

1 *In silico* analyses of penicillin binding proteins in *Burkholderia pseudomallei*
2 uncovers SNPs with utility for phylogeography, species differentiation, and
3 sequence typing
4

5 Heather P. McLaughlin^{1*}, Christopher A. Gulvik², and David Sue¹
6
7

8 ¹ Biodefense Research and Development Laboratory, Division of Preparedness and Emerging Infections,
9 National Center for Emerging and Zoonotic Infectious Diseases, Centers for Disease Control and
10 Prevention, Atlanta, GA, USA
11

12 ² Zoonoses and Select Agent Laboratory, Division of High-Consequence Pathogens and Pathology,
13 National Center for Emerging and Zoonotic Infectious Diseases, Centers for Disease Control and
14 Prevention, Atlanta, GA, USA
15
16
17
18

19 *Corresponding author:

20 Heather P. McLaughlin

21 Email: yfq4@cdc.gov
22
23
24
25
26
27

28 **Short Title:** Penicillin binding proteins and *Burkholderia pseudomallei*

29

30 **Abstract**

31 **Background.**

32 *Burkholderia pseudomallei* causes melioidosis. Sequence typing this pathogen can reveal geographical
33 origin and uncover epidemiological associations. Here, we describe *B. pseudomallei* genes encoding
34 putative penicillin binding proteins (PBPs) and investigate their utility for determining phylogeography
35 and differentiating closely related species.

36 **Methodology & Principal Findings.**

37 We performed *in silico* analysis to characterize 10 PBP homologs in *B. pseudomallei* 1026b. As PBP
38 active site mutations can confer β -lactam resistance in Gram-negative bacteria, PBP sequences in two
39 resistant *B. pseudomallei* strains were examined for similar alterations. Sequence alignments revealed
40 single amino acid polymorphisms (SAAPs) unique to the multidrug resistant strain Bp1651 in the
41 transpeptidase domains of two PBPs, but not directly within the active sites. Using BLASTn analyses of
42 complete assembled genomes in the NCBI database, we determined genes encoding PBPs were
43 conserved among *B. pseudomallei* (n=101) and *Burkholderia mallei* (n=26) strains. Within these genes,
44 single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) useful for predicting geographic origin of *B. pseudomallei*
45 were uncovered. SNPs unique to *B. mallei* were also identified. Based on 11 SNPs identified in two
46 genes encoding predicted PBP-3s, a dual-locus sequence typing (DLST) scheme was developed. The
47 robustness of this typing scheme was assessed using 1,523 RefSeq genomes from *B. pseudomallei*
48 (n=1,442) and *B. mallei* (n=81) strains, resulting in 32 sequence types (STs). Compared to multi-locus
49 sequence typing (MLST), the DLST scheme demonstrated less resolution to support the continental
50 separation of Australian *B. pseudomallei* strains. However, several STs were unique to strains
51 originating from a specific country or region. The phylogeography of Western Hemisphere *B.*

52 *pseudomallei* strains was more highly resolved by DLST compared to internal transcribed spacer (ITS)
53 typing, and all *B. mallei* strains formed a single ST.

54 **Significance.**

55 Conserved genes encoding PBPs in *B. pseudomallei* are useful for strain typing, can enhance predictions
56 of geographic origin, and differentiate strains of closely related *Burkholderia* species.

57

58 **Author Summary**

59 *Burkholderia pseudomallei* causes the life-threatening disease melioidosis and is considered a biological
60 threat and select agent by the United States government. This soil-dwelling bacterium is commonly
61 found in regions of southeast Asia and northern Australia, but it is also detected in other tropical and
62 sub-tropical areas around the world. With a predicted global burden of 165,000 annual cases and
63 mortality rate that can exceed 40% without prompt and appropriate antibiotic treatment, understanding
64 the epidemiology of melioidosis and mechanisms of antibiotic resistance in *B. pseudomallei* can benefit
65 public health and safety. Recently, we identified ten conserved genes encoding putative penicillin
66 binding proteins (PBPs) in *B. pseudomallei*. Here, we examined *B. pseudomallei* PBP sequences for
67 amino acid mutations that may contribute to β -lactam resistance. We also uncovered nucleotide
68 mutations with utility to predict the geographical origin of *B. pseudomallei* strains and to differentiate
69 closely related *Burkholderia* species. Based on 11 informative single nucleotide polymorphisms in two
70 genes each encoding a PBP-3, we developed a simple, targeted dual-locus typing approach.

71

72

73

74 **Introduction**

75 Meloidosis is an emerging but neglected infectious disease caused by the environmental Gram-
76 negative bacterium *Burkholderia pseudomallei*. This soil- and surface water-dwelling microorganism is
77 commonly found in tropical and subtropical regions of Southeast Asia and northern Australia, but also
78 reported in other regions of the Western Hemisphere (WH) [1, 2]. In August 2021, the US Centers for
79 Disease Control and Prevention issued a Health Alert describing a multistate (GA, KS, MN, TX)
80 investigation of non-travel associated melioidosis in four patients [3]. Naturally-acquired melioidosis
81 infections can occur in humans and a wide range of other animals as a result of percutaneous
82 inoculation, inhalation, or ingestion of *B. pseudomallei* [4]. In 2016, a global modeling study predicted
83 that ~165,000 human melioidosis cases occur annually, and an estimated 89,000 result in death [1].
84 Infrequent laboratory diagnosis and clinical recognition due to unfamiliarity with the disease and the
85 intrinsic resistance of *B. pseudomallei* to numerous antibiotics can cause delays in treatment leading to
86 poor patient outcomes and mortality rates of up to 50% [5, 6]. *B. pseudomallei* is also among a small
87 group of high-consequence pathogens and toxins regulated in the US in which their misuse could pose a
88 serious threat to public health and safety [7].

89 Clinically relevant β -lactams used to treat human melioidosis include the cephalosporin
90 ceftazidime, the carbapenems meropenem and imipenem, and the β -lactam/ β -lactam inhibitor
91 combination drug amoxicillin-clavulanic acid [8]. Mechanisms of resistance to these antibiotics have
92 been described in *B. pseudomallei* and involve inactivation of β -lactams as well as modification of β -
93 lactam targets. Mutations in *penA*, or its promoter region that results in overexpression of a β -
94 lactamase, confers resistance to ceftazidime, imipenem, and amoxicillin-clavulanic acid [9-11]. For
95 instance, *B. pseudomallei* isolated from a melioidosis patient in Thailand who succumbed to infection,
96 developed resistance *in vivo* during ceftazidime treatment due to a PenA mutation (Pro167Ser) [12].
97 Acquired resistance to ceftazidime was also reported due to a reversible gene duplication and

98 amplification event of the genomic region containing *penA* [13]. Understanding and rapidly identifying
99 the mechanisms that contribute to β -lactam resistance in *B. pseudomallei* could inform treatment
100 strategies and improve melioidosis patient outcomes.

101 Penicillin binding proteins (PBPs) are involved in the final stages of cell wall peptidoglycan
102 synthesis and are conserved among bacteria, with several usually found per species. These proteins
103 determine bacterial cell shape by regulating the localization, timing, and architecture of peptidoglycan
104 polymerization [14]. PBPs are also well-known targets for β -lactams. The covalent binding of a β -
105 lactam antibiotic to the catalytic serine residue at the PBP active site inactivates protein function
106 resulting in inhibition of cell wall synthesis and cell lysis [15, 16]. In bacteria such as *Salmonella*
107 *enterica*, *Streptococcus pneumoniae*, and *Helicobacter pylori*, mutations in PBPs within or near
108 conserved active site motifs can result in β -lactam antibiotic resistance by reducing antibiotic binding
109 affinity [17-19]. Chantratita *et al.* demonstrated the loss of PBP-3 in *B. pseudomallei* resulted in
110 ceftazidime resistance [20]. Except for PBP-3, very little is known about PBPs in *B. pseudomallei*.
111 Recently, our group used an *in silico* approach to identify a suite of genes encoding 10 putative PBPs in
112 the *B. pseudomallei* genome [21].

113 Sequence variations within stable genetic markers in *B. pseudomallei* can be used for: species
114 identification, differentiation of closely related species, characterization of isolates, and also
115 phylogenetic and epidemiological investigations. *Burkholderia mallei* is considered a host-adapted
116 deletion clone of *B. pseudomallei*. As the genes retained by *B. mallei* share ~99.5% nucleotide identity
117 to corresponding homologs in *B. pseudomallei* [22], the accurate differentiation of these species using
118 molecular-based laboratory tools is difficult but valuable for clinical applications. For example, 16S
119 rRNA gene sequencing rapidly identifies *B. pseudomallei* based on a single nucleotide difference that
120 can reliably discriminate it from *B. mallei* [23]. Polymorphisms within the 16S-23S ribosomal DNA
121 internal transcribed spacer (ITS) have been used to investigate phylogenetic relationships within *B.*

122 *pseudomallei* and among near-neighbor species [24]. ITS types C, E and CE represented the most
123 endemic *B. pseudomallei* isolates and all isolates of the relative species *B. thailandensis* possessed ITS
124 type A. The ITS allele of *B. mallei* appears monomorphic since all strains were found to have ITS type
125 C [24]. A multi-locus sequence typing (MLST) scheme was also developed for *B. pseudomallei* and
126 closely related species. This molecular typing method is based on sequence variations within seven
127 conserved, housekeeping genes on chromosome I, the larger of its two replicons. MLST demonstrated
128 utility for epidemiological studies and confirmed that *B. mallei* is a clone of *B. pseudomallei*, while the
129 species *Burkholderia thailandensis* is distinct [25].

130 Despite having a highly recombinant genome, a strong geographic signal is encoded within *B.*
131 *pseudomallei* and phylogeographic reconstruction of this population is possible [26]. Several factors
132 have led to distinct Asian and Australasian *B. pseudomallei* populations that undergo regional evolution.
133 These factors include the primary mode of transmission (via direct contact with contaminated
134 environments), extremely rare human-to-human transmission, and substantial geographic barriers that
135 restrict gene flow between populations [26]. While a large-scale comparative genomics approach is
136 essential to determine fine-scale population structure and to confirm the true geographic origin of *B.*
137 *pseudomallei* isolates [27-30], lower resolution typing methods such as ITS and MLST are useful tools
138 for linking melioidosis cases to particular regions. Of the five ITS types exclusive to *B. pseudomallei*,
139 type G was rare in Australia and Southeast Asia, and based on a small number of strains, this type was
140 overrepresented for isolates originating from Africa and the Americas [24]. Testing of additional
141 Western Hemisphere strains confirmed ITS type G was predominant and supported the original
142 hypothesis that a genetic bottle neck took place during dispersal of *B. pseudomallei* to geographic
143 locations outside endemic regions [24, 31]. MLST can be used to define geographical segregation of *B.*
144 *pseudomallei* by continent and provides a clear distinction between populations originating from

145 Australia and Thailand [32, 33]. However, occasional examples of ST homoplasmy have been reported
146 for isolates from different continents that are not actually related [34].

147 Despite the heavy disease burden and high mortality rate associated with melioidosis, even with
148 aggressive antibiotic treatment [35], melioidosis is not included on the World Health Organization list of
149 neglected tropical diseases and global strategies to address prevention and control are still needed. As
150 the signs and symptoms of melioidosis frequently mimic other diseases, clinical or laboratory diagnosis
151 can be challenging. Prompt diagnosis of this disease as well as timely treatment with appropriate
152 antibiotics are crucial for positive patient outcomes. The genomes of *B. pseudomallei*, *B. mallei*, and *B.*
153 *thailandensis* submitted by scientists from across the world to public databases could reveal important
154 markers useful for speciation, predicting antibiotic resistance, phylogeny, or geographic origin.

155 Here, we utilized an *in silico* approach to characterize PBPs in *B. pseudomallei* and determined
156 their conservation among *B. pseudomallei* isolates as well as closely related species, *B. mallei* and *B.*
157 *thailandensis*. We also analyzed *B. pseudomallei* PBP sequences for i) amino acid mutations that may
158 confer resistance to β -lactam antibiotics, ii) single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) with utility for
159 species differentiation, and iii) SNPs to infer phylogeographic origins.

160

161 **Methods**

162 ***In silico* characterization of PBP homologs in *B. pseudomallei* 1026b.** Ten PBP homologs were
163 identified in *B. pseudomallei* 1026b (Table 1) using the UniProtKB database (<https://www.uniprot.org/>).
164 Conserved protein domains were predicted using the Pfam database (<http://pfam.xfam.org/>) and
165 theoretical molecular weight was calculated using ExpASY (https://web.expasy.org/compute_pi/).
166 NCBI's Protein BLAST was utilized to find the nearest PBP homologs in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*
167 PAO1 (taxid:208964) and *Escherichia coli* K-12 (taxid:83333). The nearest homologs produced the

168 most significant alignments to *B. pseudomallei* 1026b PBPs with the lowest Expect (E)-value (NCBI,
 169 [36]). Geneious (v.11.1.4) was used to analyze PBP sequences and identify putative enzyme active sites
 170 (SXXK, SXN, and KS/TG).

171

172 **Table 1.** PBP homologs in *B. pseudomallei* 1026b.

PBP	Class	Gene	Length (AA)	Theoretical MW (kDa)	Conserved domains (TD AA start position)	Putative active sites: SXXK, SXN, KS/TG (AA position)	Nearest homolog in: <i>P. aeruginosa</i> PAO1	
							<i>E. coli</i> K-12	
							Protein (Gene)	% Identity
PBP-1A	HMM (A)	I3403 (<i>mrcA</i>)	797	87.14	Transglycosylase PCB OB Transpeptidase (443)	SSFK (481) SRN (541) KTG (671)	PBP-1A (<i>ponA</i>)	44.0
							PBP-1A (<i>mrcA</i>)	38.1
PBP-1A	HMM (A)	II297	840	90.88	Transglycosylase PCB OB Transpeptidase (475)	SSFK (513) SKN(572) KTG(703)	PBP-1A (<i>ponA</i>)	43.7
							PBP-1A (<i>mrcA</i>)	39.7
PBP-1A/B	HMM (A)	II2482	858	92.40	Transglycosylase Transpeptidase (424)	STFK (462) SRN (520) KTG (648)	PBP-1B (<i>mrcB</i>)	29.2
							PBP-1A (<i>mrcA</i>)	31.8
PBP-1A/B	HMM (A)	II0265	713	76.00	Transglycosylase Transpeptidase (345)	SSFK (383) SKN (443) KTG (569)	PBP-1B (<i>mrcB</i>)	33.7
							PBP-1A (<i>mrcA</i>)	44.4
PBP-1C	HMM (A)	II0898	906	95.30	Transglycosylase Transpeptidase (408) PBP-C	STLK (447) SLN (505) KTG (698)	--	--
							PBP-1C (<i>pbpC</i>)	37.2
PBP-2	HMM (B)	I3332 (<i>mrDA</i>)	803	85.66	PBP dimer Transpeptidase (283)	STYK (342) KTG (559)	PBP-2 (<i>pbpA</i>)	43.9
							PBP-2 (<i>mrDA</i>)	39.8
PBP-3 (1)	HMM (B)	I0276 (<i>ftsI</i>)	614	66.36	PBP dimer Transpeptidase (260)	SIMK (307) SSN (361) KSG (498)	PBP-3 (<i>ftsI</i>)	40.7
							PBP-3 (<i>ftsI</i>)	40.8
PBP-3 (2)	HMM (B)	III292 (<i>ftsI</i>)	594	63.64	PBP dimer Transpeptidase (259)	STIK (306) SSN (360) KTG (501)	PBP-3 (<i>ftsI</i>)	42.3
							PBP-3 (<i>ftsI</i>)	37.6
PBP-3 (3)	HMM (B)	III314	563	59.97	PBP dimer Transpeptidase (255)	STLK (303) SSN (357) KTG (491)	PBP-3 (<i>ftsI</i>)	39.1
							PBP-3 (<i>ftsI</i>)	36.0

PBP-6	LMM	I3098	437	46.57	Peptidase S11 (70) PBP5-C	SLTK (107) SGN (169) KTG (271)	PBP-5/6 (<i>dacC</i>) PBP-6 (<i>dacC</i>)	45.5 42.0
-------	-----	-------	-----	-------	------------------------------	--------------------------------------	--	--------------

173 Penicillin binding proteins (PBPs) were identified in *B. pseudomallei* 1026b using the UniProtKB
174 database. Theoretical molecular weight (MW) values were predicted using ExPASy. Conserved
175 domains and start locations of transpeptidase domains (TD) were predicted using Pfam. PBPs are
176 classified as high molecular mass (HMM) or low molecular mass (LMM) based on MW, conserved
177 domains, and nearest homologs in *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 and *E. coli* K-12. The nearest homologs have
178 the most significant alignment to *B. pseudomallei* 1026b PBPs with the lowest Expect (E)-value (NCBI).
179 Putative PBP enzyme active sites were identified and are located within the predicted transpeptidase or
180 peptidase domains. (--) indicates no known PBP homolog in *P. aeruginosa* PAO1.

181

182 **Identification of PBP homologs in genomes of an initial set of *Burkholderia* strains.** The nucleotide
183 sequences for the 10 genes encoding PBPs in *B. pseudomallei* 1026b were used as queries for BLASTn
184 analysis. The search set included organisms *B. pseudomallei* (taxid:28450), *B. mallei* (taxid:13373) and
185 *B. thailandensis* (taxid:57975). Default algorithm parameters were selected, with the exception of “max
186 target sequences” which was set to 5,000. This initial set of 144 complete, assembled genomes,
187 including 101 *B. pseudomallei*, 26 *B. mallei*, and 17 *B. thailandensis*, was examined to identify
188 corresponding PBP homologs. These strains, along with their origin, epidemiological information, and
189 NCBI accession numbers, are listed in **Table S1**. Strain typing (MLST, ITS and whole-genome SNP
190 typing) and phylogeography of *B. pseudomallei* from the Western Hemisphere was previously
191 performed and reported by Gee *et. al* [37].

192 **Analysis of SAAPs in PBP transpeptidase domains.** The Pfam database was used to predict the
193 transpeptidase domain (TD) location within each of the 10 PBP homologs in the *B. pseudomallei* 1026b
194 reference strain. Gene sequences obtained from each BLASTn result for 101 *B. pseudomallei* strains
195 were aligned, mapped to the reference strain, translated, and analyzed for single amino acid
196 polymorphisms (SAAPs) within the predicted TDs using Geneious (v11.1.4). The amino acid position
197 of SAAPs and the location of the putative enzyme active sites identified within the TDs are based on

198 sequence alignment to the 1026b reference strain. The Protein Variation Effect Analyzer (PROVEAN)
199 tool (v1.1) [38] was used to predict whether a SAAP affects protein function based on a generated
200 PROVEAN score. A SAAP is predicted to have a ‘deleterious’ effect if the PROVEAN score is \leq the
201 predefined threshold of -2.5. A SAAP is predicted to have a ‘neutral’ effect if the score is greater than -
202 2.5.

203 **Identification and selection of SNPs for the DLST scheme.** The nucleotide sequences of *B.*
204 *pseudomallei* 1026b genes *I0276* and *III314*, encoding PBP-3 (1) and PBP-3 (3), were used as queries
205 for NCBI’s BLASTn analysis. Gene sequences obtained from BLASTn results for the initial set of 144
206 *Burkholderia* strains were aligned, mapped to the reference strain, *B. pseudomallei* 1026b, and analyzed
207 for SNPs using Geneious (v11.1.4). Nine SNPs with utility to predict the geographic origin of *B.*
208 *pseudomallei*, plus two SNPs useful for differentiating *Burkholderia* species (*B. pseudomallei*, *B. mallei*,
209 and *B. thailandensis*) were identified and selected for DLST. The nucleotide positions described for the
210 11 DLST SNPs are based on alignment to the 1026b reference strain.

211 **DLST performance for an expansive set of genomes.** All RefSeq genomes of *B. pseudomallei*
212 (n=1525) and *B. mallei* (n=83) were collected from NCBI on Oct. 28th, 2019. All *B. mallei* assemblies
213 (n=83) and *B. pseudomallei* assemblies (n=1446) with geographic information deposited in the NCBI
214 BioSample database were evaluated for the presence of genes *I0276* and *III314* with BLASTn v2.9.0+,
215 using *B. pseudomallei* 1026b as a reference for each sequence. For both genes, the best alignment for
216 each assembly, based on bitscore, was evaluated. A multiple record FastA file (GNU Awk, v4.1.4) was
217 generated using aligned sequences saved from each BLASTn result. Both gene sequence sets were
218 aligned using MUSCLE (v3.8.1551) [39] and visualized in ClustalX [40] to confirm the accuracy of the
219 alignments. Of the 1446 *B. pseudomallei III314* sequences, 1442 shared >98% nucleotide identity to
220 the 1026b reference strain and were included in the final number of assemblies evaluated in this study.
221 The four remaining sequences in the *III314* alignment (*B. pseudomallei* strains 3001161896, A193, BP-

222 6260, and BURK081) contained excessive SNPs and gaps, and were excluded based on poor alignment
223 and low nucleotide identity (67%). *I0276* sequences required no further filtering. The BioPython
224 (v1.70) [41] library was used to extract nucleotide data at the 11 positions from both multiple record
225 FastA files and SeqKit (v0.11.0) concatenated the two gene loci for subsequent DLST analysis. The
226 discriminatory power (D) of the DLST scheme was calculated using the calculator
227 (http://insilico.ehu.es/mini_tools/discriminatory_power/), where D is expressed by the formula of
228 Simpson's index of diversity [42].

229 **Compilation of figures.** Illustrations of the DLST SNP locations in *B. pseudomallei* 1026b and the
230 DLST SNP-based phylogeographic tree for the initial set of *B. pseudomallei* and *B. mallei* strains (**Fig. 1**
231 **and 2**) were generated in Microsoft PowerPoint® for Microsoft 365 MSO (16.0.13801.20840) 64-bit.
232 The more expansive phylogeographic tree (**Fig. 3**), including 1442 *B. pseudomallei* strains resulting in
233 31 DLSTs, was generated using MPBoot (v1.1.0) [43]. The tree was visualized using the iTol
234 webserver [44] and pie charts were created with the ggplot2 (v3.2.1) library in R (v3.4.4), then edited
235 using InkScape (v0.92.4).

236

237 **Results/Discussion**

238 ***In silico* characterization of predicted PBPs in *B. pseudomallei* 1026b.**

239 Bacterial species have distinctive suites of PBPs and variation exists in the number and redundancy of
240 PBP homologs [45]. Four PBPs are encoded in the *H. pylori* genome, whereas eight and 12 PBPs have
241 been identified in *P. aeruginosa* and *E. coli*, respectively [46-48]. Using the UniProtKB database, we
242 previously identified 10 genes encoding putative PBPs in the *B. pseudomallei* reference strain 1026b
243 [21]. Based on theoretical molecular weight (MW), conserved domains, and the nearest homologs in *P.*
244 *aeruginosa* and *E. coli*, *B. pseudomallei* PBPs were classified as high molecular mass (HMM) or low

245 molecular mass (LMM) (**Table 1**). Five HMM, Class-A PBP-1 homologs were identified in *B.*
246 *pseudomallei* 1026b, each containing a transglycosylase and transpeptidase conserved domain. These
247 proteins range from 713 to 906 amino acids in length with MWs of 95.3 to 76.0 kDa. The MWs of PBP-
248 1 proteins for numerous Gram-negative species have been reported, ranging from 77 to 118 kDa [45].
249 Both genes encoding PBP-1A homologs (*I3403* and *I1297*) are located on chromosome 1 of the *B.*
250 *pseudomallei* 1026b genome and share 38.1 to 44.0 % identity to PBP-1As in *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 and
251 *E. coli* K-12, respectively. The predicted PBP-1C, encoded by *I10898* on chromosome 2, was the largest
252 HMM, Class-A protein, and shared 37.2 % identity with PBP-1C in *E. coli* K-12.

253 Four HMM, Class-B PBP homologs (one PBP-2 and three PBP-3s) were also identified in *B.*
254 *pseudomallei* 1026b, each containing a transpeptidase conserved domain. The largest of the four, PBP-
255 2, encoded by *I3332* on chromosome 1, was 803 amino acids in length and had a MW of 85.66 kDa.
256 The MWs calculated for the three PBP-3 homologs in *B. pseudomallei* 1026b, encoded by genes *I0276*,
257 *III292* and *III314*, ranged from 59.97 to 66.36 kDa and are comparable to 66 kDa reported previously
258 for PBP-3 in *E. coli* [45]. Protein BLAST analyses revealed *B. pseudomallei* Class-B PBPs share 36.0
259 to 43.9% identity with the corresponding PBPs in *P. aeruginosa* and *E. coli*. Comparable sequence
260 identity (42%) is reported between PBP-3 homologs of *P. aeruginosa* and *E. coli* [49]. One putative
261 LMM, Class-C PBP-6, encoded by *I3098*, was found on chromosome 1 of *B. pseudomallei* 1026b. This
262 protein represents the smallest of the 10 predicted *B. pseudomallei* PBPs and shares >40% identity to
263 PBP-5/6 and PBP-6 in *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 and *E. coli* K-12, respectively.

264 The three conserved PBP sequence motifs that form that catalytic center of the active site
265 (SXXK, SXN, and KS/TG) were identified in the transpeptidase domains for nine of the 10 PBP
266 homologs in *B. pseudomallei* 1026b (**Table 1**). For each of these PBPs, the SXXK motifs were located
267 between 54 and 62 residues upstream of the SXN motifs. Corresponding motifs in PBP-3 of *P.*
268 *aeruginosa* PAO1 are similarly positioned, 55 residues apart [49]. For seven of the nine PBPs, the

269 distance between the SXN and KS/TG motifs was ~130 residues. This is comparable to the 135 residues
270 that separate the SSN motif from KSG in PBP-3 of *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 [49]. Only two of three active
271 site motifs were found in the *B. pseudomallei* 1026b PBP-2, an STYK tetrad at site 342 and a KTG triad
272 at position 559. It is unclear whether this predicted PBP-2 is functional despite missing the SXN active
273 site sequence, as Tomberg *et al.* [50] demonstrated that an interaction involving the middle residue of
274 this motif was necessary for the transpeptidase function, but not β -lactam binding, of PBP-2 in *Neisseria*
275 *gonorrhoeae*.

276

277 **Identification of PBP homologs among an initial set of *Burkholderia* strains analyzed.**

278 The nucleotide sequences for the 10 genes encoding PBPs in *B. pseudomallei* 1026b were used as
279 queries for BLASTn analyses of three *Burkholderia* spp.; *B. pseudomallei* (taxid:28450), *B. mallei*
280 (taxid:13373) and *B. thailandensis* (taxid:57975). An initial set of 143 publicly available, assembled
281 genomes, including 100 additional *B. pseudomallei*, 26 *B. mallei*, and 17 *B. thailandensis* strains were
282 examined to identify genes encoding corresponding PBP homologs. NCBI accession numbers and
283 epidemiological information for these strains can be found in **Table S1**. PBPs in *B. pseudomallei* were
284 more homologous to PBPs in *B. mallei* compared to *B. thailandensis*. With 100% query coverage,
285 BLASTn analysis revealed genes encoding PBPs in *B. mallei* were $\geq 99\%$ identical to those in the *B.*
286 *pseudomallei* 1026b genome. Gene sequences of predicted PBPs in *B. thailandensis* were ~95%
287 identical with query coverages ranging from 85 to 100%.

288 All ten predicted PBPs identified in *B. pseudomallei* 1026b were conserved in the entire set of *B.*
289 *pseudomallei* strains. Eight of 10 PBP homologs were conserved in all *B. mallei* genomes evaluated,
290 and the remaining two homologs were present in 25 of 26 genomes. The two exceptions included: *B.*
291 *mallei* 2002734306 missing one PBP-1A/B, and *B. mallei* SAVP1 missing PBP-1C. Genes encoding 9

292 of the 10 PBP homologs were present in all *B. thailandensis* genomes examined. However, the third
293 PBP-3 homolog, encoded by *III314* in *B. pseudomallei* 1026b, was only present in 5 of the 17 *B.*
294 *thailandensis* strains. Unique PBP profiles analyzed by SDS-PAGE have been used to distinguish
295 species within the *Enterococcus* genus [51]. However, this type of analysis would not prove useful for
296 differentiating *B. pseudomallei* from *B. mallei* and *B. thailandensis*, as several strains from each
297 *Burkholderia* species possess an identical suite of predicted PBPs.

298

299 **Examination of PBP transpeptidase domains for mutations in *B. pseudomallei* strains.**

300 Alterations in PBPs of Gram-negative bacteria can confer resistance to β -lactams by lowering the
301 affinity of the antibiotic to the active site [17-19]. In this work, we examined the predicted
302 transpeptidase domains (TDs) in *B. pseudomallei* PBPs for single amino acid polymorphisms (SAAPs)
303 in or near active site sequence motifs. The Pfam database was used to predict conserved PBP TDs in *B.*
304 *pseudomallei* reference strain 1026b. In the PBP-6 and five PBP-1 homologs, the TDs started 37 to 39
305 residues upstream of the predicted active-site serine residue in the first motif (SXXK). For the four
306 HMM Class-B protein homologs, TDs were positioned ~47 and 59 residues upstream of the SXXK
307 motif in the three PBP-3s and in PBP-2, respectively (**Table 1**).

308 The amino acid sequences of the ten putative PBP homologs in the set of 100 *B. pseudomallei*
309 strains were aligned to the 1026b reference strain and examined for alterations. Two strains included in
310 this set have known resistance to β -lactam antibiotics. Based on minimal inhibitory concentration
311 interpretative criteria established by the Clinical Laboratory and Standards Institute, *B. pseudomallei*
312 Bp1651 is considered resistant to amoxicillin-clavulanic acid (AMC), imipenem (IPM), and ceftazidime
313 (CAZ), and *B. pseudomallei* MSHR1655 is resistant to AMC [52]. The reference strain *B. pseudomallei*
314 1026b is susceptible to all three β -lactams (AMC, IPM, CAZ). No SAAPs were identified directly

315 within any of the three predicted active site motifs for any of the 101 *B. pseudomallei* strains analyzed.
316 In addition, no SAAPs specific to the AMC-resistant strain MSHR1655 were found within the TD
317 domains of the ten PBP homologs.

318 Antimicrobial resistance markers, including point mutations in the class A β -lactamase encoding
319 *penA* gene, have been described for *B. pseudomallei* Bp1651 [9]. Here, analysis of the TDs in the PBP
320 homologs of this multi-drug resistant strain revealed unique SAAPs that were not present in the other
321 100 *B. pseudomallei* strains evaluated (**Table 2**). To predict whether these SAAPs would affect protein
322 function, the PROVEAN tool was used to score each mutation individually. The predicted effect was
323 deleterious if the score was ≤ -2.5 and neutral if the score was > -2.5 . Two potentially deleterious
324 SAAPs exclusive to strain Bp1651 were found: G608D, located 49 residues downstream of the KTG
325 active site motif in the PBP-2 homolog, and G530R, located 25 residues downstream of the SLN motif
326 in the PBP-1C homolog. A neutral effect on protein function was calculated for the second amino acid
327 substitution in the PBP-1C homolog at position 627. One additional predicted deleterious SAAP
328 (G495S), 25 residues upstream of the second active site motif in a PBP-1A/B homolog, was found in *B.*
329 *pseudomallei* strains Bp1651 and MSHR1153. The functional contributions of these SAAPs in Bp1651
330 to β -lactam resistance remain unknown.

331
332
333
334
335
336
337
338
339
340

341 **Table 2.** Single amino acid polymorphisms found in PBP transpeptidase domains of *B. pseudomallei* Bp1651.

PBP Homolog	Corresponding Gene in Bp1651	SAAP in TD (AA position)	Location relative to putative active site	PROVEAN	
				Score	Predicted Affect
PBP-2	<i>TR70_2681</i>	G ► D (608)	(+) 49 AA, KTG	- 4.094	Deleterious
PBP-1A/B	<i>TR70_5295</i>	G ► S (495)*	(-) 25 AA, SRN	-4.091	Deleterious
PBP-1C	<i>TR70_6206</i>	G ► R (530)	(+) 25 AA, SLN	-7.500	Deleterious
		E ► Q (627)	(-) 72 AA, KTG	-0.238	Neutral

342 The amino acid (AA) position of single amino acid polymorphisms (SAAPs) in predicted PBP transpeptidase
343 domains (TD) of multi-drug resistant Bp1651 strain are based on sequence alignment to the 1026b reference
344 strain. Location relative to the nearest active site, (-) upstream or (+) downstream. SAAPs listed are unique to
345 Bp1651 and not found in the other 100 *B. pseudomallei* strains analyzed. (*) SAAP shared only with *B.*
346 *pseudomallei* MSHR1153. The Protein Variation Effect Analyzer (PROVEAN) tool was used to predict whether
347 a SAAP affects protein function. The predicted affect is deleterious if the score ≤ -2.5 and neutral if the score is $>$
348 -2.5 .

349

350 Utility of PBP gene SNPs for differentiation of closely related *Burkholderia* species.

351 As a result of the high degree of phenotypic and genotypic overlap between *B. pseudomallei*, *B. mallei*,
352 and *B. thailandensis*, simple molecular approaches to differentiate these species are important for
353 epidemiological studies and clinical applications. Some PCR-based methodologies targeting open
354 reading frames including *16S rRNA*, *bimA*, and *fliC* genes, have been described for the *Burkholderia*
355 *pseudomallei* complex and were summarized by Lowe *et al.* [53]. As part of this work, gene sequences
356 encoding each of the ten putative PBP homologs in the initial set of *Burkholderia* strains (**Table S1**)
357 were aligned to the *B. pseudomallei* 1026b reference strain and examined for species-specific SNPs.
358 Several PBP gene homologs contained mutations with utility to differentiate the three closely related
359 *Burkholderia* spp. (**Table 3**). The nucleotide positions for these mutations are reported based on
360 sequence alignments to the 1026b reference strain. The combination of two SNPs at positions 888 and
361 1629 in the gene encoding the PBP-3 (1) homolog was found to be unique to each of the three
362 *Burkholderia* spp. For 100% of the isolates analyzed at these two sites, we observed nucleotides C/T for
363 *B. pseudomallei* (n=101), T/C for *B. mallei* (n=26) and C/C for *B. thailandensis* (n=17).

364 **Table 3. PBP SNPs with utility for differentiation of *Burkholderia* species.**

PBP Homolog (gene in 1026b)	nt position		Species	# isolates
	888	1629		
PBP-3 (1) (<i>I0276</i>)	C	T	<i>B. pseudomallei</i>	101/101
	T	C	<i>B. mallei</i>	26/26
	C	C	<i>B. thailandensis</i>	17/17
PBP-3 (2) (<i>III292</i>)	217			
	G		<i>B. pseudomallei</i> / <i>B. thailandensis</i>	118/118
PBP-2 (<i>I3332</i>)	1340			
	AGA		<i>B. pseudomallei</i> / <i>B. thailandensis</i>	118/118
	---		<i>B. mallei</i>	26/26
PBP-1A (<i>II297</i>)	1177			
	C		<i>B. pseudomallei</i> / <i>B. thailandensis</i>	118/118
PBP-1A/B (<i>II0265</i>)	1239			
	C	C	<i>B. pseudomallei</i> / <i>B. thailandensis</i>	118/118
	T	T	<i>B. mallei</i>	26/26
*PBP-1C (<i>II0898</i>)	1941			
	G		<i>B. pseudomallei</i>	101/101
	A		<i>B. mallei</i>	25/26 ⁺

365 Nucleotide (nt) positions are based on sequence alignment to the 1026b reference strain. (---) deletion of lysine
366 amino acid, (+) No sequence with significant alignment to *II0898* (PBP-1C) was identified in *B. mallei* SAVP1
367 during BLASTn analysis. (*) Compared to the reference strain, genes encoding PBP-1C homologs in *B.*
368 *thailandensis* are missing ~400 nt, including a portion of the gene surrounding nt position 1941.

369

370 SNPs unique to *B. mallei* were identified in genes encoding five predicted PBPs (**Table 3**). For
371 instance, an adenine at position 217 in PBP-3 (2), a thymine at position 1177 in a PBP-1A, and two
372 thymine nucleotides at positions 1239 and 1580 in a PBP-1A/B could be used to differentiate *B. mallei*
373 from both *B. pseudomallei* and *B. thailandensis*. All *B. mallei* strains (26/26) also contained a three-
374 nucleotide deletion starting at position 1340 in genes encoding the putative PBP-2 homolog. This
375 mutation resulted in the deletion of a lysine for *B. mallei*, which was not observed in any of the 118 *B.*
376 *pseudomallei* or *B. thailandensis* strains evaluated. Except for *B. mallei* strain SAVP1, which does not
377 contain the gene encoding the predicted PBP-1C, a SNP at position 1941 could be used to differentiate
378 *B. pseudomallei* from *B. mallei*. Compared to the 1026b reference strain, genes encoding PBP-1C

379 homologs in *B. thailandensis* are missing ~400 nucleotides, including the portion of the gene
380 surrounding the nucleotide at position 1941. Of the 10 predicted PBPs, PBP-3 (1) proved most useful in
381 improving our ability to differentiate *B. pseudomallei*, *B. mallei*, and *B. thailandensis*.

382

383 **Utility of PBP SNPs for predicting geographic origin of *B. pseudomallei*.**

384 Phylogeographic reconstruction of *B. pseudomallei* has been demonstrated using both high resolution
385 comparative genomics and lower resolution typing methods such as ITS [24, 27]. To investigate whether
386 isolates could be assigned to a geographic region gene sequences encoding each of the ten putative PBP
387 homologs in 100 *B. pseudomallei* genomes were aligned to the *B. pseudomallei* 1026b reference strain
388 and examined for SNPs useful for phylogeography. In the initial set of 101 *B. pseudomallei* genomes
389 analyzed (**Table S1**), 75 strains originated from the Eastern Hemisphere (EH); 33 strains from Australia
390 and Papua New Guinea, and 42 strains from 8 countries in Asia and Southeast Asia. The remaining 26
391 *B. pseudomallei* strains were isolated from clinical or environmental samples in the Western Hemisphere
392 (WH); 23 of which have ITS type G, common to strains from the WH, and 3 isolates have ITS type C or
393 CE, supporting an original origin outside the WH, most likely Asia [37].

394 Several SNPs with phylogeographic utility were identified in genes encoding putative PBPs in
395 the initial set of *B. pseudomallei* strains. For example, analysis of predicted PBP-1A/B gene homologs,
396 aligned to *II0265* in the *B. pseudomallei* 1026b reference strain, revealed a SNP at position 168 shared
397 by all ITS type G, WH strains (23/23). Only 4 strains originating from the EH shared the same SNP. A
398 SNP unique to WH strains originating from Puerto Rico and Florida was also identified in gene
399 sequences encoding PBP-2 homologs at position 108. Another SNP more prevalent to strains
400 originating from Australia and Papua New Guinea (27/33) was identified in gene sequences encoding
401 the second predicted PBP-1A/B homolog found at nucleotide position 2,330. However, the two genes

402 containing the most SNPs with utility to predict geographic origin of *B. pseudomallei* encode the
 403 predicted PBP-3 (1) and PBP-3 (3) homologs. Furthermore, as SNPs in the first PBP-3 gene homolog
 404 could also be used to differentiate *B. pseudomallei* from *B. mallei* and *B. thailandensis*, these two loci
 405 were selected for the Dual-Locus Sequence Typing (DLST) approach.

406

407 **Development of a Dual-Locus Sequence Typing approach.**

408 DLST is a molecular biology technique that uses unique allelic profiles in two loci to characterize and
 409 type bacterial species. Implementation of DLST typing schemes has been demonstrated for bacterial
 410 pathogens such as methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* and *P. aeruginosa* [54, 55]. Here, a
 411 DLST scheme was developed using polymorphic sites at 11 nucleotide positions in two conserved *B.*
 412 *pseudomallei* loci encoding PBP-3 homologs (**Table 4, Fig. 1**). The nucleotide positions reported herein
 413 are based on sequence alignment to the *I0276* and *III314* genes, encoding PBP-3 (1) and PBP-3 (3),
 414 respectively, in the *B. pseudomallei* 1026b reference strain. SNPs at 9 of the 11 positions were chosen
 415 for their phylogeographic utility, and the other 2 SNPs were useful in differentiating *Burkholderia* spp.
 416 The DLST approach was first tested using gene sequences encoding PBP-3 (1) and PBP-3 (3) homologs
 417 in the initial set of *B. pseudomallei* (n=101) and *B. mallei* (n=26) strains.

418

419 **Table 4.** Dual-locus sequence typing scheme.

Species	nt position in <i>I0276</i> (PBP-3 (1))					nt position in <i>III314</i> (PBP-3 (3))					
	141	268	888	1473	1629	243	265	273	575	703	854
<i>B. pseudomallei</i>	C/T	C/T	C	C/T	T	G/A	G/T	T/C	T/C	A/G	A/C
<i>B. mallei</i>	C	T	T	C	C	A	G	C	C	G	A/C

424 The DLST scheme is based on 11 nucleotides in two genes encoding putative PBP-3s. Nucleotide (nt) positions
 425 are based on sequence alignment to the 1026b reference strain. Nucleotides with phylogeographic utility are
 426 shown in black font and nucleotides used to differentiate *Burkholderia* species are shown in gray font.

427 DLST results for the initial set of 127 *Burkholderia* strains are depicted in a phylogeographic
428 SNP tree (**Fig. 2**) and summarized in **Table S2**. Each branch of the SNP tree represents a group of
429 strains with a distinct 11-nucleotide SNP signature. Directly adjacent branches differ by one SNP
430 (underlined), as indicated by the size bar. In **Fig. 1**, *B. pseudomallei* strains are color-coded by
431 geographic origin and SNPs used to differentiate *B. mallei* strains are shown in dark yellow. All *B.*
432 *mallei* strains (26/26) shared the same SNP signature (CTTCC-AGCCGC) and clustered together. At
433 the initial bifurcation point of the SNP tree, *B. pseudomallei* strains originating from India and Sri Lanka
434 (in green) group together. Geographically, these countries are in proximity, sharing a maritime border.
435 The other three isolates from Sri Lanka (Bps 111, 110, and 123) share 10 of 11 DLST signature SNPs
436 (**Fig. 2**).

437 A SNP unique to *B. pseudomallei* strains from Papua New Guinea was identified at nucleotide
438 position 1473 in the first DLST locus, and as a result these three strains formed their own branch on the
439 tree (CCCTT-GGCCGC) (**Fig. 2**). The majority of *B. pseudomallei* strains originating from Australia
440 (26/30), located just south of Papua New Guinea, share 2 DLST signatures and differ from Papua New
441 Guinea strains by only one or two SNPs. MLST has been used to study the origins of isolates from
442 Papua New Guinea [56]; three unique sequence types (STs) were resolved and phylogenetic analysis
443 revealed they were located in clades mainly dominated by isolates of Australian origin. The six DLST
444 signatures in the lower portion of the phylogeographic SNP tree mainly consisted of *B. pseudomallei*
445 strains originating from Southeast Asia (Vietnam, Thailand, and Malaysia), China, and Taiwan (**Fig. 2**).
446 One of which, CCCCT-GGTAA, contained the most isolates from Thailand (6), including the 1026b
447 reference strain (in bold). Outliers included Australian strains MSHR840 and TSV202 which were
448 assigned to a DLST branch along with five Asian isolates. However, *B. pseudomallei* strains with ITS
449 type C and CE; CA2010, OH2013, and PB08298010 from the WH, and the Australian strain

450 MSHR5858 have all been shown to be more closely related to strains originating in Asia [29, 37, 57];
451 indeed, these four clinical isolates shared SNP signatures with strains from several Asian countries.

452 For WH *B. pseudomallei* strains, the DLST system demonstrated higher resolution compared to
453 ITS typing and some DLST groups could be associated with geographic origin. Based on DLST SNP
454 signatures, *B. pseudomallei* ITS Type G isolates from the WH (in blue) could be differentiated into
455 several distinct groups (**Fig. 2**). All WH strains evaluated in this study that originated from Puerto Rico
456 and Florida (6/6) populated a single branch on the SNP tree (CTCCT-GTTTAA). This is consistent
457 with core genome SNP analysis results which showed these six isolates made up a distinct subclade
458 within the WH clade [37]. Moreover, two MLST type 518 *B. pseudomallei* strains, CA2007 and
459 CA2013a, both isolated from pet iguanas in California [37], clustered together using the DLST approach
460 (CTCCT-GGTCAA). The largest DLST group, with SNP signature CTCCT-GGTAA, consisted of
461 seven WH *B. pseudomallei* strains. One outlier was an ITS Type G isolate from a California patient
462 (MX2013). DLST placed this WH strain in a group with *B. pseudomallei* strains from Southeast Asia
463 and Taiwan. Interestingly, this patient had travel history or residence in Mexico and had prior military
464 service in Vietnam [37] (**Table S1**).

465

466 **Testing DLST performance with an expansive set of *B. pseudomallei* and *B. mallei* genomes.**

467 The DLST approach was challenged using an extensive set of *B. pseudomallei* and *B. mallei* RefSeq
468 genomes collected from NCBI. All *B. pseudomallei* assemblies (n=1,446) with geographic information
469 deposited in the NCBI BioSample database and *B. mallei* assemblies (n=83) were evaluated for the
470 presence of genes encoding predicted PBP-3 (1) and PBP-3 (3) homologs (*I0276* and *III1314*) with
471 BLASTn, using *B. pseudomallei* 1026b as a reference for each sequence. Both loci were highly
472 conserved in *B. pseudomallei*, each exhibiting >98% nucleotide identity to the reference. Only four of

473 1,446 *B. pseudomallei* strains were excluded from subsequent DLST analysis based on poor alignment
474 and low nucleotide identity to the second locus, *III314*. The two putative PBP-3 gene homologs were
475 also highly conserved in *B. mallei*, with only two of 83 strains missing the second locus. As a result,
476 DLST typing performance was ultimately assessed using gene sequences from 1,442 *B. pseudomallei*
477 and 81 *B. mallei* strains. Both gene sequence sets were aligned to the *B. pseudomallei* 1026b reference
478 strain, and nucleotide data at the 11 polymorphic positions were extracted and concatenated for
479 subsequent DLST analysis.

480 DLST of 1,523 *Burkholderia* strains resulted in 32 sequence types (STs); 31 STs for *B.*
481 *pseudomallei* strains and one ST (ST-32) for all *B. mallei* strains (**Table S3**). *B. pseudomallei* STs were
482 assigned in numerical order in accordance with the number of strains in each ST, highest to lowest.
483 Based on this typing nomenclature, STs were assigned in retrospect to the initial set of 101 *B.*
484 *pseudomallei* and 26 *B. mallei* strains used to develop the DLST approach (**Table S2**). To assess the
485 discriminatory power (*D*) of the DLST method, a single numerical index of discrimination [42] was
486 calculated based on the probability that two unrelated, randomly sampled *B. pseudomallei* or *B. mallei*
487 strains from our test population (n=1,523) would be placed in different typing groups. Predicated on 32
488 STs, the *D* value of this DLST was 0.8512.

489 DLST data was used to construct a phylogeographic tree (**Fig. 3**). Individual branches depict the
490 unique SNP signature, or allelic profile, for each ST. The geographic origins of strains assigned to each
491 ST are represented by color-coded pie charts at each terminal node. The largest number of *B.*
492 *pseudomallei* strains (n=451) was assigned to ST-1, of which ~98% (n=440) geographically originate
493 from Southeast Asia (Thailand, Singapore, Malaysia and Vietnam). No Australian isolates were
494 assigned to ST-1, and the four ST-1 strains described as originating from the United Kingdom are in fact
495 laboratory cultures of the Thai *B. pseudomallei* strain K96243 (**Table S3**). The *B. pseudomallei* 1026b
496 reference strain is among the 416 isolates from Thailand that belong this DLST profile.

497 DLST revealed only *B. pseudomallei* strains with Southeast and East Asian origin (n=157)
498 belonged to ST-4 (**Table S3**). Nine STs unique to isolates from Thailand (n=63) were also resolved
499 using DLST profiling. These STs are depicted in tree branches with entirely red pie charts (**Fig. 3**).
500 Additionally, a tenth ST (ST-5) included 91 *B. pseudomallei* from Thailand and one strain from the
501 USA; the latter, CA2010, is ITS Type C and is more closely related to *B. pseudomallei* strains from
502 Southeast Asia [37]. ST-18 consisted of five isolates specifically from Papua New Guinea; three from
503 our initial set of *B. pseudomallei* genomes analyzed (strains K42, B03, and A79A) and two additional
504 isolates from this more expansive DLST analysis (**Table S2** and **Table S3**). One other Papua New
505 Guinean *B. pseudomallei* strain (MSHR139) was profiled by DLST and assigned to ST-3. Only the
506 country of isolation is listed in the SAMN02443743 sample information on NCBI, so it is unknown
507 whether this strain was isolated from a melioidosis patient with travel history to other geographic
508 locations. All *B. pseudomallei* strains with French (n=5) and Pakistani (n=3) origin clustered together in
509 ST-3.

510 While the majority of *B. pseudomallei* isolates separate into 2 phylogenetic groups, Australia and
511 Southeast Asia/rest of the world, a single strain (MSHR5858) with a unique MLST sequence type (ST-
512 562) is present in northern Australia, Taiwan, and southern China [58]. Although we observe four STs
513 specific to a small number of Australian isolates (n=6), this DLST scheme does not completely support
514 the separation of Australasian and Asian *B. pseudomallei* clades. Comparable to ITS typing [24], we
515 observed several STs (7) populated with strains originating from both Thailand and Australia (**Fig. 3** and
516 **Table S3**). Two of these types, ST-7 and ST-9, were more common to Australia, encompassing 94%
517 and 72% of the total number of strains. Twelve of 13 *B. pseudomallei* isolates belonging to ST-11 were
518 from Australia and the other was an outlier, CA2009, an ITS type G strain from the WH. Prior to this
519 more extensive DLST analysis, strain CA2009 resided alone on its own branch in the phylogeographic
520 SNP tree based on the initial set of 101 *B. pseudomallei* strains (**Fig. 2**).

521 Five STs were observed that were unique to 34 *B. pseudomallei* strains from the WH. ST-10
522 was the most common DLST profile for WH isolates (n=13) followed by ST-12 (n=11). Consistent with
523 our preliminary DLST analysis which included six *B. pseudomallei* strains isolated from clinical and
524 environmental samples in Puerto Rico and Florida, 6 additional strains from this same geographical
525 region all clustered together in ST-12 (**Fig 2, Fig. 3, Table S3**). DLST sequence type ST-22 contained
526 three WH strains, two originating from Mexico and the other, strain TX2015, isolated from a
527 melioidosis patient with travel history to Mexico [37]. Strains CA2007 and CA2013a, which were both
528 isolated from *Iguana iguana*, remain the only two of 1,442 strains assigned to ST-25. The two WH *B.*
529 *pseudomallei* strains, designated as American in origin, that fall into ST-2 along with 218 strains from
530 the EH are strain Bp1651, which formerly comes from Australia and 2014002816, which is a clinical
531 isolate from a patient in Maryland with travel history to Africa.

532

533 **Conclusions**

534 The true global burden of *B. pseudomallei* infections is likely underestimated due to several factors
535 including difficulty of diagnosis, insufficient methods for conventional identification, and limited
536 diagnostic facilities [59]. Diagnosis and epidemiological analysis of *B. pseudomallei* are critical to
537 ensure positive patient outcomes and investigate outbreaks, however, resource constraints may limit the
538 laboratory techniques employed for routine testing. Rapid, low-cost, and easy to perform methods that
539 produce unambiguous results, portable between laboratories, may be more feasible to implement in such
540 settings.

541 We characterized genes encoding 10 predicted PBPs that were conserved among sequenced *B.*
542 *pseudomallei* and *B. mallei* strains. Within these genes, SNPs with utility for phylogeography and
543 species differentiation were uncovered, markedly in those encoding the predicted PBP-3 (1) and PBP-3

544 (3) homologs. Using 11 polymorphic nucleotides identified within these two loci, a simple DLST typing
545 scheme was developed and challenged with sequence data from over 1500 *B. pseudomallei* and *B.*
546 *mallei* strains. The willingness of research scientists worldwide to share *B. pseudomallei* and *B. mallei*
547 genome sequences in publicly accessible databases strengthened this work. While WGS offers the most
548 comprehensive (and therefore has the potential to be the most accurate) method for determining the
549 geographic origin of *B. pseudomallei*, lower resolution techniques such as MLST and ITS typing are
550 useful tools for associating melioidosis cases to particular regions. A limitation of the DLST described
551 herein is the reduced discriminatory power compared to WGS and MLST. However, the DLST approach
552 relies on only two gene targets and could be easily operationalized into a PCR test from a culture isolate
553 (or optimized for testing directly from certain clinical specimens). This simple test could be used to
554 rapidly discern strains of closely related *Burkholderia* spp. and perform some phylogeographic
555 reconstruction, most notably for WH *B. pseudomallei* isolates. In summary, sequence typing methods
556 based on conserved genes encoding PBPs in *B. pseudomallei* may be used to improve our current,
557 targeted typing schemes, enhance our ability to link genetic data with geographic origin, and help
558 differentiate closely related *Burkholderia* species, especially in settings where WGS may not be feasible.

559

560

561

562

563

564

565

566 **Figure Legends**

567 **Figure 1.** DLST scheme based on 11 nucleotides in two genes (*I0276* and *III314*) encoding putative
568 PBP-3s. Nucleotide positions are based on sequence alignment to the *B. pseudomallei* 1026b reference
569 strain. Nucleotides with phylogeographic utility (orange font) and utility for differentiating closely
570 related *Burkholderia* species (purple font) are shown. PBP conserved domains (blue bubbles), amino
571 acid position of domains (blue font), active site residues and positions (red font).

572 **Figure 2.** DLST SNP-based phylogeographic tree for the initial set of *B. pseudomallei* (n=101) and *B.*
573 *mallei* (n=26). Each branch represents isolates with a distinct 11-nucleotide SNP signature determined
574 by DLST. *B. pseudomallei* strains are color-coded by geographic origin and SNPs used to differentiate
575 *B. mallei* strains are shown in dark yellow.

576 **Figure 3.** DLST SNP-based phylogeographic tree for the expansive set of *B. pseudomallei* (n=1,442,
577 sequence types 1 to 31) and *B. mallei* (n=81, sequence type 32). *B. pseudomallei* strains are color-coded
578 by geographic origin. Western Hemisphere (WH), asterisk indicates WH and European countries
579 Mexico, Ecuador, Venezuela, Czech Republic, and Switzerland.

580 **Acknowledgments**

581 We thank Zachary Weiner, Jay Gee, and Mindy Glass Elrod in the Division of High-Consequence
582 Pathogens and Pathology at the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention for their technical expertise
583 and review of this manuscript.

584 **Disclaimer.** The findings and conclusions in this report are those of the authors and do not necessarily
585 represent the official position of the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Use of trade names is
586 for identification only and does not imply endorsement by the Centers for Disease Control and
587 Prevention.

588

589 References

- 590 1. Limmathurotsakul D, Golding N, Dance DA, Messina JP, Pigott DM, Moyes CL, et al. Predicted global
591 distribution of *Burkholderia pseudomallei* and burden of melioidosis. *Nat Microbiol*. 2016;1(1):15008.
- 592 2. Benoit TJ, Blaney DD, Doker TJ, Gee JE, Elrod MG, Rolim DB, et al. A review of melioidosis cases in the
593 Americas. *Am J Trop Med Hyg*. 2015;93(6):1134-9.
- 594 3. CDC. New Case Identified: Multistate Investigation of Non-travel Associated *Burkholderia pseudomallei*
595 Infections (Melioidosis) in Four Patients: Georgia, Kansas, Minnesota, and Texas—2021.
596 <https://emergency.cdc.gov/han/2021/han00448.asp>. Cited September 9, 2021.
- 597 4. Limmathurotsakul D, Kanoksil M, Wuthiekanun V, Kitphati R, deStavola B, Day NP, et al. Activities of
598 daily living associated with acquisition of melioidosis in northeast Thailand: a matched case-control study. *PLoS*
599 *Negl Trop Dis*. 2013;7(2):e2072.
- 600 5. Wiersinga WJ, Virk HS, Torres AG, Currie BJ, Peacock SJ, Dance DA, et al. Melioidosis. *J Nature reviews*
601 *Disease primers*. 2018;4:17107.
- 602 6. Cheng AC, Currie BJ. Melioidosis: epidemiology, pathophysiology, and management. *Clin Microbiol Rev*.
603 2005;18(2):383-416.
- 604 7. Program FSA. Select Agent and Toxins List.
605 <https://www.cdc.gov/selectagent/SelectAgentsandToxinsList.html>. Cited September 9, 2021.
- 606 8. Lipsitz R, Garges S, Aurigemma R, Baccam P, Blaney DD, Cheng AC, et al. Workshop on treatment of and
607 postexposure prophylaxis for *Burkholderia pseudomallei* and *B. mallei* Infection, 2010. *Emerg Infect Dis*.
608 2012;18(12):e2.
- 609 9. Bugrysheva JV, Sue D, Gee JE, Elrod MG, Hoffmaster AR, Randall LB, et al. Antibiotic Resistance Markers
610 in *Burkholderia pseudomallei* Strain Bp1651 Identified by Genome Sequence Analysis. *Antimicrob Agents*
611 *Chemother*. 2017;61(6).
- 612 10. Rholl DA, Papp-Wallace KM, Tomaras AP, Vasil ML, Bonomo RA, Schweizer HP. Molecular Investigations
613 of PenA-mediated beta-lactam Resistance in *Burkholderia pseudomallei*. *Front Microbiol*. 2011;2:139.
- 614 11. Sarovich DS, Price EP, Von Schulze AT, Cook JM, Mayo M, Watson LM, et al. Characterization of
615 ceftazidime resistance mechanisms in clinical isolates of *Burkholderia pseudomallei* from Australia. *PLoS One*.
616 2012;7(2):e30789.
- 617 12. Sarovich DS, Price EP, Limmathurotsakul D, Cook JM, Von Schulze AT, Wolken SR, et al. Development of
618 ceftazidime resistance in an acute *Burkholderia pseudomallei* infection. *Infect Drug Resist*. 2012;5:129-32.
- 619 13. Chirakul S, Somprasong N, Norris MH, Wuthiekanun V, Chantratita N, Tuanyok A, et al. *Burkholderia*
620 *pseudomallei* acquired ceftazidime resistance due to gene duplication and amplification. *Int J Antimicrob*
621 *Agents*. 2019;53(5):582-8.
- 622 14. Popham DL, Young KD. Role of penicillin-binding proteins in bacterial cell morphogenesis. *Curr Opin*
623 *Microbiol*. 2003;6(6):594-9.
- 624 15. Georgopapadakou N, Hammarström S, Strominger JJPotNAoS. Isolation of the penicillin-binding peptide
625 from D-alanine carboxypeptidase of *Bacillus subtilis*. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*. 1977;74(3):1009-12.
- 626 16. Bush K, Bradford PAJCSHpim. β -Lactams and β -lactamase inhibitors: an overview. 2016;6(8):a025247.
- 627 17. Sun S, Selmer M, Andersson DI. Resistance to beta-lactam antibiotics conferred by point mutations in
628 penicillin-binding proteins PBP3, PBP4 and PBP6 in *Salmonella enterica*. *PLoS One*. 2014;9(5):e97202.
- 629 18. Contreras-Martel C, Dahout-Gonzalez C, Martins ADS, Kotnik M, Dessen AJJomb. PBP active site
630 flexibility as the key mechanism for β -lactam resistance in pneumococci. 2009;387(4):899-909.
- 631 19. Rimbara E, Noguchi N, Kawai T, Sasatsu M. Mutations in penicillin-binding proteins 1, 2 and 3 are
632 responsible for amoxicillin resistance in *Helicobacter pylori*. *J Antimicrob Chemother*. 2008;61(5):995-8.
- 633 20. Chantratita N, Rholl DA, Sim B, Wuthiekanun V, Limmathurotsakul D, Amornchai P, et al. Antimicrobial
634 resistance to ceftazidime involving loss of penicillin-binding protein 3 in *Burkholderia pseudomallei*. *Proc Natl*
635 *Acad Sci U S A*. 2011;108(41):17165-70.

- 636 21. McLaughlin HP, Bugrysheva J, Sue D. Optical microscopy reveals the dynamic nature of *B. pseudomallei*
637 morphology during beta-lactam antimicrobial susceptibility testing. *BMC Microbiol.* 2020;20(1):209.
- 638 22. Schell MA, Lipscomb L, DeShazer D. Comparative genomics and an insect model rapidly identify novel
639 virulence genes of *Burkholderia mallei*. *J Bacteriol.* 2008;190(7):2306-13.
- 640 23. Gee JE, Sacchi CT, Glass MB, De BK, Weyant RS, Levett PN, et al. Use of 16S rRNA gene sequencing for
641 rapid identification and differentiation of *Burkholderia pseudomallei* and *B. mallei*. *J Clin Microbiol.*
642 2003;41(10):4647-54.
- 643 24. Liguori AP, Warrington SD, Ginther JL, Pearson T, Bowers J, Glass MB, et al. Diversity of 16S-23S rDNA
644 internal transcribed spacer (ITS) reveals phylogenetic relationships in *Burkholderia pseudomallei* and its near-
645 neighbors. *PLoS One.* 2011;6(12):e29323.
- 646 25. Godoy D, Randle G, Simpson AJ, Aanensen DM, Pitt TL, Kinoshita R, et al. Multilocus sequence typing and
647 evolutionary relationships among the causative agents of melioidosis and glanders, *Burkholderia pseudomallei*
648 and *Burkholderia mallei*. *J Clin Microbiol.* 2003;41(5):2068-79.
- 649 26. Pearson T, Giffard P, Beckstrom-Sternberg S, Auerbach R, Hornstra H, Tuanyok A, et al. Phylogeographic
650 reconstruction of a bacterial species with high levels of lateral gene transfer. *BMC Biol.* 2009;7:78.
- 651 27. Chewapreecha C, Holden MT, Vehkala M, Valimaki N, Yang Z, Harris SR, et al. Global and regional
652 dissemination and evolution of *Burkholderia pseudomallei*. *Nat Microbiol.* 2017;2:16263.
- 653 28. Sarovich DS, Garin B, De Smet B, Kaestli M, Mayo M, Vandamme P, et al. Phylogenomic Analysis Reveals
654 an Asian Origin for African *Burkholderia pseudomallei* and Further Supports Melioidosis Endemicity in Africa.
655 *mSphere.* 2016;1(2).
- 656 29. Price EP, Sarovich DS, Smith EJ, MacHunter B, Harrington G, Theobald V, et al. Unprecedented
657 Melioidosis Cases in Northern Australia Caused by an Asian *Burkholderia pseudomallei* Strain Identified by Using
658 Large-Scale Comparative Genomics. *Appl Environ Microbiol.* 2016;82(3):954-63.
- 659 30. Gee JE, Gulvik CA, Castelo-Branco DS, Sidrim JJ, Rocha MF, Cordeiro RA, et al. Genomic Diversity of
660 *Burkholderia pseudomallei* in Ceara, Brazil. *Msphere.* 2021;6(1):e01259-20.
- 661 31. Gee JE, Allender CJ, Tuanyok A, Elrod MG, Hoffmaster AR. *Burkholderia pseudomallei* type G in Western
662 Hemisphere. *Emerg Infect Dis.* 2014;20(4):682-4.
- 663 32. Vesaratchavest M, Tumapa S, Day NP, Wuthiekanun V, Chierakul W, Holden MT, et al. Nonrandom
664 distribution of *Burkholderia pseudomallei* clones in relation to geographical location and virulence. *J Clin*
665 *Microbiol.* 2006;44(7):2553-7.
- 666 33. Cheng AC, Godoy D, Mayo M, Gal D, Spratt BG, Currie BJ. Isolates of *Burkholderia pseudomallei* from
667 Northern Australia are distinct by multilocus sequence typing, but strain types do not correlate with clinical
668 presentation. *J Clin Microbiol.* 2004;42(12):5477-83.
- 669 34. De Smet B, Sarovich DS, Price EP, Mayo M, Theobald V, Kham C, et al. Whole-genome sequencing
670 confirms that *Burkholderia pseudomallei* multilocus sequence types common to both Cambodia and Australia
671 are due to homoplasy. *J Clin Microbiol.* 2015;53(1):323-6.
- 672 35. Dance DA. Melioidosis: the tip of the iceberg? *Clin Microbiol Rev.* 1991;4(1):52-60.
- 673 36. Camacho C, Coulouris G, Avagyan V, Ma N, Papadopoulos J, Bealer K, et al. BLAST+: architecture and
674 applications. *BMC bioinformatics.* 2009;10(1):1-9.
- 675 37. Gee JE, Gulvik CA, Elrod MG, Batra D, Rowe LA, Sheth M, et al. Phylogeography of *Burkholderia*
676 *pseudomallei* Isolates, Western Hemisphere. *Emerg Infect Dis.* 2017;23(7):1133-8.
- 677 38. Choi Y, Chan APJB. PROVEAN web server: a tool to predict the functional effect of amino acid
678 substitutions and indels. 2015;31(16):2745-7.
- 679 39. Edgar RC. MUSCLE: multiple sequence alignment with high accuracy and high throughput. *Nucleic Acids*
680 *Res.* 2004;32(5):1792-7.
- 681 40. Larkin MA, Blackshields G, Brown NP, Chenna R, McGettigan PA, McWilliam H, et al. Clustal W and
682 Clustal X version 2.0. *Bioinformatics.* 2007;23(21):2947-8.
- 683 41. Cock PJ, Antao T, Chang JT, Chapman BA, Cox CJ, Dalke A, et al. Biopython: freely available Python tools
684 for computational molecular biology and bioinformatics. *Bioinformatics.* 2009;25(11):1422-3.

- 685 42. Hunter PR, Gaston MA. Numerical index of the discriminatory ability of typing systems: an application of
686 Simpson's index of diversity. *J Clin Microbiol.* 1988;26(11):2465-6.
- 687 43. Nguyen LT, Schmidt HA, von Haeseler A, Minh BQ. IQ-TREE: a fast and effective stochastic algorithm for
688 estimating maximum-likelihood phylogenies. *Mol Biol Evol.* 2015;32(1):268-74.
- 689 44. Letunic I, Bork PJ. Interactive Tree Of Life (iTOL) v4: recent updates and new developments.
690 2019;47(W1):W256-W9.
- 691 45. Georgopadakou NH, Liu FY. Penicillin-binding proteins in bacteria. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.*
692 1980;18(1):148-57.
- 693 46. Krishnamurthy P, Parlow MH, Schneider J, Burroughs S, Wickland C, Vakil NB, et al. Identification of a
694 novel penicillin-binding protein from *Helicobacter pylori*. *J Bacteriol.* 1999;181(16):5107-10.
- 695 47. Farra A, Islam S, Strålfors A, Sörberg M, Wretling BJ. Role of outer membrane protein OprD and
696 penicillin-binding proteins in resistance of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* to imipenem and meropenem.
697 2008;31(5):427-33.
- 698 48. Kocaoglu O, Tsui HC, Winkler ME, Carlson EE. Profiling of beta-lactam selectivity for penicillin-binding
699 proteins in *Streptococcus pneumoniae* D39. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 2015;59(6):3548-55.
- 700 49. Sainsbury S, Bird L, Rao V, Shepherd SM, Stuart DI, Hunter WN, et al. Crystal structures of penicillin-
701 binding protein 3 from *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*: comparison of native and antibiotic-bound forms. *J Mol Biol.*
702 2011;405(1):173-84.
- 703 50. Tomberg J, Temple B, Fedarovich A, Davies C, Nicholas RA. A highly conserved interaction involving the
704 middle residue of the SXN active-site motif is crucial for function of class B penicillin-binding proteins:
705 mutational and computational analysis of PBP 2 from *N. gonorrhoeae*. *Biochemistry.* 2012;51(13):2775-84.
- 706 51. Williamson R, Gutmann L, Horaud T, Delbos F, Acar JF. Use of penicillin-binding proteins for the
707 identification of enterococci. *J Gen Microbiol.* 1986;132(7):1929-37.
- 708 52. McLaughlin HP, Bugrysheva J, Sue D. Optical microscopy reveals the dynamic nature of *B. pseudomallei*
709 morphology during β -lactam antimicrobial susceptibility testing. *J bioRxiv.* 2020.
- 710 53. Lowe W, March, J. K., Bunnell, A. J., O'Neill, K. L., Robison, R. A. PCR-based Methodologies Used to
711 Detect and Differentiate the *Burkholderia pseudomallei* complex: *B. pseudomallei*, *B. mallei*, and *B.*
712 *thailandensis*. *Curr Issues Mol Biol.* 2013;16(2):23-54.
- 713 54. Kuhn G, Francioli P, Blanc D. Double-locus sequence typing using *clfB* and *spa*, a fast and simple method
714 for epidemiological typing of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Journal of clinical microbiology.*
715 2007;45(1):54-62.
- 716 55. Basset P, Blanc D. Fast and simple epidemiological typing of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* using the double-
717 locus sequence typing (DLST) method. *European journal of clinical microbiology & infectious diseases.*
718 2014;33(6):927-32.
- 719 56. Baker A, Pearson T, Price EP, Dale J, Keim P, Hornstra H, et al. Molecular phylogeny of *Burkholderia*
720 *pseudomallei* from a remote region of Papua New Guinea. *PLoS One.* 2011;6(3):e18343.
- 721 57. Meumann EM, Kaestli M, Mayo M, Ward L, Rachlin A, Webb JR, et al. Emergence of *Burkholderia*
722 *pseudomallei* Sequence Type 562, Northern Australia. *Emerg Infect Dis.* 2021;27(4):1057-67.
- 723 58. Chen H, Xia L, Zhu X, Li W, Du X, Wu D, et al. *Burkholderia pseudomallei* sequence type 562 in China and
724 Australia. *Emerging infectious diseases.* 2015;21(1):166.
- 725 59. Birnie E, Virk HS, Savelkoel J, Spijker R, Bertherat E, Dance DA, et al. Global burden of melioidosis in
726 2015: a systematic review and data synthesis. *The Lancet Infectious diseases.* 2019;19(8):892-902.

727

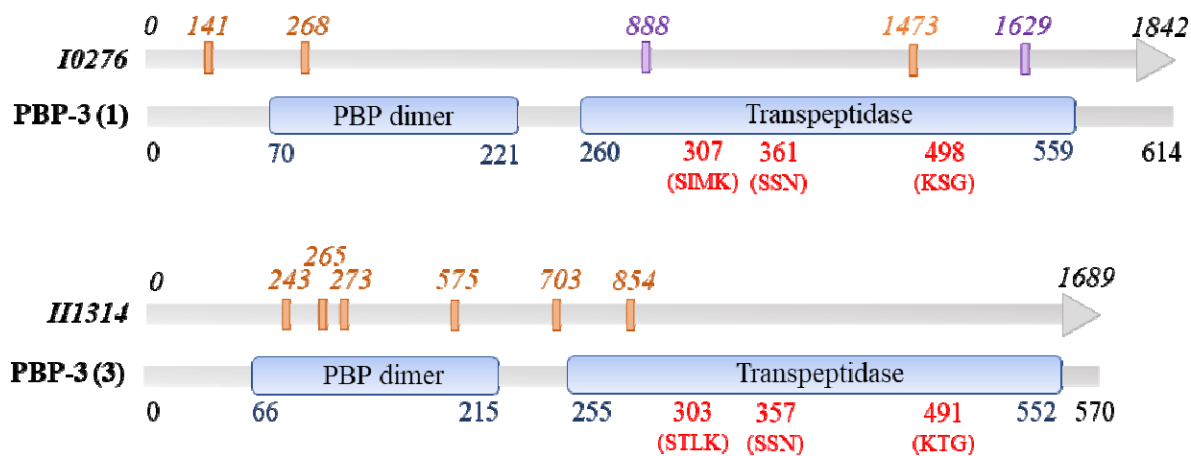
728

729

730

731 **Figure 1**

732



733

734

735

736

737

738

739

740

741

742

743

744

745

746

747

748

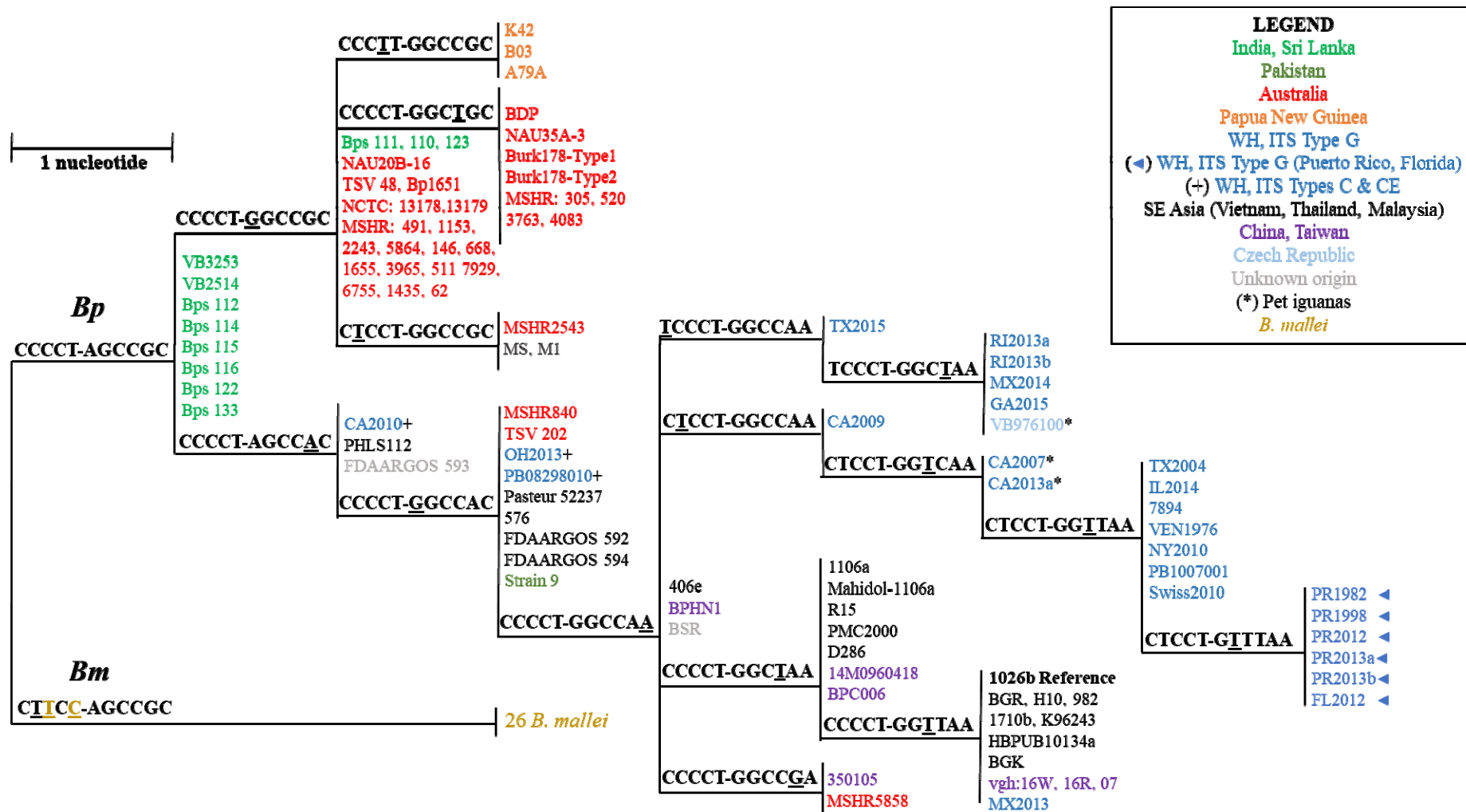
749

750

751

752 **Figure 2**

753



754

755

