Population-level genomics identifies the emergence and global spread of a human transmissible multidrug-resistant nontuberculous mycobacterium.

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90 ABSTRACT (117 words)

91 Lung infections with Mycobacterium abscessus, a species of multidrug resistant 92 nontuberculous mycobacteria, are emerging as an important global threat to 93 individuals with cystic fibrosis (CF) where they accelerate inflammatory lung damage 94 leading to increased morbidity and mortality. Previously, M. abscessus was thought 95 to be independently acquired by susceptible individuals from the environment. 96 However, using whole genome analysis of a global collection of clinical isolates, we 97 show that the majority of *M. abscessus* infections are acquired through transmission, 98 potentially via fomites and aerosols, of recently emerged dominant circulating clones 99 that have spread globally. We demonstrate that these clones are associated with 100 worse clinical outcomes, show increased virulence in cell-based and mouse infection 101 models, and thus represent an urgent international infection challenge.

103 MAIN TEXT

104 Nontuberculous mycobacteria (NTM; referring to mycobacterial species other than M. 105 tuberculosis complex and M. leprae) are ubiquitous environmental organisms that 106 can cause chronic pulmonary infections in susceptible individuals [1, 2], particularly 107 those with pre-existing inflammatory lung diseases such as cystic fibrosis (CF) [3]. The major NTM infecting CF individuals around the world is Mycobacterium 108 109 abscessus; a rapidly growing, intrinsically multidrug-resistant species, which can be 110 impossible to treat despite prolonged combination antibiotic therapy [1, 3-5], leads to 111 accelerated decline in lung function [6,7], and remains a contraindication to lung 112 transplantation in many centers [3,8,9].

113 Until recently, NTM infections were thought to be independently acquired by 114 individuals through exposure to soil or water [10-12]. As expected, previous analyses 115 from the 1990s and 2000s [13-16] showed that CF patients were infected with 116 unique, genetically diverse strains of *M. abscessus*, presumably from environmental 117 sources. We used whole genome sequencing at a single UK CF center and identified two clusters of patients (11 individuals in total) infected with identical or near-identical 118 119 *M. abscessus* isolates, which social network analysis suggested were acquired within 120 hospital via indirect transmission between patients [17]; a possibility further supported by genomic sequencing [18] of a separate M. abscessus outbreak in a 121 122 Seattle CF center [19].

Given the increasing incidence of *M. abscessus* infections in CF and non-CF populations reported globally *[3, 20, 21]*, we investigated whether cross-infection, rather than independent environmental acquisition, might be the major source of infection for this organism and therefore undertook population-level, multinational, whole genome sequencing of *M. abscessus* isolates from infected CF patients, correlating results with clinical metadata and phenotypic functional analysis of isolates.

We generated whole genome sequences for 1080 clinical isolates of *M. abscessus* from 517 patients, obtained from UK CF clinics and their associated regional reference laboratories, as well as CF Centres in the US (UNC Chapel Hill), the Republic of Ireland (Dublin), mainland Europe (Denmark, Sweden, The Netherlands), and Australia (Queensland). We identified 730 isolates as *M. a. abscessus*, 256 isolates as *M. a. massiliense*, 91 isolates as *M. a. bolletii*, with three isolates (from 3 different patients) containing more than one subspecies. 137 Phylogenetic analysis of these sequences (using one isolate per patient), 138 supplemented by published genomes from US, France, Brazil, Malaysia, China, and 139 South Korea (Table S1), was performed and analysed in the context of the 140 geographical provenance of isolates (Figure 1; Figure S1). As done previously [17], 141 we obtained maximum likelihood phylogenetic trees demonstrating separation of M. 142 abscessus into three clearly divergent subspecies (M. a. abscessus, M. a. bolletii, 143 and *M. a. massiliense*), challenging recent reclassifications of *M. abscessus* into only 144 two subspecies [22].

Within each subspecies, we found multiple examples of deep branches (indicating large genetic differences) between isolates from different individuals, consistent with independent acquisition of unrelated environmental bacteria. However, we also identified multiple clades of near-identical isolates from geographically diverse locations (**Figure 1**), suggesting widespread transmission of circulating clones within the global CF patient community.

151 To investigate further the relatedness of isolates from different individuals, we 152 analysed each subspecies phylogeny for the presence of high density phylogenetic 153 clusters (see Supplementary Methods [23]). We identified multiple dense clusters of 154 isolates, predominantly within the *M. a. abscessus* and *M. a. massiliense* subspecies 155 (Figure 2A), indicating the presence of dominant circulating clones. We next 156 excluded clusters found in only one CF centre from further analysis to remove related 157 isolates that might have been acquired from a local environmental point source. We 158 found that most patients (74%) were infected with clustered, rather than unclustered, 159 isolates, principally from *M. a. abscessus* Cluster 1 and 2, and *M. a. massiliense* 160 Cluster 1 (Figure 2B). The median branch lengths of almost all clusters found in two 161 or more CF centers was less than 20 SNPs (range 1-175 SNPs), indicating a high 162 frequency of identical or near identical isolates infecting geographically separate 163 individuals.

164 To determine how much of the genetic relatedness found within clusters was attributable to recent transmission, we first examined the within-patient genetic 165 diversity of *M. abscessus* isolates from single individuals. In keeping with our 166 167 previously published results [17], we found that 90% of same-patient isolates differed by less than 20 SNPs, while 99% of same-patient isolates differed by less than 38 168 SNPs (Figure S2). We therefore classified isolates from different individuals varying 169 170 by less than 20 SNPs as indicating 'probable', and those varying by 20-38 SNPs as 171 indicating 'possible', recent transmission (whether direct or indirect). We thereby identified multiple likely recent transmission chains in virtually all multi-site clusters of
 M. abscessus (Figure 2B), and across the majority of CF centers (Figure S3).

We next examined the global distribution of clustered isolates and found that, in all countries, the majority of patients were infected with clustered rather than unclustered isolates (**Figure 2C**; **Table S2**), suggesting frequent and widespread infection of patients with closely related isolates. Moreover, the three dominant circulating clones, *M. a. abscessus* Clusters 1 and 2, and *M. a. massiliense* Cluster 1, were all represented in the USA, European, and Australian collections of clinical isolates, indicating trans-continental dissemination of these clades.

181 We then compared the genetic differences between isolates (measured by pairwise 182 SNP distance) as a function of geography. As expected from our previous detection 183 of hospital-based transmission of *M. abscessus* [17], average genetic distances were 184 significantly shorter for *M. abscessus* isolates from the same CF center than those 185 from different CF centers within the same country or from different countries (Figure 186 **2D**). However, we also detected numerous examples of identical or near-identical 187 isolates infecting groups of patients in different CF centers and, indeed, across 188 different countries (Figure 2D), indicating the recent global spread of *M. abscessus* 189 clones throughout the international CF patient community.

190 We applied Bayesian analysis [24] to date the establishment and spread of dominant 191 circulating clones (Figure S4, S5), focusing on *M. a. massiliense* Cluster 1, which 192 includes isolates from both the Seattle [19] and Papworth [17] CF Center outbreaks, 193 as well as isolates from CF centres across England (Birmingham, London, 194 Leicester), Scotland (Lothian, Glasgow), Ireland (Dublin), Denmark (Copenhagen), 195 Australia (Queensland), and the USA (Chapel Hill, NC) (Figure 3A). We estimate 196 that the most recent common ancestor of isolates infecting patients from all these 197 locations emerged around 1978 (95% CI: 1955-1995), clearly indicating recent global 198 dissemination of this dominant circulating clone amongst individuals with CF (Figure 199 **3A**).

Furthermore we were able to resolve individual transmission events between patients infected with dominant circulating clones through two orthogonal approaches. Firstly, using high-depth genomic sequencing of colony sweeps, we were able to track changes in within-patient bacterial diversity in sputum cultures of a single individual over time. By linking the frequency of occurrence of minority variants in longitudinal samples, we were able to define the presence of particular subclones within infected individuals, assign their likely evolutionary development (involving the successive acquisition of non-synonymous mutations in likely virulence genes; **Figure 3B**), monitor their relative frequencies over time, and demonstrate their transmission between patients (**Figure 3B**). Secondly, through longitudinal whole genome sequencing of isolates collected over time from individuals, we were able to find multiple examples of the complete nesting of one patient's sampled diversity within another's (**Figure S6**). Such paraphyletic relationships are strongly indicative of recent person-to-person transmission [25].

214 We next examined potential mechanisms of transmission of *M. abscessus* between 215 individuals (which our previous epidemiological analysis had suggested was indirect 216 rather than via direct contact between patients [17]). We provide proof of concept for 217 fomite spread of *M. abscessus* (detecting three separate transmission events 218 associated with surface contamination of an inpatient room by an individual infected 219 with a dominant circulating clone; Figure S7), and also for potential airborne 220 transmission (by experimentally demonstrating the generation of long-lived, 221 potentially infectious cough aerosols by an infected CF patient; Figure S8).

222 A potential explanation for the emergence of dominant clones of *M. abscessus* is that 223 they are more efficient at infection and/or transmission. We therefore analysed 224 clinical metadata to establish whether outcomes were different for patients infected 225 with clustered rather than unclustered isolates. We correlated clinical outcomes with 226 bacterial phylogeny and the presence of constitutive resistance to two key NTM 227 antibiotics, amikacin and macrolides [26, 27], acquired through point mutations in the 228 16S and 23S ribosomal RNA respectively (Figure 4A). We found no differences in 229 the proportions of *M. abscessus*-positive individuals diagnosed with ATS-defined 230 NTM pulmonary disease [1], (namely the presence of two or more culture-positive 231 sputum samples with NTM-associated symptoms and radiological changes), but did 232 observe increased rates of chronic infection in individuals infected with clustered 233 rather than unclustered isolates (Figure 4B). As anticipated for transmissible clones exposed to multiple rounds of antibiotic therapy, we also found high rates of 234 235 constitutive amikacin and/or macrolide resistance in clustered isolates (Figure 4B). 236 Of note, resistance to these two antibiotics did not necessarily result in a poor clinical 237 outcomes (Figure S9), suggesting that additional bacterial factors might contribute to 238 worse responses in patients infected with clustered isolates.

To explore differences in intrinsic virulence between clustered and unclustered *M. abscessus*, we subjected a panel of representative isolates (27 clustered and 17
unclustered *M. a. abscessus*; 25 clustered and 13 unclustered *M. a. massiliense*) to

242 a series of *in vitro* phenotypic assays. While we found no or only minor differences 243 between groups in their colony morphotype, biofilm formation, ability to trigger 244 cytokine release from macrophages (Figure S10) and their overall phenotypic profile 245 (by multifactorial analysis; Figure S11), we detected significantly increased 246 phagocytic uptake (Figure 4C) and intracellular survival in macrophages (Figure 4D) 247 of clustered isolates of both M. a. abscessus and M. a. massiliense compared to 248 unclustered controls, indicating clear differences in pathogenic potential. Moreover, 249 infection of SCID mice revealed significantly greater bacterial burden (Figure 4E) 250 and granulomatous inflammation (Figure 4F) following inoculation with clustered 251 rather than unclustered isolates of *M. a. abscessus* and *M. a. massiliense*, confirming 252 differences in virulence between these groups.

253 In summary, our results reveal that the majority of *M. abscessus* infections of 254 individuals with CF worldwide are caused by genetically-clustered isolates, 255 suggesting recent transmission, rather than independent acquisition of genetically-256 unrelated environmental organisms. Given the widespread implementation of 257 individual and cohort segregation of patients in CF centres in Europe [28], the USA 258 [29], and Australia [30] (which have led to falling levels of MRSA, Burkholderia, and 259 transmissible *Pseudomonas* infections [31-33]), we believe that the likely mechanism 260 of local spread of M. abscessus is via fomite spread or potentially through the generation of long-lived infectious aerosols (as identified for other CF pathogens [34-261 262 367). Although further research is needed, both transmission routes are plausible 263 given our findings (Figures S7, S8), and would be potentially enhanced by the intrinsic desiccation resistance of *M. abscessus*. Such indirect transmission, involving 264 265 environmental contamination by patients, is supported by our previous social network 266 analysis of a UK outbreak of *M. abscessus* [17] in CF patients, which revealed 267 hospital-based cross-infection without direct person-to-person contact, and by the termination of a Seattle M. abscessus outbreak associated with the introduction of 268 269 clinic room negative pressure ventilation and double room cleaning [19]. The long-270 distance spread of circulating clones is more difficult to explain. Importantly we found 271 no evidence of CF patients or of equipment moving between CF centers in different 272 countries indicating that the global spread of *M. abscessus* may be driven by 273 alternative human, zoonotic or environmental vectors of transmission.

Our study illustrates the power of population-level genomics to uncover modes of transmission of emerging pathogens and has revealed the recent emergence of global dominant circulating clones of *M. abscessus* that have spread between continents. These clones are better able to survive within macrophages, cause more virulent infection in mice, and are associated with worse clinical outcomes,
suggesting that the establishment of transmission chains may have permitted
multiple rounds of within-host genetic adaptation to allow *M. abscessus* to evolve
from an environmental organism to a true lung pathogen.

285Figure legends

Figure 1. Global phylogeny of clinical isolates of M. abscessus.

Maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree of clinical isolates of *M. abscessus* collected with relevant local and/or national Ethical Board approval from 517 patients (using one isolate per patient), obtained from UK CF clinics and their associated regional reference laboratories, CF Centres in the US (UNC Chapel Hill), the Republic of lreland (Dublin), mainland Europe (Denmark, Sweden, The Netherlands), and Australia (Queensland), supplemented by published genomes from US, France, Brazil, Malaysia, China, and South Korea (listed in **Table S1**).

Figure 2. Transcontinental spread of dominant circulating clones.

295 (A). Hierarchical branch density analysis of phylogenetic trees for each subspecies of 296 *M. abscessus* identifies multiple clusters of closely related isolates predominantly 297 within the M. a. abscessus and M. a. massiliense subspecies (numbered, and 298 spectrally coloured red to blue, from most densely clustered to least; black indicating 299 no significant clustering). (B). Analysis of *M. abscessus* clusters found in two or more 300 CF centers showing (top) numbers of patients infected with each cluster (grey bars) 301 or unclustered isolates (green) and median branch length (SNPs) of different 302 patients' isolates within each cluster (blue circles); (bottom) numbers of potential recent transmission events with < 20 SNPs (red) or 20 - 38 SNPs (vellow) difference 303 304 between isolates from different patients. (C) Global distribution of clustered M. 305 abscessus isolates showing M. a. abscessus Cluster 1 (red) and Cluster 2 (green), M. a. massiliense Cluster 1 (blue), other clustered isolates (grouped together for 306 307 clarity; white) and unclustered isolates (black) with numbers of patients (n) sampled 308 per location. (D) Genetic differences between isolates (measured by pairwise SNP 309 distance) from different patients attending the same CF center, different CF centers 310 within the same country, or CF centers in different countries (boxes indicate median 311 and interquartile range; p values obtained from Mann Whitney Rank Sum tests). To 312 exclude multiple highly distant comparisons, for each isolate only the smallest 313 pairwise distance with an isolate from another patient is included. Colour coding 314 indicates whether there were < 20 SNPs difference (red), 20-38 SNPs difference 315 (yellow), or >38 SNPs difference (grey) between isolates from different patients.

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317 Figure 3. Dating the emergence of dominant circulating clones.

(A). Dating the emergence of the *M. a. massiliense* Cluster 1 (responsible for the
 Papworth and Seattle CF center outbreaks), using Bayesian analysis, with
 geographical annotation of isolates within the cluster. (B). Predicted evolution of

321 subclones (identified through minority variant linkage; see Supplementary Methods 322 [23]) within a single patient with CF (Patient 2 from Ref. 19) chronically infected with 323 the dominant circulating clone Massiliense Cluster 1 (representative of a total of 11 324 patients studied). (i) Analysis revealed successive acquisition of non-synonymous 325 polymorphisms (NS) by the most common recent ancestral clone (MRCA; white) in 326 potential virulence genes (UBiA, MAB 0173; Crp/Fnr, MAB 0416c; mmpS, 327 MAB 0477; PhoR, MAB 0674) and then transmission of a single subclone to another patient from the same CF center (Patient 28 from Ref. 19). (ii) Frequency of 328 329 each subclone within longitudinal sputum isolates analysed during the course of 330 Patient 2's infection and the subsequent transmission of a subclone to Patient 28. 331 We observed considerable heterogeneity in the detected repertoire of subclones 332 within each sputum sample (vertical rectangles coloured to illustrate the proportion of 333 detected subclones coded as for (i) in each sputum sample), reflecting either 334 temporal fluctuations in dominant sub-lineages or variable sampling of geographical 335 diversity of subclones within the lung (as previously described for P. aeruginosa 336 [37]). Previously determined opportunities for hospital-based cross-infection between 337 the two patients (using social network and epidemiologic analysis [17]), are shown in 338 grey vertical bars.

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Figure 4. Comparison of clinical outcomes and functional phenotyping of clustered and unclustered *M. abscessus* isolates.

342 (A, B). Relationship of phylogeny with clinical metadata. Phylogenetic tree of M. abscessus isolates (one isolate per patient) with dominant circulating clones M. a. 343 344 abscessus 1 (Absc 1), abscessus 2 (Absc 2), and M. a. massiliense (Mass 1) 345 highlighted (grey). For each isolate, clinical data (where available) was used to 346 determine whether (column 1) the infected patient fulfilled the ATS/IDSA criteria for 347 NTM pulmonary disease, namely the presence of two or more culture-positive 348 sputum samples with NTM-associated symptoms and radiological changes [1] (yes: 349 blue; no: orange); whether (column 2) isolates have acquired amikacin resistance 350 (through 16S rRNA mutations; red), macrolide resistance (through 23S rRNA 351 mutations; yellow), or both (orange- B only); and whether (column 3) patients culture 352 converted (green) or remained chronically infected (red) with M. abscessus. (C, D). 353 In vitro phenotyping of representative isolates of clustered (blue) and unclustered 354 (green) M. a. abscessus and clustered (red) and unclustered (yellow) M. a. massiliense comparing phagocytosis by (C) and intracellular survival (normalised for 355 356 uptake) within (D) differentiated THP1 cells. Data points represent averages of at

least three independent replicates. (**E**, **F**) Using SCID mice, infection with clustered *M. a. abscessus (blue)* and *M. a. massiliense (red)* led to (E) greater intracellular survival within (i) bone marrow-derived macrophages *in vitro* and (ii) higher bacterial burdens in lung and spleen after *in vivo* inoculation with 1 x 10⁷ bacilli per animal with (F) worse granulomatous lung inflammation (*arrowheads*), than unclustered controls (*M. a. abscessus green; M. a. massiliense yellow*), *scale bar x 4*. CFU data is shown as mean \pm *sem*; * *p* < 0.05; ** p < 0.005 (two-tailed unpaired Student's t-test).

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544 Supplementary Material

- 545 Materials and Methods
- 546 Supplementary References (38-58)
- 547 Figs. S1 to S12
- 548 Tables S1, S2

Figure 1



Figure 2 Α.











Clustered





M. a. massiliense Unclustered Clustered



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