Cryptic prophages within a Streptococcus pyogenes genotype

1

emm4 lineage 2 3 Alex Remmington¹, Samuel Haywood¹, Julia Edgar^{1,2}, Claire E. Turner¹. 4 5 1. Department of Molecular Biology & Biotechnology, The Florey Institute, University 6 of Sheffield, Sheffield, UK. 7 2. Department of Molecular Biology, Princeton University, USA. 8 9 Corresponding author: 10 Dr Claire Turner 11 Department of Molecular Biology & Biotechnology 12 Firth Court 13 Western Bank 14 Sheffield 15 S10 2TN 16 c.e.turner@sheffield.ac.uk 17 18 Keywords: group A Streptococcus, bacteriophage, superantigen, DNase, SpyCI, DNA 19 mismatch repair 20 21 22

Abstract

23

24

25

26

27

28

29

30

31

32

33

34

35

36

37

38

39

40

41

42

43

44

45

46

47

The major human pathogen Streptococcus pyogenes shares an intimate evolutionary history with mobile genetic elements, which in many cases, carry genes encoding bacterial virulence factors. During recent whole genome sequencing of a longitudinal sample of S. pyogenes isolates in the United Kingdom, we identified a lineage within emm4 that clustered with the reference genome MEW427. Like MEW427, this lineage was characterised by substantial gene loss within all three prophage regions, compared to MGAS10750 and isolates outside of the MEW427-like lineage. Gene loss primarily affected lysogeny, replicatory and regulatory modules, and to a lesser and more variable extent, structural genes. Importantly, prophage-encoded superantigen and DNase genes were retained in all isolates. In isolates where the prophage elements were complete, like MGAS10750, they could be induced experimentally, but not in MEW427-like isolates with degraded prophages. We also found gene loss within the chromosomal island SpyCIM4 of MEW427-like isolates, although surprisingly, the SpyCIM4 element could not be experimentally induced in either MGAS10750-like or MEW427-like isolates. This did not, however, appear to abolish expression of the mismatch repair operon, within which this element resides. The inclusion of further emm4 genomes in our analyses ratified our observations and revealed an international emm4 lineage characterised by prophage degradation. Intriguingly, the USA population of emm4 S. pyogenes appeared to constitute predominantly MEW427-like isolates, whereas the UK comprised both MEW427-like and MGAS10750-like strains. The degradation and cryptic nature of these elements may have important phenotypic ramifications for emm4 S. pyogenes and the geographical distribution of this lineage raises interesting questions on the population dynamics of the genotype.

49

50

51

52

53

54

55

56

57

58

59

60

61

62

63

64

65

66

67

68

69

70

71

72

Data summary All raw sequence data used in this study has been previously published and was obtained from NCBI short read archive. Accession numbers and citations for the genome data for each individual isolate is provided in Supplementary Table 1. Introduction Streptococcus pyogenes (also known as the Lancefield Group A Streptococcus or GAS) is a globally distributed human pathogen (Efstratiou and Lamagni, 2016). The spectrum of infections caused by S. pyogenes is broad, with manifestations ranging from the relatively mild and self-limiting tonsillitis and scarlet fever, to the more severe, invasive and potentially life threatening, notably necrotising fasciitis and streptococcal toxic shock syndrome (Carapetis et al., 2005). S. pyogenes isolates are classified into emm genotypes in accordance with the 5' hypervariable region of the emm gene, which encodes the surface protein M (Facklam et al., 1999; Mcmillan et al., 2013). Most S. pyogenes genotypes are lysogenized by at least one prophage, though it is not at all uncommon for certain genotypes to carry several such elements integrated into the bacterial chromosome, or indeed none (McShan and Nguyen, 2019). As is the case for a number of other bacterial pathogens, the lysogenic bacteriophages in this species often are associated with bacterial virulence factors. Eight of the thirteen superantigens in S. pyogenes (speA, speC, speH, speI, speK, speL, speM and allelic variants thereof), are prophage-associated (Proft et al., 2003). In addition, prophage in this species often carry genes encoding a potential six secreted nucleases (sdn, spd1, spd3, spd4, sda, sdaD2, and allelic variants thereof), and a secreted A₂ phospholipase, denoted sla (Beres et al., 2004; Remmington and Turner, 2018). The S. pyogenes chromosomal islands (SpyCI) are similar but distinct mobile genetic elements

74

75

76

77

78

79

80

81

82

83

84

85

86

87

88

89

90

91

92

93

94

95

96

97

which are more closely related to the Staphylococcus aureus pathogenicity islands (SaPIs) (Novick et al., 2010; Nguyen and McShan, 2014). In the emm1 isolate SF370, SpyCI-M1 is integrated within the DNA mismatch repair (MMR) operon, separating mutS from mutL and other downstream repair associated genes, preventing co-transcription of these genes from a promoter upstream of mutS (Scott et al., 2008). A similar element was also identified in the genomes of isolates belonging to other genotypes, including the emm4 MGAS10750 (Scott et al., 2012). With the exception of emm5 isolate Manfredo, the presence of a SpyCI element within the MMR operon was associated with increased mutation rates, indicating the disruption of the MMR-associated gene transcription (Scott et al., 2008; Scott et al., 2012). Dynamic integration and excision of SpyCIM1 in SF370 was detected in response to bacterial growth; excising during earlier growth phases to permit transcription of the MMR operon, but remaining integrated at later stages, abolishing transcription and promoting a transient, more mutable phenotype (Scott et al., 2008; Scott et al., 2012). Intriguingly, curing of SpyCIM1 had a dramatic effect on global transcription, including the expression of a number of well characterised virulence factors (Hendrickson et al., 2015). Together, these studies effectively describe a mechanism of genetic regulation in S. pyogenes that is dependent on integration and excision of phage-like elements. In recent years, whole genome sequencing (WGS) has provided valuable insight into the population biology of this pathogen, illuminating population dynamics and bringing clarity to outbreak investigations and epidemiological shifts. Often, changes in infection character, population structure and disease incidence have been associated with prophage being acquired and/or lost from the population, and with them, cognate bacterial virulence factors, particularly the streptococcal superantigens and DNases (Banks et al., 2002; Beres et al., 2004; Tse et al., 2012; Ben Zakour et al., 2015; Turner et al., 2015; Walker, 2015; Al-Shahib et al., 2016;

99

100

101

102

103

104

105

106

107

108

109

110

111

112

113

114

115

116

117

118

119

120

121

Afshar et al., 2017). Genotype emm4 S. pyogenes constitute a major emm-type in high income countries globally (Efstratiou and Lamagni, 2016) that is capable of causing both superficial and invasive disease (Jaggi et al., 2005; Luca-Harari et al., 2009; Whitehead et al., 2011; Flores et al., 2019). This genotype is genetically acapsular (Flores et al., 2012), frequently associated with outbreaks of scarlet fever (Yan et al., 2003; Silva-Costa et al., 2014; Turner et al., 2016; Chalker et al., 2017) and occasionally has superseded in incidence the consistently dominant emm1 genotype, in some parts of the world (Whitehead et al., 2011; Kim et al., 2019). Typically, strains belonging to this genotype are host to three prophage elements; Φ 10750.1, Φ 10750.2 and Φ 10750.3, encoding the streptococcal superantigen speC and the DNase spd1, the DNase spd3, and another streptococcal superantigen ssa, respectively (Beres et al., 2006; Henningham et al., 2014; Galloway-Peña et al., 2016; Jacob et al., 2016; Turner et al., 2019). It was recently reported that in an emm4 population from Houston, Texas USA, the majority of isolates carried a novel chimeric emm gene, formed by the fusion of the 5' end of emm4 with the 3' end of the downstream gene enn. This chimeric emm4 gene was also found in the closely related reference emm4 genome MEW427 but not the more distantly related MGAS10750 (DebRoy et al., 2018). Here, we reveal that within an *emm*4 population from England is a lineage that is characterised by marked gene loss within prophage encoding regions, although associated superantigen and DNase genes remain intact. This lineage was also identified in a wider international population. The gene loss has rendered the prophages immobile, unable to replicate extra-chromosomally and are therefore cryptic prophages.

Results

122

123

124

125

126

127

128

129

130

131

132

133

134

135

136

137

138

139

140

141

142

143

144

145

146

Gene loss within each of three prophage regions

We recently undertook WGS of 344 invasive S. pyogenes isolates, collected by the British Society for Antimicrobial Chemotherapy (BSAC) from across England during 2001-2011, and identified ten emm4 isolates within this collection (Turner et al., 2019). Within this small population of *emm*4 was a lineage of five isolates that were genetically related to the reference strain MEW427 (Jacob et al., 2016). Four of the remaining five isolates were more closely related to the reference strain MGAS10750 (Beres et al., 2007) (Figure 1). Gubbins analysis identified regions of predicted recombination, common to the lineage containing MEW427 and five BSAC MEW427-like isolates, but absent in MGAS10750 and the other five BSAC isolates. Four of the regions of predicted recombination were within each of the three prophages $(\Phi 10750.1, \Phi 10750.2, \Phi 10750.3)$ and the chromosomal island SpyCI $(\Phi 10750.4)$. Comparison of the three prophage regions between the two completed reference strains MGAS10750 and MEW427 actually identified a varying level of gene loss within these regions in the MEW427 genome compared to the MGAS10750 genome (Figure 2). To determine if an equivalent gene loss had occurred in the genomes of the BSAC isolates, the presence or absence of each gene within the MGAS10750 prophages was confirmed by BLAST analysis of the de novo assembled BSAC genome sequence data (Figure 2). In all isolates, the superantigen and DNase genes associated with each of the prophages were present and shared 100% DNA identity between all ten BSAC isolates and the reference strains. In MGAS10750, Φ 10750.1, associated with *speC/spd1*, comprised 63 genes, while in reference genome MEW427, this element (Φ 427.1) comprised just 14, equivalent to ~70% gene loss. In MEW427-like lineage associated emm4 isolates in our collection, with the exception of BSAC_bs1802, we found similar patterns of gene presence/absence (Figure 2A). All five of

148

149

150

151

152

153

154

155

156

157

158

159

160

161

162

163

164

165

166

167

168

169

170

the other BSAC isolates had all or nearly all (1-6 genes missing) genes that comprise Φ 10750.1, indicating this prophage is complete in these isolates (Figure 2A). The exception was BSAC_bs1802 that, although clustered by core genome SNP analysis within the MEW427-like lineage (Figure 1), showed a different level of Φ10750.1 gene presence/absence. We could not obtain fully assembled sequence data across the prophage region with our short-read sequence data and this region was split over multiple contigs. From our analysis, however, it appeared that BSAC_bs1802 actually carried speC/spd1on a different prophage to the rest of the *emm4* population; this shared a high level of homology to Φ 10750.1 at the 3' integration site near the speC/spd1 genes, but differed at the 5' end downstream of the integrase gene, with the presence of other non- Φ 10750.1 genes. This was confirmed with two methods of de novo assembly. The integration site remained the same as in MGAS10750/MEW427. We did not detect any non-Φ10750.1 prophage genes within this region in the other four MEW427-like isolate genomes, as we did with BSAC_bs1802, but we did identify genes found in Φ 427.1 that were altered by the gene loss; MEW427-02755 which is the truncated equivalent of MGAS10750-spy0575, and MEW247-2770 which is a fusion of regions of MGAS10750spy609, spy612, and spy614 (Figure 2A). This indicated that within these four BSAC isolate genomes, there was the same (or very similar) degraded prophage as Φ 427.1 in MEW427. Genes predicted to be involved in regulation and replication of the prophage element were absent in Φ 427.1 and in the four MEW427-like BSAC isolates. All predicted structural genes were also absent from the genomes of these isolates, suggesting this prophage would be unable to form bacteriophage particles. The spd3-associated prophage $\Phi10750.2$, comprised 59 genes in MGAS10750 and a similar pattern was observed in five BSAC isolates (Figure 2B). However, this element in MEW427

172

173

174

175

176

177

178

179

180

181

182

183

184

185

186

187

188

189

190

191

192

193

194

and corresponding elements in all five MEW427-like BSAC isolates comprised only 29 genes, a loss of ~50%. We obtained complete de novo assembly across this prophage region in all five MEW427-like isolates confirming the same pattern of gene loss. This included loss of all regulation and replication elements and some structural genes. We found that the first 184/1140 bases of the integrase gene were missing, likely to render the gene non-functional, predicting that this prophage would be unable to excise from the chromosome or integrate. The ssa associated prophage Φ 427.3, demonstrated the least gene loss compared to Φ 10750.3 (~26%), maintaining the majority of structural genes, although genes predicted to be involved in replication and regulation were absent in MEW427 and MEW427-like BSAC isolates, except for BSAC_bs1802 (Figure 2C). As with Φ 10750.1, we could not determine the complete sequence for the ssa-associated phage from our sequence data but we could determine the integration sites to be the same as for Φ 10750.3 and we did not identify the presence of any other non-Φ10750.3 genes. The presence of 87% of Φ10750.3 genes in the genome of BSAC_bs1802 suggested it carried the same ssa-encoding prophage as MGAS10750, and that this prophage is near complete. The other four MEW427-like BSAC isolates had a very similar pattern of gene presence/absence to MEW427. The integrase gene was also truncated in MEW427 and the four MEW427-like BSAC isolates, with the loss of the first 548/1143 base pairs. We therefore predict that this prophage would also be unable to excise from the chromosome or to reintegrate. Overall, five BSAC isolates had 87-100% of the genes of all three prophage genes and were therefore termed M4_{complete} type, like MGAS10750 (as indicated in Figure 2). Four BSAC isolates had fewer than 30%, 50% and 70% of the genes present in Φ 10750.1, Φ 10750.2, Φ10750.3, respectively, like MEW427, and were therefore termed M4_{degraded}. BSAC_bs1802 had a different, potentially hybrid phage associated with speC/spd1, and 46% and 87% of Φ 10750.2 and Φ 10750.3 genes, respectively, and was therefore regarded as only partially degraded.

Prophage excision potential is abolished in isolates with degraded prophage

With the substantive loss of genes within $\Phi 427.1$ and the predicted non-functional integrase genes of $\Phi 427.2$ and $\Phi 427.3$, we hypothesised that the prophages of $M4_{degraded}$ type BSAC isolates would be unable to excise from the chromosome. Using PCR to detect the integrated prophage genome as well as excised and circularised prophage, we found that all three prophage elements spontaneously excise from the chromosomes of $M4_{complete}$ BSAC isolates, and this excision is enhanced with the addition of mitomycin C (Figure 3). In contrast we were unable to detect excision of the three degraded prophages from the chromosomes of $M4_{degraded}$ type BSAC isolates, even upon addition of mitomycin C. For the partially degraded BSAC_bs1802, clear excision of the speC/spdI-associated prophage was detected as was ssa-associated $\Phi 10750.3/427.3$ but not the spd3-associated $\Phi 10750.2/427.2$. This was expected as the integrase of $\Phi 10750.2/427.2$ was truncated in BSAC_bs1802, like the other MEW427-like isolates.

Gene loss within the SpyCI element

As well as the three prophage regions within MGAS10750, there is an additional mobile genetic element, similar to that previously described for the *emm*1 strain SF370, termed SpyCI (<u>S. pyogenes Chromosomal Island</u>). This SpyCI element is integrated between the DNA mismatch repair genes, *mutS* and *mutL* which, in *emm*1 SF370, prevents transcription of *mutL* and disruption of DNA repair. However, it has been shown that during very early exponential growth, this element excises to allow for transcription of *mutL* (Scott *et al.*, 2008). In our five BSAC M4_{complete} isolates, this element is identical to that found in MGAS10750, integrated between *mutS* and *mutL*, however it shares 97% DNA identity but only over 55% length with

220

221

222

223

224

225

226

227

228

229

230

231

232

233

234

235

236

237

238

239

240

241

242

243

the SpyCI in SF370. Interestingly, like the prophage elements, MEW427 demonstrates some genes loss within the equivalent SpyCI region compared to MGAS10750 (Figure 4). An identical pattern of gene loss was identified in four of the M4_{degraded} BSAC emm4 isolates. The exception was BSAC_bs1802, which in fact appear to carry a different SpyCI element that was ~99% identical to that found in emm77 NCTC13742 (Genbank accession: LS483386.1). The SpyCI integrase region in all *emm*4 isolates was identical. PCR was used to detect excision of SpyCI in M4_{complete} and M4_{degraded} emm4 isolates, similar to the three prophage regions. We could not detect excision of this element in an M4_{complete} isolate or an M4_{degraded} isolate, even in the presence of mitomycin C (Supplementary Figure 1A). Previous studies have shown that this element excises during early exponential growth (Scott et al., 2008), therefore we tested for excision during exponential growth of one M4_{complete} isolate, but still could not detect excision (Supplementary Figure 1B). This was surprising as, when integrated, the element should interrupt the *mutS* and *mutL* operon, preventing the expression of *mutL*. To confirm lack of expression of mutL, we extracted RNA from samples cultured for 3 hours, converted the RNA to cDNA and performed semi-quantitative PCR to detect mutS and mutL transcription. In all samples we detected transcript of both *mutS* and *mutL* suggesting, despite the consistent integration of SpyCI, transcription of *mutL* could still occur (Supplementary Figure 2).

Prophage-associated gene loss is found in other international emm4 isolates

To place our isolates within context of a wider *emm*4 population, we obtained available *emm*4 whole genome sequence data from North America and the UK (n=223) (Supplementary Table 1). Phylogenetic analysis identified two broad lineages associated either with MGAS10750 or with MEW427, as well as a third smaller lineage (Figure 5). BLAST analysis of the genes present in the each of the three MGAS10750 prophages against all *de novo* assemblies (n=223) indicated a varying degree of prophage gene loss for each isolate (Supplementary Figure 3). However, there was an association of fewer prophage genes across all three prophages within

245

246

247

248

249

250

251

252

253

254

255

256

257

258

259

260

261

262

263

264

265

266

267

a lineage clustering with MEW427 compared to the rest of the population. Although we also identified a varying level of gene loss within our isolates, a consistent feature within MEW427, M4_{degraded} and partially degraded BSAC_bs1802 was a deletion of the 5' region of the integrase gene in the spd3 phage $\Phi 10750.2/427.2$. All 117 genomes of isolates clustering with MEW427 (shaded region in Figure 5, Supplementary Table 1) had the same deletion within the integrase gene, like MEW427. In contrast, all of the 106 genomes of isolates outside this lineage had a full-length integrase gene, like MGAS10750. We also found within MEW427 and our M4_{degraded} isolates, a deletion of the 5' end of the ssa-associated prophage integrase. This deletion was found in 112/117 genomes of isolates that clustered with MEW427 (shaded region in Figure 5) and complete in the remaining 5 isolates as well as all isolates outside of this lineage. Taken together, it suggests that the spd3 and ssa associated prophages within the majority of isolates clustering within the MEW427-like lineage would not be able to excise from the chromosome and are therefore cryptic. There was another lineage within the population, comprising 13 UK isolates, for which very few Φ 10750.1 genes could be detected, although *speC* and *spd1* genes were present. Prophages Φ 10750.2 and Φ 10750.3 appeared to be complete with full length integrases. Although we could not fully confirm with the short-read sequence data, it appeared that speC and spd1 were associated with a different prophage in these isolates and not with Φ 10750.1 or a degraded form of this prophage. Additionally within the whole population, we also identified two isolates that did not carry the *speC* and *spd1* genes or an associated prophage (Supplementary Table 1). Interestingly, although UK isolates were divided between the MEW427-like lineage and MGAS10750-like lineage, North American isolates appeared to be mainly restricted to the MEW427-like lineage. Given that the Public Health England isolates (UK) (Chalker et al. 2017; Kapatai et al. 2017), were collected at a similar time to the USA ABCs collection (2014-

269

270

271

272

273

274

275

276

277

278

279

280

281

282

283

284

285

286

287

288

289

290

291

292

2015, (Chochua et al., 2017), we compared the numbers of isolates present in each lineage; 57/153 (37%) of PHE isolates were MEW427-like compared to 47/48 (98%) of ABCs isolates. **Discussion** Genotype emm4 S. pyogenes is a major emm-type causing disease worldwide (Efstratiou and Lamagni, 2016) with the capacity to cause both self-limiting and potentially life-threatening invasive infection (Yan et al., 2003; Silva-Costa et al., 2014; Turner et al., 2016; Chalker et al., 2017), and a known association with scarlet fever (Yan et al., 2003; Silva-Costa et al., 2014; Turner et al., 2016; Chalker et al., 2017). We have identified a lineage within an international emm4 population that is characterised by degradation within integrated prophage genomes. Genetic modules pertaining to replication, regulation and lysogeny were chiefly affected, and to a more variable extent, structural genes necessary for the formation of phage particles. Prophage-associated virulence factors were not affected. We confirmed that, at least in our sample of ten *emm4* isolates, this degradation resulted in prophage immobility. The lysogenic prophage of S. pyogenes follow a typical lambdoid genomic architecture, with discrete modules dedicated to specific functions (Desiere et al., 2001; Canchaya et al., 2003; McShan and Nguyen, 2019). The most oblique characteristic of gene loss to prophageencoding regions in MEW427-like isolates was the replicative and regulatory modules and in two of the three prophages, there were deletions within the integrase genes. From our study, we cannot predict the order in which gene loss occurred, but it seems likely that if a mutation was to occur in the genetic apparatus necessary for excision, selection would presumably act rapidly on those genes remaining that no longer serve a function that is beneficial to the bacterium (Ramisetty and Sudhakari, 2019). As such, the genes or modules remaining raise interesting questions regarding their utility. The retention of prophage-encoded virulence factors is perhaps unsurprising, as multiple lines of scientific investigation have highlighted

294

295

296

297

298

299

300

301

302

303

304

305

306

307

308

309

310

311

312

313

314

315

316

317

these genes as conferring a fitness advantage to S. pyogenes at the host-pathogen interface (Commons et al., 2014; Remmington and Turner, 2018). A potential hypothesis is that genomic inactivation of prophage by the bacterium is part of an ongoing process of domestication, whereby the bacterium may retain genes that are useful, particularly toxin genes, while neutralising the imminent threat of host cell lysis following the induction of the lytic pathway (Ramisetty and Sudhakari, 2019). Our collection of ten *emm4* isolates could be divided, within the exception of one isolate, into M4_{complete} and M4_{degraded} as the number of genes present within each of the three prophages reflected that of either the complete (MGAS10750) or degraded (MEW427) reference genome prophages. Complete de novo assembly of integrated prophages is notoriously difficult due to the homologous and mosaic nature of these genomes. We were unable to fully assemble these regions in order to identify the exact composition of prophages within each BSAC genome and acknowledge the potential for undetected genetic rearrangements or other prophage elements. This appeared to be the case for BSAC_bs1802 where we identified non- Φ 10750.1 genes assembled with the integrase and attachment site of the speC/spd1 associated prophage, indicative of a hybrid or closely related prophage instead of Φ 10750.1. This did not appear to be the case for the four M4_{degraded} isolates, as we detected no genes that did not correspond with Φ 10750.1, with the exception of truncated and hybrid genes that were also found in MEW427, which appeared to have arisen through the degradation process, and indicated prophage degradation in these isolates, as opposed to novel prophages. This was also the case for the other two prophages in the M4_{degraded} isolates and BSAC_bs1802. When we extended the analysis to the wider genomic collection there was a high level of variability in the percentage of genes present in each prophage region, but, broadly, gene loss in all three prophages was associated with isolates that clustered with MEW427. All isolates that clustered with MEW427

319

320

321

322

323

324

325

326

327

328

329

330

331

332

333

334

335

336

337

338

339

340

341

carried the same deletion leading to a predicted non-functional integrase of the *spd3*-prophage, and the majority (96%) also had the deletion within the *ssa*-prophage integrase. These integrase deletion mutations were not found in isolates outside of this lineage. We predict, therefore, that all isolates belonging to the MEW427-like lineage have at least one immobile and cryptic prophage and it seems likely that all three prophages would be cryptic in many of these isolates. The phenotypic consequences of prophage degradation are unclear at this stage. An interesting find was the geographical divide whereby all, bar one, isolates from the USA collection (Chochua et al., 2017) were found to be MEW427-like, likely representing degraded prophages compared to 37% of UK isolates (Chalker et al. 2017; Kapatai et al., 2017). This may be related to the over-representation of emm4 in the UK associated with scarlet fever (Chalker et al. 2017). There is a potential that the prophage, either through direct regulation or excision and replication, may have an impact on the expression of prophage-encoded virulence factors, which include the scarlet fever-associated superantigens. It has previously been shown that induction of toxigenic prophage in S. pyogenes and S. canis can enhance expression of the cognate virulence factors (Broudy et al., 2001; 2002; Banks et al., 2003; Ingrey et al. 2003). Similar findings have been described in enterohaemorrhagic E. coli, wherein toxigenic prophage induction appears to contribute to the pathogenesis of toxin mediated disease (Balasubramanian et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2000). It is therefore conceivable that the inactivation of prophage in genotype emm4 S. pyogenes may represent a progression towards a less virulent phenotype associated with M4_{degraded} isolates, owing to an inability to illicit a gene dosing effect of prophage-encoded virulence factors. It is worth noting, however, that a gene dosing effect does not appear to be necessary in all cases to attain enhanced transcription of these genes (Banks et al., 2003).

343

344

345

346

347

348

349

350

351

352

353

354

355

356

357

358

359

360

361

362

363

364

365

366

There are other differences separating the two lineages in addition to the prophage degradation, and these may also impact on the behaviour and success of the lineage. A recent study on *emm*4 isolates from Houston, Texas found isolates with a novel chimeric emm, formed from fusion with the downstream enn gene (DebRoy et al., 2018). This chimeric emm was found in MEW427 and MEW427-like isolates but not in MGAS10750. We also identified the chimeric emm in our M4_{degraded} BSAC isolates but not in our M4_{complete} BSAC isolates. The chimeric *emm* gene could influence the phenotype of the MEW427-like isolates in addition to the prophage degradation. Chimeric *emm* genes have subsequently been detected in a number of other emm-types (Frost et al., 2020). It was interesting to note, that as well as degradation within the three prophage genomes, we also identified degradation within the chromosomal island SpyCI. We expected to find excision of SpyCIM4 from the M4_{complete} lineage isolates during exponential growth or upon exposure to mitomycin C, as observed for SpyCIM1 in SF370 (Scott et al., 2008). The excision of SpyCI is essential for the transcription of mutL. However, we could not detect the excision of SpyCIM4 from M4_{complete} isolates, nor M4_{degraded} isolates, under any conditions tested. Despite this, transcription of both mutL and mutS were maintained. It seems that in emm4 the MMR operon is not regulated by the integration and excision of the element as has been described in other emm-types (Scott et al., 2012), although it is possible that low undetectable levels of SpyCI are excised allowing for transcription of *mutL*. We would expect, however, that this would not be the case for the M4_{degraded} isolates, due to the substantial gene loss within this element, yet mutL transcription still occurred. The inability to detect SpyCI in its extrachromosomal conformation in MGAS10750-like isolates, yet apparently retaining a full complement of associated genes relative to the completed reference genome, may indicate that the element can be induced under conditions not explored in the present study, for example in response to antibiotics (Zhang et al., 2000; Maiques et al., 2006) or factors produced by the host in-vivo (Broudy et al., 2001, 2002; Banks et al., 2002; Broudy and Fischetti, 2003). It is also possible that due to its stably integrated state, the element was subjected to deletion of surplus genes. In a previous study wherein the SpyCI element was cured from an SF370like emm1 isolate, this resulted in dramatic changes to global transcription (Hendrickson et al., 2015). Retaining a partial or full-length SpyCI in emm4 may therefore serve a function that extends beyond the DNA MMR operon. Additionally, the gene loss within SpyCI, and potentially the other prophage genomes too, could have a wider influence on the phenotype of the bacterium through as yet unidentified transcriptional or even post-transcriptional regulatory mechanisms. It seems likely that prophage degradation exists in other genotypes as well as emm4. Shortread whole genome sequencing technologies are not ideal for the study of prophages as it can be difficult to assemble and to determine gene composition. There has been evidence for prophage-associated genome rearrangements (Nakagawa et al., 2003) and hybridisation of different prophages (Davies et al. 2015) in S. pyogenes. These events may not have been identified using short-read sequence technology. The advancement of long-read sequencing is beginning to allow us to explore the streptococcal genome to a greater extent, with the possibility for more detailed prophage-based research. There is great potential for prophages to drive evolutionary changes within the streptococcal population and their mechanisms of impact could range from simple transfer of virulence factors through to local and genome-wide transcriptional control and even direct phenotypic influences through activation, particle formation and cell lysis. We need to expand our knowledge and research in this area to fully appreciate the role prophages play in the population of streptococci and other bacterial species.

Materials and Methods

Bacterial strains

367

368

369

370

371

372

373

374

375

376

377

378

379

380

381

382

383

384

385

386

387

388

389

390

All *S. pyogenes* isolates were grown on Columbia agar supplemented with 5% defibrinated horse blood. For liquid culture, all isolates were grown statically in Todd-Hewitt Broth at 37°C supplemented with 5% CO₂. *Emm*4 isolates were selected from a collection of 344 *S. pyogenes* bloodstream infection isolates submitted to the British Society for Antimicrobial Chemotherapy from 11 geographical locations within the United Kingdom (Turner *et al.*, 2019).

Genome sequence analysis

392

393

394

395

396

397

398

399

400

401

402

403

404

405

406

407

408

409

410

411

412

413

414

415

De novo assembly for BSAC and all other isolates was performed previously using Velvet and assembly statistics can be found in Turner et al., 2019. We also repeated the assembly using SPAdes (Bankevich et al., 2012) to confirm the regions surrounding prophage integration. We chose to focus on ST39 isolates (or closely related STs) and excluded those with highly diverse STs. As previously identified (Turner et al., 2019), these STs represent diverse genetic backgrounds and therefore do not reflect the population described here. Short read sequence data was mapped to the reference strain MGAS10750 using **SMALT** (https://www.sanger.ac.uk/science/tools/smalt) and core SNPs (excluding prophage regions) were extracted and used to generate a maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree using RAxML (Stamatakis 2014) with the GTR substitution model and 100 bootstraps. Regions of recombination were predicted using Gubbins analysis using the default parameters (Croucher et al., 2015). Annotated coding regions of each prophage within MGAS10750 were extracted and the DNA sequence of each was used to BLAST de novo assemblies. Gene presence was assigned with >98% match over 100% length.

Prophage Induction

To determine prophage induction, overnight cultures of *S. pyogenes* were diluted 1:10 and grown to an OD 600nm of 0.3 before cultures were split into two 50mL aliquots. One aliquot

417

418

419

420

421

422

423

424

425

426

427

428

429

430

431

432

433

434

435

436

437

438

was treated with 0.2 µg/mL mitomycin C and the second served as an untreated control. Cultures were grown for an additional 3 hours before the culture was pelleted by centrifugation and DNA was extracted. Bacterial DNA was extracted using the method of Pospiech and Neumann (Pospiech and Neumann, 1995). Isolates were also cultured exponentially from 1:10 dilutions of overnight cultures, and DNA extracted from aliquots at given time points. To detect excision and integration of each of the three prophages and SpyCIM4, specific sets of four primer combinations were designed (Supplementary Table 2). PCR was performed using each primer combination. RNA extraction and transcription detection. RNA was extracted from one M4_{complete} isolate and one M4_{degraded} isolate cultured exponentially for 3 hours using a using a hot acidic phenol method, as described previously (Reglinski et al., 2019). RNA samples were then DNase treated with Turbo DNase free (Ambion) for 30 minutes at 37°C and 5 µg was converted to cDNA by reverse transcription using Transcriptor reverse transcriptase (Roche) and random hexaoligos (Sigma-Aldrich). A corresponding RT-negative reaction was also performed for each sample whereby the reverse transcriptase was excluded as a control for contaminating genomic DNA. Transcription of mutL and mutS was detected using standard PCR with 100ng of cDNA (or RT-negative equivalent) and primers designed to detect each transcript individually (Supplementary Table 2). **Conflicts of Interest** The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest. **Funding information** AR is a PhD student funded by the Florey Institute, University of Sheffield. CET is a Royal Society & Wellcome Trust Sir Henry Dale Research Fellow (208765/Z/17/Z).

439 Acknowledgements 440 The authors would like to thank the British Society for Antimicrobial Chemotherapy for 441 providing the *emm*4 isolates. 442 443 References 1. Afshar, B., Turner, C. E., Lamagni, T. L., Smith, K. C., Al-Shahib, A., Underwood, 444 A., Holden, M., Efstratiou, A., & Sriskandan, S. (2017). Enhanced nasopharyngeal 445 446 infection and shedding associated with an epidemic lineage of emm3 group A 447 *Streptococcus. Virulence*, 8(7), 1390–1400. 448 https://doi.org/10.1080/21505594.2017.1325070 449 2. Al-Shahib, A., Underwood, A., Afshar, B., Turner, C. E., Lamagni, T., Sriskandan, S., 450 & Efstratiou, A. (2016). Emergence of a novel lineage containing a prophage in emm/M3 group A Streptococcus associated with upsurge in invasive disease in the 451 452 UK. Microbial genomics, 2(6), e000059. https://doi.org/10.1099/mgen.0.000059 453 3. Athey, T. B., Teatero, S., Li, A., Marchand-Austin, A., Beall, B. W., & Fittipaldi, N. 454 (2014). Deriving group A Streptococcus typing information from short-read whole-455 genome sequencing data. Journal of clinical microbiology, 52(6), 1871–1876. 456 https://doi.org/10.1128/JCM.00029-14 457 4. Athey, T. B., Teatero, S., Sieswerda, L. E., Gubbay, J. B., Marchand-Austin, A., Li, 458 A., Wasserscheid, J., Dewar, K., McGeer, A., Williams, D., & Fittipaldi, N. (2016). 459 High Incidence of Invasive Group A Streptococcus Disease Caused by Strains of 460 Uncommon emm Types in Thunder Bay, Ontario, Canada. Journal of clinical 461 microbiology, 54(1), 83–92. https://doi.org/10.1128/JCM.02201-15 462 5. Balasubramanian, S., Osburne, M. S., BrinJones, H., Tai, A. K., & Leong, J. M. (2019). Prophage induction, but not production of phage particles, is required for 463

464 lethal disease in a microbiome-replete murine model of enterohemorrhagic E. coli infection. PLoS pathogens, 15(1), e1007494. 465 466 https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.ppat.1007494 467 6. Bankevich A, Nurk S, Antipov D, Gurevich AA, Dvorkin M, Kulikov AS, Lesin VM, 468 Nikolenko SI, Pham S, Prjibelski AD, Pyshkin AV, Sirotkin AV, Vyahhi N, Tesler G, 469 Alekseyev MA, Pevzner PA. SPAdes: A New Genome Assembly Algorithm and Its 470 Applications to Single-Cell Sequencing (2012). Journal of Computational Biology, 471 19, 455-477. doi: 10.1089/cmb.2012.0021 472 7. Banks, D. J., Beres, S. B., & Musser, J. M. (2002). The fundamental contribution of 473 phages to GAS evolution, genome diversification and strain emergence. Trends in 474 microbiology, 10(11), 515–521. https://doi.org/10.1016/s0966-842x(02)02461-7 475 8. Banks, D. J., Lei, B., & Musser, J. M. (2003). Prophage induction and expression of 476 prophage-encoded virulence factors in group A Streptococcus serotype M3 strain 477 MGAS315. Infection and immunity, 71(12), 7079–7086. 478 https://doi.org/10.1128/iai.71.12.7079-7086.2003 479 9. Ben Zakour, N. L., Davies, M. R., You, Y., Chen, J. H., Forde, B. M., Stanton-Cook, 480 M., Yang, R., Cui, Y., Barnett, T. C., Venturini, C., Ong, C. L., Tse, H., Dougan, G., Zhang, J., Yuen, K. Y., Beatson, S. A., & Walker, M. J. (2015). Transfer of scarlet 481 482 fever-associated elements into the group A Streptococcus M1T1 clone. Scientific 483 reports, 5, 15877. https://doi.org/10.1038/srep15877 484 10. Beres, S. B., & Musser, J. M. (2007). Contribution of exogenous genetic elements to 485 the group A *Streptococcus* metagenome. PloS one, 2(8), e800. 486 https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0000800 487 11. Beres, S. B., Richter, E. W., Nagiec, M. J., Sumby, P., Porcella, S. F., DeLeo, F. R., 488 & Musser, J. M. (2006). Molecular genetic anatomy of inter- and intraserotype

489 variation in the human bacterial pathogen group A Streptococcus. Proceedings of the 490 National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America, 103(18), 7059–7064. 491 https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0510279103 492 12. Beres, S. B., Sylva, G. L., Sturdevant, D. E., Granville, C. N., Liu, M., Ricklefs, S. 493 M., Whitney, A. R., Parkins, L. D., Hoe, N. P., Adams, G. J., Low, D. E., DeLeo, F. 494 R., McGeer, A., & Musser, J. M. (2004). Genome-wide molecular dissection of 495 serotype M3 group A Streptococcus strains causing two epidemics of invasive 496 infections. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of 497 America, 101(32), 11833–11838. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0404163101 498 13. Broudy, T. B., Pancholi, V., & Fischetti, V. A. (2001). Induction of lysogenic 499 bacteriophage and phage-associated toxin from group A streptococci during coculture 500 with human pharyngeal cells. *Infection and immunity*, 69(3), 1440–1443. 501 https://doi.org/10.1128/IAI.69.3.1440-1443.2001 502 14. Broudy, T. B., Pancholi, V., & Fischetti, V. A. (2002). The in vitro interaction of 503 Streptococcus pyogenes with human pharyngeal cells induces a phage-encoded 504 extracellular DNase. Infection and immunity, 70(6), 2805–2811. 505 https://doi.org/10.1128/iai.70.6.2805-2811.2002 506 15. Canchaya, C., Proux, C., Fournous, G., Bruttin, A., & Brüssow, H. (2003). Prophage 507 genomics. Microbiology and molecular biology reviews: MMBR, 67(2), 238–276. 508 https://doi.org/10.1128/mmbr.67.2.238-276.2003 509 16. Carapetis, J. R., Steer, A. C., Mulholland, E. K., & Weber, M. (2005). The global 510 burden of group A streptococcal diseases. The Lancet. Infectious diseases, 5(11), 511 685–694. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1473-3099(05)70267-X 512 17. Chalker, V., Jironkin, A., Coelho, J., Al-Shahib, A., Platt, S., Kapatai, G., Daniel, R., 513 Dhami, C., Laranjeira, M., Chambers, T., Guy, R., Lamagni, T., Harrison, T., Chand,

515

516

517

518

519

520

521

522

523

524

525

526

527

528

529

530

531

532

533

534

535

536

537

M., Johnson, A. P., Underwood, A., & Scarlet Fever Incident Management Team (2017). Genome analysis following a national increase in Scarlet Fever in England 2014. BMC genomics, 18(1), 224. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12864-017-3603-z 18. Chochua, S., Metcalf, B. J., Li, Z., Rivers, J., Mathis, S., Jackson, D., Gertz, R. E., Jr, Srinivasan, V., Lynfield, R., Van Beneden, C., McGee, L., & Beall, B. (2017). Population and Whole Genome Sequence Based Characterization of Invasive Group A Streptococci Recovered in the United States during 2015. mBio, 8(5), e01422-17. https://doi.org/10.1128/mBio.01422-17 19. Commons, R. J., Smeesters, P. R., Proft, T., Fraser, J. D., Robins-Browne, R., & Curtis, N. (2014). Streptococcal superantigens: categorization and clinical associations. Trends in molecular medicine, 20(1), 48-62. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.molmed.2013.10.004 20. Croucher, N. J., Page, A. J., Connor, T. R., Delaney, A. J., Keane, J. A., Bentley, S. D., Parkhill, J., & Harris, S. R. (2015). Rapid phylogenetic analysis of large samples of recombinant bacterial whole genome sequences using Gubbins. *Nucleic acids* research, 43(3), e15. https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gku1196 21. Davies, M. R., Holden, M. T., Coupland, P., Chen, J. H., Venturini, C., Barnett, T. C., Zakour, N. L., Tse, H., Dougan, G., Yuen, K. Y., & Walker, M. J. (2015). Emergence of scarlet fever Streptococcus pyogenes emm12 clones in Hong Kong is associated with toxin acquisition and multidrug resistance. *Nature genetics*, 47(1), 84–87. https://doi.org/10.1038/ng.3147 22. DebRoy, S., Li, X., Kalia, A., Galloway-Pena, J., Shah, B. J., Fowler, V. G., Flores, A. R., & Shelburne, S. A. (2018). Identification of a chimeric *emm* gene and novel emm pattern in currently circulating strains of emm4 Group A

538 Streptococcus. Microbial genomics, 4(11), e000235. 539 https://doi.org/10.1099/mgen.0.000235 23. Desiere, F., Mcshan, W., Sinderen, D. V., Ferretti, J. J., & Brüssow, H. (2001). 540 541 Comparative Genomics Reveals Close Genetic Relationships between Phages from 542 Dairy Bacteria and Pathogenic Streptococci: Evolutionary Implications for Prophage-543 Host Interactions. Virology, 288(2), 325–341. doi: 10.1006/viro.2001.1085 544 24. Efstratiou, A., & Lamagni, T. (2017). Epidemiology of Streptococcus pyogenes. 545 In Streptococcus pyogenes: basic biology to clinical manifestations [Internet]. 546 University of Oklahoma Health Sciences Center. 547 25. Facklam, R., Beall, B., Efstratiou, A., Fischetti, V., Johnson, D., Kaplan, E., Kriz, P., 548 Lovgren, M., Martin, D., Schwartz, B., Totolian, A., Bessen, D., Hollingshead, S., 549 Rubin, F., Scott, J., & Tyrrell, G. (1999). emm typing and validation of provisional M 550 types for group A streptococci. *Emerging infectious diseases*, 5(2), 247–253. 551 https://doi.org/10.3201/eid0502.990209 552 26. Flores, A. R., Chase McNeil, J., Shah, B., Van Beneden, C., & Shelburne, S. A. 553 (2019). Capsule-Negative emm Types Are an Increasing Cause of Pediatric Group A 554 Streptococcal Infections at a Large Pediatric Hospital in Texas. Journal of the 555 *Pediatric Infectious Diseases Society*, 8(3), 244–250. 556 https://doi.org/10.1093/jpids/piy053 557 27. Flores, A. R., Jewell, B. E., Fittipaldi, N., Beres, S. B., & Musser, J. M. (2012). 558 Human disease isolates of serotype m4 and m22 group A Streptococcus lack genes 559 required for hyaluronic acid capsule biosynthesis. *mBio*, 3(6), e00413-12. 560 https://doi.org/10.1128/mBio.00413-12 561 28. Frost, H. R., Davies, M. R., Delforge, V., Lakhloufi, D., Sanderson-Smith, M., 562 Srinivasan, V., Steer, A. C., Walker, M. J., Beall, B., Botteaux, A., & Smeesters, P. R.

564

565

566

567

568

569

570

571

572

573

574

575

576

577

578

579

580

581

582

583

584

585

586

587

(2020). Analysis of Global Collection of Group A Streptococcus Genomes Reveals that the Majority Encode a Trio of M and M-Like Proteins. mSphere, 5(1), e00806-19. https://doi.org/10.1128/mSphere.00806-19 29. Galloway-Peña, J., Clement, M. E., Sharma Kuinkel, B. K., Ruffin, F., Flores, A. R., Levinson, H., Shelburne, S. A., Moore, Z., & Fowler, V. G., Jr (2016). Application of Whole-Genome Sequencing to an Unusual Outbreak of Invasive Group A Streptococcal Disease. *Open forum infectious diseases*, *3*(1), ofw042. https://doi.org/10.1093/ofid/ofw042 30. Hendrickson, C., Euler, C. W., Nguyen, S. V., Rahman, M., McCullor, K. A., King, C. J., Fischetti, V. A., & McShan, W. M. (2015). Elimination of Chromosomal Island SpyCIM1 from Streptococcus pyogenes Strain SF370 Reverses the Mutator Phenotype and Alters Global Transcription. *PloS one*, 10(12), e0145884. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0145884 31. Ingrey, K. T., Ren, J., & Prescott, J. F. (2003). A fluoroquinolone induces a novel mitogen-encoding bacteriophage in Streptococcus canis. Infection and immunity, 71(6), 3028–3033. https://doi.org/10.1128/iai.71.6.3028-3033.2003 32. Jacob, K. M., Spilker, T., LiPuma, J. J., Dawid, S. R., & Watson, M. E., Jr (2016). Complete Genome Sequence of emm4 Streptococcus pyogenes MEW427, a Throat Isolate from a Child Meeting Clinical Criteria for Pediatric Autoimmune Neuropsychiatric Disorders Associated with Streptococcus (PANDAS). Genome announcements, 4(2), e00127-16. https://doi.org/10.1128/genomeA.00127-16 33. Jaggi, P., Tanz, R. R., Beall, B., & Shulman, S. T. (2005). Age influences the emm type distribution of pediatric group A streptococcal pharyngeal isolates. The Pediatric infectious disease journal, 24(12), 1089–1092. https://doi.org/10.1097/01.inf.0000190023.89759.96

589

590

591

592

593

594

595

596

597

598

599

600

601

602

603

604

605

606

607

608

609

610

611

612

34. Kapatai, G., Coelho, J., Platt, S., & Chalker, V. J. (2017). Whole genome sequencing of group A Streptococcus: development and evaluation of an automated pipeline for *emm* gene typing. *PeerJ*, 5, e3226. https://doi.org/10.7717/peerj.3226 35. Kim, S., Lee, S., Park, H., & Kim, S. (2019). Predominance of emm4 and antibiotic resistance of Streptococcus pyogenes in acute pharyngitis in a southern region of Korea. Journal of medical microbiology, 68(7), 1053–1058. https://doi.org/10.1099/jmm.0.001005 36. Luca-Harari, B., Darenberg, J., Neal, S., Siljander, T., Strakova, L., Tanna, A., Creti, R., Ekelund, K., Koliou, M., Tassios, P. T., van der Linden, M., Straut, M., Vuopio-Varkila, J., Bouvet, A., Efstratiou, A., Schalén, C., Henriques-Normark, B., Strep-EURO Study Group, & Jasir, A. (2009). Clinical and microbiological characteristics of severe *Streptococcus pyogenes* disease in Europe. Journal of clinical microbiology, 47(4), 1155–1165. https://doi.org/10.1128/JCM.02155-08 37. Maigues, E., Ubeda, C., Campoy, S., Salvador, N., Lasa, I., Novick, R. P., Barbé, J., & Penadés, J. R. (2006). Beta-lactam antibiotics induce the SOS response and horizontal transfer of virulence factors in Staphylococcus aureus. Journal of bacteriology, 188(7), 2726–2729. https://doi.org/10.1128/JB.188.7.2726-2729.2006 38. McMillan, D. J., Drèze, P. A., Vu, T., Bessen, D. E., Guglielmini, J., Steer, A. C., Carapetis, J. R., Van Melderen, L., Sriprakash, K. S., & Smeesters, P. R. (2013). Updated model of group A Streptococcus M proteins based on a comprehensive worldwide study. Clinical microbiology and infection: the official publication of the European Society of Clinical Microbiology and Infectious Diseases, 19(5), E222-E229. https://doi.org/10.1111/1469-0691.12134 39. McShan, W. M., McCullor, K. A., & Nguyen, S. V. (2019). The Bacteriophages of Streptococcus pyogenes. Microbiology spectrum, 7(3),

614

615

616

617

618

619

620

621

622

623

624

625

626

627

628

629

630

631

632

633

634

635

636

10.1128/microbiolspec.GPP3-0059-2018. https://doi.org/10.1128/microbiolspec.GPP3-0059-2018 40. Nakagawa, I., Kurokawa, K., Yamashita, A., Nakata, M., Tomiyasu, Y., Okahashi, N., Kawabata, S., Yamazaki, K., Shiba, T., Yasunaga, T., Hayashi, H., Hattori, M., & Hamada, S. (2003). Genome sequence of an M3 strain of Streptococcus pyogenes reveals a large-scale genomic rearrangement in invasive strains and new insights into phage evolution. Genome research, 13(6A), 1042–1055. https://doi.org/10.1101/gr.1096703 41. Nasser, W., Beres, S. B., Olsen, R. J., Dean, M. A., Rice, K. A., Long, S. W., Kristinsson, K. G., Gottfredsson, M., Vuopio, J., Raisanen, K., Caugant, D. A., Steinbakk, M., Low, D. E., McGeer, A., Darenberg, J., Henriques-Normark, B., Van Beneden, C. A., Hoffmann, S., & Musser, J. M. (2014). Evolutionary pathway to increased virulence and epidemic group A Streptococcus disease derived from 3,615 genome sequences. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America, 111(17), E1768–E1776. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1403138111 42. Pospiech, A. (1995). A versatile quick-prep of genomic DNA from Gram-positive bacteria. Trends in Genetics, 11(6), 217-218. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/S0168-9525(00)89052-6 43. Ramisetty, B., & Sudhakari, P. A. (2019). Bacterial 'Grounded' Prophages: Hotspots for Genetic Renovation and Innovation. Frontiers in genetics, 10, 65. https://doi.org/10.3389/fgene.2019.00065 44. Reglinski, M., Sriskandan, S., & Turner, C. E. (2019). Identification of two new core chromosome-encoded superantigens in Streptococcus pyogenes; speQ and speR. Journal of Infection, 78(5), 358–363. doi: 10.1016/j.jinf.2019.02.005

637 45. Remmington A, Turner CE. The DNases of pathogenic Lancefield 638 streptococci. *Microbiology*. 2018;164(3):242-250. doi:10.1099/mic.0.000612 639 46. Scott, J., Nguyen, S. V., King, C. J., Hendrickson, C., & McShan, W. M. (2012). 640 Phage-Like Streptococcus pyogenes Chromosomal Islands (SpyCI) and Mutator 641 Phenotypes: Control by Growth State and Rescue by a SpyCI-Encoded 642 Promoter. Frontiers in microbiology, 3, 317. 643 https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2012.00317 644 47. Scott, J., Thompson-Mayberry, P., Lahmamsi, S., King, C. J., & McShan, W. M. 645 (2008). Phage-associated mutator phenotype in group A Streptococcus. Journal of 646 bacteriology, 190(19), 6290–6301. https://doi.org/10.1128/JB.01569-07 48. Silva-Costa, C., Carriço, J. A., Ramirez, M., & Melo-Cristino, J. (2014). Scarlet fever 647 648 is caused by a limited number of *Streptococcus pyogenes* lineages and is associated with the exotoxin genes ssa, speA and speC. The Pediatric infectious disease 649 650 journal, 33(3), 306–310. https://doi.org/10.1097/INF.0000000000000088 49. Stamatakis A. (2014). RAxML version 8: a tool for phylogenetic analysis and post-651 analysis of large phylogenies. *Bioinformatics (Oxford, England)*, 30(9), 1312–1313. 652 653 https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btu033 654 50. Tse, H., Bao, J. Y., Davies, M. R., Maamary, P., Tsoi, H. W., Tong, A. H., Ho, T. C., Lin, C. H., Gillen, C. M., Barnett, T. C., Chen, J. H., Lee, M., Yam, W. C., Wong, C. 655 656 K., Ong, C. L., Chan, Y. W., Wu, C. W., Ng, T., Lim, W. W., Tsang, T. H., ... Yuen, 657 K. Y. (2012). Molecular characterization of the 2011 Hong Kong scarlet fever 658 outbreak. The Journal of infectious diseases, 206(3), 341–351. 659 https://doi.org/10.1093/infdis/jis362 51. Turner, C. E., Abbott, J., Lamagni, T., Holden, M. T., David, S., Jones, M. D., Game, 660 L., Efstratiou, A., & Sriskandan, S. (2015). Emergence of a New Highly Successful 661

662 Acapsular Group A Streptococcus Clade of Genotype emm89 in the United Kingdom. mBio, 6(4), e00622. https://doi.org/10.1128/mBio.00622-15 663 664 52. Turner, C. E., Pyzio, M., Song, B., Lamagni, T., Meltzer, M., Chow, J. Y., Efstratiou, A., Curtis, S., & Sriskandan, S. (2016). Scarlet Fever Upsurge in England and 665 Molecular-Genetic Analysis in North-West London, 2014. Emerging infectious 666 diseases, 22(6), 1075–1078. https://doi.org/10.3201/eid2206.151726 667 668 53. Turner, C. E., Holden, M., Blane, B., Horner, C., Peacock, S. J., & Sriskandan, S. (2019). The Emergence of Successful Streptococcus pyogenes Lineages through 669 670 Convergent Pathways of Capsule Loss and Recombination Directing High Toxin 671 Expression. mBio, 10(6), e02521-19. https://doi.org/10.1128/mBio.02521-19 672 54. Turner, C. E., Bedford, L., Brown, N. M., Judge, K., Török, M. E., Parkhill, J., & 673 Peacock, S. J. (2017). Community outbreaks of group A Streptococcus revealed by 674 genome sequencing. Scientific reports, 7(1), 8554. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-675 017-08914-x 676 55. Whitehead, B. D., Smith, H. V., & Nourse, C. (2011). Invasive group A streptococcal 677 disease in children in Queensland. Epidemiology and infection, 139(4), 623–628. 678 https://doi.org/10.1017/S0950268810001378 56. Yan, J. J., Liu, C. C., Ko, W. C., Hsu, S. Y., Wu, H. M., Lin, Y. S., Lin, M. T., 679 680 Chuang, W. J., & Wu, J. J. (2003). Molecular analysis of group A streptococcal 681 isolates associated with scarlet fever in southern Taiwan between 1993 and 682 2002. *Journal of clinical microbiology*, *41*(10), 4858–4861. 683 https://doi.org/10.1128/jcm.41.10.4858-4861.2003 684 57. Zhang, X., McDaniel, A. D., Wolf, L. E., Keusch, G. T., Waldor, M. K., & Acheson, 685 D. W. (2000). Quinolone antibiotics induce Shiga toxin-encoding bacteriophages,

toxin production, and death in mice. *The Journal of infectious diseases*, 181(2), 664–670. https://doi.org/10.1086/315239

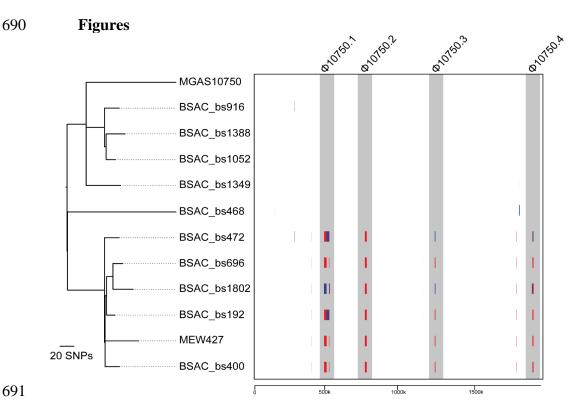


Figure 1. Recombination in prophage regions of isolates clustering with MEW427. Sequence data for all ten BSAC isolates were mapped to the reference strain MGAS10750 along with a second reference strain MEW427. Gubbins analysis on the alignment identified predicted regions of recombination in five BSAC isolates and MEW427 that form a separate lineage to the other five BSAC isolates and MGAS10750. Four of these regions were within the three prophages (Φ10705.1, Φ10705.2, Φ10705.3) and the SpyCI element (Φ10705.4) (shaded grey). Phylogenetic tree was generated from 556 polymorphic sites following removal of regions of predicted recombination. Scale bar; number of SNPs. Scale below boxed region represents genomic position relative to MGAS10750.

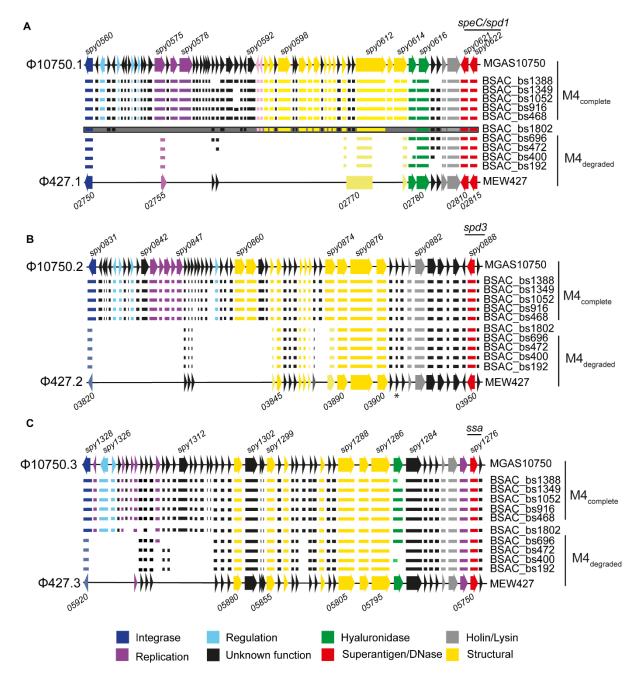


Figure 2. Varying levels of gene loss within prophage regions. The majority of genes (represented by arrows) present in the three prophages (**A**) Φ10705.1, (B) Φ10705.2 and (**C**) Φ10705.3 of MGAS10750 were also present in the five BSAC strains BSAC_bs468, BSAC_bs916, BSAC_bs1052, BSAC_bs1379 and BSAC_bs1388 (M4_{complete}). However, fewer genes were present in the corresponding prophage regions (**A**) Φ427.1, (B) Φ427.2 and (**C**) Φ427.3 in MEW427 and the MEW427-like BSAC isolates BSAC_bs192, BSAC_bs400, BSAC_bs472 and BSAC_bs696 (M4_{degraded}). The genome of BSAC_bs1802 had more

prophage-associated genes present than the other M4_{degraded} isolates, and the prophage associated with speC/spd1 appeared to be different to $\Phi10705.1/\Phi427.1$ (represented by a grey box), with some homologous genes but assembled with other genes that were not found in MGAS10750 or MEW427. Gene presence in each strain is represented by corresponding horizontal lines. Some genes in MEW427 and M4_{degraded} isolates were truncated (shown in lighter colours), for example the integrase genes of $\Phi427.2$ and $\Phi427.3$ (lighter shade of blue and shorter arrow/line). Within $\Phi427.1$, the annotated gene 02770 actually comprised sections of spy609, spy0612 and spy614 of MGAS10750. In all isolate genomes and in MEW427, spy0619 of $\Phi10705.1$ was divided into two genes. Locus numbers for some genes are provided above and below; MEW427 is annotated in increments of 5. *; an additional gene that was present but not included in the reference annotation. Colours represent predicted gene function according to the key.

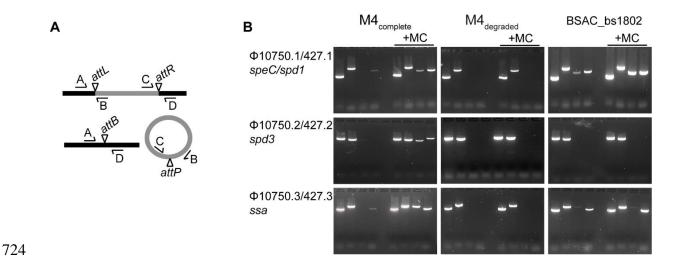


Figure 3. Phage induction in MGAS10750-like isolates but not MEW427-like isolates. A.

Primers were designed to detected integrated and excised prophage. Primer pairs A+B and C+D spanned the attachment sites attL and attR formed when the prophage (grey) is integrated into the chromosome (black). Primer pairs A+D and C+B spanned the attachment site attB on the bacterial chromosome and attP on the prophage, respectively, detecting prophage excision. **B.** All three prophages were detected to be excised from the chromosome of M4_{complete} isolates, which was enhanced by additional of mitomycin C (+MC), as indicated by bands present in all four lanes. No excision was detected for all three prophages in any of the M4_{degraded} isolates, as indicated by bands only in the first two lanes but not the third or fourth lane, even with mitomycin C. The exception was BSAC_bs1802, where excision of Φ 10750.1/427.1 and Φ 10750.3/427.3 was detected but Φ 10750.2/427.2 was not. Representative gels are shown for single isolates out of five M4_{complete} BSAC isolates tested and four M4_{degraded} tested. Primer pairs were used in the following order; A+B (attL), C+D (attR), A+D (attB), C+B (attP).

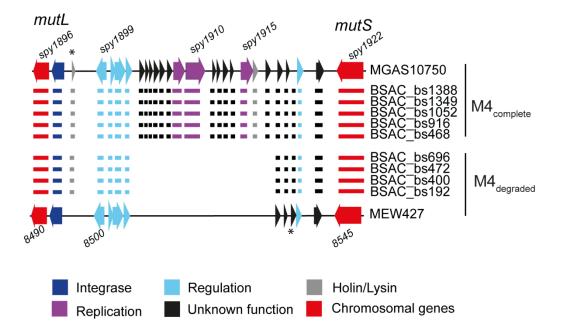


Figure 4. Gene loss within the SpyCI. The SpyCIM4 element is integrated within the MMR operon, between *mutL* and *mutS* (red arrows) and comprised 25 genes at full-length (as in MGAS10750) in the genomes of M4_{complete} isolates. In the genomes of M4_{degraded} isolates, including MEW427, the SpyCI element consists of only 11 genes, representing a ~56% gene loss. The pattern of degradation was common to all M4_{degraded}. The SpyCI of BSAC_bs1802 is not shown, as this isolate contains a different ICE. Locus numbers for some genes are provided above and below; MEW427 is annotated in increments of 5. *; an additional gene that was present but not included in the reference annotation. Colours represent predicted gene function according to the key.

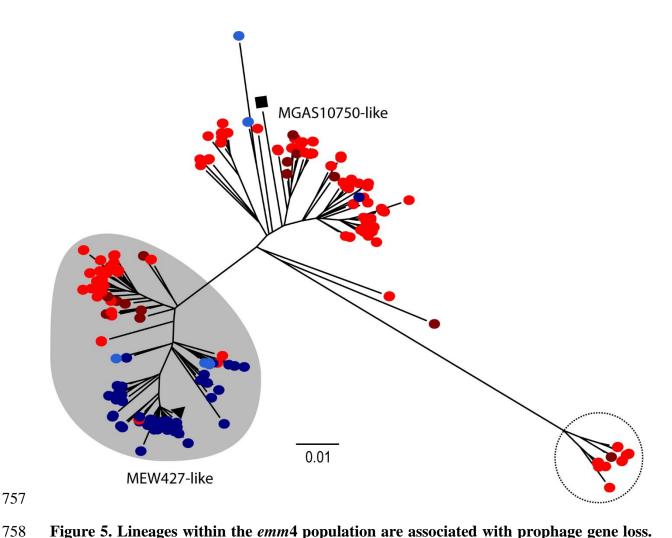


Figure 5. Lineages within the emm4 population are associated with prophage gene loss.

760

761

762

763

764

765

766

767

768

Genome sequence data from 223 isolates was obtained and mapped against the reference genome MGAS10750 (black square). Additionally, the second reference strain MEW427 was included (black triangle). Data comprised genomes from USA isolates (blue circles, n=48 isolated 2015 (Chochua et al. 2017)), Canadian isolates (Light blue circles, n=8 isolated 2013 or unknown date (Athey et al. 2014, Athey et al. 2016)), UK isolates (red circles, n=153 (Chalker et al., 2017; Kapatai et al. 2017) isolated 2014/2015), as well as from Cambridgeshire, UK (dark red circles, n=4, 2008-2012, (Turner et al., 2017)) and BSAC isolates (dark red circles, n=10, 2001-2008). Isolates in red and dark blue were obtained around a similar time period (2014-2015) but from either the UK (red) or the USA (blue). Two broad lineages exist, either associated with MGAS10750 or with MEW427 (shaded grey). A small lineage was also

identified (dotted line circle) and these isolates are all from the UK. Scale bar represents site
per substitution.

772

Supplementary Data

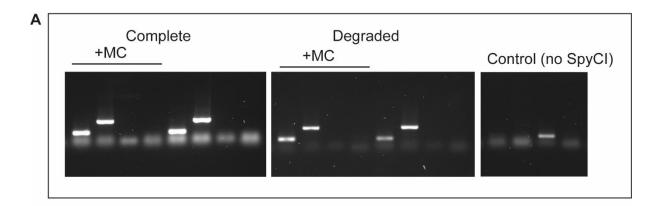
773

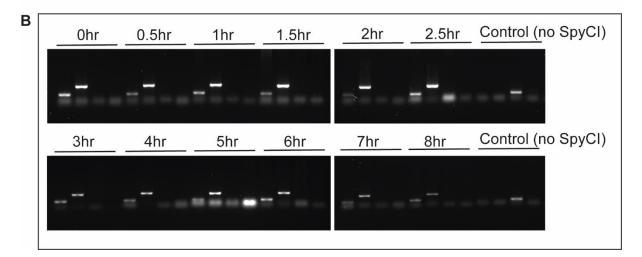
- **Supplementary Table 1**. Details of isolates used in this study.
- 775 Supplementary_Table_1.xlsx

776 Supplementary Table 2. Primers used in the study

Primer	Sequence (5'-3')	Function
10750.1 A	GCATCCAGACTATTCCATTC	Φ10750.1 induction
10750.1 B	CGTATGATGTTCAATCTAGGATAG	
10750.1 C	TGCGTCAACAGTTATTGTCG	
10750.1 D	ACATTAGCCTCGTTCACGC	
10750.2 A	ATCAACTAAGGCAGCTTCTG	Φ 10750.2 induction
10750.2 B	CGGAACTCTTGACTACACCTC	
10750.2 C	AACAAACCTTGCCAAGTACG	
10750.2 D	CCATCTCTGTAACAGTCAAATG	
10750.3 A	CCAATCAAGAAGGCTGTAATG	Φ 10750.3 induction
10750.3 B	GCACCTGGAGCAATATTTG	
10750.3 C	TACAGAAGGATATCGTAACGGG	
10750.3 D	TTGCAAGTCGTCTCATTCAAG	
SpyCIM4 A	CGAGAACTTCCGGTAATTC	SpyCIM4 induction
SpyCIM4 B	CGAATATCAGCATGACTTTG	
SpyCIM4 C	AGCATCCAAGACCAATGG	
SpyCIM4 D	CTTCAAGCAATGACAACCC	
MutL_F	GTCTCAATTTCCCCACCAGTAG	mutL transcription
MutL_R	CAAATTGCAGCTGGTGAAG	
MutS_F	CTTGAAGCGGGGTCATATTC	mutS transcription
MutS_R	GTTGGTGCTAAGACCATATTTGC	

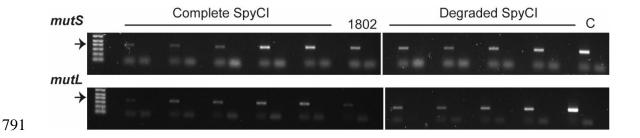
Supplementary Figures



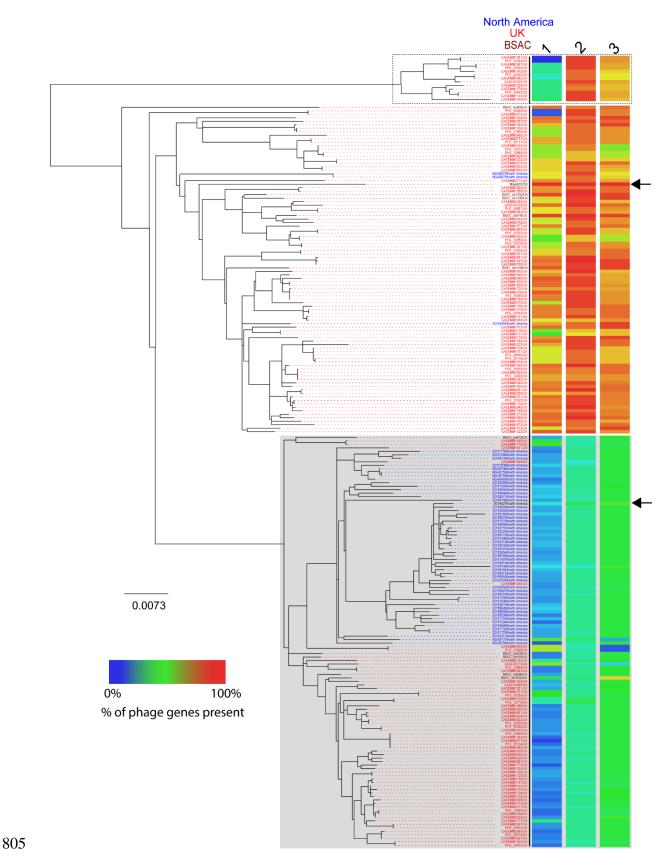


Supplementary Figure 1: SpyCIM4 is not induced in any of the emm4 BSAC isolates. A.

Primers were designed to detect integrated and excised SpyCI in genotype *emm*4 isolates in response to induction with mitomycin C. Only integrated SpyCI was detected (bands in first two lanes per sample) in both isolates, and no evidence of excised SpyCI (third and fourth lanes per sample), even in the presence of mitomycin C (+MC) **B.** To determine if the *emm*4 SpyCI would excise at specific stages in the bacterial growth curve, samples were taken at 30-minute intervals from 0-3 hours, then at 60-minute intervals thereafter, for a further 5 hours. Excised SpyCI was not detected at any point in bacterial growth in liquid culture. A control DNA sample was also used in each experiment extracted from *emm*89 strain H293; this strain has no SpyCI element and therefore only a band in third lane can be detected.



Supplementary Figure 2. Expression of both *mutL* and *mutS* detected in both M4_{complete} and M4_{degraded} type *emm4* isolates. Bacterial RNA was extracted from M4_{complete} and M4_{degraded} isolates at 3 hours of growth (early log) and converted to cDNA by reverse transcription (RT). 100ng of cDNA was used to detect *mutL* or *mutS* transcript by PCR. Each isolate is represented by two lanes; the first is the RT positive sample (ie containing cDNA), the second is a negative control whereby RT was excluded. Transcription of *mutS* (top gel) and *mutL* (bottom gel) was detected in all five BSAC M4_{complete} as well as all four BSAC M4_{degraded} isolates. Transcripts for *mutS* and *mutL* were also detected in BSAC_bs1802 which carries a different SpyCI element to the other *emm4* strains. C; DNA from control SpyCI-negative H293 in the first lane, no-DNA sample in the second lane. Arrows indicate 400bp on the 1kb Plus Ladder (Invitrogen).



Supplementary Figure 3. Lineages broadly associated with levels of prophage gene presence. Mid-rooted phylogenetic tree constructed from core SNPs obtained after mapping

short read sequence data from 223 isolates as well as the reference genome MEW427 to MGAS10750 (as Figure 5). Lineages are defined as in Figure 5; MGAS10750-like (no shading), MEW427-like (grey shaded), separate 13 isolate lineage that differs by the first phage (dotted-line). The percentage (%) of genes present in the *de novo* assembled genome for each isolate was calculated by BLAST analysis for each of the three MGAS10750 prophages (1-3) and indicated by colour scale (key indicated). Two isolates within the MGAS10750 lineage do not have the first prophage as indicated by the blue shading in the first column. Top arrow indicates MGAS10750 and the lower arrow indicates MEW427. Isolates names are given for each branch and colour coded based on collection; Blue; North American isolates from the USA n=48 isolated 2015 (Chochua *et al.*, 2017), and Canada (n=8 isolated 2013 or unknown date Athey *et al.* 2014, Athey *et al.* 2016),. Red; UK isolates (PHE n=153 (Chalker *et al.* 2017; Kapatai *et al.*, 2017) isolated 2014/2015, Cambridgeshire n=4, 2008-2012, (Turner *et al.* 2017)), Brown; BSAC isolates (n=10, 2001-2008). Scale bar represents substitutions per site.