

1 ***Phylogenetic population structure and drug resistance of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis****  
2 ***complex in the Volta Region of Ghana***

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33 **Abstract**

34 Context: Available molecular epidemiological data from recent studies suggest significant  
35 genetic variation between the different phylogenetic lineages of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*  
36 complex (MTBC ) and the MTBC lineages might have adapted to different human populations

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38 Aim: This study sought to determine the phylogenetic population structure of clinical MTBC  
39 isolates from the Volta Region of Ghana.

40 Methods: The MTBC isolates obtained from collected sputum samples were characterized by  
41 standard methods. Non-tuberculous mycobacterial isolates were characterized by amplification  
42 of the heat shock protein 65 (*hsp65*) gene and sequencing. The drug susceptibility profiles of the  
43 MTBCs determined using GenoType MTBDRplus

44 Results: One hundred and seventeen (117, 93.6%) out of 125 mycobacterial positive isolates  
45 were characterized as members of the MTBC of which *M. tuberculosis sensu stricto* (MTBss) and  
46 *M. africanum* (Maf) were respectively 94 (80.3%) and 23 (19.7%). In all, 39 distinct spoligotype  
47 patterns were obtained; 26 for MTBss and 13 for Maf lineages. Spoligotyping identified 89  
48 (76.04 %) Lineage 4, 16 (13.7 %) Lineage 5, 7 (6.0%) Lineage 6, 3 (2.6%) Lineage 2, 1(0.9%)  
49 Lineage 3 and 1 (0.9%) Lineage 1. Among the Lineage 4 isolates, 62/89 (69.7%) belonged to  
50 Cameroon sub-lineage, 13 (14.6%) Ghana, 8 (9.0%) Haarlem, 2 (2.2%) LAM, 1 (1.1%) Uganda I, 1  
51 (1.1%) X and the remaining two were orphan. Significant localization of Maf was found within  
52 the Ho municipality (n=13, 29.5%) compared to the more cosmopolitan Ketu-South/Aflao (n=3,  
53 8.3%) (p-value= 0.017). Eight (8) non-tuberculous mycobacteria were characterized as *M.*  
54 *abscessus* (7) and *M. fortuitum* (1)

55 Conclusion: We confirmed the importance of *M. africanum* lineages as a cause of TB in the Volta  
56 region of Ghana.

57 Key words: Phylogenetic, Tuberculosis, *Mycobacterium africanum*, *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*.

58

59 **Key Message:** The phylogenetic population structure obtained agrees with previously described  
60 prevalence of *M. tuberculosis* complex phylogenetic lineages from other regions of Ghana. It also  
61 confirms the stable prevalence of *M. africanum* as an important human TB causing pathogen in  
62 Ghana.

## 64 Introduction

65 Tuberculosis (TB) still remains an important global public health problem and continues to pose  
66 great burden on the healthcare systems of many developing countries especially in Sub-Saharan  
67 Africa (1). The worldwide emergence of multidrug-resistant strains and the increasing burden of  
68 HIV, TB is gradually becoming untreatable. In 2018, an estimated 10 million people contracted  
69 TB with 1.3 million TB-related deaths placing TB among the top ten causes of death worldwide  
70 (1). In Ghana, TB still poses a public health challenge; TB incidence rate is 148/100,000  
71 population per year, a is ranked the 19<sup>th</sup> most TB-burdened country in Africa by WHO (1). In  
72 2017, Ghana together with Angola, Democratic Republic of Congo, Ethiopia,, Kenya, Uganda,  
73 South Africa, constituted high TB-HIV burden countries in the Africa (1).

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75 *Mycobacterium tuberculosis sensu stricto* (MTBss) and *Mycobacterium africanum* (Maf) are the  
76 major pathogenic species of the *M. tuberculosis* complex (MTBC) in humans (2-3). There are 8  
77 phylogenetic lineages of the MTBC, Lineages 1 to 4,7 and 8 belonging to MTBss whereas L5 and  
78 L6 belonging to Maf. Improved genomic analysis disproves previous dogma of genomic  
79 homogeneity of these lineages but indicates that there are significant variation with functional  
80 implications. We now also know that these lineages exhibit a phylogeographical structure with  
81 specific lineages being associated with distinct geographical areas (4) suggesting potential host-  
82 pathogen interaction. This could influence the broad applicability of control tools such as  
83 diagnostics and vaccine (4).

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85 Maf is endemic only in West Africa causing up to 40% of TB in some West African settings. Maf is  
86 considered less virulent compared to other human TB causing pathogens (5-6) thus, expected to  
87 be outcompeted by the more virulent MTBss over time. (5). However, findings from recent  
88 studies still indicate significant presence of Maf within West Africa (6-8). One reason for the high  
89 prevalence of Maf might be due to the stable adaptation of this lineage to some human  
90 populations. Two independent molecular epidemiological studies from our group, found a  
91 strong association between Maf and an indigenous West African ethnic group (Ewe ethnicity)  
92 which was driven by Maf L5 (9-10). A follow up comparative genomics studies, found Maf  
93 lineages (L5 and L6) to be completely different pathogens (2). The genome of Maf L5 indicated a  
94 pathogen of limited host range compared to L6, which gave an indication of wide host range

95 (11). The Volta region is the traditional home of the Ewe ethnicity in Ghana; however, relative to  
96 the other regions of the country, to the best of our knowledge no study on the phylogenetic  
97 population structure of prevailing strains have been done (8,12). We characterized MTBC  
98 isolates obtained from patients attending specific health facility in the Volta region of Ghana to  
99 determine the circulating genotypes and drug resistance.

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## 126 **Subjects and methods**

### 127 **Study Design, Ethical Clearance and Case Recruitment**

128 This was a one-year cross-sectional study. All protocols used for this study were reviewed and  
129 approved by the Institutional Review Board of the Noguchi Memorial Institute for Medical  
130 Research with federal assurance number FWA00001824. Consent was sought from all  
131 participants but for minors under 18 years, consent was sought from their parents or legal  
132 guardians. The objectives of the study and procedures were explained carefully to all study  
133 participants before inclusion into the study. The procedure for sputum sample collection for  
134 routine diagnosis of TB in Ghana was followed. A structured questionnaire was used to obtain  
135 standard demographic and epidemiologic data on patients. Sputum specimens were collected  
136 from January 2016 to January 2017 from consented newly diagnosed smear-positive pulmonary  
137 TB patients before initiation of treatment. Collected samples were stored at 4°C and transported  
138 within 4 days to Noguchi Memorial Institute for Medical Research (NMIMR) for laboratory  
139 analysis.

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### 141 **Study Area and patients' characteristics**

142 The study was conducted in 12 public health facilities located in the Volta Region of Ghana  
143 which together reports more than 90% of all TB cases in Volta Region as indicated in **Figure 1**.  
144 Approximately 70% of the inhabitants of the study area are of the Ewe ethnicity (13) with main  
145 occupation being crop and fish farmers along the Volta Lake.

### 146 **Isolation of Mycobacterial Species from Sputa**

147 Sputum samples were decontaminated using the 5% oxalic acid decontamination method and  
148 inoculated on 4 Lowenstein–Jensen (L-J) media (2 L-J media supplemented with glycerol and 2  
149 with pyruvate) and incubated at 37 °C until macroscopic growth was observed as previously  
150 described (14). Direct smear microscopy was performed for confirmation of acid-fast bacilli  
151 (AFB) using Ziehl-Neelsen (ZN) staining.

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154 **Isolation of Genomic DNA**

155 A loop full of mycobacterial colonies confirmed as AFB growing at the log phase was suspended  
156 in 1 mL of sterile distilled water and inactivated by heating at 95°C for 1 hour to disrupt  
157 mycobacterial cell wall to release DNA into suspension. The resulting suspension was stored at -  
158 20°C and used for all downstream DNA-based assays.  
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160 **Genotyping of MTBC**

161 Mycobacteria isolates were confirmed as members of the MTBC by PCR amplification of the  
162 MTBC-specific insertion sequence 6110 (*IS6110*). All *IS6110* positive samples were genotyped by  
163 spoligotyping as previously described using primers DRa (5'-CCG AGA GGG GAC GGA AAC-3') and  
164 biotinylated Drb (5'-GGT TTT GGG TCT GAC GAC-3') (15). Bound fragments were revealed by  
165 chemiluminescence after incubation with horse- radish peroxidase-labeled streptavidin  
166 (Boehringer Mannheim). Shared types were defined as patterns common to at least two or  
167 more isolates. All patterns that could not be assigned were considered orphan spoligotypes. All  
168 *IS6110*-negative isolates were further characterized by PCR amplification and sequencing of the  
169 mycobacterial specific heat shock protein (*hsp*) 65 with the primers TB11: 5'-ACC AAC GAT GGT  
170 GTG TCC AT-3' and TB12: 5'-CTT GTC GAA CCG CAT ACC CT- 3'as previously described (15-16).

171 **Drug Susceptibility Testing by Line Probe Assay**

172 Confirmed MTBC isolates were screened for their susceptibility to isoniazid (INH) and rifampicin  
173 (RIF) using the GenoType MTBDR*plus* version 2.0 (Hain Lifesciences) according to the  
174 manufacturer's protocol (Hain Lifesciences, 2015). Drug resistance was expressed as the  
175 absence of wild-type band, presence of mutation band or both.  
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177 **Data Analysis**

178 Information from the structured questionnaire was entered into Microsoft excel and validated.  
179 Statistical analyses such as Chi-square and fisher's exact test were carried out using STATA SE 12  
180 with p-values of less than 0.05 at 95% confidence considered significant.

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183 **Results**

184 **Study Population**

185 From January 2016 to January 2017, 270 smear-positive TB cases were enrolled into the study.  
186 One hundred and twenty-five acid-fast bacilli positive were obtained; 8 of these (6.4%) were  
187 identified as non-tuberculous mycobacteria, and 2(1.6%) did not produce any results after  
188 repeated analysis and were thus excluded from further analysis. Hence, a total of 115 isolates  
189 were used for further analysis. As indicated in **Table 1**, age of patients ranged from 12 to 86  
190 years with a mean age of 44.8 years  $\pm$  14.9 years. Thirty-five (30.4%) of the cases were females  
191 and the remaining 80 (70.1%) being males. Majority of the participants 107 (93.0%) were mainly  
192 of the Ewe ethnicity. The main occupation were, traders 44/115(38.31%) and farmers 35/115  
193 (30.4%). All 115 TB patients consented to HIV testing, and sero-positivity was 3.5%.

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195 **Table 1: Characteristics of MTBC Positive participants**

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Gender (115)	Value (percentage)
Male	80 (69.6)
Female	35 (30.4)
<b>Age (115)</b>	
Mean $\pm$ SD	44.8 $\pm$ 14.9 years
Median (IQR)	43 (35 – 54) years
<b>Occupation (115)</b>	
Traders	42 (36.5)
Farmer	34 (29.6)
Artisans	9 (7.8)
Drivers	5 (4.3)
Students	4 (3.5)
Teacher	2 (1.7)
Hospital Orderlies	1 (0.9)
Unemployed	15 (13.0)
<b>Religion (115)</b>	
Christianity	107 (93.0)
Islam	4 (3.5)
Traditional	2 (1.7)
No Religion	2 (1.7)
<b>Ethnicity (115)</b>	
Ewe	107 (93.0)
Guan	3 (2.6)
Hausa	3 (2.6)
Akan	1 (0.9)
Fulani	1 (0.9)
<b>Nationality (115)</b>	
Ghanaians	112 (97.4)
Togolese	2 (1.7)
Malian	1 (0.9)
<b>HIV Status (115)</b>	
Negative	93 (80.9)
Positive	4 (3.5)
Not Done	18 (15.6)
<b>Previously Treated (115)</b>	
No	111 (96.5)
Yes	4 (3.5)

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198 **The Population Structure of the MTBC Isolates**

199 Based on spoligotyping, we identified six out of the seven human-associated MTBC lineages in  
 200 our study population (**Table 2**). Lineage distributions are L4 87 (75.7%) followed by L5 (17  
 201 (14.8%) and L6 7 (6.1%), L2 3 (2.6%), and 1(0.9%) each of L1 and L3. Among the 89 L4, 62/89



202 (69.7%) belonged to the Cameroon sub-lineage (mostly the spoligotype with shared  
 203 international type (SIT) number 61). In addition to the Cameroon family, four other sub-lineages  
 204 namely 13 (14.6%) Ghana, 8 (9.0%) Haarlem, 1 (1.1%) Uganda I, 2 (2.2%) LAM, 1 (1.1%) X and the  
 205 remaining two were orphan. Overall, we identified 39 distinct spoligotyping patterns among the  
 206 117 MTBC isolates analysed. Twenty-one unique patterns (singletons) and 18 clustered patterns  
 207 comprising of 96 isolates were also identified. The odds of an isolate belonging to a cluster were  
 208 higher among MTBss compared to Maf (OR= 4.39 CI= 1.56-12.35). Cameroon sub-lineage of  
 209 MTBss strain gave the largest cluster with 44 isolates sharing a spoligotype (SIT 61). In addition,  
 210 we identified 23 novel spoligotypes among our isolates compared to the SITVIT database( **Figure**  
 211 **2**).

212 **Table 2: Prevalence of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* complex lineages and sub-**  
 213 **lineages**

Species (N=115)	Lineages	Sub-Lineages	Number (%)
<b>MTBss (91, 79.1%)</b>	<b>Lineage 2</b>	Beijing	3 (2.6%)
	<b>Lineage 3</b>	Delhi/CAS	1 (0.9%)
	<b>Lineage 4 (87, 75.7%)</b>	Cameroon	64 (55.6%)
		Ghana	11 (9.6%)
		Haarlem	9 (7.8%)
		LAM	2 (1.7%)
		X	1 (0.9%)
<b>Maf (24, 20.9%)</b>	<b>Lineage 5</b>	West Africa I	17 (14.8%)
	<b>Lineage 6</b>	West Africa II	7 (6.1%)

## 214 **Spatial distribution of MTBC lineages and sub-lineages among MTBC Isolates**

215 The combined number of isolates analysed from the different geographical areas, together with  
216 identified species, lineages and sub-lineages are indicated in Figure 3. As expected MTBss  
217 dominated in all sites, and was the only lineage identified in Hohoe(n=14), Sogakofe(n=3) and  
218 Kpando (n=1). We found significant difference in inter-municipality comparisons. For instance,  
219 driven by Lineage 5, the proportions of Maf in Ho Municipality, 13/44 (29.6%) showed a  
220 significantly higher proportion (p-value = 0.017) than in Ketu-South Municipality (Aflao), 3/36  
221 (8.3%). **(figure 3)**

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## 223 **Prevalence of Drug Resistance among the MTBC isolates**

224 A total of 101 MTBC isolates were analyzed by GenoType<sup>®</sup> MTBDR*plus* version 2.0 following the  
225 manufacturer's instructions. We found 6 (5.9 %), 5 (4.9 %) and 2 (1.9 %) of the isolates to be INH  
226 mono-resistant, RIF mono-resistant and multidrug resistant (MDR) respectively (Table .  
227 Stratifying our dataset by genotypes, five (6.41%) of the MTBss isolates were found to be INH  
228 mono-resistant while only one (4.55%) Maf isolate was resistant to INH. All the RIF-mono  
229 resistant and the two MDR isolates were found to be MTBss. All two MDR isolates showed the  
230 MUT3 band for *rpoB* gene which corresponds to the SNP C1592U that resulted in the locus  
231 amino acid change, S531L. One of the MDR isolates in addition to the above had the MUT2B  
232 band which is associated with the locus amino acid change, H526D. None of the RIF-mono  
233 resistant isolates showed a mutation band but rather absence of wild-type bands. Majority of  
234 the RIF-mono resistant isolates had the *rpoB* wildtype band, WT1 absent, and its absence is  
235 associated with any of these loci amino acid changes, F505L, T508A or S509T. Similarly, an  
236 absence of *rpoB* wildtype band WT8 in three isolates corresponds with any of these loci amino  
237 acid changes, S531L, S531W or L533P. The isoniazid resistance among the MDRs was conferred  
238 by *KatG* mutant MUT1 that corresponds to the SNP U943A that resulted in the S315T locus  
239 amino acid change. The *KatG* mutation dominated in 4 MTBss isolates and was responsible for  
240 majority of INH resistance. However, *inhA* mutants MUT1 and MUT3B associated with the locus  
241 amino acid changes C15T, and T8A on the promoter region were also implicated in INH  
242 resistance as shown in **Table 3**

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247 **Table 3: Drug resistance profile of the human adapted MTBC isolates amongst TB**  
 248 **patients**

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Drugs Specie	INH		OR (CI)	p-value	RIF		OR (CI)	p-value	MDR
	Sensitive	Resistant			Sensitive	Resistant			
<b>MTBss (N=75)</b>	67 (89.3%)	8 (10.7%)	2.75 (0.33 – 127.06)	0.3350	68 (90.7%)	7 (9.3%)	2.37 (0.28 – 111.27)	0.4189	3 (4.0%)
<b>Maf (N=24)</b>	23 (95.8%)	1 (4.2%)			23 (95.8%)	1 (4.2%)			0 (0%)
<b>Combined (N=99)</b>	93 (93.9%)	6 (6.1%)			94 (94.9%)	5 (5.1%)			3 (3.0%)

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251 **Identified Nontuberculous Mycobacteria Species**

252 The 8 AFB positive isolates that were IS6110 negative were identified by *hsp65* gene sequencing  
 253 followed by NCBI Blast search. Seven of them as *M. abscessus* and the remaining one as *M.*  
 254 *fortuitum* .

## 256 Discussion

257 We sought to determine the population structure of MTBC isolates obtained from smear  
258 positive pulmonary patients attending public health facilities in the Volta Region. We found i)  
259 unique spatial distribution of 6 lineages of MTBC with Maf being responsible for 19.7% of cases  
260 ii) odds of (INH)-mono resistance, (RIF)-mono resistance and MDR higher for MTBss infection iii)  
261 NTMs were identified in 8 TB cases .

262 Previous studies in Ghana reported the prevalence of 6 human-adapted MTBC lineages in the  
263 Greater Accra, Central and the Northern regions of Ghana (10, 14). In this study we found these  
264 6 MTBC lineages also circulating in the Volta Region suggesting their establishment in Ghana.  
265 Comparing the proportion of Maf to the national prevalence of 20% we observed no significant  
266 difference ( $p$ -value = 0.951) indicating that the same proportion is circulating in the Volta Region  
267 (14), The approximately 20% Maf proportion has been found in previous studies to be fairly  
268 stable over an 8-year period (8).

269 MAF is an important cause of human TB in West Africa, causing about 50% of all TB cases  
270 reported in some West African countries. Past epidemiological surveys saw a dramatic drop of  
271 MAF numbers in several West African countries (17,18), suggesting a replacement by the more  
272 virulent MTBss However in sharp contrast, two recent studies from several regions in Nigeria  
273 (Abuja, Ibadan, Nnewi and Cross River State) estimated persistently high MAF prevalence  
274 between 14% and 33% and detected foci of recent transmission (19-22).

275 One possible reason for the stability of Maf in Ghana and West Africa irrespective of the  
276 observed lower virulence might be adaptation of this lineage to specific human populations.  
277 Recently, two independent molecular epidemiological studies conducted in Ghana found a  
278 strong association of Maf with the Ewe ethnicity (9-10). Since Volta region is the home of the  
279 Ewe ethnic group, we decided to assess the distribution of Maf within this region. Although we  
280 expected to find a greater proportion of Maf in the Volta region, more so when most of the  
281 participants were of Ewe ethnicity, interestingly we found significant difference in inter-  
282 municipality comparisons. For instance, driven by L5, the proportions of Maf in the Ewe  
283 dominated Ho Municipality, 13/44 (29.6%) showed a significantly higher proportion than in  
284 Ketu-South Municipality (Aflao), 3/36 (8.3%) ( $p$ -value = 0.017) (Table 5. The significantly lower  
285 prevalence of Maf in the Ketu-South Municipality may be due to the diverse human populations  
286 as a result of travelers and migrants present at every point in time crossing the border to and  
287 from the Republic of Togo. This observation of significant association of Maf with the Ewes could

288 be an indication of a possible predisposing factor among this human population to Maf  
289 infection.

290 Drug resistance remains a great threat to the fight against pulmonary TB. Using proportional  
291 method, Asante-Poku et al., (2015) (10) and Homolka et al., (2010) (12) recorded high INH mono  
292 resistance. Other studies have reported high level INH resistance (40-95%) to be associated with  
293 75-90% katG position S315T mutation (23;24). Using Line probe assay, our study observed 40%  
294 high level INH resistance that was associated with only 57.14% katG position S315T mutation.  
295 Our finding was consistent with findings by Otchere et al., (2016) (25), which showed that the  
296 human adapted strain MTBss compared to Maf has a relatively greater risk of possessing this  
297 position S315T mutation in katG ( $p < 0.001$ ). Riccardi et al., (2009) (26), associated RIF resistance  
298 with the rpoB gene mutations which cluster mainly in the codon region of 507-533. Although  
299 inconsistent with the mutation in rpoB S450L reported by Otchere et al., (2016)(25), our findings  
300 showed rpoB gene mutation distribution of 37.5% S531L and 12.5% H526D. The amino acid  
301 change from polar serine to non-polar leucine at position 531 and from basic histidine to  
302 aspartic acid at position 526 may have contributed to conformational change in protein  
303 structure. This may have subsequently prevented proper binding of the drug RIF to the  $\beta$ -  
304 subunit of the DNA dependent RNA polymerase leading to drug resistance.

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306 Differential diagnosis of MTBCs and Non-tuberculous mycobacteria (NTMs) is very crucial for the  
307 appropriate treatment regimen to be administered (27-29). While the standard treatment  
308 regimen for MTBC infection takes 6 months, NTMs therapy however takes between 18-24  
309 months with different drug regimen based on thorough drug susceptibility testing as the NTMs  
310 are naturally resistant to majority of anti-TB drugs (27). In this study, NTMs were isolated from  
311 6.4% of patients presumptively diagnosed with TB using the NTP diagnostic algorithm. This was  
312 higher than 2.5% observed by Otchere et al., (30), but consistent with studies by Bertoletti et al.,  
313 (2011) (31). The NTMs isolated, *Mycobacterium abscessus*, and *M. fortuitum* are known to be  
314 fast growing mycobacteria that can cause pulmonary infections in both immunocompetent and  
315 immunocompromised individuals. The challenge is, microscopy, which is used for TB diagnosis in  
316 the periphery medical laboratories, lacks specificity and is unable to distinguish between MTBCs  
317 and NTMs. These observations support the need to pay critical attention to differential diagnosis  
318 of pulmonary infectious mycobacteria, most especially in the rolling out of DNA-based

319 diagnostics especially among cases that do not sputum convert after two months of anti-TB  
320 treatment to allow appropriate management of such cases.

321 In conclusion, our study confirms the importance of Maf in Ghana and highlight the need to  
322 incorporate Maf studies into development of TB control tools

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326 participants of the various health facilities for their time and cooperation during the  
327 study period.

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447 **List of Figure legend:**

448 **Figure 1:** Study location and 12 health facilities selected. ADH: Akatsi District Hospital, AGH:  
449 Adidome Government Hospital, CCH: Comboni Catholic Hospital, HoMH: Ho Municipal Hospital,  
450 Hohoe-MH: Hohoe Municipal Hospital, Keta-MH: Keta Municipal Hospital, Ketu-SMH: Ketu South  
451 Municipal Hospital, MMCH: Margret Marquardt Catholic Hospital, VRH: Volta Regional Hospital,  
452 STH: South Tongu Hospital, THC: Tsito Health Center, PGH: Peki Government Hospital  
453

454 **Figure 2:** Phylogenetic relationship of identified 33 spoligotype profiles. Tree was plotted using  
455 the MIRU-VNTRplus web application available at <https://www.miru-vntrplus.org/>.

456  
457 **Figure 3:** Geospatial distribution of the two human adapted MTBC species; *M. tuberculosis sensu*  
458 *stricto* (MTBss) and *M. africanum* (MAF). Figure was generated in ArcGIS.  
459

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467 Contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools: DYM. writing—original draft preparation,  
468 SA, AAP, DYM ; writing—review and editing, SA, PA, IDO, SYA, SOW, DYM, AAP; project  
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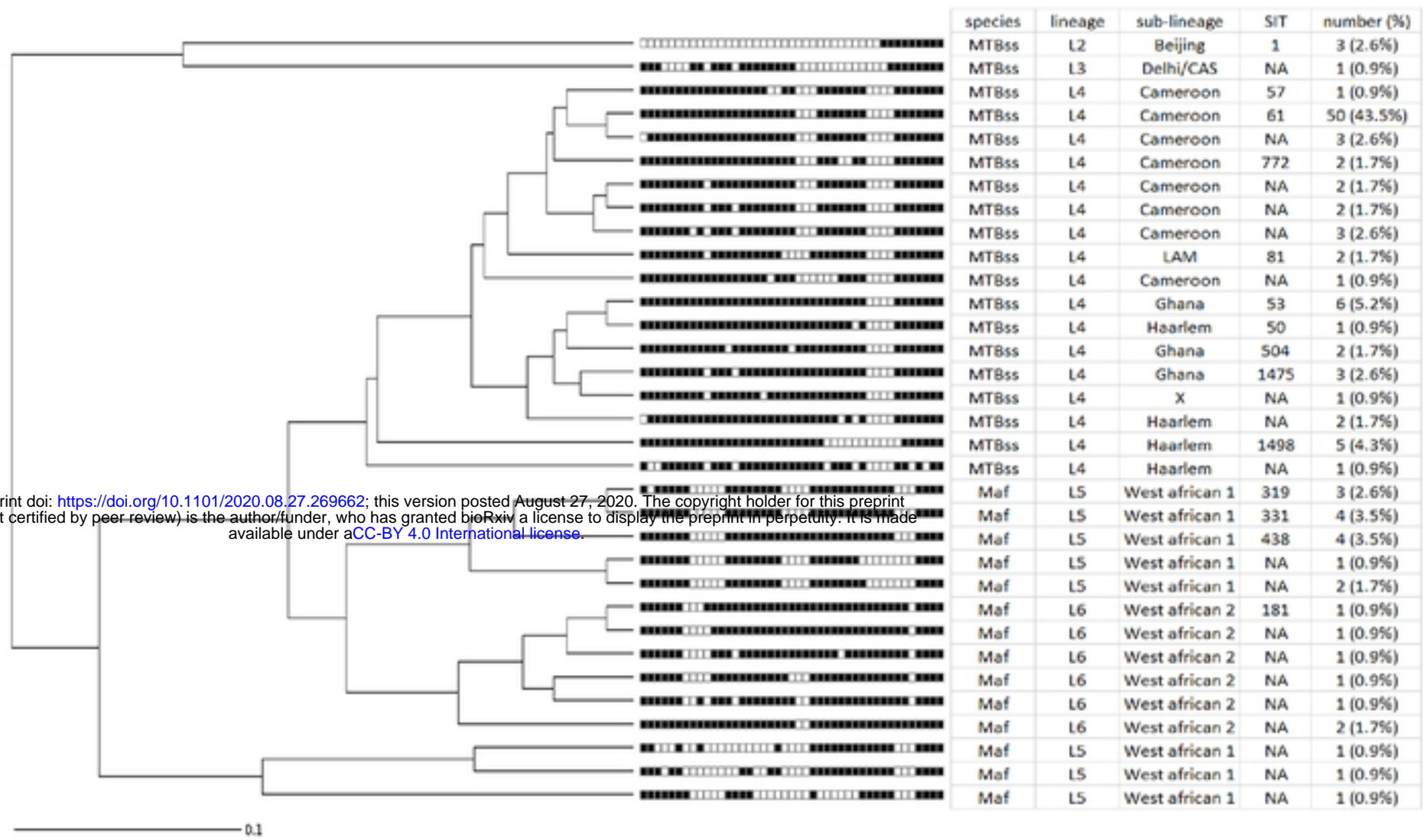
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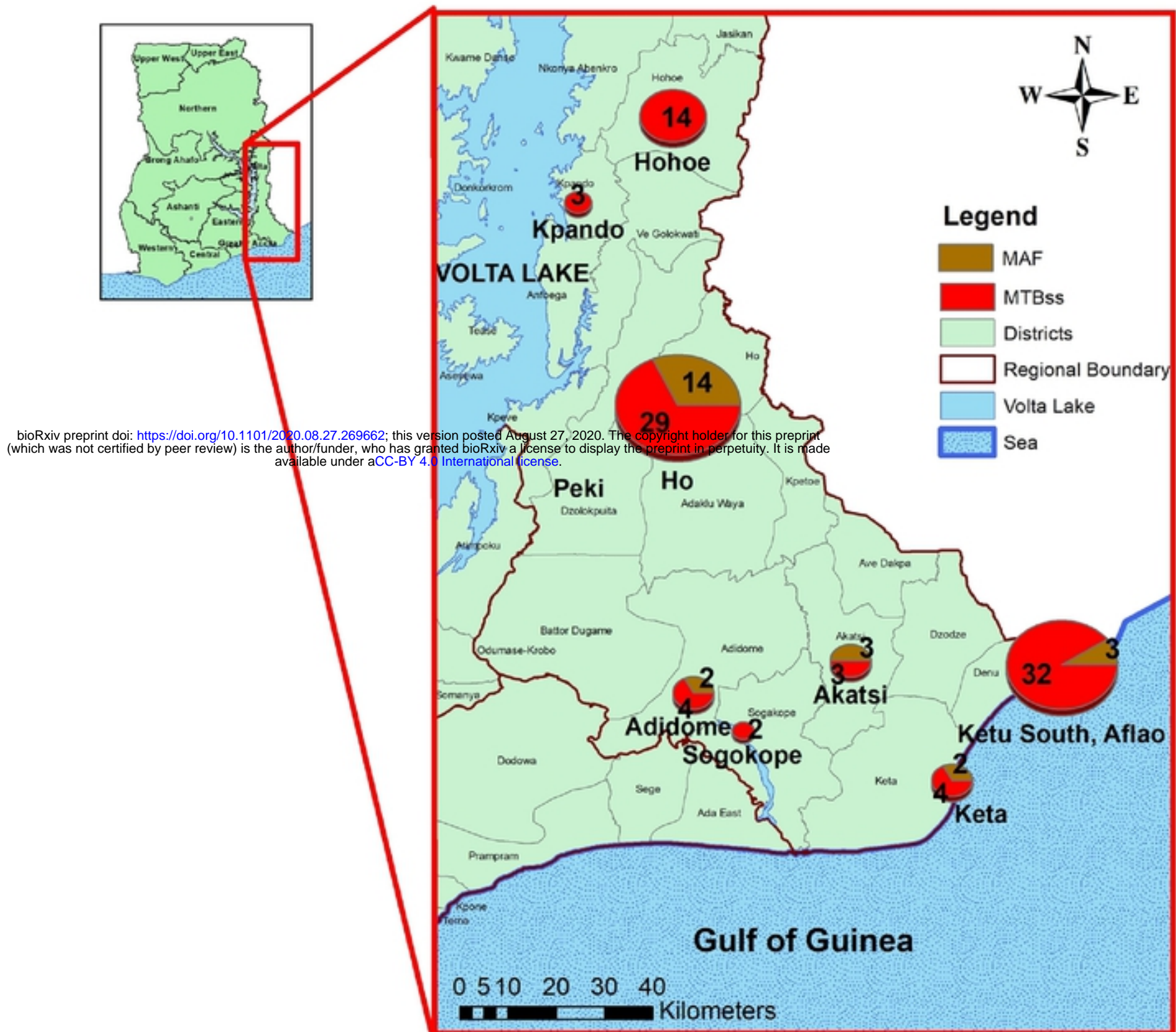


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