

1 **Genome reconstruction and characterisation of extensively drug-resistant bacterial**
2 **pathogens through direct metagenomic sequencing of human faeces**

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28 **Abstract**

29 Whole-genome sequencing of microbial pathogens is revolutionising modern approaches to
30 outbreaks of infectious diseases and is reliant upon organism culture. Culture-independent
31 methods have shown promise in identifying pathogens, but high level reconstruction of
32 microbial genomes from microbiologically complex samples for more in-depth analyses
33 remains a challenge. Here, using metagenomic sequencing of a human faecal sample and
34 analysis by tetranucleotide frequency profiling projected onto emergent self-organising
35 maps, we were able to reconstruct the underlying populations of two extensively-drug
36 resistant pathogens, *Klebsiella pneumoniae* carbapenemase (KPC)-producing *Klebsiella*
37 *pneumoniae* and vancomycin-resistant *Enterococcus faecium*. From these genomes, we were
38 able to ascertain molecular typing results, such as MLST, and identify highly discriminatory
39 mutations in the metagenome to distinguish closely related strains. These proof-of-principle
40 results demonstrate the utility of clinical sample metagenomics to recover sequences of
41 important drug-resistant bacteria and application of the approach in outbreak investigations,
42 independent of the need to culture the organisms.

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60 Introduction

61 Clinical and public health microbiology is undergoing a major transformation driven largely
62 by high-throughput microbial genome sequencing. The application of microbial genomics in
63 these areas has been well described, including use for high resolution microbial
64 characterization, source and transmission tracking for nosocomial and community pathogens,
65 and antimicrobial resistance detection and prediction¹⁻⁴. Clinical and public health genomics,
66 however, currently relies on routine culture-based assays to isolate pathogens of interest
67 prior to whole genome sequencing, which presents inherent biases in analyses, and does not
68 allow characterization of pathogens which are unculturable, below the level of culture
69 detection, or unsuspected in a clinical sample⁵⁻⁹.

70
71 Genomics-based approaches that overcome these difficulties by direct characterization of
72 pathogens from clinical samples would be a major advance in clinical and public health
73 microbiology. Metagenomics approaches can complement culture-based techniques for
74 typing, and detecting, antimicrobial resistant (AMR) genes, and SNP variants^{10,11}.
75 Metagenomics allows for the sequencing of whole community genomic material extracted
76 directly from clinical samples, such as faeces, blood, cerebrospinal fluid, sputum, and
77 bronchoalveolar lavage fluid^{12,13}. Current literature on public health metagenomics is largely
78 based on interrogating the metagenome at ‘first-order’ level analyses; that is, either,
79 characterizing bacterial biodiversity at the 16S rRNA gene level, identifying the functional
80 profile of the microbial community, or alignment-based reference analyses for recovery of
81 genomes¹². However, the challenge still remains in applying alignment-free analyses of
82 metagenomic data to obtain strain-level resolution that might help understand transmission
83 of pathogens in a clinical setting. Recent metagenomics advances in the field of
84 environmental microbiology and ecology may provide potential solutions here, including
85 techniques that bin contigs based on their tetranucleotide frequency profiles (c.f.,¹⁴⁻¹⁷).

86
87 In this proof-of-principle study, we used whole community metagenomics and pathogen
88 genome reconstruction to interrogate the metagenome of a patient colonised with an
89 extensively drug-resistant pathogen KPC-producing *K. pneumoniae*. Here we demonstrate
90 that faeces metagenomics not only identified detailed SNP information to distinguish clonal
91 *K. pneumoniae* isolates, but also uncovered unsuspected colonization with vancomycin-

92 resistant *Enterococcus faecium* (VREfm), another high-risk antimicrobial resistant pathogen.
93 Furthermore, we investigated whether metagenomic analysis could be used to characterise
94 the resistance-harboring genomes of a patient with long-term carriage of KPC-producing
95 *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, and link that patient to a local transmission network, independently
96 of the need for bacterial culture.
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99 **Materials and Methods**

100 **Epidemiological context**

101 One faecal sample collected from a patient (Patient A) with known KPC-producing *K.*
102 *pneumoniae* colonisation underwent whole community metagenomics. Patient A was a
103 resident of an aged care facility and did not report any recent travel in the context of his
104 comorbidities and frailty, but had been an inpatient at a tertiary hospital with a known
105 outbreak of KPC-producing *K. pneumoniae* two months prior to sample collection.

106

107 **Whole community genomic DNA extraction and high throughput metagenomic sequencing**

108 Whole community gDNA was extracted from 0.2 grams of Patient faeces (herein referred to
109 as AUSMDU00008155) using the QiaAMP Stool kit following manufacturer's protocol with a
110 preprocessing step of mechanical lysis (Bertin Technologies precellys 24). MP Biomedicals'
111 Lysing Matrix B 2-ml tubes containing 0.1 mm silica beads were used for two 40 second cycles
112 of mechanical lysis (Bertin Technologies precellys 24) at 6000x units with a 60 second rest on
113 ice in between. Genomic DNA from the faeces, and a no-template control, were processed
114 for sequencing using the Nextera XT kit on the Illumina MiSeq machine (V3, 600 cycles)
115 (Illumina Inc, San Diego, US) following a modified manufacturer's protocol. The following
116 modifications were included: a 1% (v/v) spike-in ratio of PhiX, denatured DNA was diluted to
117 a final concentration of 14.25 pM with pre-chilled HT1 buffer, and Tris-Cl 10 mM 0.1% Tween
118 20 was substituted with Qiagen's EB solution to dilute sequencing libraries and PhiX
119 throughout the protocol.

120

121 **Culture-dependent whole genome sequencing**

122 Concurrently, 14 individual colonies were picked at random from the same sample plated on
123 Brilliance™ CRE selective media (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, US), with each colony
124 undergoing whole-genome sequencing on the Illumina NextSeq 500 (Illumina Inc, San Diego,
125 US). Two KPC isolates (herein referred to as AUSMDU00008118 and AUSMDU00008119)
126 taken two days apart from a different patient that had previously undergone long-read
127 sequencing to investigate the plasmid dynamics within an outbreak of KPC-producing
128 *Klebsiella pneumoniae* were used as reference genomes for the analysis. DNA extraction, size
129 selection, and sequencing on the Pacific Biosciences RS II (Pacific Biosciences, Menlo Park, US)
130 were performed as previously described¹⁸. Genomic DNA from these isolates was also

131 sequenced on the Illumina NextSeq 500 for polishing to produce high quality closed genomes.

132

133 **Bioinformatic analyses**

134 **Metagenomic sequence data processing**

135 Metagenomic data from AUSMDU00008155 were processed prior to analysis with
136 Trimmomatic (v0.33)¹⁹ for quality control and to remove adaptor sequences, PhiX
137 contamination, and trace contaminants from Illumina preparation kits. Paired-end reads were
138 merged and assembled using Iterative de Bruijn Graph De Novo Assembler for Uneven
139 sequencing Depth (IDBA-UD)²⁰ compiled for long reads (i.e., 651 bp). Further quality control
140 included removing host-derived gDNA using DeconSeq and the Human Genome Reference
141 Sequence (build 38; GCA_000001405.22) prior to downstream analyses.

142

143 **Metagenomic binning**

144 To reconstruct isolate genomes from the gut microbial community, an emergent self-
145 organizing map (ESOM) was used. Tetranucleotide frequencies were calculated for the
146 assembled contigs using Perl scripts developed by Dick et al., (2009)¹⁶ in preparation for
147 analysis using ESOMs. The primary map structure was determined using in silico fragmented
148 (> 5kb) contigs; while contigs between 2.5kb and 5kb in length were projected onto the ESOM
149 using their tetranucleotide frequency profiles. Genomic binning was analysed using
150 Databionic ESOM Tool with default settings except K-Batch training algorithm in 200x400
151 windows, a starting value of 50 for the radius, and data points were normalized by RobustZT
152 transformation. Contigs with a native size smaller than 2.5kb were removed from analyses.
153 Reference genomes were included in the analysis to guide identification of “binned”
154 genomes, and validate completeness of genome recovery.

155

156 **Detection of antimicrobial resistance genes**

157 Assembled metagenomic contigs were screened for the presence of antimicrobial and
158 virulence genes, including carbapenemases (*bla_{KPC}*), using ABRicate
159 (<https://github.com/tseemann/abricate>). Briefly, ABRicate detects acquired resistance genes
160 using BLAST+ against the Resfinder database (Center for Genomic Epidemiology, University
161 of Denmark²¹).

162

163 ***In silico* molecular typing and detection of antimicrobial resistance genes**

164 Assembled metagenomic contigs were screened for multi-locus sequence typing (MLST)
165 scheme alleles using mlst (<https://github.com/tseemann/mlst>), an in-house tool that uses a
166 BLAST algorithm ²² to search against the entire reference database of MLST profiles
167 (downloaded from <https://pubmlst.org>). In addition, acquired antimicrobial resistance genes,
168 including carbapenemases (blaKPC), were detected using another custom BLAST tool,
169 ABRicate (<https://github.com/tseemann/abricate>), to search against the ResFinder v2.1
170 database ²¹

171

172 **Reconstructing 16S rRNA gene sequences**

173 Near-complete 16S rRNA gene sequences were reconstructed from Patient B unassembled
174 short read metagenomic data (post removal of host-derived gDNA) using the Expectation
175 Maximization Iterative Reconstruction of Genes from the Environment (EMIRGE) program ²³.
176 The following parameters were incorporated: the SILVA Small Subunit database was
177 employed as a training reference set, length of reads of 151, insert size of 683, standard
178 deviation of 68, and a phred score of 33 were selected to compute over 80 iterations.
179 Reconstructed 16S rRNA genes were queried against the Ribosomal Database Project using
180 BLAST. A k-mer based approach, using Kraken ²⁴, classified unassembled read data to support
181 EMIRGE results.

182

183 **Reference genome assembly to validate metagenomic bins**

184 Reference genomes were assembled using Canu v1.5²⁵, trimmed
185 (<https://github.com/tseemann/berokka>) and circularized. Illumina short read data from the
186 same gDNA sample were used to correct and polish the draft PacBio genomes using Pilon
187 v1.22 ²⁶ and Snippy v3.2 (<https://github.com/tseemann/snippy>). Further assembly of
188 unmapped short read data (i.e., Illumina reads that did not match chromosomal or larger
189 plasmid DNA from PacBio-derived data) using SPAdes v3.10.1 ²⁷) was used to detect the
190 presence smaller plasmids potentially missed through DNA size selection. Prokka v1.11 ²⁸ was
191 used to predict CDS regions and annotate the assembled genomes. Further characterisation
192 of reference genomes including multi-locus sequence typing and antimicrobial resistance
193 gene detection was performed in silico using the in-house developed tools, mlst and ABRicate
194 as described above.

195 **Transmission cluster inference**

196 To determine the most likely transmission cluster source for Patient A, previously sequenced
197 PacBio reference genomes from three local transmission clusters were assembled using the
198 methods described above, and used to build a custom Kraken database. The local
199 transmission clusters were defined through phylogenetic analysis of a maximum likelihood
200 tree described in Kwong *et al.*, (*in prep*). Whole-community metagenomic sequencing reads
201 were analysed in Kraken v0.10.5-beta²⁴ using the custom database to identify the most
202 closely related reference genome.

203

204

205 **Results**

206 ***In silico* typing and detection of AMR genes**

207 Analysis of the assembled metagenomic contigs from Patient A identified the presence of two
208 complete mlst profiles – ST258 *K. pneumoniae* and ST555 *E. faecium*. Table 1 highlights the
209 resistance AMR genes detected with 100% coverage. The gene encoding resistance to
210 carbapenem, *bla_{KPC}*, was detected at 100% coverage and nucleotide identity. The following
211 genes, with percentage coverage and nucleotide identity given in parentheses, were also
212 recovered from metagenomic data: *vanR-B* (100, 99.2), *vanS-B* (100, 99.6), *vanY-B* (100, 100),
213 *vanW-B* (100, 97.6), *vanH-B* (100, 99.4), *van-B* (100, 98.9), and *vanX-B* (100, 96.7), which
214 collectively is the vanB operon that encodes for vancomycin resistance in *Enterococcus*
215 *faecium*; while the vanB operon primarily encodes for antibiotic resistance in *E. faecium*,
216 Stinear et al., (292001) have previously isolated vanB-positive anaerobic commensal bacteria
217 from human faeces. We hence reconstructed near-full length 16S rRNA genes to assign
218 taxonomy of operational taxonomic units in our metagenome.

219

220 **Taxonomy of metagenomic reads**

221 Near-full length 16S rRNA genes were reconstructed from the gut microbial community of
222 AUSMDU00008155 to detect the presence of *K. pneumoniae* and *E. faecium*. The Expectation
223 Maximization Iterative Reconstruction of Genes from the Environment program
224 reconstructed fifteen 16S rRNA genes, in which a *K. pneumoniae* 16S rRNA gene was
225 recovered with 100% nucleotide identity over 1161 bp (Table 2). Notably, given the presence
226 of the *vanB* operon, a near-complete 16S rRNA gene at 1344 bp was reconstructed and
227 classified as *E. faecium* at 100% nucleotide identity. Three uncultured organisms were
228 identified as belonging to *Bacteroidetes/Bacteroides*, *Firmicutes/Clostridium* XIVa, and
229 *Proteobacteria/Sutterellaceae*, with 100% nucleotide identity, and over 1092 bp
230 reconstructed. An independent k-mer based approach (*i.e.*, Kraken) confirmed the presence
231 of *K. pneumoniae*, and *E. faecium* in AUSMDU00008155 metagenomic data.

232

233 **Reconstruction of isolate genomes from metagenomic reads**

234 Emergent Self Organizing Maps of the tetranucleotide frequencies of AUSMDU00008155-
235 derived metagenomic contigs reconstructed discrete genome “bins” of isolates from the gut
236 microbial community (Figure 1A). Each point projected onto the ESOM represents DNA

237 fragments 2-5 kb in length, and colour coded with the following convention:
238 AUSMDU00008155 microbiome in red, AUSMDU00008118 in teal, AUSMDU00008119 in
239 navy, and an *E. faecium* AUS0085 strain in purple. A distinct *E. faecium* bin, and a largely
240 mixed bin consisting of closely related AUSMDU00008118 and AUSMDU00008119 derived
241 contigs were resolved (Figure 1B). Furthermore, a “satellite” cluster to the *K. pneumoniae* bin
242 consisted of only AUSMDU00008155 and AUSMDU00008119 contigs, and is typically
243 indicative of mobile genetic elements, such as, plasmids (Figure 1B, *circled*).

244

245 **Inference of transmission**

246 Using a custom Kraken database, we determined that Patient A’s colonising ST258 *K.*
247 *pneumoniae* population were most closely related to the reference genome from
248 transmission cluster 2 (AUSMDU00008119), suggesting Patient A was most likely linked to this
249 transmission network (Figure 2). Of the local reference genomes (Kwong *et al.*, *in prep*),
250 AUSMDU00008119 had 136 reads assigned, compared to 11 and 9 reads for the other cluster
251 references. This was corroborated by phylogenetic analysis of the multiple individual colony
252 sequences derived from Patient A’s sample (Kwong *et al.*, *in prep*). These data demonstrate
253 the potential of clinical metagenomics to guide source tracking and infection control efforts.

254

255

256 Discussion

257 Previous clinical metagenomic analyses have focused on understanding gut microbiota
258 community diversity 16S rRNA gene level, or incorporating *in vitro* molecular diagnostics as
259 the primary analysis to identify pathogenic isolates ^{12,30-32}. In contrast, in this proof-of-
260 principle clinical study, we employed tetranucleotide frequency profiling as the main strategy
261 to reconstruct genomes of community members directly from a faecal specimen, and
262 determine the presence of KPC with strain-level resolution, as well as identifying previously
263 unrecognized colonization with *vanB* VRE. Tetranucleotide profiles (i.e., frequencies of the
264 256 combinations of G,A,T, and C, in each contig) are a fundamental characteristic of DNA.
265 Contigs with similar tetranucleotide profiles are derived from the same isolate, and therefore,
266 projection of the frequency profiles of metagenomic contigs onto ESOMs can reconstruct
267 isolate genomes independently of reference-based alignment approaches, such as BLAST
268 and/or BWA MEM; this highlights the potential to allow strain level molecular
269 characterization even when a reference isolate is not available *a priori* (c.f., ³³⁻³⁴. The fact that
270 this was achievable using a faeces sample further speaks to the validity of this approach, given
271 the microbial complexity of this sample type.

272
273 Metagenomics permitted the comprehensive sampling of genomic content from an adult gut
274 microbial community associated with KPC infection. We evaluated the AMR profile, and
275 detected *bla_{KPC}* at 100% coverage with zero gaps, and 100% nucleotide identity (Table 1)
276 which encodes for carbapenem resistance in *Klebsiella pneumoniae*. Furthermore, the
277 resolution of our analyses detected the presence of the genes encoding for an entire *vanB*
278 operon, which confers vancomycin resistance in *E. faecium* isolates, at 100% coverage with
279 zero gaps, and greater than 96% nucleotide identity (Table 1). Reconstruction of near full
280 length 16S rRNA genes from metagenomic short read data recovered an 1161 bp 16S rRNA
281 gene classified as *K. pneumoniae*, and 1344 bp 16S rRNA gene belonging to an *E. faecium*
282 isolate, with 100% nucleotide identity and coverage (Table 2). Our metagenomic analyses
283 uncovered VRE colonization in AUSMDU00008155, and initiated culture analysis of the faecal
284 sample for the presence of VRE using selective media, and a retrospective report notifying
285 the appropriate health care institution of a potential VRE carrier; a reporting that would
286 otherwise have been missed by routine diagnostic analyses. Asymptomatic VRE carriage in
287 AUSMDU00008155 may be facilitated by the co-occurrence of *C. bolteae* in the microbiome,

288 which is described to confer protection against VRE by Carballero *et al.*, (³⁰2017); this
289 underscores the important roles microbial community members play in regulating infection
290 and immunity, and suggests whole community metagenomics could become a core
291 component of clinical microbiology.

292

293 Tetranucleotide frequency-ESOM analysis recovered metagenomic bins representing single
294 isolates from the AUSMDU00008155 gut microbiome (Figure 1A). Encouragingly, we found
295 that the number of reconstructed genomes (i.e., “bins”) correlated with the number of 16S
296 rRNA genes recovered by our EMIRGE analysis. As a way of further validation, reference *E.*
297 *faecium* (Aus0085), and AUSMDU00008118 and AUSMDU00008119 genomes were included
298 to guide analysis of ESOMs. Figure 1B illustrates a distinct *vanB*-carrying *E. faecium* bin, and a
299 large *K. pneumoniae* bin with an associated “satellite” cluster. The main *K. pneumoniae* bin
300 consisted of both AUSMDU00008118 and AUSMDU00008119 derived contigs, while the
301 satellite cluster represents unique genomic content (most probably mobile genetic elements;
302 c.f., ¹⁶) from AUSMDU00008119, and is therefore indicative of strain-level discrimination.
303 Although we have only assessed one faecal specimen in this study, the richness of microbial
304 characterization obtained from this sample using an alignment-free approach shows the
305 potential for applications in clinical and diagnostic microbiology. This potential is particularly
306 evident for clonal pathogens such as those examined here, where MLST results were unable
307 to distinguish between AUSMDU00008118, AUSMDU00008119, and metagenomic reads (i.e.,
308 all isolates were ST258). For example, we accurately assigned Patient A’s colonising
309 metagenomic *K. pneumoniae* isolate to a specific hospital infection cluster (Kwong *et al.*, *in*
310 *prep*). Our ability to rapidly assign patient metagenomic isolates to pre-existing transmission
311 clusters identified during outbreak situations will better inform prevention control measures
312 to limit the spread of extensively drug-resistant pathogens across our hospital network.

313

314 In summary, the current study presents a clinical, and primarily culture-independent
315 investigation framework for the genomic profiling of patients colonised with multidrug-
316 resistant pathogens. Analysis of the whole community metagenome sampled from an adult
317 faecal sample revealed the presence of AMR genes conferring resistance to carbapenem and
318 vancomycin, and identification of pathogenic isolates. We have shown that metagenomic
319 binning, using tetranucleotide frequency profiles, can obtain strain-level resolution. A key

320 implication of incorporating metagenomics into routine clinical microbiology includes higher
321 resolution in AMR and pathogen detection, especially the detection of asymptomatic carriage
322 of antibiotic resistant microbes.

323

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- 426

427 **Figures and Tables**

428 **Table 1: Detection of antimicrobial resistance genes in AUSMDU00008155 metagenome**
 429 **using ABRicate**

| Contig | Start | End | Gene | Gaps | % Coverage | % Identity | Accession |
|----------------------|-------|-------|---------------------------|------|------------|------------|-----------------|
| FM_4827 [#] | 2150 | 3076 | <i>sul1_2</i> | 0 | 100 | 100 | CP002151 |
| FM_1035 | 10808 | 11689 | <i>blaAUSMDU0008119_1</i> | 0 | 100 | 100 | AY034847 |
| FM_1074 | 7275 | 8135 | <i>blaSHV-12_1</i> | 0 | 100 | 100 | AF462395 |
| FM_10044 | 186 | 1001 | <i>aph(3')-Ia_1</i> | 0 | 100 | 100 | V00359 |
| FM_452 | 22060 | 22866 | <i>VanY-B_1</i> | 0 | 100 | 100 | AF192329 |
| FM_784 | 15763 | 16260 | <i>dfrG_1</i> | 0 | 100 | 100 | AB205645 |
| FM_313 | 6894 | 10046 | <i>oqxB_1</i> | 0 | 100 | 100 | EU370913 |
| FM_313 | 10070 | 11245 | <i>oqxA_1</i> | 0 | 100 | 100 | EU370913 |
| FM_2352 | 2933 | 4853 | <i>tet(W)_4</i> | 0 | 100 | 99.9 | AJ427422 |
| FM_10870 | 34 | 873 | <i>blaOXA-9_2</i> | 0 | 100 | 99.9 | JF703130 |
| FM_9051 | 161 | 1381 | <i>tet(40)_1</i> | 0 | 100 | 99.8 | FJ158002 |
| FM_7453 | 1068 | 1565 | <i>dfrA12_1</i> | 0 | 100 | 99.8 | AB571791 |
| FM_12072 | 99 | 965 | <i>aadE_1</i> | 0 | 100 | 99.8 | KF864551 |
| FM_452 | 20546 | 21889 | <i>VanS-B_1</i> | 0 | 100 | 99.6 | AF192329 |
| FM_452 | 23708 | 24679 | <i>VanH-B_1</i> | 0 | 100 | 99.4 | AF192329 |
| FM_452 | 19884 | 20546 | <i>VanR-B_1</i> | 0 | 100 | 99.2 | AF192329 |
| FM_452 | 24672 | 25700 | <i>VanA-B_1</i> | 0 | 100 | 98.9 | AF192329 |
| FM_137 | 6369 | 7847 | <i>msr(C)_1</i> | 0 | 100 | 98.9 | AY004350 |
| FM_255 | 25338 | 25757 | <i>fosA_3</i> | 0 | 100 | 98.6 | NZ_ACWO01000079 |
| FM_452 | 22884 | 23711 | <i>VanW-B_1</i> | 0 | 100 | 97.6 | AF192329 |
| FM_452 | 25706 | 26314 | <i>VanX-B_1</i> | 0 | 100 | 96.7 | AF192329 |

430 [#]FM_xxxxx = AUSMDU00008155 and the associated metagenomic contig number

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438 **Table 2: Reconstructed 16S rRNA genes from AUSMDU00008155 metagenome using**
 439 **EMIRGE**

| Taxon | Subject length (bp) | Query length (bp) | Nucleotide ID | % Identity |
|---|---------------------|-------------------|---------------|------------|
| <i>Akkermansia Muciniphila</i> | 1434 | 1500 | 1431 | 99.8 |
| <i>Bacteroides cellulosilyticus</i> | 1193 | 1202 | 1183 | 99.2 |
| <i>Bacteroides uniformis</i> | 1145 | 1145 | 1143 | 99.8 |
| <i>Bacteroides uniformis</i> | 680 | 680 | 676 | 99.4 |
| <i>Clostridium bolteae</i> | 1309 | 1309 | 1305 | 99.7 |
| <i>Clostridium glycyrrhizinilyticum</i> | 1268 | 1266 | 1231 | 97.1 |
| <i>Dialister invisus</i> | 1290 | 1302 | 1287 | 99.8 |
| <i>Enterococcus faecium</i> | 1344 | 1344 | 1344 | 100 |
| <i>Eubacterium dolichum</i> | 1484 | 1516 | 1381 | 93.1 |
| <i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i> | 1161 | 1161 | 1161 | 100 |
| <i>Lactobacillus pentosus</i> | 1468 | 1468 | 1467 | 99.9 |
| <i>Parabacteroides merdae</i> | 1376 | 1376 | 1376 | 100 |
| Uncultured bacterium ^a | 1092 | 1092 | 1092 | 100 |
| Uncultured organism ^b | 1121 | 1121 | 1121 | 100 |
| Uncultured organism ^c | 1191 | 1191 | 1191 | 100 |

440 ^a*Bacteroidetes/Bacteroides*

441 ^b*Firmicutes/Clostridium XIVa*

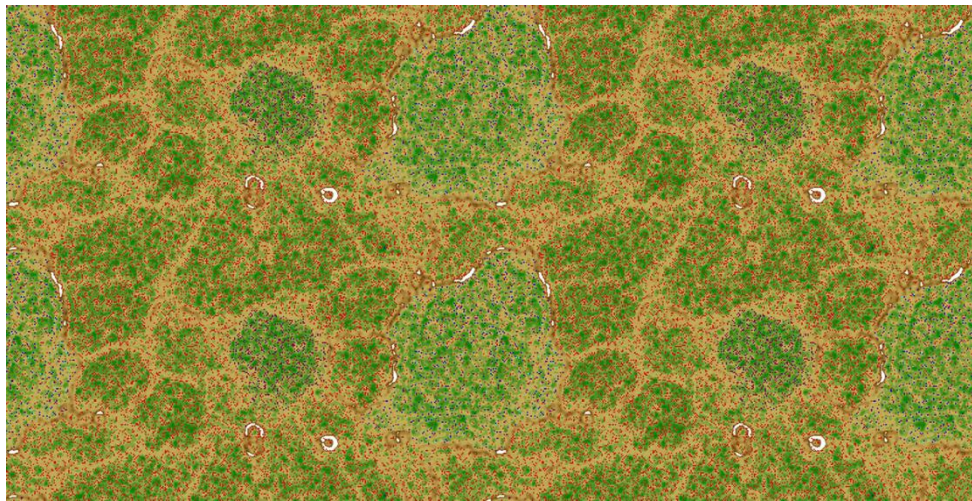
442 ^c*Proteobacteria/Sutterellaceae*

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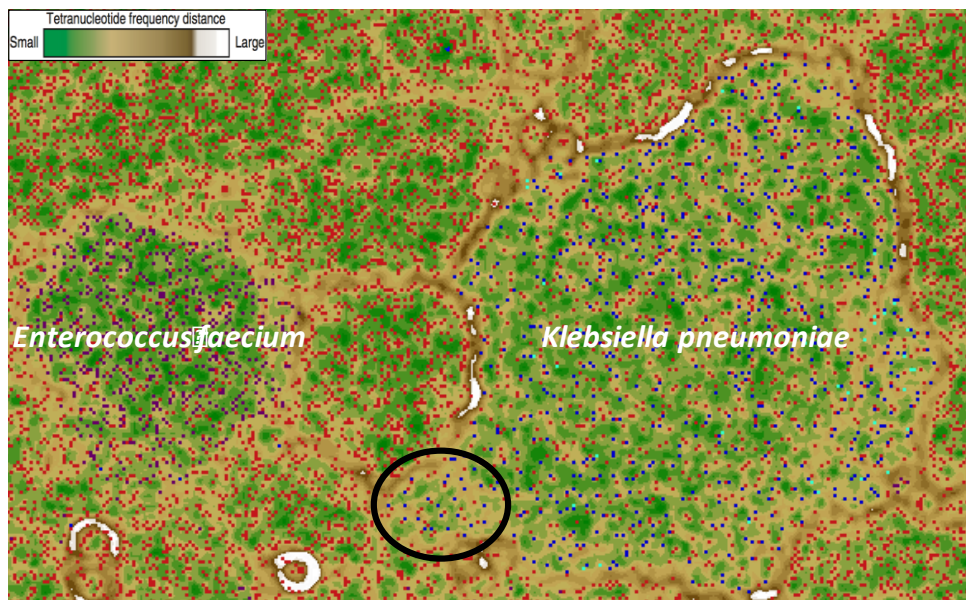
444 **Figures:**

445 **Figure. 1**

446 **A**



455 **B**



466 **Figure 1. (A) Emergent Self Organizing Map of the tetranucleotide frequencies of**
467 **AUSMDU00008155 contigs in binned genomes representing (B) *Klebsiella pneumoniae* and**
468 ***Enterococcus faecium*. Tetranucleotide frequency profiles of DNA fragments between 2 kb to**
469 **5 kb in length are projected onto the ESOM. A green background indicates small**
470 **tetranucleotide frequency distances, white background represents large tetranucleotide**
471 **frequency distances, while contigs derived from AUSMDU00008155 microbiome is**
472 **highlighted in red, AUSMDU00008118 in teal, AUSMDU00008119 in navy, and a *vanB*-carrying**
473 ***E. faecium* in purple.**

474 **Fig. 2**

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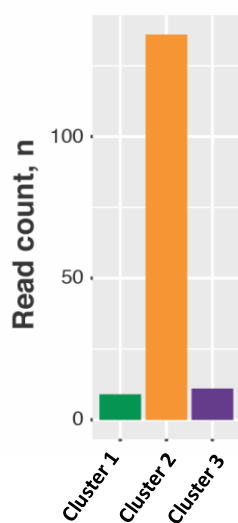
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486 **Figure 2: Metagenomic attribution of transmission clusters.** The bar graph shows the
487 number of metagenomic reads assigned to each of the reference genomes, representing
488 different transmission clusters described in Kwong *et al.*, (*in prep*).