1	Microevolution during the emergence of a monophasic
2	Salmonella Typhimurium epidemic in the United Kingdom
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4	Running Title: Monophasic Salmonella microevolution
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Abstract

25 26

27 Microevolutionary events associated with the emergence and clonal expansion of new 28 epidemic clones of bacterial pathogens hold the key to understanding the drivers of 29 epidemiological success. We describe a comparative whole genome sequence and 30 phylogenomic analysis of monophasic Salmonella Typhimurium isolates from the UK 31 and Italy from 2005-2012. Monophasic isolates from this time formed a single clade 32 distinct from recent monophasic epidemic clones described previously from North 33 America and Spain. The current UK monophasic epidemic clones encode a novel 34 genomic island encoding resistance to heavy metals (SGI-3), and composite transposon 35 encoding antibiotic resistance genes not present in other Typhimurium isolates, that 36 may have contributed to the epidemiological success. We also report a remarkable 37 degree of genotypic variation that accumulated during clonal expansion of a UK 38 epidemic including multiple independent acquisitions of a novel prophage carrying the 39 *sopE* gene and multiple deletion events affecting the phase II flagellin locus.

Introduction

41 Salmonella enterica is one of the most common enteric pathogens of humans and 42 animals. An estimated 94 million cases of non-typhoidal Salmonellosis occur 43 worldwide each year causing considerable morbidity, mortality and an associated 44 economic burden estimated by the US CDC to exceed two billion US dollars per year, 45 in the US alone (1, 2). S. enterica consists of more than 2500 serovars, of which S. 46 enterica serovar Typhimurium (S. Typhimurium) is the most ubiquitous in zoonotic 47 reservoirs for human infection, and the environment (3). The epidemiology of S. 48 Typhimurium has been characterized over the past half century by successive waves of 49 dominant multidrug resistant (MDR) clones (4). In Europe, where variants are 50 distinguished by definitive (phage) type (DT), S. Typhimurium DT9, DT204, DT104 51 and DT193 have emerged successively as MDR strains between 1966 and 2010 (5, 6). 52 Epidemic strains dominate for four to 15 years before being replaced by a new dominant 53 phage type. The emergence and spread of S. Typhimurium DT104 was global (7) and 54 largely responsible for the increase in Salmonella isolates that were MDR in Europe 55 and North America in the 1990s (8). As DT104 incidence has waned in the UK, 56 monophasic variants of Salmonella Typhimurium with the antigenic formula 57 1,4,[5],12:i:- have emerged (9), although it is not clear if this epidemic is related to 58 other epidemics of monophasic variants previously reported in North America (10), 59 Spain (11), and elsewhere in Europe (12). Analysis of the genomic deletions in the 60 phase II flagellum locus responsible for the monophasic phenotype, suggested that there 61 may be multiple independent clones emerging in the US and Europe (10). The first 62 description of a monophasic epidemic in Europe was that of a 'Spanish clone' that 63 emerged rapidly during 1997 and was characterized by a deletion in the allantoin-

64 glyoxylate operon and the *fliAB* operon, phage type U302 and a heptaresistance pattern

ACSuGSTSxT (11). Since this time many European countries have reported an increased incidence of this serotype and particularly associated with pig herds (13-16), but later in livestock and poultry (17) (reviewed in 18). However, in contrast to the 'Spanish clone' these have commonly been associated with phage types DT193 or DT120, and a predominant ASSuT resistance pattern suggesting they are distinct epidemics.

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72 The molecular basis for the success of epidemic clones of bacterial pathogens has 73 important implications for the surveillance and management of infectious diseases. 74 Epidemiological success depends on selective advantage of the epidemic clone, due to 75 their unique genotype. We report the whole genome sequence variation of S. 76 Typhimurium and S. 1, 4, [5], 12:i:- isolates from the UK and Italy and the application 77 of these data to phylogenetic reconstruction of the epidemic. We address the questions 78 of whether the monophasic Typhimurium isolates in the UK are part of a single 79 epidemic and how they are related to previously circulating biphasic and monophasic 80 Typhimurium strains. We identify a remarkable level of micro-evolution during clonal 81 expansion of the epidemic that may impact on the antigenicity, pathogenicity and 82 transmission.

Materials and Methods

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86 Bacterial isolates were from strain collections held by the Animal and Plant Health 87 Agency (APHA), Public Health England (PHE) or Italian Reference Laboratory for 88 Salmonella (NRL-IZSVe, Legnaro, Italy). The serotype and phage type were 89 determined as previously described (19). The presence of the fljB locus and the 90 occupancy of the thrW locus was initially determined by PCR amplification as 91 previously described (12). Strain selection was to represent the diversity of S. 92 Typhimurium in the UK and not to be representative of the epidemiology 93 (Supplementary Information and Supplementary Table I). Determination of 94 antimicrobial sensitivity of animal isolates from the UK (APHA) and isolates from Italy 95 (NRL-IZSVe) were tested for susceptibility to the following antimicrobials according 96 to standard procedure (20). Resistance or susceptibility were interpreted on the basis of 97 British Society for Antimicrobial Chemotherapy (BSAC) breakpoints. Intermediate 98 BSAC category was reported here as resistant. Antimicrobial sensitivity of human 99 isolates from the UK (PHE) was determined using a modified breakpoint technique on 100 Isosensitest agar (Oxoid, Basingstoke, UK)(Supplementary Information). MIC for 101 copper sulphate was the concentration at which bacterial growth OD600nm was >0.1 102 following culture without shaking at 37°c for 24 hours in Luria Bertani broth buffered 103 with 25mM HEPES pH7. Determination of whole genome sequence using HiSeq 104 Illumina platform, sequence analysis, de novo assembly, annotation and PCR 105 amplification are described in Supplementary Information.

Results

108	Contemporary Salmonella 4,[5],12:i:- strains in the UK are part of a single clonally
109	expanding clade. The current MDR Salmonella 4,[5],12:i:- epidemic in the Europe
110	was first reported around 2005 and is mainly associated with isolates of phage types
111	DT193 and DT120 (21). We investigated the phylogenetic relationship of 206 strains
112	of S. Typhimurium (S. <u>1</u> ,4,5:i:1,2) and monophasic Typhimurium (S. <u>1</u> ,4,[5],12:i:-, S.
113	<u>1,</u> 4,12:i:- and S. <u>1,</u> 4,5:i:-) isolated from human clinical cases, livestock or contaminated
114	food from the UK or Italy between 1993 and 2010. A total of 97 monophasic S.
115	Typhimurium isolates and 142 S. Typhimurium isolates were studied (Supplementary
116	Table I). A maximum likelihood (ML) phylogeny of all monophasic and S.
117	Typhimurium strains was constructed using 12,793 variable sites in the genome, with
118	reference to the whole genome sequence of strain SL1344, excluding SNPs in prophage,
119	IS-elements and repetitive sequences (Figure 1). The majority of the monophasic strains
120	(77 of 97) were from a single distinct clade that appeared part of the current monophasic
121	epidemic as they were the most abundant and recent isolates. However, older
122	monophasic isolates were also found in at least three other clades within the S.
123	Typhimurium tree (* in Figure 1). A clade containing eight isolates including two
124	DT191a (# in Figure 1) was very closely related to a S. 1.4,[5],12:i:- isolate from the
125	North American epidemic strain CVM23701 (10). Just six SNPs distinguished this
126	isolate from strain H07 474 0455. In addition, a clade containing six S. Typhimurium
127	var Copenhagen (4,12:i:1,2) (e.g., H070160417); and a clade containing four isolates
128	(e.g., H103720606) contained monophasic strains.
129	

130 Phylogenetic analysis of the monophasic epidemic in the UK. In order to study the 131 monophasic Typhimurium epidemic clade in more detail, a maximum likelihood 132 phylogenetic tree was reconstructed using variable sites within the whole genome 133 sequence with reference to the draft genome sequence of a representative strain from 134 within the epidemic (strain SO4698-09). The phylogenetic tree indicated a clonally 135 expanding clade with a maximum root to tip distance of approximately 70 SNPs, 136 indicating that all the strains in the tree shared a common ancestor in the recent past 137 (Figure 2). All isolates form this monophasic clade were of sequence type (ST) 34. The 138 phage type of monophasic epidemic isolates varied depending on phylogeny. The 139 majority of isolates were DT193 (38 of 62 typed) or DT120 (10), and various other 140 phage types including DT7 (3), DT191a (1), DT21 (1), DT21var (1), U311 (3) U302 141 (2) and RDNC (3). However, while virtually all isolates were of DT193 in subclades A 142 and B, the phage type was highly variable in subclade C. Biphasic DT193 strains (e.g. 143 4061-1997, Figure 1) isolated before 2005 were not direct ancestors of the current 144 monophasic Typhimurium epidemic as they were present on a distinct lineage. Indeed 145 DT193 isolates were present on four distinct lineages highlighting the polyphyletic 146 nature of this phage type (Figure 1). There was a relative paucity of UK isolates from 147 animals in cluster C; one of 21 isolates in this cluster was from a UK animal. Instead, 148 this cluster was dominated by human isolates from the UK, and isolates from Italy. In 149 contrast cluster A was dominated by isolates of livestock origin (18 of 32), with just 150 five human isolates. Clade B contained approximately equal number of human and 151 livestock isolates. Furthermore, while UK pig isolates were present in all three clusters, 152 UK cattle isolates were only present in cluster A, consistent with epidemiological 153 reports that the epidemic originated in pig herds and were later transmitted to cattle 154 herds (18). Despite only 6 isolates from avian species being included in the analysis 155 these were distributed throughout the tree suggesting multiple transmission events into 156 these animal populations. There was also a strikingly uneven distribution of human and 157 livestock (pigs, cattle and sheep) isolates within subclades of the phylogenetic tree of 158 UK monophasic isolates. Most isolates (64 of 77) were tetra-resistant (ASSuT) and the 159 corresponding resistance genes were detected in de novo assembled sequences 160 (Supplementary Figure 1), suggesting that the MRCA of the clade had this complement 161 of resistance genes. However, during clonal expansion seven strains had lost their 162 resistance genes entirely and a further seven had an altered complement of resistance 163 genes.

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165 The monophasic epidemic clade contain a novel genetic island encoding heavy 166 metal resistance. A large novel genomic island (designated SGI-3) specific to the 167 monophasic Typhimurium epidemic clade is inserted at the *yjdC* locus (Supplementary 168 Figure 2) in strain SO4698-09. The island contained approximately 90 genes some of 169 which had sequence similarity to those associated with plasmid transfer and 170 conjugation, and an integrase gene, suggested the island may have originated by 171 integration of a plasmid. Determination of the accessory genome indicated the island 172 was present in 74 of 77 isolates within the monophasic clade (Figure 2), but absent from 173 all strains from outside the clade. Ancestral state reconstruction using ACCTRAN 174 (Supplementary Figure 3A) suggested that introduction of this island likely occurred 175 shortly before clonal expansion of the monophasic clade. Three clusters of genes with 176 similarity to genes involved in resistance to heavy metals are present on the island. 177 Consistent with the island contributing to enhanced resistance to copper sulfate, a 178 common additive to animal feed, isolates within the monophasic Typhimurium clade 179 exhibited a significantly greater MIC (p=0.015) to copper sulphate (24.2 +/- 1.9 mM)

than Typhimurium isolates from outside of this clade (21.2 +/- 1.1 mM) that did not
encode the island (Supplementary Figure 4).

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183 Genotypic variation in the *fljBA and thrW loci* and loss of the virulence plasmid. 184 Monophasic phenotype is due to the absence of phase-2 flagellin monomer FljB. 185 Determination of the presence of the *fljBA* genes and neighbouring genome sequence 186 of S. Typhimurium and monophasic variants by mapping raw sequence read data to *fljB* 187 locus region of the SL1344 whole genome sequence (Supplementary Figure 5A) 188 indicated that the UK epidemic strains are monophasic due to multiple independent 189 deletion events that occurred during clonal expansion. Four S. Typhimurium isolates 190 (two DT7 isolates, SO5416-06 and H09164 0090, a DT135 isolate, SO6221-07, and a 191 DT177 isolate, H08390 0191) that were closely related and shared a common ancestor 192 with the monophasic epidemic strains (Figure 1), encoded the entire fljBA locus 193 indicating that the MRCA with these strains and the epidemic strains was biphasic. In 194 contrast, 67 of 77 monophasic Typhimurium strains from the epidemic clade lacked at 195 least part of the *fljBA* locus, due to deletions ranging in size and with a distribution that 196 was consistent with the phylogenetic relationship of the strains (Supplementary Figure 197 5A). The eight epidemic strains that did not have a deletion in the *fliB* locus were deeply 198 rooted in the tree, consistent with multiple deletion events (1kb-36kb) occurring since 199 clonal expansion of the clade. Most deletions shared a common junction in the 200 intergenic region of *fliB* and *iroB*. As it was not possible to assemble short read 201 sequence data across the *fljB* locus deletion region, in order to investigate the nature of 202 the deletion and we generated long read sequence data for a representative isolate 203 SO4698-09 using the PACBIO sequencing platform. A single contig assembly of these 204 data revealed a deletion of 15,726bp of the genome relative to SL1344 and an insertion

205 of 27,473bp of novel sequence (Supplementary Figure 5B). The inserted sequence 206 included sequence with similarity to a number of genes from transposon Tn21, mercury 207 resistance genes (merTABCDE and merR) and antibiotic resistance genes, consistent 208 with the resistance profile of this strain (*strA*, *strB*, *sul2*, *tet*(B) and *blaTEM-1*). The 209 composite transposon insertion was not present in closely related isolates eg SO5416-210 06 (Figure 1) that were outside of the monophasic clade, suggesting that it was acquired 211 by the MRCA of the monophasic clade and not prior to clonal expansion. The deletions 212 in the *fliB* locus of monophasic strains from outside the main UK clade were distinct 213 from that in the UK monophasic clade, but identical to those described previously for 214 strains from North American epidemic (eg CVM23701)(10), and Spain (eg 1115/25) 215 (11)(Supplementary Figure 5A).

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In addition to hyper-variability at the *fljB* locus, isolates from the epidemic group exhibited sporadic loss of the virulence plasmid pSLT. The pattern of plasmid loss within the clade could be most parsimoniously explained by loss during clonal expansion. Intriguingly, the loss of pSLT was not uniform across the monophasic tree. While just 13% and 20% of isolates tested contained pSLT in sub-clades A and C respectively, in contrast over 70% of isolates in sub-clade B contained the plasmid (Figure 2).

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The *sopE* virulence gene was acquired on a novel prophage mTmV by multiple independent events during clonal expansion of the epidemic clade. The *thrW* locus of contemporary monophasic Typhimurium isolates has previously been reported to harbor either a prophage, a novel genetic island, or neither (12). In strain SO4698-09, the *thrW* locus contains the novel genetic island described previously, but also an

230 additional prophage element encoding the sopE gene that together total 55 kb. 231 Determination of the accessory genome using the Roary pan genome pipeline (22) 232 indicated that 23 of 77 monophasic isolates from the epidemic clade contained the sopE 233 gene (Figure 2). SopE is a guanine exchange factor (GEF) involved in subversion of 234 the host enterocyte cytoskeleton, a key component of the infection process (12, 23, 24). 235 The sopE gene was present in six distinct clusters of the monophasic clade, and 236 ancestral state reconstruction indicated that multiple independent acquisitions followed 237 by clonal expansion of the *sopE* -positive variant was the most likely explanation of 238 their distribution (Supplementary Figure 3B). The sopE gene of strain SO4698-09 is 239 present on a 55 kb region (designated mTmV phage, for monophasic Typhimurium V) 240 that was absent from strain SL1344 and shared the greatest similarity with the SfV 241 prophage from Shigella flexneri (Supplementary Figure 6)(25). SfV SO4698-09 was 242 not related to the FELS-2 prophage of S. Typhimurium strain SL1344 that also encodes 243 the *sopE* gene, except in a 2443bp region that encoded the *sopE* gene and flanking 244 sequence. Examination of partial assemblies of other monophasic strains encoding *sopE* 245 revealed that the gene was associated with the same prophage, and inserted between the 246 genome region corresponding to the thrW locus. These data indicated that a novel sopE-247 phage entered the genome on at least six occasions during the clonal expansion of the 248 epidemic clade. Since the *sopE* gene was present in phylogenetic clusters toward the 249 terminal branches of the monophasic clade tree and subsequently exhibited clonal 250 expansion, we addressed the question of whether the proportion of strains isolated from 251 each year in our strain collection that encoded the *sopE* gene changed during the period 252 2005 to 2010. The frequency distribution for each year was determined from collated 253 data from strains for which date of isolation and sequence data were available (59 254 strains) and an additional 41 randomly selected monophasic strains from the UK for

- which the presence of the *sopE* gene was determined by PCR (Figure 3, Supplementary
- Table II). An increase in frequency ranging from 0% in 2005 and 2006, to 33% in 2010
- 257 was observed suggesting that acquisition of this gene may have conferred a competitive
- advantage.

Discussion

261 The phylogenetic relationship of S. 1,4,[5],12:i:- isolated from the US and Europe since 262 the late 1990's is unclear from reports to date. Our analyses suggest that there are at 263 least three distinct epidemics associated with S. 1,4,[5],12:i:- and that the vast majority 264 of the monophasic isolates in livestock and humans in the UK since 2006 are not 265 directly related to either the epidemic described in Spain around 1997 (11), or the 266 epidemic described in the US around 2004 and 2007 (10). Instead, the UK epidemic is 267 related to that reported in Germany and elsewhere since around 2005 (12). The US 268 clone is characterized by a large deletion in the *fljB* locus and acquisition of a prophage, 269 neither of which were present in the UK monophasic clone. Furthermore, whole 270 genome sequence for a single isolate from the US epidemic (CVM23701), placed this 271 isolate in a small clade of monophasic isolates from the UK isolated around 1995, 272 distinct from the current UK clade. The Spanish clone is characterized by variable size 273 deletions in the *fljB* locus, all distinct from deletions observed in the UK isolates, and a 274 deletion in the allantoin metabolism locus, also absent from the main UK clade. The 275 MRCA of the UK S. 1,4,[5],12:i:- epidemic in our strain collection was shared with a 276 biphasic S. Typhimurium isolate with DT7 (strain H09164 0090), a relatively rare phage 277 type that has not been associated with epidemics in the epidemiological record. The 278 common ancestor with strain H091640090 likely existed in the recent past (~20 years), 279 as only about 10 SNPs have accumulated in the genome since the lineages diverged, based on short term substitution rate (1-2 SNPs / per genome / per year) previously 280 281 reported for Salmonella epidemics (26, 27). 282

283 Since virtually all monophasic strains from the current epidemic clade encoded SGI-3 284 but isolates from outside the clade did not, it is likely that initiation of clonal expansion 285 was accompanied by the acquisition of this genomic island. SGI-3 encodes resistance 286 to heavy metals including copper and zinc is potentially significant since these are 287 common supplements in pig feed, as a micronutrient and a general antimicrobial (28). 288 Indeed, in the EU heavy metals have been used increasingly in response to the ban on 289 non-specific use of antibiotics in animal feed as a growth promoter (29). Heavy metals 290 are concentrated in the pig intestine and this may represent a significant selective 291 pressure contributing to the success of this clone. Indeed, a recent study reported that 292 enhanced MIC (20-24 mM) compared with the baseline MIC (16mM) to copper 293 sulphate was significantly more likely in isolates from pig feces (30).

294

295 A remarkable feature of the monophasic epidemic in the UK is the considerable number 296 of polymorphisms that impact coding capacity that occurred during the short period 297 (~10-15 years) of clonal expansion of the epidemic clade. They include a complex 298 pattern of deletions in the fljB locus and surrounding genome sequence, insertions in 299 the *thrW* locus, and acquisition of a novel phage carrying the *sopE* gene. These 300 polymorphisms appear to be stable and not deleterious as they all appear in parts of the 301 tree that have subsequently undergone further clonal expansion. Deletions in the fljB302 locus that occurred subsequent to the initial clonal expansion of the epidemic clade, 303 accounted for the monophasic phenotype exhibited by most of these isolates. The high 304 frequency of deletions in this locus may be the result of a composite Tn21-like 305 transposable element that is inserted in the *hin - iroB* intergenic region, a well-known 306 characteristic of such insertions (31).

308 The acquisition of the *sopE* gene on a novel prophage element that occurred through 309 multiple recent independent events may be highly significant to the pathogenesis and 310 epidemiology of the current epidemic. Lysogeny by phage carrying the *sopE* gene has 311 been associated previously with epidemic strains of S. Typhimurium and of other 312 Salmonella serotypes (32). The expression of SopE may increase the fitness of the 313 pathogen a possibility consistent with the observation that recent acquisition of the *sopE* 314 gene by monophasic epidemic isolates has been followed by an increase in the 315 frequency with which *sopE* positive isolates have been isolated. The ability to induce 316 inflammatory diarrhea is an important strategy for the transmission of Salmonella 317 Typhimurium. SopE is a guanine exchange factor that activates both cdc42 and rac1 318 while sopE2 only activates cdc42 (33). All S. Typhimurium strains sequenced to date 319 encode the SopE2 gene that exhibits 59% identity with SopE. The additional activity of 320 SopE has a marked impact on the outcome of the interaction of S. Typhimurium with 321 the intestinal mucosa, resulting in increased burden of Salmonella in the intestinal 322 lumen and shedding in the faeces. *SopE* expression results in increased production of 323 host nitrate, a valuable electron acceptor utilized by S. Typhimurium for respiration 324 (34).

325

The current monophasic Typhimurium clone associated with many animal species and human clinical infections in the UK arose in the recent past and subsequent microevolution in a short period of time has resulted in considerable genotypic variation impacting important antigens, virulence factors and resistance loci. Some genomic features, such as resistance to heavy metals may have resulted in initial selection for the current clone, while more recent horizontal gene transfer or deletions and plasmid loss may be generating variation selected during the epidemic.

Figure Legends

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335 Figure 1. Phylogeny of S. Typhimurium and S. 1,4,[5],12:i:- isolates. Maximum 336 likelihood tree of 212 S. Typhimurium and monophasic isolates constructed using 337 12793 SNPs outside of prophage elements, IS elements and sequence repeats identified 338 by reference to the whole genome sequence of S. Typhimurium strain SL1344. The tree 339 is rooted with S. Enteritidis whole genome sequence as an outgroup (note shown). The 340 lineage containing the Salmonella 1,4,[5],12:i:- current UK epidemic group is conflated 341 for simplicity (filled triangle). * Monophasic isolates outside of the main epidemic 342 clade, # monophasic clade closely related to the North American monophasic clone 343 CVM23701 (10). The designation of the isolates (left column) and phage type are 344 shown (right column), ND, not determined. The bar indicates the approximate number 345 of SNPs determined by genetic distance and the number of SNPs used to construct the 346 tree.

347

348 Figure 2. Phylogeny of S. 1,4,[5],12:i:- epidemic clade isolates. Maximum likelihood 349 tree of 77 Salmonella 1,4,[5],12:i:- isolates rooted with S. Typhimurium strain SL1344, 350 constructed using 1058 SNPs outside of prophage elements, IS elements and sequence 351 repeats identified with reference to whole genome sequence of S. Typhimurium strain 352 SO4698-09. Bootstrap values are indicated at nodes where less than 70. Subclades A 353 (blue lineages), B (red lineages) and C (green lineages) indicated. Strain designations 354 are colour coded for human isolates (red type) and animal isolates (blue type). 355 Epidemiological data for the source of isolate, phage type, Country of origin, presence 356 of the virulence plasmid (pSLT), presence of the sopE gene, occupancy of the thrW357 locus and the presence of Salmonella genetic island-3 are indicated (right). The scale

bar indicates the approximate number of SNPs determined by genetic distance and thenumber of SNPs used to construct the tree.

360

361	Figure 3. Frequency of carriage of the <i>sopE</i> gene in <i>S</i> . <u>1</u> ,4,[5],12:i:- epidemic
362	isolates for each year 2005-2010. The presence of the <i>sopE</i> gene was detected in
363	draft genome assemblies by sequence comparison or by PCR amplification of
364	genomic DNA using primers specific for the $sopE$ gene of randomly selected
365	monophasic isolates from each year. The number of isolates investigated for each year
366	is indicated above the bar.
367	
368	Supplementary Figure 1. Presence of antibiotic resistance genes in the
369	monophasic Typhimurium epidemic strains from the UK. The presence (red) or
370	absence (blue) of antibiotic resistance genes are shown in the context of the maximum
371	likelihood tree described in Figure 2. Data unavailable due to poor quality sequence
372	assembly (black).
373	
374	Supplementary Figure 2. Gene arrangement of the novel genomic island of S.
375	1,4,[5],12:i:- strain SO4698-09. Arrows indicate predicted genes within the island.
376	The position of genes with predicted functions by sequence comparison are indicated
377	for arsenic resistance (red), cadmium, zinc and copper resistance (green). The
378	nucleotide sequence flanking the insertion in the whole genome sequence of SO4698-
379	09 (PRJEB10340) is indicated.
380	
381	Supplementary Figure 3. Ancestral state reconstruction of SGI-3 and sopE gene
382	within the monophasic epidemic clade. Maximum likelihood trees for 77 UK and

383 Italy monophasic isolates as previously described in Figure 2. Ancestral state for 384 presence (red edges) or absence (blue edges) of SGI-3 (A) or *sopE* (B) were 385 reconstructed based on maximum parsimony using ACCTRAN. * indicate the inferred 386 acquisition of the genetic element.

387

Supplementary Figure 4. Minimum inhibitory concentration of monophasic 388 389 Typhimurium and Typhimurium isolates to copper sulphate in rich broth culture. 390 The ability of monophasic Typhimurium (filled circles) or Typhimurium (filled 391 squares) isolates to grow in Luria Bertani broth in the presence of copper sulfate (pH7) 392 were monitored by the optical density of culture. The MIC was defined as the 393 concentration at which cultures attained at least OD_{600nm} of 0.1. The mean for each 394 phylogenetic group (grey bar) +/- standard deviation are indicated. Student's t test was 395 used to test significance.

396

397 Supplementary Figure 5. Heat map showing deletions around the *fljB* locus of

398 the S. <u>1</u>,4,[5],12:i:- epidemic clade isolates. The heat map (A) indicating mapped

sequence read coverage for S. $\underline{1},4,[5],12$::- epidemic clade isolates to the fljB locus

400 and flanking sequence of the whole genome sequence of *S*. Typhimurium strain

401 SL1344. Color indicates 0 mapped reads (blue) to ≥ 20 bases (red). Filled arrows

402 indicate genes in the SL1344 genome sequence as described previously (35). A

403 maximum likelihood tree of phenotypically monophasic isolates from the strain

404 collection is shown.

405

406 Supplementary Figure 6. Prophage element mTmV from strain SO4698-09 and

407 BLAST results with SfV and FELS-2 prophage. Predicted open reading frames in

- 408 the 55 kb mTmV prophage of strain SO4698 are shown with flanking nucleotide
- 409 sequence for orientation. Regions with significant BLAST results (red bar) in the
- 410 related prophage SfV prophage and FELS-2 prophages are indicated below.

References

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