Flanker: a tool for comparative genomics of gene flanking regions

William Matlock[1]*, Samuel Lipworth[1,2]*, Bede Constantinides[1,3], Timothy E.A. Peto[1,2,3,4], A. Sarah Walker[1,3,4], Derrick Crook[1,2,3,4], Susan Hopkins[5], Liam P. Shaw[6]^ and Nicole Stoesser[1,2,3]^

* Joint first authors

^ Joint senior authors

[1] Nuffield Department of Medicine, University of Oxford, UK

[2] Oxford University Hospitals NHS Foundation Trust, Oxford, UK

[3] NIHR Health Protection Research Unit in Healthcare Associated Infections and Antimicrobial Resistance at University of Oxford in partnership with Public Health England, Oxford, United Kingdom

[4] NIHR Oxford Biomedical Research Centre, Oxford, UK

[5] National Infection Service, Public Health England, Colindale, London, UK

[6] Department of Zoology, University of Oxford, UK

Corresponding author: william.matlock@ndm.ox.ac.uk

Keywords: mobile genetic elements (MGEs); plasmids; whole genome sequencing; bioinformatics, antimicrobial resistance (AMR)

Abstract

Analysing the flanking sequences surrounding genes of interest is often highly relevant to

understanding the role of mobile genetic elements (MGEs) in horizontal gene transfer,

particular for antimicrobial resistance genes. Here, we present Flanker, a Python package

which performs alignment-free clustering of gene flanking sequences in a consistent format,

allowing investigation of MGEs without prior knowledge of their structure. Flanker clusters

flanking sequences based on Mash distances, allowing for easy comparison of similarity and the

extent of this similarity across sequences. Additionally, Flanker can be flexibly parameterised to

finetune outputs by characterising upstream and downstream regions separately and

investigating variable lengths of flanking sequence. We apply Flanker to two recent datasets

describing plasmid-associated carriage of important carbapenemase genes (bla_{OXA-48} and bla_{KPC-}

$_{2/3}$) and show that it successfully identifies distinct clusters of flanking sequences (flank

patterns), including both known and previously uncharacterised structural variants. We

demonstrate that flank patterns are linked to geographical regions and carbapenem

phenotypes, suggesting they may be useful as epidemiological markers. Flanker is freely

available under an MIT license at https://github.com/wtmatlock/flanker.

Data Summary

NCBI accession numbers for all sequencing data used in this study is provided in Supplementary

Table 1. The analysis performed in this manuscript can be reproduced in a binder environment

provided on the Flanker Github page (https://github.com/wtmatlock/flanker).

Introduction

The increasing incidence antimicrobial resistance (AMR) in clinical isolates poses a threat to all areas

of medicine [1–3]. AMR genes (ARGs) are found in a diverse range of genetic contexts, bacterial

species, and in both clinical and non-clinical environments (e.g., agricultural, refuse and natural

ecosystems) [4–7]. However, the mechanisms underpinning the dissemination of many ARGs

between these reservoirs remain poorly understood, limiting the efficacy of surveillance and the

ability to design effective interventions. Usually, ARGs are spread vertically (either via chromosomal

integration or stable association of a plasmid within a clonal lineage) or by horizontal gene transfer

(HGT) through mobile genetic elements (MGEs) e.g., transposons or plasmids. HGT can accelerate

the rate of ARG acquisition, both within and across species.

The epidemiology of ARGs can therefore involve multiple levels, from clonal spread to MGEs. There

are many existing software tools to facilitate epidemiological study of bacterial strains [8–12], whole

plasmids [13, 14], and smaller MGEs[15, 16]. Several tools and databases exist for the annotation of

non-plasmid MGEs such as insertion sequences (ISs) and transposons [15, 16], but all rely on

comparisons to reference sequences, so are limited to known diversity. Reference-free tools for

analysing MGE diversity would therefore be a useful addition. Here we describe a Flanker, a simple,

reference-free tool to investigate MGEs by analysing the flanking sequences of ARGs.

The flanking sequences (hereafter, 'flanks') around an ARG that has been mobilised horizontally may

act as signatures of relevant MGEs and support epidemiological analyses. However, these flanks can

contain a great deal of structural variation due to their evolutionary history. Where a single known

MGE is under investigation, it is possible to specifically type this element (for example, using

TETyper [15]) or align flanks against a known ancestral form after the removal of later structural

variation [17]. However, often multiple structures may be involved. This is particularly true for ARGs

which move frequently on a variety of MGEs. Studies of different ARGs often choose different *ad*

hoc approaches to extract flanks and cluster genetic structures. Examples include hierarchical

clustering of isolates carrying an ARG based on short-read coverage of known ARG-carrying contigs

[18], assigning assembled contigs into 'clustering groups' based on gene presence and synteny [19] or

iterative 'splitting' of flanks based on pairwise BLAST [20]. A consistent and simple approach for this

task would not only avoid repeated method development, but also aid comparison between methods

developed for specific ARGs.

To address this problem, we developed Flanker, a pipeline to analyse the regions around a given ARG

in a consistent manner. Flanker flexibly extracts the flanks of a specified gene from a dataset of

contigs, then clusters these sequences using Mash distances to identify consistent structures [21].

Flanker is available as a documented Python and Bioconda package released under the MIT open-

source license. Source code is deposited at https://github.com/wtmatlock/flanker and documentation

at https://flanker.readthedocs.io/en/latest/.

Methods

<u>Datasets</u>

To validate Flanker, demonstrate its application and provide a comparison with existing tools, we

used two recent datasets of complete plasmids (derived from hybrid long-/short-read assemblies)

containing carbapenemase genes of clinical importance [19, 24]. The first dataset comprised 51

bla_{OXA-48}-harbouring plasmids in carbapenem-resistant *E. coli* and *K. pneumoniae* isolates from

patients in the Netherlands (2014-2019) [26]; the second dataset comprised 50 bla_{KPC-2} or bla_{KPC-3}-

harbouring plasmids in carbapenem-resistant *K. pneumoniae* isolated as part of the EuSCAPE study

[23], a European surveillance programme investigating carbapenem resistance in Enterobacterales.

The EuSCAPE dataset [19, 25] additionally contains a large collection of short-read sequencing data

for *Klebsiella* spp. isolates alongside meropenem susceptibility data. This was used to demonstrate

additional possible epidemiological applications of the Flanker tool by evaluating whether specific

flank patterns were more likely to be associated with phenotypic meropenem resistance.

<u>Mash distances</u>

Pair-wise distances between flanks were calculated using Mash (version 2.2.2) [21]. Mash reduces

sequences to a fixed-length MinHash sketch, which is used to estimate the Jaccard distance between

k-mer content. It also gives the Mash distance, which ranges from 0 (~identical sequences) to 1

(~completely dissimilar sequences). We used the default Mash parameters in all analyses. The Mash

distance was developed to approximate the rate of sequence mutation between genomes under a

simple evolutionary model, and explicitly does not model more complex processes. We use it here for

fast alignment-free clustering of sequences and do not draw any direct conclusions about evolution

from pairwise comparisons.

Clustering

To cluster the flanks, Flanker generates an adjacency matrix weighted by Mash distances. It then

thresholds this matrix to retain edges weighted less than or equal to the defined threshold. This is then

used to construct a graph using the Python NetworkX library [26] and clusters are defined using the

nx.connected_components function, which is analogous to single linkage. This is a similar

methodology to that used by the Assembly De-replicator tool [27] (from which Flanker re-uses

several functions). However, Flanker aims to assign all flanks to a cluster rather than to deduplicate

by cluster.

Cluster validation

We validated the output of flanking sequence-based clustering was validated using a PERMANOVA

test, implemented with the adonis function from the Vegan package (version 2.7.5) [28] in R. Only

flanks in clusters of at least two members were considered (42/51 and 48/50 of bla_{OXA-48} and $bla_{KPC-2/3}$

flanks, respectively). The formula used was Mash dist ~ cluster, with the 'euclidean' method and 999

permutations.

Comparison to existing methods/application

We compared the classifications of TETyper (v1.1) [15] and MEFinder (v1.0.3) [16] to those

produced by Flanker for 500bp and 5000bp flanks around $bla_{KPC-2/3}$ genes. TETyper was run using the

–threads 8 and --assemblies options with the Tn*4401* reference and SNP/structural profiles provided

in the package and MEFinder was run in Abricate using the –mincov 10 option. For comparisons of

the proportions of resistant isolates per flank pattern (denoted FPx), isolates were classified as

resistant or sensitive using the European Committee on Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing

(EUCAST) breakpoint for meropenem (>8mg/L) [29].

Data visualisation

All figures were made in using Biorender (https://biorender.com) and the R packages ggplot2

(v3.3.0) [30], gggenes (v0.4.0) [31] and ggtree (v2.4.1) [32] Prokka (v1.14.6) [33] was used to

annotate Flanker output. Mashtree (v1.2.0) [34] was used to construct a visual representation of Mash

distances between whole plasmid genomes. Plasmidfinder was used to detect the presence/absence of

plasmid types using Abricate (version 1.0

1) with --mincov 80 and --minid 80 [35].

Results

Flanker

The Flanker package contains two basic modules: the first extracts a region of length w around an

annotated gene of interest, and the second clusters such regions based on a user-defined Mash

distance threshold (default --threshold 0.001, Fig. 1a). Within each FASTA/multi-FASTA format

input file, the location of the gene of interest is first determined using the Abricate annotation tool

[22]. Flanks around the gene (optionally including the gene itself to enable complete alignments with

--include_gene) are then extracted and written to a FASTA format file using BioPython [23]. Flanker

gives users the option to either extract flanks using a single window (defined by length in base-pairs

[bp]) or multiple windows from a start position (--window) to an end position (--wstop) in fixed

increments (--wstep). Flanks may be extracted from upstream, downstream or on both sides of the

gene of interest (--flanks). Corrections are also made for circularised genomes where the gene occurs

close to the beginning or end of the sequence (--cluster mode) and for genes found on both positive

and negative strands. The clustering module groups flanks of user-defined sequence lengths together

based on a user-defined Mash [21] distance threshold (--threshold) of user-defined sequence lengths.

In default mode (--mode default), Flanker considers multiple gene queries in turn. In multi-allelic

mode (--mode mm), Flanker considers all genes in the list for each window (Fig. 1b). Multiple genes

can be queried by either a space-delimited list in the command line (--gene geneA geneB), or a

newline-delimited file with the list of genes option (--list_of_genes). A supplementary module 'salami

mode' (--mode sm) is provided to allow comparison of non-contiguous blocks from a start point (--

window), step size (--wstep) and end point (--wstop) (Fig. 1c).

<u>Clustering validation and comparison with TETyper/MEFinder</u>

The clustering mode was validated numerically with a PERMANOVA test (Mash dist ~ cluster:

bla_{OXA-48} p-value < 0.001, $bla_{KPC2/3}$ p-value < 0.001; see Methods). Figures 2 and 3 also provide a

visual comparison of an alignment of genes ('Alignment' panel) to the cluster labels (i.e., flank

pattern).

Of the two existing tools we compared in evaluating the flanks around $bla_{KPC2/3}$, TETyper was by far

the slowest (1172 seconds [s]), whereas MEFinder (run in Abricate) and Flanker took 7s and 11s,

respectively (benchmarked on 5000bp upstream flanks on a cluster with Intel Skylake 2.6GHz chips).

MEFinder was able to detect Tn*4401* but could not provide any further structural resolution and was

unable to classify 6/50 (12%) 500bp and 1/50 (2%) 5000bp flanks. TETyper structural profiles were

consistent with Flanker when analysing 500 and 5000bp upstream regions, though Flanker split a

group of six isolates with the TETyper structural profile 1-7127|7202-10006 into four groups (Table

S2). To map our FPs to the established nomenclature, we additionally compared the output of Flanker

to that of TETyper when the latter was given the entire Tn*4401* sequence (i.e., by evaluating the

typical 7,200bp Tn*4401*-associated flank upstream of blaKPC). Flanker and TETyper classifications

of Tn*4401* regions were broadly consistent (Table S2), though this analysis demonstrated the potential

benefit of the reference-free approach of Flanker which showed that four non-Tn*4401* structural

profiles ('unknown' in TETyper) were distinct from each other. In addition, TETyper classified 3

flanks as Tn*4401*_truncC-1, whereas Flanker resolved this cluster into two distinct groups (Table S2).

<u>Application to plasmids carrying bla_{OXA-48}</u>

The carbapenemase gene bla_{OXA-48} has been shown to be disseminated by Tn*1999*-associated

structures (~5kb) nested in L/M-type plasmids, and as part of an IS1R-associated composite

transposon containing bla_{OXA-48} and part of Tn*1999*, namely Tn*6237* (~21.9kb), that has been

implicated in the chromosomal integration of bla_{OXA-48} [25, 36]. It has been recently demonstrated that

most bla_{OXA-48}-like genes in clinical isolates in Europe are carried on highly similar L/M(pOXA-48)-

type plasmids, with evidence of both horizontal and vertical transmission across a diverse set of

sequence types [19]. Whilst Tn*1999*-like flanking regions are relatively well characterised [37], in this

example we chose an initial arbitrary upstream window of 5000bp to simulate a scenario in which

there is no prior knowledge. Inspection of a plot of window clusters (i.e., as shown in the

'Flankergram' in Fig. 2) demonstrates that Flanker output allows the empirical identification of the

position ~2200bp upstream of bla_{OXA-48} as an important point of structural divergence without

requiring annotation (as shown at ~2200 along the *x*-axis, where the window cluster colour schemes

diverge), corresponding to the edge of Tn*1999* at its expected position.

Flanker grouped flanks into seven distinct flank patterns (FPs) in the 5000bp sequence upstream of

bla_{OXA-48} in isolates carrying L/M(pOXA-48)-type plasmids (Fig. 2). To investigate the association of

phenotypic carbapenem resistance with bla_{OXA-48} FPs, we created a Mash sketch using one randomly

chosen representative per group and screened an Illumina sequenced collection of European

carbapenemase-resistant *Klebsiella* isolates[25] for containment (n=425). Mash screen, assigning FP

based on the top hit [median identity = 1.00; range: 0.93-1.00]). Two FPs (FP3 and FP7) accounted

for 394/425 (93%) of isolates; both were widely distributed across Europe. Of the 226 isolates with

meropenem susceptibility data available, those belonging to FP7 were proportionally more

meropenem-resistant compared to FP3 (72/142 (51%) vs. 16/73 (22%), exact *p*-value<0.001 (Fig S1).

Annotation (using Gallileo AMR; see methods) of these revealed that whereas FP3 contains Tn*1999,*

FP7 contains Tn*1999.2*, which has been previously described as creating a strong promoter which

produces 2-fold higher enzymatic activity [38].

Application to plasmids carrying $bla_{KPC-2/3}$

David et al. showed that $bla_{KPC-2/3}$ genes have been disseminated in European *Klebsiella pneumoniae*

clinical isolates via a diverse collection of plasmids in association with a dominant clonal lineage,

ST258/512, which accounted for 230/312 (74%) of bla_{KPC}-associated isolates in the EuSCAPE

collection [19]. bla_{KPC} has largely been associated with variants of a ~10kb transposon, Tn*4401*[38,

39]. From the collection of 50 hybrid assembled KPC-containing plasmids, Flanker grouped 8 distinct

FPs over a 7200bp window upstream of $bla_{KPC-2/3}$ (Fig. 3). This window length was chosen to capture

the entire Tn*4401* sequence upstream of bla_{KPC}. Of the FPs, 346/442 (78%) belonged to FP1

(corresponding to isoform Tn*4401*a). Whilst FP1 was widely distributed across Europe, FPs 2

(corresponding to Tn*4401*_truncC) and FP7 (corresponding to Tn*4401*d) appeared more

geographically restricted: FP2 to Slovakia (5/5, 100%) and FP7 to Israel (19/59, 32%) and Portugal

(34/59, 58%) with isolates also found in Poland and Germany (n=2 each) and Italy and Austria (n=1).

There was no evidence of a difference in the proportion of isolates resistant to meropenem between

FP1 and FP7 (202/238 (85%) vs 23/25 (92%), exact *p*-value=0.5), though there was incomplete

susceptibility data for isolates from both groups (108/346 [31%] for FP1 and 38/63 [60%] for FP7).

Discussion

We present Flanker, a fast and flexible Python package for analysing gene flanking sequences. We

anticipate that this kind of analysis will become more common as the number of complete reference-

grade, bacterial assemblies increase. Our analysis of data from the EuSCAPE project demonstrated

Flanker's ability to reproduce existing knowledge and suggests that flank patterns (FPs) might

additionally be useful epidemiological markers, for example in evaluating geographical associations

of sequences or associations with resistance phenotypes.

A key advantage compared to existing tools is that there is no reliance on reference sequences or prior

knowledge. Despite analysing only a relatively small number (n=50) of complete bla_{KPC} containing

plasmids, there were four distinct FPs which TETyper classified as 'unknown' because their profiles

were not in previously known structural profiles. TETyper works well when alleles/structural variants

are known but can only classify a single transposon type at a time and requires manual curation when

this is not the case. The observed diversity of flanking sequences is likely to continue to increase and

manual curation of naming schemes will be arduous to maintain. MEFinder on the other hand is a

quick screening tool which can search a large library of known mobile elements but lacks sequence

level resolution. Whilst Flanker overcomes these challenges, users may need to perform downstream

analysis to interpret its output. We hope that Flanker will be complementary to these and other similar

existing tools by reducing the dimensionality of large datasets and identifying smaller groups of

sequences to focus on in detail. Though we have developed Flanker for ARGs, Abricate allows use of

custom databases meaning any desired genes of interest could be analysed. Accurate outputs from

Flanker will be dependent on the quality of input assemblies, and on the correct annotation of the gene

of interest.

In summary, we present Flanker, a tool for comparative genomics of gene flanking regions which

integrates several existing tools (Abricate, Biopython, NetworkX) in a convenient package with a

simple command-line interface.

Authors and contributors

Contributions have been attributed by the CRediT system as follows:

Conceptualisation: WM, SL, LPS, NS

Methodology: WM, SL

Software: WM, SL, BC

Validation: WM, SL

Formal Analysis: WM, SL

Investigation: WM, SL

Resources: DWC, TP, ASW, NS

Data Curation: SL, WM

Writing - Original Draft Preparation: SL, WM, LPS, NS

Writing - Review and Editing: SL, WM, LS, BC, NS, DC, TP, ASW

Visualisation: SL, WM

Supervision: LPS, NS, TP, ASW, DC

Project Administration: SL, WM, NS, LPS

Funding: TP, DC, ASW, NS

Data availability

Accessions for the plasmid sequences, and MEFinder and TETyper outputs are provided in Table S1.

Conflicts of Interest

The authors have no conflicts of interest.

Funding Information

WM is supported by a scholarship from the Medical Research Foundation National PhD Training

Programme in Antimicrobial Resistance Research (MRF-145-0004-TPG-AVISO). SL is an MRC

Clinical Research Training Fellow (MR/T001151/1). LPS is a Sir Henry Wellcome Postdoctoral

Fellow (220422/Z/20/Z). ASW and TP are NIHR Senior Investigators. The computational aspects of

this research were funded from the NIHR Oxford BRC with additional support from the Wellcome

Trust Core Award Grant Number 203141/Z/16/Z. The views expressed are those of the author(s) and

not necessarily those of the NHS, the NIHR or the Department of Health. The research was supported

by the National Institute for Health Research (NIHR) Health Protection Research Unit in Healthcare

Associated Infections and Antimicrobial Resistance (NIHR200915) at the University of Oxford in

partnership with Public Health England (PHE) and by Oxford NIHR Biomedical Research Centre.

Acknowledgements

The authors thank the EuSCAPE and Dutch CPE surveillance groups for making their data publicly

available.

Figure Descriptions

Figure 1: Schematic of Flanker's modes and parameters. (a) Flanker uses Abricate to annotate the

gene of interest in input sequences and outputs associated flanking sequences, optionally clustering

these on a user defined Mash distance threshold. It can take linear or circularised sequences. (b) In

this example, genes bla_{KPC-2} and bla_{KPC-3} have been queried (-g blaKPC-2 blaKPC-3), and only the

upstream flank is desired (-f upstream). The top single black arrow represents choosing a single

window of length 3000bp (-w 3000), whereas the bottom three black arrows represent stepping in

1000bp windows from 0bp to 3000bp (-w 0 –wstep 1000 -wstop 3000). The default mode (-m default)

processes all annotated alleles separately, but the multi-allelic mode (-m mm) processes all alleles

together. (c) Flanker has a supplementary salami mode (-m sm), which outputs non-contiguous blocks

of sequence with a start point, step size, and end point (-w 0 -wstep 1000 -wstop 3000), represented

by the three black arrows.

Figure 2: Flanking regions 5000bp upstream of bla_{OXA-48} carrying plasmids from *Klebsiella*

***pneumoniae* isolates.** The 'Tree' panel is a Neighbour-Joining tree constructed from Mash distances

between complete sequences of plasmids carrying the bla_{OXA-48} gene. The second panel indicates the

presence/absence of a L/M(pOXA-48)-type plasmid. The 'Alignment' panel schematically represents

coding regions in the 5000bp sequence upstream of the bla_{OXA-48} gene, which is shown in red. Other

genes are coloured according to the flank pattern which considers the overall pattern of all 100bp

window clusters up to 2200bp (the approximate upstream limit of Tn*1999*). The "Flankergram" shows

window clusters of all groups over each 100bp window between 0 and 5000bp. The 'MLST' panel

shows *K. pneumoniae* multi-locus sequence types (MLSTs), with those occurring once labelled

'other'.

Figure 3: Flanking regions 7200bp upstream of $bla_{KPC-2/3}$ carrying plasmids from *Klebsiella*

***pneumoniae* isolates.** The 'Tree' panel is a Neighbour-Joining tree constructed from Mash distances

between complete sequences of plasmids carrying the $bla_{KPC-2/3}$ gene. The next three panels indicate

the presence/absence of FIB(pQ1I)-, FII(pKP91)-, and FIB(Kpn3)-type plasmids. The 'Gene' column

indicates which bla_{KPC} allele (2 or 3) is present. The 'Alignment' panel schematically represents

coding regions in the 7200bp sequence region upstream of the $bla_{KPC-2/3}$ gene, which is shown in red.

Other genes are coloured according to the flank group, which here takes into account the overall

pattern of all 100bp window groups (shown in the "Flankergram" panel) over the full 7200bp region

upstream of $bla_{KPC-2/3}$. The "Flankergram" shows window clusters over each 100bp window between

0 and 7200bp. The 'MLST' panels shows *K. pneumoniae* MLSTs, with those occurring once labelled

'other'.

Bibliography

1.   **Lipworth S, Vihta K-D, Chau K, Barker L, George S, *et al.*** Molecular epidemiology of

307   Escherichia coli and Klebsiella species bloodstream infections in Oxfordshire (UK) 2008-2018.

308   *medRxiv*.

309   2.   **Vihta K-D, Stoesser N, Llewelyn MJ, Quan TP, Davies T, *et al.*** Trends over time in

310   Escherichia coli bloodstream infections, urinary tract infections, and antibiotic susceptibilities in

311   Oxfordshire, UK, 1998–2016: a study of electronic health records. *Lancet Infect Dis*

312   2018;18:1138–1149.

313   3.   **Buetti N, Atkinson A, Marschall J, Kronenberg A, the Swiss Centre for Antibiotic**

314   **Resistance (ANRESIS)**. Incidence of bloodstream infections: a nationwide surveillance of acute

315   care hospitals in Switzerland 2008–2014. *BMJ Open* 2017;7:e013665.

316   4.   **Thanner S, Drissner D, Walsh F**. Antimicrobial Resistance in Agriculture. *MBio*

317   2016;7:e02227-15.

318   5.   **Wyres KL, Holt KE**. Klebsiella pneumoniae as a key trafficker of drug resistance genes from

319   environmental to clinically important bacteria. *Curr Opin Microbiol* 2018;45:131–139.

320   6.   **Collis RM, Burgess SA, Biggs PJ, Midwinter AC, French NP, *et al.*** Extended-Spectrum Beta-

321   Lactamase-Producing Enterobacteriaceae in Dairy Farm Environments: A New Zealand

322   Perspective. *Foodborne Pathog Dis* 2019;16:5–22.

323   7.   **Velasova M, Smith RP, Lemma F, Horton RA, Duggett NA, *et al.*** Detection of extended-

324   spectrum β-lactam, AmpC and carbapenem resistance in Enterobacteriaceae in beef cattle in

325   Great Britain in 2015. *J Appl Microbiol* 2019;126:1081–1095.

326   8.   **Inouye M, Dashnow H, Raven L-A, Schultz MB, Pope BJ, *et al.*** SRST2: Rapid genomic

327   surveillance for public health and hospital microbiology labs. *Genome Med* 2014;6:90.

9.   **Seemann T**. *mlst*. Github. https://github.com/tseemann/mlst (accessed July 12, 2019).

10. **Lam MMC, Wick RR, Wyres KL, Holt KE**. Genomic surveillance framework and global

population structure for Klebsiella pneumoniae. *Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory*

2020;2020.12.14.422303.

11. **Beghain J, Bridier-Nahmias A, Le Nagard H, Denamur E, Clermont O**. ClermonTyping: an

easy-to-use and accurate in silico method for Escherichia genus strain phylotyping. *Microb*

Genom;4. Epub ahead of print July 2018. DOI: 10.1099/mgen.0.000192.

12. **Lees JA, Harris SR, Tonkin-Hill G, Gladstone RA, Lo SW, *et al.*** Fast and flexible bacterial

genomic epidemiology with PopPUNK. *Genome Res* 2019;29:304–316.

13. **Robertson J, Nash JHE**. MOB-suite: software tools for clustering, reconstruction and typing of

plasmids from draft assemblies. *Microb Genom*;4. Epub ahead of print August 2018. DOI:

10.1099/mgen.0.000206.

14. **Acman M, van Dorp L, Santini JM, Balloux F**. Large-scale network analysis captures

biological features of bacterial plasmids. *Nat Commun* 2020;11:2452.

15. **Sheppard AE, Stoesser N, German-Mesner I, Vegesana K, Sarah Walker A, *et al.*** TETyper:

a bioinformatic pipeline for classifying variation and genetic contexts of transposable elements

from short-read whole-genome sequencing data. *Microb Genom*;4. Epub ahead of print

December 2018. DOI: 10.1099/mgen.0.000232.

16. **Johansson MHK, Bortolaia V, Tansirichaiya S, Aarestrup FM, Roberts AP, *et al.*** Detection

of mobile genetic elements associated with antibiotic resistance in Salmonella enterica using a

newly developed web tool: MobileElementFinder. *J Antimicrob Chemother* 2021;76:101–109.

17. **Wang R, van Dorp L, Shaw LP, Bradley P, Wang Q, *et al.*** The global distribution and spread

of the mobilized colistin resistance gene mcr-1. *Nat Commun* 2018;9:1179.

18. **Ludden C, Raven KE, Jamrozy D, Gouliouris T, Blane B, *et al.*** One Health Genomic

Surveillance of Escherichia coli Demonstrates Distinct Lineages and Mobile Genetic Elements in

Isolates from Humans versus Livestock. *MBio*;10. Epub ahead of print January 22, 2019. DOI:

10.1128/mBio.02693-18.

19. **David S, Cohen V, Reuter S, Sheppard AE, Giani T,** *et al.* Integrated chromosomal and

plasmid sequence analyses reveal diverse modes of carbapenemase gene spread among

Klebsiella pneumoniae. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. Epub ahead of print September 23, 2020.

DOI: 10.1073/pnas.2003407117.

20. **Acman M, Wang R, van Dorp L, Shaw LP, Wang Q,** *et al.* Role of the mobilome in the global

dissemination of the carbapenem resistance gene blaNDM. *Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory*

2021;2021.01.14.426698.

21. **Ondov BD, Treangen TJ, Melsted P, Mallonee AB, Bergman NH,** *et al.* Mash: fast genome

and metagenome distance estimation using MinHash. *Genome Biol* 2016;17:132.

22. **Seemann T**. *abricate*. Github. https://github.com/tseemann/abricate (accessed July 5, 2019).

23. **Cock PJA, Antao T, Chang JT, Chapman BA, Cox CJ,** *et al.* Biopython: freely available

Python tools for computational molecular biology and bioinformatics. *Bioinformatics*

2009;25:1422–1423.

24. **Hendrickx APA, Landman F, de Haan A, Borst D, Witteveen S,** *et al.* blaOXA-48-like

genome architecture among carbapenemase-producing Escherichia coli and Klebsiella

pneumoniae in the Netherlands. *Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory* 2020;2020.12.18.423568.

25. **David S, Reuter S, Harris SR, Glasner C, Feltwell T,** *et al.* Epidemic of carbapenem-resistant

Klebsiella pneumoniae in Europe is driven by nosocomial spread. *Nat Microbiol* 2019;4:1919–

1929.

26. **Hagberg A, Swart P, S Chult D**. *Exploring network structure, dynamics, and function using*

NetworkX. Los Alamos National Lab.(LANL), Los Alamos, NM (United States).

https://www.osti.gov/biblio/960616 (2008).

27. **Wick R**. *Assembly-Dereplicator*. Github. https://github.com/rrwick/Assembly-Dereplicator

(accessed February 2, 2021).

28. **Oksanen J, Blanchet FG, Friendly M, Kindt R, Legendre P,** *et al.* vegan: Community

Ecology Package. https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=vegan (2019).

29. **EUCAST**. European Committee on Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing.

https://www.eucast.org/fileadmin/src/media/PDFs/EUCAST_files/Breakpoint_tables/v_10.0_Bre

akpoint_Tables.pdf.

30. **Wickham H**. ggplot2: Elegant Graphics for Data Analysis. https://ggplot2.tidyverse.org (2016).

31. **Wilkins D**. gggenes: Draw Gene Arrow Maps in "ggplot2." https://CRAN.R-

project.org/package=gggenes (2019).

32. **Yu G, Smith DK, Zhu H, Guan Y, Lam TT**. Ggtree : An r package for visualization and

annotation of phylogenetic trees with their covariates and other associated data. *Methods Ecol*

Evol 2017;8:28–36.

33. **Seemann T**. Prokka: rapid prokaryotic genome annotation. *Bioinformatics* 2014;30:2068–2069.

34. **Katz L, Griswold T, Morrison S, Caravas J, Zhang S,** *et al.* Mashtree: a rapid comparison of

whole genome sequence files. *J Open Source Softw* 2019;4:1762.

35. **Carattoli A, Zankari E, García-Fernández A, Voldby Larsen M, Lund O,** *et al.* In silico

detection and typing of plasmids using PlasmidFinder and plasmid multilocus sequence typing.

Antimicrob Agents Chemother 2014;58:3895–3903.

36. **Beyrouthy R, Robin F, Delmas J, Gibold L, Dalmasso G,** *et al.* IS1R-mediated plasticity of

IncL/M plasmids leads to the insertion of bla OXA-48 into the Escherichia coli Chromosome.

Antimicrob Agents Chemother 2014;58:3785–3790.

37. **Pitout JDD, Peirano G, Kock MM, Strydom K-A, Matsumura Y**. The Global Ascendency of

OXA-48-Type Carbapenemases. *Clin Microbiol Rev*;33. Epub ahead of print December 18,

2019. DOI: 10.1128/CMR.00102-19.

38. **Chen L, Mathema B, Chavda KD, DeLeo FR, Bonomo RA,** *et al.* Carbapenemase-producing

Klebsiella pneumoniae: molecular and genetic decoding. *Trends Microbiol* 2014;22:686–696.

39. **Cuzon G, Naas T, Nordmann P**. Functional characterization of Tn4401, a Tn3-based

transposon involved in blaKPC gene mobilization. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 2011;55:5370–

5373.