequences obtained from** *esxA* **PCR**

(http://mycobrowser.epfl.ch/smegmalist.html).



# **6.5 Discussion**

To improve the current understanding of the role of NTM, in particular non-pathogenic RGM in host immune responsiveness, we set out experiments to screen NTM isolates belonging to different RGM species for the presence of *esxA* and *esxB*. Other investigators have used primers designed from *M. tuberculosis/ M. bovis* and possibly specific to pathogenic mycobacteria to screen both slow growing mycobacteria (SGM) and as well as RGM (van Ingen *et al.,* 2009). In this study we used PCR primers derived from *M. smegmatis* sequences of these genes in a PCR- sequencing assay as we reasoned that such primers would be more specific to RGM as they are phylogenetically closely related to each other (Devulder *et al.,* 2005). We demonstrated the presence of both these gene fragments in *Mycobacterium fortuitum* ATCC 6841 whose nucleotide sequences were 89% and 85% identical to the *M. smegmatis esxA* and *esxB,* respectively. The *M. septicum/ peregrinum* complex isolate showed the presence of *esxA* and the *M. mageritense* isolate's DNA amplified with the *esxB* primers and the resulting sequence was 95% similar to *Mycobacterium* sp KMS *esxB* at nucleotide level . It is possible that the *esxB* and *esxA* gene sequences did not amplify in the two species, respectively, as well as in *M. malmesburii* sp. nov. and *M. komanii* sp. nov. even though these species (*M. komanii*  sp.nov. and *M. malmesburii* sp.nov.) were reported in Chapter 4 of this thesis to harbor both gene orthologs in their genomes, due to the fact that the primer sequences used were not specific to these NTM. Therefore a combination of primers derived from different species may be necessary for these investigations. Identification of the *esx* genes of the ESX-1 locus genes (*esxA* and *esxB*) in *M. fortuitum* and one of each gene fragment in *M. septicum/ peregrinum*  and *M. mageritense,* respectively, confirms that the *esx* genes of this locus do occur in nonpathogenic RGM species other than *M. smegmatis, M. flavescens* and *Mycobacterium.* sp. JLS but with sequence differences (Harboe *et al.,* 1996; Gey van Pittius *et al.,* 2001; Gcebe *et al.,* 

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*unpublished*). Identification of e*sxA* and *esxB* genes in these non-pathogenic NTM is a major concern as their protein products are widely used as specific markers for BTB diagnosis in the BOVIGAM assay. The presence and thus recognition of these NTM antigens by T-cell theoretically lowers the specificity of the BOVIGAM assay as experienced previously in African buffalo (Michel, 2008). This investigation will be extended to other NTM isolates available in our laboratory collection. However, more robust tools like use of a combination of primers designed from both non-pathogenic and pathogenic mycobacteria may be useful in screening both the RGM and SGM for the presence of these genes. This approach will be a more cost effective way of characterizing a number of NTM for the presence of *esxA* and *esxB*  since only a handful of Mycobacterium genomes have been sequenced, probably due to the cost involved in whole genome sequencing studies.

In conclusion we have demonstrated occurrence of *esxA* and e*sxB* in *Mycobacterium fortuitum*  which potentially may have an effect for their use as markers for TB diagnosis. In *M. septicum/ peregrinum* complex and *M. mageritense, esxA* and *esxB* genes were found to occur as singleton respectively. The occurrence of these two genes in NTM should be a subject of investigation when designing immunodiagnostic assays for TB. Characterization of NTM for the presence of genes like *esxA* and *esxB* that play part in immune responses should form part for future studies describing new species.

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**Fig 6.1a: Alignment of** *esxA* **nucleotide sequences of** *M. smegmatis* **MC<sup>2</sup>155 (M. smegmat)** *and M. tuberculosis* **H37Rv (M. tubercu). \*, represents identical sequences, and primers sequences used are underlined.** 



 ....|....| ....|....| ....|....| ....|....| ....|....| 10 20 30 40 50 **M. smegmat ATGGCAGCAA TGAATACAGA TGCCGCCGTC CTCGCCAAGG AGGCGGCGAA M. tubercu ATGGCAGAGA TGAAGACCGA TGCCGCTACC CTCGCGCAGG AGGCAGGTAA \*\*\*\*\*\*\* \* \*\*\*\* \*\* \*\* \*\*\*\*\*\* \* \*\*\*\*\* \*\*\* \*\*\*\* \* \*\* ....|....| ....|....| ....|....| ....|....| ....|....| 60 70 80 90 100 M. smegmat TTTCGAGCGC ATCTCCGGCG AGCTCAAGGG CGTCATCGCG CAGGTTGAGT M. tubercu TTTCGAGCGG ATCTCCGGCG ACCTGAAAAC CCAGATCGAC CAGGTGGAGT \*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\* \*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\* \* \*\* \*\* \* \*\*\*\* \*\*\*\*\* \*\*\*\* ....|....| ....|....| ....|....| ....|....| ....|....| 110 120 130 140 150 M. smegmat CCACGGGCTC CGCTCTGGCC GCTCAGATGG TCGGCCAGGC AGGCACCGCC M. tubercu CGACGGCAGG TTCGTTGCAG GGCCAGTGGC GCGGCGCGGC GGGGACGGCC \* \*\*\*\* \*\* \* \*\*\* \* \*\*\*\* \*\*\* \*\* \*\* \*\*\* ....|....| ....|....| ....|....| ....|....| ....|....| 160 170 180 190 200 M. smegmat GCGCAGGCCG CGCTGGCTCG GTTCCACGAG GCCGCCGCCA AGCAGGTTCA M. tubercu GCCCAGGCCG CGGTGGTGCG CTTCCAAGAA GCAGCCAATA AGCAGAAGCA \*\* \*\*\*\*\*\*\* \*\* \*\*\* \*\* \*\*\*\*\* \*\* \*\* \*\*\* \* \*\*\*\*\* \*\* ....|....| ....|....| ....|....| ....|....| ....|....| 210 220 230 240 250 M. smegmat GGAGTTGAAC GAGATCTCGG CCAACATCCA CACCTCGGGC ACGCAGTACA M. tubercu GGAACTCGAC GAGATCTCGA CGAATATTCG TCAGGCCGGC GTCCAATACT \*\*\* \* \*\* \*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\* \* \*\* \*\* \* \* \*\*\* \*\* \*\*\* ....|....| ....|....| ....|....| ....|....| ....|....| 260 270 280 290 300 M. smegmat CCTCGACCGA CGAGGACCAG GCGGGCACGC TTGCGTCGTC GATGAACATC M. tubercu CGAGGGCCGA CGAGGAGCAG CAGCAGGCGC TGTCCTCGCA AATGGGCTTC \* \* \*\*\*\* \*\*\*\*\*\* \*\*\* \* \*\*\* \* \* \*\*\* \*\* \* \*\* ... M. smegmat TGA M. tubercu TGA** \*\*\*

**Fig 6.1b: Alignment of** *esxB* **nucleotide sequences of** *M. smegmatis* **MC<sup>2</sup>155 (M. smegmat) and** *M. tuberculosis* **H37Rv (M. tubercu). \*, represents identical sequences, and primers sequences used are underlined.** 



## **Chapter 7. Discussion and Conclusions**

The aim of this study was to investigate the diversity and prevalence of NTM in cattle, African buffaloes and their environments in South Africa and the potential of these NTM to elicit crossreactive immune responses in these animal species. In this chapter we present the summary and discussion of the results and conclusions.

Cattle and African buffaloes were our targeted species since they are both maintenance hosts of bovine tuberculosis (BTB) in South Africa. Furthermore, no country-wide NTM survey has ever been conducted in South Africa, so it was necessary for us to first conduct such a study in order to address the question of the likelihood of exposure of cattle and African buffaloes to certain NTM species. Mycobacteria were isolated from 56% of the samples collected during the survey and from retrospective samples that were collected over the years from routine tuberculosis diagnostic samples. Of the 420 isolates that were analysed for species identification, 40 different NTM species were identified from 303 isolates, while 117 were not identified to species level. Of the 117 isolates, 79 isolates were found to be closely related to 23 known NTM species, and 38 isolates were found to be potential novel species that are not currently listed in the RIDOM and NCBI BLAST databases. These results indicated that NTM, which cattle and African buffaloes are exposed to in South Africa, are abundant and diverse. Furthermore, the discovery of several unknown NTM in South Africa suggest the occurrence of a number of as yet uncharacterized *Mycobacterium* species and warranted further characterization of these species. The four NTM species or closely related groups most frequently isolated in this study included *Mycobacterium terrae,* a group of mycobacteria closely related to *Mycobacterium moriokaense* (referred to as *M. moriokaense-*like organisms),

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*Mycobacterium nonchromogenicum* and *Mycobacterium vaccae/ M. vanbaalenii.* Therefore cattle and African buffaloes are most likely to be exposed to the four NTM in South Africa. Some of these NTM have been isolated as the most frequently occurring species in several other studies elsewhere. A study in Ethiopian cattle identified *M. nonchromogenicum* as a predominant NTM species (Berg *et al.,* 2009) and in a study in Chad published in 2006, *M. nonchromogenicum* together with MAC and *M. fortuitum* were found to be common in humans and cattle (Diguimbaye-Djaibé *et al.,* 2006). *M. nonchromogenicum* and *M. terrae* were also identified as among the most abundant in the environment in a study in Zaire (Portaels, 1995). *M*. *terrae* was isolated as a frequently occurring species in a study in Ethiopian wildlife (Tschopp *et al.,* 2010), and was isolated from cattle in Tanzania (Kazwala, *et al.,* 1998; Cleaveland *et al*, 2005), and in the wildlife environment in South Africa (Michel *et al.,* 2007). In Uganda, Kankya *et al.,* 2011 identified *M. nonchromogenicum, M. fortuitum* complex, *M. avium* complex and *M. gordonae* as most frequent species in pastoral ecosystems. *M. nonchromogenicum* has also been detected in small mammals and cattle in Tanzania (Durnez *et al.,* 2011).This suggests that *M. nonchromogenicum* and *M. terrae* are ubiquitous NTM species in Africa although percentages differ in different countries. *M. nonchromogenicum*  have also been isolated from cattle in Great Britain and Ireland (Vordermeier *et al.,* 2007; Hughes *et al.,* 2009). NTM closely related to *M. moriokaense* have been isolated previously in a buffalo and environmental samples in South Africa (Michel *et al.,* 2008). The effects of these NTM species, except *M. fortuitum* in immune responsiveness of animals are unknown, but they can potentially induce cross- reactive immune responses to *M. bovis* antigens and therefore needed to be investigated further (Vordermeier *et al.,* 2007; Hughes *et al.,* 2009; Michel *et al.,*  2011).

The abundance of *M. moriokaense-*like isolates prompted us to further characterize them to species level. Phenotypic characterization, multiple gene sequence characterization, as well as

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their phylogenetic analysis revealed that these isolates belong to two novel NTM species that are closely related. We proposed *M. malmesburii* sp. nov. and *M. komanii* sp. nov. as names for these two new species.

To investigate the potential of NTM to induce cross-reactive immune responses to *M. bovis* antigens, we conducted comparative genomics as well as proteomic analysis of the NTM and *M. bovis.* We searched the genomes of four NTM species which were among the abundant in our study in South Africa (*M. nonchromogenicum*, *M. malmesburii* sp. nov., and *M. komanii*) and *M. fortuitum* ATCC 6841 for shared genes encoding proteins that have been described as immunogenic in *M. bovis*. *M fortuitum* ATCC 6841 was included in the study because a PPD prepared from it is included in the modified BOVIGAM assay in South Africa following its isolation from BTB free buffaloes that tested positive on the PPD based BOVIGAM assay (Michel *et al.,* 2008; 2011). Furthermore *M. fortuitum* has been isolated as a frequently occurring species in cattle in several studies. The comparative genomics study revealed that these NTM's closest relatives were other NTM species *viz M. smegmatis, M. rhodesiae* and *Mycobacterium* sp. JLS and very little similarities in their whole genomes were observed between these NTM and *M. bovis* AF2122/97 as well as *M. tuberculosis* H37Rv genomes. However, though there were huge differences between the genomes of NTM and those of *M. bovis* as well as *M. tuberculosis*, orthologs (with amino acid sequence similarity of  $\geq$  50%) of some of the targeted genes encoding immunogenic proteins as well as immunogenic epitopes existed in NTM. Genes encoding proteins of the Esx- family (*esx* genes), in particular those encoded in the ESX-1 locus (*esxA* and *esxB*) and ESX-3 (*esxH*, *esxG)* as well as *esxR* were present in the NTM genomes. These genes were of interest to us because their proeten products have been extensively investigated for their role in immune response resulting in their application in TB diagnosis for differentiation of infected from vaccinated animals (DIVA) as well as vaccine candidates (Vordermeier *et al.,* 2000; Skjøt *et al.,* 2000; Vordermeier *et al.,* 

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2007; Hoang *et al.,* 2013). In NTM, it is mainly in pathogenic slow growing NTM that are phylogenetically closely related to MTBC; like *M. kansasii* and *M. marinum* as well as in *M. leprae* that proteins products of the orthologs of *esxA* and *esxB* have been investigated for their role in immune responses (Geluk *et al.*, 2002; Vordermeier *et al*., 2007). Among the NTM sequenced in this study, *M. fortuitum, M. nonchromogenicum, M. malmesburii* sp. nov., and *M. komanii* sp.nov were found to harbor both *esx* genes of the ESX-1 locus, with the *M. fortuitum* and *M. nonchromogenicum* orthologs of both genes showing the highest amino acid sequence similarity to the *M. bovis esxA* (75.79% and 71.58 respectively) and *esxB* (64% for both NTM). All the four NTM annotations were found to have EsxG with *M. fortuitum* and *M. nonchromogenicum* orthologs showing the highest sequence similarities at amino acid level to *M. bovis* EsxG (both 81.5%). *M. malmesburii* sp. nov. and *M. komanii* sp. nov. genomes had the EsxH ortholog while *M. fortuitum* and *M. nonchromogenicum* genomes had EsxR. The occurrence of the *esx* genes of the ESX-1 locus (*esxA* and those of ESX-3 (*esxG*, *esxH)* as well as *esxR* in non- pathogenic NTM annotations in this study and in other NTM genomes available in the NCBI Genbank database suggests that perhaps, despite sequence differences, the Esx family proteins encoded in these loci are not only characteristics of pathogenic, slow growing mycobacteria, but do occur in several non-pathogenic RGM*.* This view supports several studies that detected orthologs of these genes in other non-pathogenic RGM like *M. smegmatis, M. flavescens* and *M. mageritense* (Harboe *et al.*, 1996, Colangeli *et al*., 2000; Gey van Pittius *et al*., 2001). Comparative genomics study by Gey van Pittius *et al* 2001 also noted the occurrence of ESX-3 in *M. smegmatis*, *M. leprae*, and *M. avium*. Expression of the NTM orthologs of the *esx* genes situated in both these loci (ESX-1 and ESX-3) in non-pathogenic RGM has not been investigated, despite their occurrence in several of these species. However; if expressed in these NTM they could induce cross reactive immune responses that interfere with BTB diagnosis.



The identification of CDS for the other *M. bovis* immunogenic proteins like CanA (Rv1315) (identified in all four NTM)*,* HspX (identified in *M. fortuitum* and *M. nonchromogenicum*)*,*  MPB70 (identified in *M. malmesburii* sp.nov. and *M. komanii* sp.nov)*,* MPB63 (identified in *M. fortuitum* and *M. nonchromogenicum*), TpX (identified in *M. fortuitum* and *M. nonchromogenicum*), DnaK (identified in all four NTM annotations), Rv1120c (identified in all NTM) and MPB64 (identified in all NTM ) in the NTM annotations, including their closely related species, also suggest the potential of these proteins to be expressed and therefore these NTM can potentially cause cross-reactive immune responses against *M. bovis* antigens leading to false positive diagnosis of the disease.

Since we could not predict if the NTM proteins could be recognized by T-cells based on the overall sequence homology to the *M. bovis* homologues, we compared protein sequences at epitopic level. *M. bovis* immunogenic epitopes were found in the NTM homologues, although there were sequence differences except for two EsxR/EsxH epitopes. For sequence homologies of less than 100% we could not unambiguously predict if the NTM homologues could give rise to cross reactive immune responses except for the two EsxR/EsxH epitopes (100% identical to the *M. bovis* EsxR epitopes) which are most likely to induce cross reactive immune responses. Therefore antigen cross- recognition as well as species specificity of these NTM proteins needs to be investigated at individual peptide level recognition by T- cells from infected cattle.

Using the comparative proteomics approach of the NTM PPD preparations from *M. fortuitum*  ATCC 6841, *M. malmesburii* sp. nov., *M. nonchromogenicum* and *M. kansasii* ATCC 12478 and the commercial PPD- A and PPD-B we identified shared immunogenic proteins between PPD-B and NTM PPDs suggesting these NTM species could potentially induce cross reactive immune responses against the *M. bovis* antigens depending on the level of T-cell recognition. The shared immunogenic proteins included the *M. tuberculosis* CFP 10 (shared between PPD-M and PPD-B), the GroEL and GroES (shared between PPD-B and all the other NTM PPDs

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except PPD-M, for GroES). *M. bovis* Ag85C (shared between PPD-A and PPD-B), and *M. bovis* BCG EsxN (shared between PPD-B and PPD-K). These NTM proteins therefore need to be evaluated in animal experiments in order to unequivocally determine their cross-reactivity. We reasoned that occurrence of these proteins in NTM that are recognized as immunogenic in *M. bovis* explains the immune responses against PPD-F and PPD-B seen in the BOVIGAM assays in South Africa (Michel *et al.,* 2011). Therefore since PPD-F is already been shown to induce immune responses, and since several of these immunogenic proteins are shared among PPD-F, PPD-N and PPD-M , the follow up to this study will be to investigate the individual contribution of its proteins whose homologues are known to be immunogenic in *M. bovis,* on a T-cell recognition level. The identification of PPD-B unique proteins that do not have nonpathogenic NTM homologues further confirms and strengthens their use as BTB diagnostic markers. These include most notably MPB83 and EspC which were only detected in PPD-B and not in any of the NTM PPD preparation including PPD-A (Borsuk *et al.,* 2009; Wiker *et al.,* 2009; Millington *et al.,* 2011).However these two proteins have been previously identified in pathogenic NTM like *M. kansasii* and *M. marinum* (Wiker *et al.,* 2009; Millington *et al.,*  2011)

Screening of NTM isolates available in our laboratory database for the ESX-1 locus genes (*esxA* and *esxB*) was motivated by the fact that this locus seemed to be a characteristic of both pathogenic slow growing and non-pathogenic RGM, and also protein products of these two genes have been investigated as candidate markers for BTB diagnosis and used in DIVA strategies (Vordermeier *et al.,* 2009). Since it was apparent that there were sequence differences between the RGM and MTBC orthologs of *esxA* and *esxB,* we reasoned that using oligonucleotides designed from RGM sequences would increase our chances of detecting these genes in RGM. Using primer sequences designed from *M. smegmatis esxA* and *esxB* we could amplify both these two genes in *M. fortuitum* and each from *M. mageritense* and *M.*

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*septicum/M. peregrinum,* respectively. This approach is a more cost effective way of characterizing a number of NTM for the presence of *esxA* and *esxB,* it will therefore in future be extended to other isolates available in our laboratory collection as well as well as type strains.

In conclusion in this study we determined the diversity and abundance of NTM in cattle, African buffalo and their environments through a country wide survey. We also defined the four most prevalent species or closely related groupings which cattle and African buffaloes are most likely to be exposed. We identified two novel species among the closely related species, and we named them *M. malmesburii* sp.nov. and *M. komanii* sp. nov. respectively (currently under peer review). Using the combined genomics and proteomics approach, we identified NTM homologues of *M. bovis* immunogenic proteins in four NTM species, demonstrating the potential of these NTM species to induce cross-reactive immune responses against *M. bovis* antigens. *M. fortuitum* homologues of these proteins could be responsible for the reactions seen against PPD-F and PPD-B in South Africa. Hence further investigation of this PPD antigens on T-cell recognition level will give insight into individual contribution of these proteins.

Lastly we screened RGM for *esxA* and *esxB* using PCR and found their occurrence in *M. fortuitum, M. septicum/ M. peregrinum* and *M. mageritense* further confirming that the ESX-1 locus is a characteristic of all mycobacteria and therefore use of its protein products as markers for BTB should seriously consider their occurrence in NTM. We also recommend that future studies describing new *Mycobacterium* species should include characterization of *esxA* and *esxB* in those species.

The knowledge gained in this study will hopefully help researchers to make informed decisions when selecting markers for BTB diagnosis. This study has built a foundation for such investigations.



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# **List of proteins identified from the different PPD preparations**


























































































**+,** indicates that the protein was present, and 0 indicates that the protein was not present