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- 1 Comparative genome analysis and global phylogeny of the toxin variant
- Clostridium difficile PCR Ribotype 017 reveals the evolution of two independent 2
- 3 sub-lineages.

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Abstract

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The diarrhoeal pathogen Clostridium difficile consists of at least six distinct 75 evolutionary lineages. The RT017 lineage is anomalous as strains only express toxin 76 B, compared to strains from other lineages that produce toxins A and B and 77 78 occasionally binary toxin. Historically, RT017 were initially reported in Asia but have 79 now been reported worldwide. We used whole genome sequencing and phylogenetic analysis to investigate the patterns of global spread and population structure of 277 80 RT017 isolates from animal and human origins from six continents, isolated between 81 1990 and 2013. We reveal two distinct evenly split sub-lineages (SL1 and SL2) of C. 82 difficile RT017 that contain multiple independent clonal expansions. All 24 animal 83 84 isolates were contained within SL1 along with human isolates suggesting potential transmission between animals and humans. Genetic analyses revealed an over 85 representation of antibiotic resistance genes. Phylogeographic analyses show a North 86 American origin for RT017 as has been found for the recently emerged epidemic 87 88 RT027 lineage. Despite only having one toxin, RT017 strains have evolved in parallel 89 from at least two independent sources and can readily transmit between continents.

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Introduction

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Clostridium difficile is a spore-forming obligate anaerobe that continues to be the 100 leading cause of healthcare-associated infections in the developed world (1, 2). There 101 are six main lineages that broadly split into PCR ribotypes (RTs) associated with 102 103 RT027, RT023, RT017, RT078, a grouping of diverse RTs and the recently identified 104 novel lineage containing RT131 (3). The global emergence of the RT027 strain was 105 responsible for multiple outbreaks and increased disease severity in Canada and the United States in 2001 (4). This strain has since spread to South America (5-7), China 106 (8), Japan (9), Hong Kong (10), Korea (11, 12), Taiwan (13), Singapore (14), 107 Australia (15, 16), Saudi Arabia (17), Israel (18), New Zealand (19) and throughout 108 109 Europe (5, 20-28). Although RT027 remains the dominant clone in the United States, Europe has seen a decline in RT027 with a simultaneous increase in other virulent 110 RTs such as RT017 and RT078 (29). 111

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Using whole genome sequencing (WGS) and phylogenetic analysis, He et al., (4) identified the presence of two genetically distinct sub-lineages of RT027 through single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) analysis; both had emerged in North America within a relatively short period after acquiring the same fluoroquinolone resistance conferring mutation encoding an alteration in gyrA and a highly related conjugative transposon (4). The two epidemic sub-lineages showed distinct patterns of global spread, with one lineage spreading more widely and causing healthcare-associated outbreaks globally (4).

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Traditionally, virulent C. difficile strains are characterised and identified in diagnostic laboratories by the presence of two potent toxins TcdA and TcdB (30). These genes

are located on a 19.6 kb pathogenicity locus (PaLoc). There is genetic variation in this region which can be exploited and which has revealed 30 different toxinotypes including six A-B+ toxinotypes. The most common and clinically relevant is toxinotype VIII and these isolates belong to RT017 (31). It is well known that the tcdA gene of this type contains a 1.8 kb deletion at the 3' end and a nonsense mutation at tcdA amino acid 47 that introduces a stop codon leading to a truncated tcdA gene (31). RT017 strains also lack the binary toxin (CDT) found in for example pathogenic RT027 strains that produce all three toxins. Despite lacking two toxins, clinically significant C. difficile infection (CDI) has been reported worldwide for the RT017 lineage (32-41).

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Historically, these strains were initially identified in CDI outbreaks in Asia and are thought to have spread to Europe and other continents. RT017 strains have been reported in: Canada (35, 42) China (34, 43), Korea (33, 44, 45), Argentina (46), Australia (47, 48), Israel (49), Japan (50) South Africa (51) and throughout Europe (36, 39, 41, 52, 53). These strains have also been isolated from non-human sources including equine, bovines (54) and rabbits (55). We recently performed WGS on 35 human and two hospital environmental isolates of RT017 circulating in London, United Kingdom and identified three SNP variants (39). One variant was found to be clonal and had persisted in a London hospital ward for at least five years (39).

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Here, WGS and phylogenetic analysis was used to define the population structure of a collection of 277 RT017 isolates from six continents of human and non-human origins with isolation dates between 1990 and 2013. Analyses reveal that RT017 strains have evolved in parallel from at least two independent sources and can readily transmit

between continents. Genotypic and phenotypic antimicrobial susceptibilities were also compared.

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METHODS

The 277 isolates described in this study are shown in table 1 and included 37 isolates from a previous study (ENI study accession number ERP009770) (39) and the remaining new to this study (ENA study accession number PRJEB11868). These were of human (n = 251), environmental/hospital ward (n = 2), equine (n = 4), canine (n = 4)11) and bovine (n = 9) origin with isolation dates between 1990 and 2013. These isolates were subjected to genomic DNA extraction as previously described by Stabler et al., (56). WGS data for the isolates was obtained using either the HiSeq 2000 Sequencing System or the MiSeq Sequencing System (Illumina, California, USA) and libraries were created as previously described (57) or using Nextera XT kit (Illumina, California, USA) respectively. The sequence data was processed and quality controlled according to a standard pipeline as previously described (58). Briefly, FASTQ formatted sequencing reads were quality controlled with a minimum quality phred-score of 30 (as a rolling average over 4 bases) using trimmomatic (59). The resulting reads were mapped using the BWA-MEM (60) software against the M68 C. difficile reference strain and the majority of post-trimmed reads (>92% for all samples passing quality control) were mapped to the reference. SNPs were called using Samtools/VCFtools (61).

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Velvet (62) and Velvet Optimiser (63) were used to de novo assembly the trimmed reads into contigs producing 277 assemblies. Optimal k-mers fell between 53 bp and 97 bp and the mean n50 was over 928,000 bp. The mean longest contig was 1,067,000

bp, with 71 samples producing contigs that covered over half of the genome (greater than ~2.15 Mbp) and 16 samples assembled to contigs greater than 4 Mbp (equivalent greater than 90% of the genome). Pipeline, post-analyses, genetic, phylogenetic, phylogeographic and cluster analysis were carried out using Perl, R, abacas, prokka, RaXML, Bayesian Evolutionary Analysis Sampling Trees (BEAST) and mclust software (64-68). A minor allele frequency (MAF) of less than 1% was used and to remove any SNPs that may be associated with recombination and which would mask the true phylogeny, SNPs within 1 bp distance of an insertion or deletion site were excluded from further analysis. We used BEAST (67) to produce a SNP phylogeny from the SNPs as well as geographical and temporal data combined in phylogeographic analysis and mclust software for maximum likelihood cluster analysis.

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To determine the minimum inhibitory concentrations (MICs) of 7/277 isolates, dilutions for the antibiotics; chloramphenicol, rifampicin, tetracycline, erythromycin, naladixic acid, gentamicin, teicoplanin and ampicillin were made as previously described (69). Briefly, 10 ml pre-equilibrated Brain Heart Infusion broth, supplemented with yeast (Oxoid), L-Cysteine (Sigma) and C. difficile supplement (Oxoid) (BHIS) were inoculated with three colonies of 48 h culture on BHIS agar plates. Once the OD reached 0.3 nm, 24-well plates containing the antibiotic dilutions were inoculated with 1/100 of the BHIS broths and incubated. The ODs were measured 24 h post inoculation and MIC data were categorised as susceptible, intermediate and resistant following the Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI) and the European Committee on Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing

198 (EUCAST) guidelines. The reference strain M68 was used as a control as were appropriate negative controls. 199

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RESULTS

201 WGS was performed on a global collection of 277 C. difficile RT017 isolates. 202 203 Collectively, these were isolated from human (n=251), bovine (n=9), canine (n=11), 204 equine (n=4) and hospital ward environments (n=2) between 1990 and 2013 (Supplementary Information 1). All isolates belonged to multilocus sequence type 37. 205 After sequence quality control and mapping to the M68 RT017 reference genome 206 207 (GenBank accession number FN668375), we identified 1288 high quality bi-allelic 208 SNPs with 311 present in greater than 1% of samples and greater than 1 bp from an insertion or deletion. Of these non-rare SNPs, 65.6% (n=204) were non-synonymous, 209 17.7% (n=55) synonymous and 16.7% (n=52) were present in non-coding regions of 210 211 the genome (non-synonymous SNPs are shown in Supplementary Information 2). 212 Twelve SNPs affected stop-codons; eleven non-synonymous and one synonymous 213 (Table 1).

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215 SNP data revealed 109 haplotypes containing between 0 and 52 SNPs (with respect to the M68 reference) with 76.5% (212/277) of isolates having between 10 and 35 SNPs 216 (Table 2). 217

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We generated a maximum-likelihood phylogenetic tree based on the 1288 SNPs, which demonstrates the presence of two genetically diverse sub-lineages; SL1 and SL2 (Figures 1 and 2). Of the 1288 SNPs, 76% (977/1288) had a minor allele frequency (MAF) of ≤1% and/or were within 1 bp of an insertion or deletion. To 223 control for false positive identification of SNPs (these SNPs may mask the true phylogeny of RT017) phylogenetic trees with and without these SNPs were generated. 224 The inclusion of 977 SNPs only had a minor effect on the overall phylogenetic tree. 225 Four SNPs were found to differentiate the two sub-lineages; one present in a non-226 coding region and three non-synonymous SNPs (Table 3). SL2 is the most distantly 227 228 related to the reference M68 strain of the two sub-lineages and both sub-lineages are geographically and temporally widespread. All isolates from the previously reported 229 study on London isolates fell into SL2 (39). 230

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The RT017 strains are documented to have a higher level of antibiotic resistance compared to other C. difficile RTs (37, 70). Fluoroquinolone resistance in C. difficile has been associated with mutations in codon 82 of the gyrA gene and codon 426 of the gyrB gene. The common SNP found in the gyrA gene is T82I and the gyrB gene are A426V and A426A (71). Remarkably, we found 64.6% (179/277) to have the amino acid substitution found in the gyrA gene (T82I). A substitution in the gyrB gene (V426N) was present in 4.7% of strains (13/277) and an additional 10.1% (28/277) including M68 harboured a valine at position 426 of the predicted gyrB product (Table 2 and Supplementary Information 1). The T82I substitution was globally distributed in both sub-lineages. Additionally, substitutions in the 81-bp rifampicin resistance determining region of the rpoB gene; R505K, H502N and S485F were found in 32.5% (90/277), 33.2% (92/277) and 1.1% (3/277) respectively (Table 2 and Supplementary Information 1).

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To investigate horizontal gene transfer, a key mechanism driving C. difficile evolution, we performed programmatic and visual inspection of the comparisons

which revealed 56 regions of DNA between ~4 and ~61.5 kb that were absent in the M68 strain but present in other strains. These had 34 different insertion sites (Table 2, Figure 3 and Supplementary Information 1 and 4). Additionally, we found regions of DNA of between ~8 and ~29 kb present in the M68 strain at six sites but absent from multiple samples (Table 2 and Supplementary Information 1 and 3). These insertions and deletions were associated with erythromycin, teicoplanin, tetracycline, chloramphenicol and beta-lactam resistance genes and their products potentially associated with virulence such as a two-component response regulator, a SAM protein, an AntA/AntB antirepressor, a cell surface protein and a sporulation-specific glycosylase (Supplementary Information 3 and 4). The deletions and insertions were well distributed geographically and temporally and a 49 kb insertion found only in a clonal cluster of 23/37 London isolates in our previous study (39) was also found to insert at a different site in single isolates from Canada, USA and the UK with isolation dates of 2006, 2006 and 2011 respectively (Figure 3). Only one SNP was found in the toxin pathogenicity locus region, which was synonymous and present in the non-functioning tcdA gene fragment from five Korean isolates in SL2 isolated between 2004 and 2008. Visual inspection of the comparisons revealed both tcdA and tcdB genes to be highly conserved; no sequence variations were found. MICs were determined for eight C. difficile isolates (including M68 as a control)

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against the antibiotics; chloramphenicol, rifampicin, tetracycline, erythromycin, naladixic acid, gentamicin, teicoplanin and ampicillin. Their MIC values are shown in table 4. All isolates were resistant to naladixic acid, gentamicin and ampicillin, either resistant or intermediate resistance to tetracycline and all were sensitive to

teicoplanin. Two (2/8) isolates were resistant to chloramphenicol, four (4/8) were resistant to rifampicin and 7/8 were resistant to erythromycin. DISCUSSION

The RT017 lineage, with its unique toxin profile and unusual global prevalence, has been overshadowed by the global outbreak of the RT027 lineage. Reminiscent of the RT027 lineage, two distinct sub-lineages of C. difficile RT017 that contain multiple independent clonal expansions were revealed in this study. This division demonstrates that toxin variant strains emerged on at least one occasion, suggesting that a full toxin repertoire is not essential for efficient human-to-human transmission.

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Based on our gyrA and gyrB SNP data, we would predict up to 76.2% (211/277) of isolates to be resistant to the fluoroquinolone class of antibiotics. Interestingly, the T82I SNP found in gyrA is the same mutation reported in the global outbreak of RT027 (4). Based on our MIC data, all eight isolates were resistant to naladixic acid indicating resistance to the fluoroquinolone class of antimicrobials.

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Based on our rifampicin SNP data, we would predict 34.7% (96/277) of isolates in this study to be resistant to the rifampicin class of antibiotics. Interestingly, 82% (152/185) of these substitutions were found in SL1. R505K, H502N have previously been associated with rifampicin resistance in C. difficile (72), however, based on our MIC data, only two (2/8) isolates were sensitive to rifampicin with one of the isolates containing the R505K and H502N SNP indicating that these alone do not always lead to phenotypic resistance. Interestingly, S485F was found in three historical isolates from Wrexham, UK. This resistance conferring SNP has not previously been reported

297 in C. difficile, only in Mycobacterium tuberculosis (73). All three isolates were phenotypically resistant to rifampicin, however, all three isolates also contained the 298 R505K SNP and so confirming this SNP's contribution to resistance was not possible. 299 The multiple haplotypes revealed is similar with that found for the RT027 global 300 301 study where >100 distinct genotypes were found in 151 isolates. Despite SNPs and 302 insertion and deletions, there was no variation on susceptibility to ampicillin, 303 teicoplanin, gentamicin, or naladixic acid. However, there was some variation with chloramphenicol, rifampicin, tetracycline and erythromycin. Whether the insertions 304 carrying chloramphenicol o-acetyltransferase, TetR-family transcriptional regulator or 305 the *ermB* gene played a role in this variation is unknown. 306 Figure 4 depicts the phylogeny of the isolates by source. Interestingly, the 24 animal 308

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strains, which were all isolated from a similar location (Ontario, Canada) over a relatively short time period (2002 and 2005), are distributed amongst human isolates in SL1 only. This suggests there is possible transmission between humans and animals.

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The ready global distribution of RT017 suggests determinants independent of toxin B are important in transmission. This could be related to the ready acquisition of antibiotic resistance determinants, efficient germination and/or spore formation. This study provides the basis to further investigate factors important for the epidemic spread of C. difficile.

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The deletions and insertions were well distributed geographically and temporally suggesting either the rapid dissemination of strains or the multiple independent acquisition and loss of DNA regions (Figure 2 and Supplementary Information 1). The insertion of different clusters of genes at the same site suggests 'hot-spot' regions for the uptake of DNA (Supplementary Information 4) and a 49 kb insertion found only in a clonal cluster of 23/37 London isolates in our previous study (39) was also found to insert at a different site in single isolates from Canada, USA and the UK with isolation dates of 2006, 2006 and 2011 respectively (Figure 3). This suggests these isolates have independently acquired this insertion.

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Similar to RT027, our analyses support a North American origin for RT017 with multiple, global transmission events with its earliest movement into Europe in 1986 (Figures 4 and 5). The North American health system and practices appears to facilitate the ready evolution and epidemic spread of C. difficile for RT027 (4) and now in this study with RT017. Our data shows that it was Europe that introduced RT017 to Asia and Australia, with subsequent spread from Asia to the Middle East, South America and South Africa. The analysis indicates over 40 movements back and forth over the span of 30 years, consistent with population movements of a globalised society. Traditionally, it has been considered that RT017 strains emerged from Asia due to the reported high incidence of this RT, that could not relate to nor depend on toxin A-based assays for diagnosis (40). However, our analysis does not support an "out of Asia" hypothesis and supports a North American origin (Figures 4 and 5).

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This study investigated the genetic diversity of 277 C. difficile RT017 isolates with temporal, geographical and source variation. Phylogeographic analysis of the SNPs identified through WGS of the isolates suggests that there are two main sub-lineages of RT017 that share a common ancestry and are globally disseminated. Both sub-

lineages contain isolates from diverse geographical locations and isolation dates, with
animal isolates spread amongst human isolates in SL1. Together with the haplotype
diversity and geographically and temporally diverse presence of the transposable
elements, these data suggest widespread transcontinental spread and recombination
with independent acquisition and loss within different clusters.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

M.D.C., R.A.S. and B.W.W. planned the experiments. M.D.C., performed 687

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- 688 experiments and de novo analysis and M.D.C., R.A.S. and M.D.P. performed
- bioinformatics analyses. C.L.H. performed MIC experiments. M.D.C., D.N.G., 689
- P.M.H., H.K., H.K., E.J.K., T.D.L., H.P., S.R., T.V.R., K.S., P.J.S. and S.J.W. 690
- 691 provided strains and M.D.C. drafted the manuscript with contributions from R.A.S.,
- 692 M.D.P. and B.W.W. followed by suggestions and comments from all authors.

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695 No conflicting interests.

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FIGURE LEGENDS

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Figure 1: Maximum-likelihood Phylogenetic Analysis of 277 global RT017 isolates based on core-genome SNPs against the M68 reference. We used non-rare (>1% MAF) SNP's that were not in close proximity to insertions or deletions to determine the phylogenic tree. The SL1 and SL2 sub-lineages were differentiated by four SNP's (see table 3) with the reference strain M68 falling into SL2. The coloured nodes indicate the geographical source of isolates

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Figure 2: Maximum-likelihood Phylogenetic Analysis of 277 global RT017 isolates based on core-genome SNPs against the M68 reference. The phylogeny is separated into individual panels corresponding to each continent. Data from five out of 7 continental designations (Africa, Europe, Asia, Oceania and North America) include SL1 and SL2 isolates indicating that both sub-lineages are global in nature.

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Figure 3: Bayesian evolutionary analysis of 277 global RT017 isolates based on core-genome SNPs against the M68 reference. Using a geo-temporal model we can orient the evolution of the RT017s though time. The analysis indicates a split from SL1 (lower samples) into SL2 (upper samples) c1990, with the M68 reference in SL2. The introduction of resistance associated SNPs (such as in rpoC) fall within closely related groups in the phylogeny. The continents are coloured as in figures 1 and 2. The heat map depicts the sub-lineage, presence/absence of insertions and antimicrobial resistance associated SNPs in relation to the isolates and continent.

Figure 4: Maximum-likelihood Phylogenetic Analysis of the global RT017 isolates based on core-genome SNPs against the M68 reference depicting the 24 animal isolates by coloured nodes. Note the three equine isolates are positioned (and masked) by the bovine and canine cluster on the left. The two bovine isolates on the right of the tree have SNP distance of 17 from the bovine, canine, and equine cluster. All animal isolates are from Ontario, Canada and isolated between 2002 and 2005.

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Figure 5: Global transmission events inferred from Bayesian evolutionary analysis of RT017. From the geo-temporal analyses we can infer the first movements into each continent, with the date and originating continent. The analysis indicates a North American origin with an expansion into Europe in the mid-1980s, followed by a move into Asia and on to Africa and South America through the 1990s and early 2000s. RT017 was not identified in Oceania (Australia) until the late 2000s, via a jump from Europe.

Table 1: Stop-codon associated SNPs.

Position in the M68 genome	M68 Reference Codon	Alternative Codon	Non-Synonymous / Synonymous / Non-Coding	Gene	Predicted Function and/or Potential Impact	No. of isolates with SNP
132573	TGG	TGA	NS	M68_00168	Amino acid aminotransferase	16
557896	TTC*	TAA*	NS	feoB3	Ferrous iron transport protein B	3
1204039	GGA	TGA	NS	M68_01144	Hydrolase	36
1359584	GGA	TGA	NS	M68_01270	Extracellular solute-binding protein	3
1907433	TAA	GAA	NS	msrAB	Peptide methionine sulfoxide reductase	256
1916756	AAT*	GAT*	S	M68_01782	Unknown	3
3304067	TCA*	GCA*	NS	Sigma-54	Controls expression of nitrogen related genes	29
3399853	TTG*	TAA*	NS	M68_03193	Ca2+/Na+ antiporter	13
3402470	CAA	TAA	NS	plfB	Formate acetyltransferase	3
3704987	CCA*	TGA*	NS	sleB	Spore-cortex-lytic protein	8
3784055	TTC*	TAA*	NS	M68_03513	Penicillin-binding protein	3
4157880	TTG*	TAA*	NS	M68_03851	PTS system, IIc component	6

^{* =} encoded on reverse strand

Table 2: Summary details of 277 C. difficile study isolates and their genotypic characteristics

														ln · · · · · ·
S	To	C	_	H	No.	No. of isolates with a insertion	a isc	Rifampicin resistance		Fluoroquinolone resistance			Resistance inferred	
함	Isol	ountry Origin	solatic Dates	No aplc). of		No late del	34,687	34,697	34,747	112,752	113,641	113,642	Position
Sub-lineage	Total No. of Isolates	Country of Origin	Isolation Dates	No. of Haplotypes	of SNPs	No. of blates winsertio	No. of isolates with a deletion	rpoB	rpoB	rpoB	gyrA	gyrB	gyrB	Gene
ge	of	Ĭ,	_	SS	Ps	n E	_ <u>₽</u>	R505K	H502N	S485F	T82I	V426D	V426I	*Amino acid change
1	163	Argentina, Australia, Bulgaria, Canada, China, Czech Republic, Greece, Hong Kong, Japan, Korea, Kuwait, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Singapore, Slovenia, South Africa, The Netherlands, UK, USA	1994 to 2013	55 (50.5%)	0 to 35	49 (30.1%)	44 (30%)	73 44.8%	79 48.5%	0 0%	124 76.1%	134 82.2%	4 2.5%	
2	114	Australia, Hong Kong, Indonesia, Ireland, Korea, Poland, Singapore, South Africa, Taiwan, The Netherlands, UK, USA	1990 to 2013	54 (49.5%)	17 to 52	65 (57%)	109 (96%)	17 15%	13 11.4%	3 2.6%	55 48.2%	114 100%	9 7.9%	

^{*} Reference residue/amino acid/ alternative residue

Table 3: Lineage defining SNPs

Position	Amino Acid	Reference Base	Alternative Base	Non- Synonymous / Synonymous / Non-Coding	Gene	Predicted Function and/or Potential Impact
650374	19	A	G	NS	MerR	Altered response to environmental stimuli
900866		С	Т	NC		
2914248	257	A	G	NS	dacF	B-lactam resistance
3604289	329	С	A	NS	Hypothetical protein	Unknown

Table 4: Antimicrobial susceptibility data and their genotypic characteristics

	Strain	M68	S- 017.72	WA 1514	S- 017.92	S- 017.27	S- 017.74	I 6	01-116
	Location	Ireland	Walsall	Australia	China	Wrexham	Walsall	Indonesia	Korea
	Date Isolated	2006	2011	2012	2009	1996	2011	2011	2001
	Insertion	Insertion		A, B, C	A		D, E	F, G	
	Deletion	Deletion		Н	H, I	J	H, J, K	H, J	
S	rpoB (R505K)			✓	✓	✓		✓	✓
SNPs	rpoB (H502N)		✓	✓	✓			✓	✓
	rpoB (S485F)					✓			
Resistant	gyrA (T82I)		✓	✓	✓			✓	
.esi	gyrB (V426I)					✓			
~	gyrB (V426D)		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
	^a Chloramphenicol	8 (S)	8 (S)	4 (S)	64 (R)	8 (S)	8 (S)	256 (R)	8 (S)
gent	^a Rifampicin	0.008 (I)	2 (I)	0.004 (S)	>256 (R)	>256 (R)	0.004 (S)	>256 (R)	>256 (R)
A	^b Tetracycline	32 (R)	32 (R)	0.25 (I)	32 (R)	32 (R)	0.25 (I)	32 (R)	32 (R)
bia	^b Erythromycin	>256 (R)	<2 (S)	>256 (R)	>256 (R)				
cro	^b Nalidixic acid	256 (R)	256 (R)						
ntimicrobial	^c Gentamicin	>256 (R)	>256 (R)	256 (R)	>256 (R)	256 (R)	256 (R)	>256 (R)	>256 (R)
\nt	°Teicoplanin	<1 (S)	<1 (S)						
7	^b Ampicillin	8 (R)	4 (R)	4 (R)	8 (R)				

(S) = sensitive, (I) = intermediate resistance (R) = resistant

 ^a Recommended by the European Committee on Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing (EUCAST).
^b Recommended by CLSI (M11-A8, 2012, and M-100-S23, 2013).
^c No guidance from CLSI or EUCAST, cut-offs based on data according to the CLSI M-100-S23 (interpretative values for *Staphylococcus*

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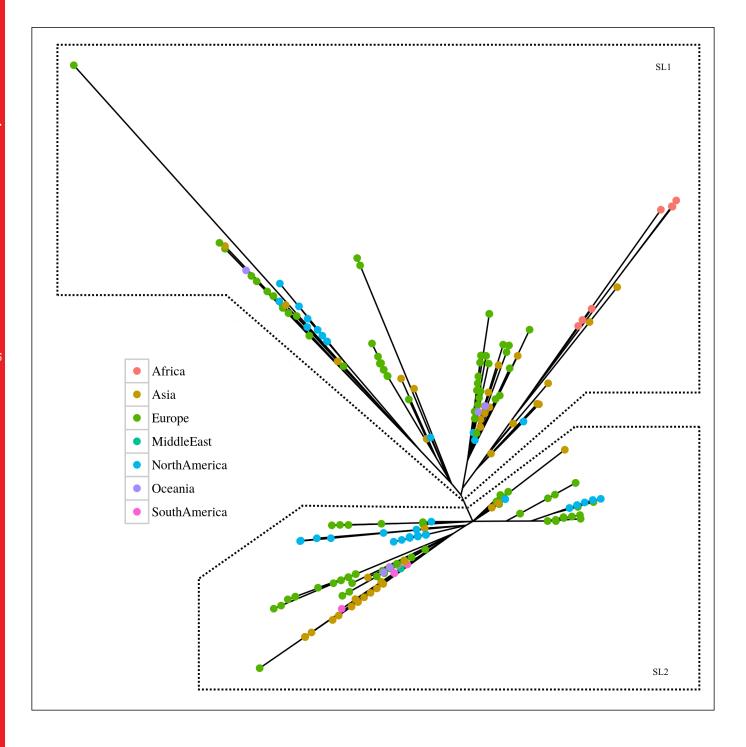
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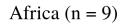
Deletion J: Aminoglycoside 6-adenylyltransferase

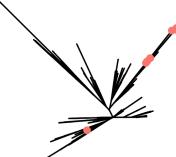
 $Deletion \ K: Putative \ conjugative \ transposon \ Fts K_SpoIIIE-related \ protein$

11 Insertion B: Transcriptional repressor DicA 12 Insertion C: Streptogramin A acetyltransferase and multidrug resistance protein Insertion D: Putative beta-lactamase repressor 13 14 Insertion E: Putative drug/sodium antiporter Insertion F: TetR-family transcriptional regulator 15 Insertion G: Chloramphenicol o-acetyltransferase (M68 has one copy of chloramphenicol) 16 17 Deletion H: Dimethyladenosine transferase (ermB) 18 Deletion I: Putative teicoplanin resistance protein and putative beta-lactamase repressor

Insertion A: Putative drug/sodium antiporter and radical SAM protein TetR-family transscriptional regulator

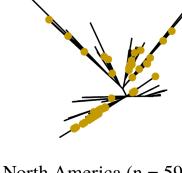






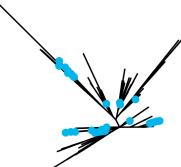
Middle East (n = 2)



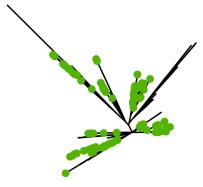


Asia (n = 59)

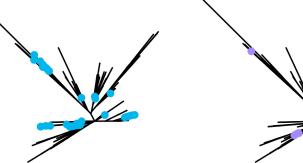
North America (n = 59)



Europe (n = 137)



Oceania (n = 7)



South America (n = 4)

