Inter-species gene flow drives ongoing evolution of *Streptococcus pyogenes* and *Streptococcus dysgalactiae* subsp. *equisimilis*

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Abstract

Streptococcus dysgalactiae subsp. *equisimilis* (SDSE) is an emerging cause of human infection with invasive disease incidence and clinical manifestations comparable to the closely related species, *Streptococcus pyogenes*. Through systematic genomic analyses of 501 disseminated SDSE strains, we demonstrate extensive overlap between the genomes of SDSE and *S. pyogenes*. More than 75% of core genes are shared between the two species with one third demonstrating evidence of cross-species recombination. Twenty-five percent of mobile genetic element (MGE) clusters and 16 of 55 SDSE MGE insertion regions were found across species. Assessing potential cross-protection from leading *S. pyogenes* vaccine candidates on SDSE, 12/34 preclinical vaccine antigen genes were shown to be present in >99% of isolates of both species. Relevant to possible vaccine evasion, six vaccine candidate genes demonstrated evidence of inter-species recombination. These findings demonstrate previously unappreciated levels of genomic overlap between these closely related pathogens with implications for streptococcal pathobiology, disease surveillance and prevention.

Introduction

Streptococcus dysgalactiae subspecies *equisimilis* (SDSE), a beta-hemolytic *Streptococcus* normally possessing the Lancefield group C/G antigen, is an emerging cause of human disease with recently reported incidences of invasive disease comparable to or surpassing that of the closely related and historically important pathogen, *Streptococcus pyogenes* (group A *Streptococcus*) [1-8]. SDSE and *S. pyogenes* occupy the same ecological niche and possess overlapping disease manifestations including pharyngitis, skin and soft tissue infections, necrotising fasciitis, streptococcal toxic shock syndrome and osteoarticular infections[9, 10].

Gene transfer between SDSE and *S. pyogenes,* including housekeeping multi-locus sequence typing (MLST) loci, major virulence factors including the *emm* gene, and antimicrobial resistance (AMR) determinants has been reported[11-17]. Inter-species transfer of genes encoding the serogroup carbohydrate have led to SDSE isolates which express the group A carbohydrate[15, 18]. Transfer of accessory virulence or AMR genes is thought to occur by cross-species exchange of mobile genetic elements (MGEs) such as prophage or integrative conjugative elements (ICE) [19-21]. However, the mechanism that enables the exchange of genes present in all strains of a species, termed 'core' genes, is not well understood. The extent of genetic exchange between these two pathogens has not been defined within a global population genomic framework.

An analysis of the population structure of a globally diverse collection of *S. pyogenes* genomes provided insights into the drivers of population diversity and global utility of candidate vaccines. In contrast, studies of SDSE whole genome diversity have generally been[7, 22-25]. With increasing efforts to develop a *S. pyogenes* vaccine[26, 27], an improved understanding of the overlap and extent of genetic similarity between human isolates of SDSE and *S. pyogenes* in a global context is required. Here, we have compiled a globally diverse collection of 501 SDSE genomes isolated from human hosts. Through a gene synteny-based approach, we conducted a

systematic analysis of the population genetics and pangenome of SDSE. Using the same

framework, we compare SDSE to a previously published global *S. pyogenes* dataset[22] to reveal

extensive genomic overlap between the two closely related pathogens including genes

encoding candidate *S. pyogenes* vaccine antigens.

Results

A globally diverse SDSE genomic database.

To assess SDSE population diversity (Figure 1), we compiled a genomic database of 501

geographically distributed SDSE isolates from 17 countries including 228 newly reported

genomes with one new complete reference quality genome, NS3396[28] (Supplementary Table

1a). The database includes 53 *emm* sequence types, 88 *emm* sub-types, and 129 MLSTs.

Global SDSE population structure.

A phylogeny of the global SDSE population was constructed using a recombination aware

pipeline implemented in Verticall. The minimum evolution phylogeny demonstrated a deep

radially branching structure forming multiple distinct lineages similar to that observed for the

global population structure of *S. pyogenes*[22] (Figure 1a and Supplementary Figure 1).

Whole genome clustering of the global SDSE population using PopPUNK[29] detected 59

distinct population clusters (akin to 'lineages' or 'genome clusters') (Figure 2a and

Supplementary Figure 2). These genome clusters were geographically dispersed and were

highly concordant with the inferred phylogeny.

Our data show a limited concordance between the inferred whole genome population structure

and the classical SDSE molecular epidemiological markers, *emm* type and MLST

(Supplementary Figure 3). Of the 24 *emm* types represented by three or more isolates, 11 (46%)

were present in multiple genome clusters. Of the 27 genome clusters with three or more

isolates, 18 (67%) contained two or more *emm* types.

MLST was in stronger agreement with the inferred genome clusters than *emm* type.

Nevertheless, the largest genetic distance between isolates in the same MLST was frequently

greater than that separating isolates from different MLST types (Supplementary Figure 3d).

Supporting this observation, 67% (18/27) of genome clusters with three or more members

contained more than one MLST. While many of these differed at only a single MLST locus,

single locus variant MLST clonal complexes delineated distant lineages poorly and were

present across multiple distinct genetic backgrounds (Supplementary Figure 3e). These

findings indicate that while *emm* and MLST typing for SDSE have been useful epidemiological

markers in jurisdictional or regional contexts, they have limitations when defining global SDSE

evolution and diversity. The presented whole genome clustering scheme implemented in

PopPUNK provides a solution to the limitations of *emm* and MLST at the global population

level[29].

The Lancefield group carbohydrate was predicted by the presence of a 14 gene carbohydrate

synthesis gene cluster in group C SDSE[18], 15 gene cluster in group G[15] and 12 gene cluster in

group A *Streptococcus*[15] (Supplementary Figure 4a) in a conserved genomic location

immediately upstream of *pepT*. Of the 27 genome clusters which contained three or more

isolates, 16 consisted of only group G isolates and 9 consisted of only group C (Supplementary

Figure 4b). Two genome clusters consisted of isolates with more than one group carbohydrate.

The Lancefield group A carbohydrate, normally associated with *S. pyogenes*, was found in

isolates from 4 different genome clusters (Figure 2a), including one genome cluster that also

contained isolates with the group C and group G antigen. These findings suggest that while

closely related isolates generally express the same Lancefield group carbohydrate antigen,

horizontal transfer of the group carbohydrate locus can occur, including the group A

carbohydrate locus normally associated with *S. pyogenes*.

Bayesian dating of the most recent common ancestor (MRCA) of the two most well sampled

genome clusters using BactDating[30] with recombination masked by Gubbins[31], revealed

emergence of these lineages within the last 100 years. A genome cluster containing members

present in 7 countries and inclusive of *emm* type *stG*6792/ST 17 isolates, until recently the

most frequent cause of invasive disease in Japan[7, 10, 32], had an estimated root date in the mid-

1970s (credible interval CrI 1960 – 1991, Supplementary Figure 5a) suggesting recent

emergence and global dispersion. A genome cluster consisting of isolates with *emm* type

*stG*62647, an *emm* type described to be increasing in frequency in multiple jurisdictions[24, 33],

had an estimated root date in the early 1930s (CrI 1855 – 1969, Supplementary Figure 5b).

These findings suggest that major genome clusters in this global database represent modern,

globally disseminated lineages.

Virulence genes or regulators known to influence expression of virulence genes were enriched

in a subset of genome clusters. Isolates were screened for the presence of accessory toxins

including DNAses, superantigens, adhesins, immune escape factors and regulators described

in SDSE or *S. pyogenes* (Supplementary Table 1b). We found that certain genome clusters

were enriched for accessory factors including: chromosomally encoded exotoxin *speG*,

immune escape factor *drsG*, adhesin *gfbA* and an accessory/secondary FCT locus, presence of

the negative regulatory *sil* locus, and three accessory prophage streptodornase genes *spd3*, *sda1*

and *sdn* (all p <0.001, χ^2 test of independence). In particular, the accessory FCT locus[34], *sil*

locus, *gfbA*, *speG* and *drsG* were frequently either present or entirely absent from different

genome clusters. These findings suggest that the SDSE genetic population structure is

characterised by distinct virulence repertoires. Non-random sampling prevented associations

with clinical manifestations from being inferred.

Signatures of recombination in the SDSE core genome.

The SDSE pangenome consisted of 6,228 genes of which 1,561 were core genes (present in

≥99% of genomes) and 4,667 were accessory genes, of which 3,849 genes were present in

<15% of genomes (Figure 2b). While several SDSE genes have previously been reported to be

recombinogenic, we next aimed to infer the number of SDSE core genes with signatures of

recombination in their evolutionary history using fastGEAR[35]. Of 1,543 core genes (excluding

18 genes that had over 25% gaps in their alignment), 837 (54%) genes had a recombinatorial

signature (Supplementary Table 2a). These notably included all seven MLST genes. These

findings correlate with uncertainties when classifying isolates using MLST compared to whole

genome clusters.

To further quantify the contribution of recombination to SDSE population diversity, we

measured the ratio of recombination-derived mutation vs vertically inherited mutation (r/m)

using Gubbins[31] for the 12 largest genome clusters (385 isolates). The median r/m per genome

cluster was 4.46 (range 0.38 – 7.05) which was comparable to a r/m of 4.95 estimated

previously for *S. pyogenes*[22] (Supplementary Table 3). The median recombination segment

length was 4,647 bp (range 6 – 97,789 bp) and the median number of events per genome cluster

was 42 (range 3 – 64), again similar to that previously described for *S. pyogenes*[22], supporting

multiple small fragments of homologous recombination as a major source of genetic diversity

in SDSE.

Contribution of the accessory genome to SDSE diversity.

To investigate the contribution of MGE and non-MGE genes to accessory genome diversity,

an identification and characterisation workflow was developed using genome synteny and a

classification algorithm adapted from proMGE[36]. Segments of accessory genes (hereafter

referred to as 'accessory segments') were classified as prophage, phage-like, ICE, insertion

sequence/transposon (IS) or non-MGE based on the presence of MGE-specific

integrase/recombinase genes and prophage or ICE structural genes (Supplementary Figure 6a).

Accessory segments were classed as mobility elements (ME) when insufficient information

was present to classify a segment – such as with degraded elements, complex nested elements

or elements fragmented by assembly breaks with insufficient contextual information. Genes

were classified into MGE categories based on the frequency of their presence in different

elements (Figure 2b). Prophage elements contributed the largest number of genes to the

accessory genome (36%, 1,697/4,667 genes) followed closely by ME (25%, 1,164/4,667

genes) and ICE (23%, 1,084/4,667 genes). Non-MGE accessory genes constituted 8%

(393/4,667 genes) of the accessory genome. A mean of 0.8 prophage (range 0 – 5), 1.1 phage-

like (range 0 – 4), 1.1 ICE (range 0 – 4) and 4.7 ME (range 0 – 10) were found per genome.

MGE counts were similar when restricted to four complete SDSE genomes (mean 1.3

prophage, 1 phage-like, 1 ICE, 2.8 ME). A mean of 10.5 IS/transposon elements (range 3 – 30)

were found per genome but was likely to be an underestimation as parameters used to construct

the pangenome resulted in the removal of infrequent genes at genome assembly breaks, which

are commonly associated with IS/transposons.

Using genome location defined between two syntenic core genes, MGE chromosomal

'insertion regions' were mapped in the SDSE dataset. A total of 55 insertion regions were found

in SDSE (Figure 3a, Supplementary Table 4a). Prophage or phage-like elements were found at

32 insertion regions (58%), ICE at 21 regions (38%), and 10 regions (18%) were occupied by

either prophage or ICE. Twelve regions (22%) were occupied by elements classified as ME

only, reflective of the limitations imposed by sequence breaks around MGEs in draft genomes.

The MGE insertion regions were broadly occupied across SDSE genome clusters

(Supplementary Figure 6b).

Conservation of MGE insertion regions across SDSE and S. pyogenes are associated with

shared elements.

Applying the same accessory identification and categorisation workflow to the 2,083 *S.*

pyogenes genomes published previously[22], enabled a systematic comparison of MGE and

associated insertion sites both within and between the two species. An average of 1.9 prophage

(range 0 – 6), 0.4 phage-like (range 0 – 3), 0.2 ICE (range 0 – 2), and 1.9 ME (range 0 – 7)

were found per *S. pyogenes* genome. Compared to SDSE, *S. pyogenes* isolates had more

prophage elements but less ICE (p < 0.001, Wilcoxon rank sum).

Overlaying the SDSE and *S. pyogenes* pangenomes while accounting for genome synteny, 31

previously published[37, 38] and 13 new *S. pyogenes* MGE insertion regions (31 prophage, 9 ICE,

and 2 mixed prophage and ICE) were mapped and compared to 55 insertion regions in SDSE

(Supplementary Table 4c). Of these, 16 (29%) insertion regions were shared across the species

(Figure 3a). At the 16 cross-species insertion regions, 1,443 accessory genes (54% of SDSE

and 59% of *S. pyogenes* accessory genes at these regions) were shared across species,

suggesting likely shared MGEs at these regions. At insertion regions which were not conserved

across the two species, 816 accessory genes (34% of SDSE and 42% of *S. pyogenes* accessory

genes) were shared, significantly less than the proportion at conserved insertion regions (p <

0.001, χ^2 test).

Hypothesising that shared MGE insertion regions may provide a basis for shared prophage and

ICE between species, all completely assembled and fragmented putative MGEs >10-15kb at

the 16 cross-species insertion regions were examined. A total of 3,335 fully assembled and 295

high-quality fragmented putative MGEs, 710 from SDSE and 2,920 from *S. pyogenes*, were

extracted. To identify similar elements within this database, we used mge-cluster[39] to cluster

ICE, ME and prophage elements which overcomes limitations of sequence homology-based

approaches which are restricted by the modular and highly recombinogenic nature of MGEs.

Using this approach, 40 clusters containing 2,897 MGEs were identified of which 10 (25%)

ICE and prophage clusters across 13 insertion regions were found in both species (Figure 3b).

The clusters were generally well defined and separated by MGE type (Supplementary Figure

7). Of the 40 clusters, 14 were present at more than one insertion region (median 1, range 1 –

7) indicating broad sharing of MGE clusters across these common insertion regions and

between species.

We further examined MGE clusters for examples of shared near-identical elements (at least

>89% nucleotide identity and coverage). Four MGEs (prophage, ICE and nested IS/transposon

elements) carrying streptodornase genes *sda1* and *spd1*, the exotoxin gene *speC*, and AMR

genes *ermB*, *ant(6)-Ia* and *aph(3')-IIIa* were detected across both species (Table 1,

Supplementary Figure 8). A completely assembled prophage element that was near-identical

(>99% nucleotide identity) to the *S. pyogenes* M1T1 prophage ɸ5005.3 was shared across 12

genomes in SDSE and 104 genomes in *S. pyogenes* (Figure 3c). The M1 prophage ɸ5005.3

carries the streptodornase gene *sda1*, an extracellular virulence factor thought to have been

acquired during the emergence of the global M1T1 *S. pyogenes* lineage[40, 41]. To investigate the

distribution of this prophage further in SDSE, including MGEs fragmented by contig breaks,

co-presence of the same integrase and *sda1* allele was examined across the SDSE database. An

additional 8 genomes with co-carriage of these genes at the same insertion region were found.

The ɸ5005.3 prophage was inferred to be present in SDSE isolates spanning 10 different

genome clusters across seven countries (Australia, Canada, China, Denmark, Norway, Portugal

and USA), over a 20-year period (1999 to 2018). Within these genome clusters, a mean of

28.8% of isolates carried the ɸ5005.3 phage (range 1.5 – 100%). These findings indicate that

MGEs carrying virulence and/or AMR determinants can cross species boundaries including

evidence of dispersal into more than one global SDSE lineage.

Extensive overlap and exchange in the core genome between SDSE and S. pyogenes.

To examine core genome overlap across SDSE and *S. pyogenes*, we found that 1,166 core genes

comprising 75% (1,166/1,547) of the SDSE core genome and 88% (1,166/1,320) of the *S.*

pyogenes core genome were shared in the merged pangenome (Figure 4a, Supplementary Table

2b). A small number of genes/coding sequences were combined when merging pangenomes,

resulting in a slightly smaller merged core pangenome compared to SDSE or *S. pyogenes* alone.

To investigate cross species recombination in these core genes, 1,166 genes that were core in

both species and with <25% length variation were aligned and assessed using fastGEAR[35]. A

total of 526 core genes (45%) had clusters with members from both species consistent with

either shared ancestry or whole gene recombination. Putative cross-species recombination was

identified in 393 (34%) unique genes, including the MLST genes *gki*, *murI*, and *recP* and the

penicillin-binding protein-encoding gene *pbp1b*, which have previously been documented to

be affected by inter-species recombination[11, 16] (Supplementary Table 2b). Of these, 216 genes

had a signature of multiple unique events between species. Recombination affected genes

across all functional categories with no significant difference between classes (p = 0.26, χ^2 test

of independence). While net directionality and absolute frequency of events cannot be inferred

using this data, predicted cross-species recombination events affected genes from across the

genome with few hot-spot regions of higher density or restriction (Figure 4b).

Predicted conserved metabolic pathways between species identified by pangenome analysis.

Examination of non-MGE genes unique to the pangenomes of each species found well-defined

KEGG modules predicting metabolic differences between the species. Core to SDSE but absent

from the *S. pyogenes* pangenome were modules encoding glycogen biosynthesis (M00854) and

threonine biosynthesis (M00018). *S. pyogenes* is known to be auxotrophic for threonine and

the absence of threonine and glycogen biosynthesis genes may reflect greater host dependence

and/or adaptation. Unique to *S. pyogenes* were multiple genes encoding V/A-type ATPases

(M00159). While additional differences are likely to exist beyond described KEGG modules,

69% of SDSE and 86% of *S. pyogenes* metabolic genes were shared indicating extensive

overlap between the species (Supplementary Figure 9).

Conservation of leading S. pyogenes vaccine candidates in the global SDSE population.

Given the extensive overlap in gene content between SDSE and *S. pyogenes*, we next assessed

the carriage of 34 leading *S. pyogenes* candidate vaccine antigens (Supplementary Table 5) [22]

in the global SDSE population. Of the 26 candidate vaccine antigens using a full or near-full

length gene product, 12 were highly represented in both species (present in >99% of isolates at

70% identity, Figure 5a). Mean amino acid sequence divergence in SDSE for these 12

candidates from the *S. pyogenes*-derived reference sequence varied from 80.9% to 99.9%

(Figure 5a, Supplementary Figure 10a). Of the four small peptide vaccine candidates, the

multivalent N-terminal M protein and multivalent Tee antigen candidates, which were searched

at 100% identity, only J8.0 (C-terminal fragment of M protein) was present in all SDSE

isolates. However, none were present in >99% of isolates in both species (Figure 5b). Potential

coverage by five of 11 leading preclinical multicomponent vaccines was >99% in both

populations (Figure 5c, Supplementary Table 6).

Shared antigens may provide cross-species vaccine coverage but conversely, interspecies

recombination could yield increased antigenic diversity. Interspecies recombination analysis

using fastGEAR was carried out on nine full length antigens which had <25% length variation

and were highly present in both species. Five candidates, SpyAD, OppA, Shr, PulA and Fbp54,

demonstrated signatures of recombination between a single-species cluster and a genome of

the other species (Figure 5d and Supplementary Figure 10b). Three candidates, SLO, ADI and

TF, had sequence clusters containing both species. Alleles of *srtA* were separated by species

between SDSE and *S. pyogenes*. Examination of shared clusters found evidence of SDSE

isolates which had acquired a TF allele from *S. pyogenes* (Supplementary Figure 10b).

However, in the setting of limited sequence diversity, recombination could not be inferred for

SLO and ADI.

Discussion

With increasing disease control efforts for *S. pyogenes* including vaccine development[26, 27, 42]

and reports of high disease burden associated with invasive SDSE infection[1-8], an improved

understanding of the SDSE genomic population structure and overlap between these closely

related pathogens provides a new framework for understanding the evolution and prevention

of disease associated with infection by these human pathogens.

The population structure of SDSE was found to have many similarities to that of *S. pyogenes*

with multiple evolutionary distinct lineages. Recombination of small genomic fragments was

found to be a major driver of diversity of the core genome in SDSE with variation in the

accessory genome due to MGE-related genes. These features mirror findings described

previously for *S. pyogenes*, suggesting similar evolutionary dynamics at a global population

level across these pathogens[22].

At the level of the core genome, more than 75% of core genes were shared between each

species. Despite the extensive overlap, metabolic differences were found in well characterised

KEGG modules such as the presence of threonine and glycogen biosynthesis modules which

are core in SDSE but absent in *S. pyogenes*. SDSE has on average, a larger genome than *S.*

pyogenes (2.1Mbp vs 1.8Mbp). The threonine and glycogen biosynthesis modules were also

present in 8 complete *Streptococcus dysgalactiae* subsp. *dysgalactiae* genomes available on

RefSeq (accessed 6 March 2023). While theoretical, it is plausible that these metabolic

differences may reflect greater levels of genome reduction in *S. pyogenes*, under the assumption

that human isolates of SDSE may have more recently diverged from a multi-host reservoir[43].

We found extensive horizontal gene transfer through homologous recombination across the

SDSE and *S. pyogenes* core genome, with over a third of SDSE genes demonstrating evidence

of cross-species recombination. These findings extend previous recognition of such

interspecies recombination of MLST genes[11, 17] and is likely a combination of both ancestral

and ongoing genetic transfers. While we do not quantify the frequency of cross-species

recombination, the extent of recombination is comparable to that reported by Diop *et al.* who

used measures of homoplasy and sliding window-based sequence identity[44]. This dataset may

also provide a foundation for development of future methods controlling for population

structure to infer net directionality and frequency of interspecies recombination.

Over 25% of MGE insertion regions and MGE clusters were found to be conserved across

SDSE and *S. pyogenes*, suggesting much greater sharing of MGEs across the species than

previously appreciated. Within MGE clusters, near-identical complete MGEs were detected

including ϕ5005.3, the prophage carrying streptodornase Sda1 found in the globally successful

M1T1 *S. pyogenes* lineage[41, 45]. The prophage was present across multiple distinct lineages in

SDSE indicating sharing and dissemination of the element in the SDSE population.

Extending these findings to *S. pyogenes* vaccine candidates, 12 of 34 antigens and five of 11

multicomponent vaccine candidates were predicted to contain antigens present in >99% of

isolates from both species. Of the 12 antigens, 6 had evidence of interspecies recombination

including components of multivalent vaccines, SpyAD, OppA, TF and PulA. This suggests that

SDSE may represent an additional reservoir for antigenic diversity particularly if vaccine

candidates enhance selection in an antigenically diverse region. Even greater diversity likely

exists considering current limited whole genome sampling of SDSE in the continents of Africa

and South America. Thus, surveillance of SDSE should be considered in the context of *S.*

pyogenes vaccine development and monitoring.

Although published data on preclinical efficacy of vaccine candidates in SDSE is limited

beyond preliminary data on the J8 peptide[46], the prevalence of conserved antigens suggest there

may be cross-species effects of vaccines intended to target *S. pyogenes*. However, the

sequence-based approach used in this study does not consider potential conserved structural

epitopes which may confer antibody cross-reactivity or cross-opsonisation to divergent alleles.

It should be noted though that an immunological correlate of protection has yet to be

determined for *S. pyogenes* or SDSE.

This systematic and detailed analysis of the overlap between SDSE and *S. pyogenes* at the level

of the core genome, recombination, and MGEs reveals the extensive shared genomic content

between these closely related pathogens and provides a platform for further investigations into

their shared biology. Genomic exchange however is not limited to movement between these

two organisms. Indeed, horizontal gene transfer between SDSE and another beta-haemolytic

Streptococcus, *Streptococcus agalactiae*, has been described and elements of SDSE biology

such as a second FCT locus, are more closely associated with *S. agalactiae* than *S. pyogenes*[34].

These methods could therefore be applied to other closely related species to provide insight

into the shared biology between disease-causing streptococci in humans.

Methods

Bacterial isolates

The collection of 501 global SDSE sequences included publicly available short-read sequence data from NCBI sequence read archive (SRA) and complete genome assemblies from NCBI RefSeq until 4 May 2022. These included studies of invasive and non-invasive SDSE from Japan[47-49], Germany[50], India[51], China[52], Canada[23], Norway[24, 34, 43], USA[18, 19], Denmark[53], Switzerland[54] and The Gambia[55]. A further 228 invasive and non-invasive isolates were collected from Australia, France, USA, India, USA, Argentina, Trinidad, Japan, Fiji, and Portugal to maximise geographical diversity. Metadata for the isolates are available in Supplementary Table 1.

Genome sequencing, assembly and quality control

For the newly sequenced genomes, microbial DNA was extracted and 75-100bp paired-end libraries were sequenced using the Illumina HiSeq 2500 platform (The Wellcome Sanger Institute, United Kingdom). Reads were trimmed using Trim Galore v0.6.6 (https://github.com/FelixKrueger/TrimGalore) with a Phred score threshold of 20-25 and filtered to remove reads <36bp. Reads were examined for contamination using Kraken2 v2.1.2[56]. Draft assemblies were generated using Shovill v1.1.0 (https://github.com/tseemann/shovill) with SPAdes assembler v3.14.0[57] and a minimum contig length of 200bp. Only assemblies with <150 contigs (mean 94, range 57-149), total assembly size between 1.9-2.4Mb (mean, 2.11Mb, range 1.91 – 2.30Mb), and GC% between 38-40% (mean 39.3%, range 38.7 – 39.6%) were included. The mean N50 was 72,091bp (range 42,987 – 146,734bp). Annotations were generated using Prokka v1.14.6[58] using the '–proteins' flag with four Refseq *S. pyogenes* and SDSE genomes to supplement annotations for consistency. *emm* sequence typing was performed using emmtyper v0.2.0 (https://github.com/MDU-

[PHL/emmtyper](#)) and MLST assigned using MLST v2.22.0

(https://github.com/tseemann/mlst)[59]. The Lancefield group carbohydrate was inferred by the

presence genes in the 14 gene group C carbohydrate synthesis locus[18], 15 gene group G[15] locus

and 12 gene group A[15] locus in the SDSE pangenome. The carbohydrate synthesis locus was

present in a conserved location between core genes *mscF* (SDEG_RS03715) and *pepT*

(SDEG_RS03795). Reads for all newly sequenced genomes are available on SRA with

accession numbers provided in Supplementary Table 1.

To make a complete genome sequence of the *S. dysgalactiae* subsp. *equisimilis* strain NS3396,

high quality genomic DNA was extracted using the GenElute Bacterial Genomic DNA Kit

(Sigma). The complete genome assembly of NS3396 (GenBank accession CP128987) was

performed using SMRT analysis system v2.3.0.140936 (Pacific Biosciences). Raw sequence

data was *de novo* assembled with the HGAP3 protocol. Polished contigs were error corrected

with Quiver v1, and the final assembly structure check by mapping raw reads against the

alignment with BridgeMapper v1 as previously described[60].

Complete genomes were checked for genome arrangement and duplications around RNA

operons using socru v2.2.4[61]. Genomes with unverified large-scale rearrangements and

duplications around RNA operons compared to published complete genomes NC_012891.1

GGS_124, NC_018712.1 RE378 and NC_019042.1 AC-2713 were excluded. Four complete

genomes were included in the final database.

Phylogenetic analysis

Recombination masked distances between SDSE genomes were calculated using Verticall

v0.4.0 (https://github.com/rrwick/Verticall) which conducts pairwise comparisons between

genomes and masks regions with increased and/or decreased sequence divergence as putatively

recombinogenic. Using recombination masked distances, a minimum evolution phylogenetic

tree was generated using fastME v2.1.6.1[62] with nearest neighbour interchange using BME

criterion for optimisation and subtree pruning and regrafting.

A comparative maximum-likelihood tree, without masking of recombination, was generated

by alignment of all genomes against reference genome NC_012891.1 GGS_124 using Snippy

v4.6.0 (https://github.com/tseemann/snippy). MGE regions were masked and tree inference

conducted with IQ-tree v2.0.6[63] using a GTR+F+G4 model. Tree comparisons were performed

using TreeDist v2.5.0[64] to calculate generalised Robinson-Foulds distances with mutual

clustering information and matched splits were visualised with the 'VisualizeMatching'

function.

Bayesian dating of the MRCA of the two most sampled genome clusters (groups '1' and '2')

was performed using BactDating v1.1[30] with an additive relaxed clock model and 10^8 iterations

to ensure Markov Chain Monte Carlo convergence and parameter effective sample size >190.

Recombination-masked alignments were used as input. Alignments were generated using

Snippy v4.6.0 against a reference genome within the same genome cluster when available,

NC_018712.1 for genome cluster '2', or a high-quality draft genome (SRR3676046) for

genome cluster '1'. Regions affected by recombination were masked using Gubbins v3.1.2[31]

and IQ-TREE with a GTR+G4 model for tree building, and set with maximum 10 iterations,

minimum of 5 SNPs to identify a recombination block, minimum window size of 100bp and

maximum window size of 10,000bp. Contigs were padded with 10,000 Ns, the maximum

window size, for the genome cluster '1' alignment to prevent Gubbins calling recombination

across contigs. Four non-*stG*62647 isolates were excluded from genome cluster '1' for dating

analysis as they were >1500 SNPs distant and formed a distinct sub-lineage within the cluster.

SDSE population genomics

Evolutionarily related clusters (genome clusters) were defined using PopPUNK v2.4.0[29] which

has previously been used to describe the population genomics of *S. pyogenes*. PopPUNK

assigns clusters based on core and accessory distances calculated using sliding k-mers.

Distances were calculated using k-mer sizes between 13 to 29 at steps of four (Supplementary

Figure 3a). A three-distribution Bayesian Gaussian Mixture Model (BGMM) was fit with 2D

cluster boundary refinement to obtain a network score of 0.93 and was chosen after

benchmarking against a model built using HDBSCAN and BGMM models with different

numbers of distributions (Supplementary Figure 3b and 3c). The PopPUNK model (v1) and

genome cluster designations from this study are available at https://www.bacpop.org/poppunk/

and can be iteratively expanded.

Genomic distances used to compare PopPUNK genome clusters with traditional

epidemiological markers, *emm* and MLST, were recombination masked distances calculated

by Verticall as above. Distances are analogous to 100% minus average nucleotide identity.

Single locus variant MLST clonal complexes were calculated using the goeBURST algorithm

as implemented in PHYLOViZ v2.0[65].

Known SDSE and *S. pyogenes* virulence factors were screened in the SDSE database using

screen_assembly v1.2.7[22] with sequence accessions as listed in Supplementary Table 1b at 70%

nucleotide identity and 70% coverage. Virulence factors were supplemented using Abricate

v1.0.1 (https://github.com/tseemann/abricate) with VFDB[66] at 70% nucleotide identity and

70% coverage. Genes with length variation and assembly breaks due to large repeat regions,

were screened using Magphi v1.0.1[67] for conserved 5' and 3' sequences at a distance equal to

the maximum known length of the gene. Antimicrobial resistance genes were screened using

Abritamr v1.0.6 (https://github.com/MDU-PHL/abritamr), a wrapper for AMRfinder plus

v3.10.18[68], at default 90% identity and 50% coverage.

 SDSE pangenome and MGE analysis

The SDSE pangenome was defined using Panaroo v1.2.10[69] which utilises a pangenome graph-

based approach for pangenome clustering. Panaroo was run in 'strict' mode with initial

clustering at 98% length and sequence identity followed by a family threshold of 70% to

collapse syntenic gene families. Core genes were defined as genes present in ≥99% of genomes,

shell accessory genes between 15%-99% of genomes, and cloud accessory genes in <15% of

genomes. COG functional categories were assigned to core genes using eggNOG-mapper

v2.1.7[70] with default Diamond mode. COG categories J, K, L, A, B and Y were summarised as

genes involved in 'information storage and processing', categories T, D, V, U, M, N, O, W and

Z were summarised as genes involved in 'cellular processing and signalling', categories C, G,

E, F, H, I, P and Q were summarised as genes involved in 'metabolism'.

MGE detection and classification was performed by adapting an automated classification

algorithm by Khedkar *et al.* [36] and enhanced by Corekaburra[71]. Corekaburra maps core gene

consensus synteny from pangenomes and was used to find stretches of accessory genes or

'accessory segments' between core genes which are used as anchor points. Full details of the

logic for classification of MGEs is as described by Khedkar *et al.* [36] and Hidden Markov Models

(HMMs) are available at http://promge.embl.de/. Briefly, accessory segments were

investigated for integrase/recombinase subfamilies using HMMER v3.3.2[72] 'hmmsearch' with

model-specific gathering thresholds. Representative translated protein sequences from the

pangenome were used and resulted in almost identical results compared to searches using

sequences from individual genomes. Integrase/recombinase subfamilies were mapped to

specific MGE classes: prophage, ICE, IS/transposon and ME (or mobility islands). For

subfamilies associated with more than one MGE class, additional information including

presence of prophage or ICE structural genes was required. Prophage structural genes were

annotated using eggNOG-mapper v2.1.7[70]. At least two prophage genes with an appropriate

integrase/recombinase were required to classify an element as a prophage. ICE structural genes

were classified using HMMs from TXSScan[73] and 'hmmsearch' with an E-value threshold of

0.001. Unlike the original method by Khedkar *et al.*, we required the presence of at least one

coupling protein and one T4SS ATPase with an appropriate integrase/recombinase for

classification of an ICE to improve specificity. Elements with a prophage specific

integrase/recombinase, but no prophage structural genes were classified as phage-like.

Accessory segments without enough contextual information or which contained both prophage

and ICE structural genes were classified as ME. ME may also represent degraded elements,

integrative mobilizable elements (IME), or accessory segments fragmented by sequence breaks

with a disconnect between the integrase/recombinase and structural genes. The boundaries of

nested segments with more than one recombinase were not resolved and we did not define the

exact *attR* and *attL* sites.

Classification of accessory genes into non-MGE or MGE classes was based on the frequency

each gene was detected in each class. Accessory segments with prophage or ICE structural

genes but no integrase or unclassified segments with a sequence break did not contribute to the

count as they may represent part of a fragmented MGE. Genes were classified as MGE-related

if it appeared on any MGE more frequently than it was found on a non-MGE element. A small

number of genes only present adjacent to contig breaks without an accompanying integrase

were considered unclassified as they could not be confidently grouped into an MGE or non-

MGE category. For the purposes of gene classification, phage-like elements were grouped with

prophage.

SDSE recombination detection

To examine evidence of recombination within the core SDSE genome, fastGEAR[35] was run on

1,543 core gene alignments from the 501 SDSE strains included in the study. Gene alignments

were performed using MAFFT v7.505[74]. Alignments with greater than 25% gap characters

were excluded. fastGEAR infers population structure for each alignment, allowing for the

detection of lineages or clusters that have 'ancestral' and 'recent' recombination events

between them. Default parameters were used with a minimum threshold of 4 bp applied for the

recombination length.

The relative ratio of mutation due to recombination to vertically inherited mutation (r/m) was

determined for the 12 most frequently sampled genome clusters (385 isolates) using Gubbins

v3.1.2[31] as described above for phylogenetic and BactDating analysis. Complete genomes

within the same genome cluster were available and used for alignment for four genome clusters.

The remaining genome clusters were aligned against a high-quality draft genome within the

same genome cluster. MGE regions were masked in the alignment. The r/m, number of

recombination events and length of recombination segments was calculated for each genome

within a genome cluster by summing along branches from the Gubbins output. The median r/m

was calculated for each genome cluster, and the median of these values was given as the species

r/m.

MGE insertion site mapping across SDSE and S. pyogenes

SDSE MGE insertion regions were defined between two core genes using Corekaburra[71] to call

pangenome synteny. Only prophage, ICE and ME insertion sites were mapped. MGE counts

presented in Supplementary Table 4a were estimated by summarising fragmented MGEs on

the same contig as a core gene, to the corresponding core gene pair insertion region. Phage-

like elements were grouped with prophages. Alternative insertion sites were defined as the less

commonly found connection between two core genes and represent genome rearrangements

around MGEs.

Insertion regions found in *S. pyogenes* were collated from McShan *et al.* [37] and Berbel *et al.* [38]

in addition to 13 newly reported insertion sites using Corekaburra. Insertion regions were

mapped across species by merging the SDSE and *S. pyogenes* pangenome. The *S. pyogenes*

pangenome was defined using Panaroo v1.2.10[69] with the same parameters as that used for

SDSE. The pangenomes of the two species were then merged using 'panaroo-merge' which

overlays pangenome graphs. Merging was performed with an initial clustering threshold of

90% identity and 90% length followed by a threshold of 70% for collapsing syntenic genes.

Insertion sites in each species were then matched using the merged pangenome. Where no

match was obtained, including where genes were core in only one species, core genes within

two genes either side of the insertion region were manually inspected for a match.

Shared genes and MGEs at insertion sites

MGE genes at shared insertion sites were determined using Corekaburra[71] by listing all

accessory genes present between core gene insertion sites which were conserved across SDSE

and *S. pyogenes*. Genes were considered shared across SDSE and *S. pyogenes* if they

overlapped in the merged pangenome.

MGEs were clustered using mge-cluster[39] which maps distances between MGEs using presence

and absence of shared unitigs, projects the distances in two dimensions using t-SNE and

clusters similar elements using HDBSCAN. mge-cluster has been used with plasmid sequences

and we now extend it to use with prophage and ICE. mge-cluster was run with t-SNE perplexity

of 75 and HDBSCAN minimum cluster size of 30. MGE sequences were extracted using

Magphi v1.0.1[67] with insertion site core genes used as seed sequences, maximum seed distance

determined by the largest distance between the respective core pair calculated by Corekaburra,

and '--print_breaks' selected which attempts to extract sequences across contig breaks. When

cross-species seed hits could not be obtained using nucleotide sequences, input of the '--

protein_seed' flag with translated protein sequences were used. To ensure only high quality

MGE sequences were obtained, only sequences longer than 10-15kb were included.

Fragmented MGEs were concatenated for input into mge-cluster. Some segments were unable

to be extracted by Magphi as seed core genes were present on small contigs resulting in

difficulty determining whether to extract sequences in the 5' or 3' direction.

Highly similar MGEs present in SDSE and *S. pyogenes* were found by sequence-based

clustering using CD-HIT v4.8.1[75] 'cd-hit-est' with word size 5, sequence identity threshold 0.8

and length difference cut-off 0.8. MGE alignment figures were generated using Easyfig

v2.2.3[76].

Comparing SDSE and S. pyogenes pangenome

The accessory gene classification scheme described for SDSE and COG annotations were

mapped to the *S. pyogenes* pangenome. The merged pangenome was then used to map

functional classes of core genes and accessory gene MGE classes across species. Panaroo[69]

combines a small number of genes/coding sequences when merging pangenomes resulting in

slightly fewer pangenome genes in the merged pangenome compared to that for the individual

species.

Metabolic differences between SDSE and *S. pyogenes* were inferred by searching for well-

defined complete KEGG modules present in one species but not the other. Non-MGE and core

genes unique to each species were extracted from the pangenomes of each respective species

and KO identifiers were assigned using eggNOG-mapper v2.1.7[70]. KO numbers of unique

genes from both species were then mapped simultaneously to KEGG modules using KEGG

mapper Reconstruct[77].

Recombination detection across species

Gene alignments of the 1,116 shared core genes of SDSE and *S. pyogenes* with <25% gap

characters were created and analysed with fastGEAR[35]. Interspecies recombination was

inferred by two criteria from the fastGEAR results. Lineages or sequence clusters inferred by

fastGEAR could contain sequences from one species or both. A predicted recombination event

from a cluster containing only one species to a genome from the other species, an event

classified as 'recent' by fastGEAR, was classified as a putatively cross-species. The presence

of both species within the same lineage or cluster when more than one lineage was predicted,

could occur in the setting of cross-species recombination of the whole gene or with shared

ancestry. As these could not be easily separated, cross-species clusters were recorded

separately, and locus tags are provided in Supplementary Table 2b individual interrogation.

Vaccine antigen screen

S. pyogenes vaccine candidates were screened for presence and sequence diversity in SDSE.

Vaccine candidates and screening methods were adapted from a previous report of vaccine

antigenic diversity in *S. pyogenes* and updated with new multivalent antigens and

formulations[22, 42] (Supplementary Table 5). The presence of vaccine antigen genes was

determined using screen_assembly v1.2.7[22] with a cut-off of 70% nucleotide identity and 70%

coverage. Sequence diversity was presented as nucleotide divergence calculated by BLASTn

or predicted amino acid divergence using tBLASTn as indicated.

For the 30-valent M protein vaccine, the 180bp hypervariable 5' sequence was extracted from

publicly available databases and compared against the N-terminal sequence of SDSE *emm*

types represented in the 501 genomes from this report at 70% nucleotide identity and 70%

coverage. The representative/type SDSE *emm* sequence (e.g., *stG*62647.0, *stG*840.0) was used

for the comparison. For the T antigens, nucleotide sequences of the individual subdomains

from different T alleles included in the fusion multivalent vaccine formulations were extracted

and searched at a threshold of 70% nucleotide identity and 70% coverage. Results were

presented as presence/absence as M and T antigens are hypervariable.

The small peptide antigens J8.0, StrepInCor 'common' overlapping B and T cell epitope, P*17

and S2 were screened using a six-frame translation of the target genome and search at 100%

identity and coverage. As P*17 had two amino acid substitutions at positions 13 and 17

introduced which are not naturally occurring, amino acids at these positions were replaced with

a wildcard for the search.

Data availability

Accessions for raw sequencing data are available in Supplementary Table 1a. The complete

genome sequence of *S. dysgalactiae* subsp. *equisimilis* NS3396 was deposited to GenBank

(accession CP128987).

Code availability

Supplementary code used to extract and classify accession segments and MGEs is available at

https://github.com/OuliXie/Global_SDSE.

Table 1. Fully assembled mobile genetic elements shared at conserved cross-species insertion regions in the global *Streptococcus dysgalactiae*

subsp. *equisimilis* (SDSE) and *S. pyogenes* databases. SDSE insertion sites are mapped to reference genome GGS_124 (NC_012891.1) and *S.*

pyogenes insertion sites are mapped to reference genome SF370 (NC_002737.2). SDSE insertion site number refers to naming in Figure 3a.

SDSE insertion	S. pyogenes insertion	MGE	SDSE isolates (countries)	*S. pyogenes* isolates (countries)	Max length and identity	Virulence and AMR cargo genes
SDEG_RS03340 – SDEG_RS03345 (insertion region 17)	SPY_RS02725 – SPY_RS02975	Prophage	1 genome USA	2 genomes France	42kb 100% identity, 99% coverage	Exotoxin *speC* Streptodornase *spd1*
SDEG_RS03450 – SDEG_RS03465 (insertion region 19)	SPY_RS03010 – SPY_RS03025	Prophage	1 genome USA	2 genomes UK	42kb 89% identity, 98% coverage	Streptodornase *sda1* allele with 95% nucleotide identity to MGAS5005 M1T1 *sda1* allele.
SDEG_RS08710 – SDEG_RS08720 (insertion region 45)	SPY_RS07175 – SPY_RS07185	Prophage	12 genomes USA, Australia, Denmark, Norway, Canada, and Portugal	104 genomes India, New Zealand, Brazil, Australia, China, Hong Kong, Taiwan, UK, Japan, Trinidad, Canada, Lebanon, USA	41kb 99% identity, 99% coverage	Streptodornase *sda1* on the *S. pyogenes* M1T1 prophage, φ5005.3.

| SDEG_RS09545 – SDEG_RS09550 (insertion region 49) | SPY_RS01170 – SPY_RS01175 | Nested ICE-like and IS/transposon | 1 genome India | 1 genome Canada | 53kb 90% identity, 98% coverage | Macrolide AMR *ermB* Aminoglycoside AMR *ant(6)-Ia* and *aph(3')-IIIa* Additional IS/transposon in SDSE genome with chloramphenicol AMR *catA*. |

Figure 1. Workflow to characterise the global population structure of *Streptococcus dysgalactiae* subsp. *equisimilis* (SDSE) and its overlap with *S. pyogenes*. A globally diverse collection of 228 SDSE isolates were whole genome sequenced using Illumina short read sequencing and collated with publicly available genomes to form a database of 501 global sequences. An analysis of the SDSE population structure was undertaken followed by a systematic analysis of the pangenome, evidence of homologous recombination, mobile genetic elements (MGEs) and MGE insertion sites using pangenome gene synteny contextual information. This framework was then compared with a previously published global database of 2,083 *S. pyogenes* genomes by merging pangenomes accounting for shared gene synteny to reveal extensive overlap at the level of shared genes, homologous recombination and MGEs[22]. Figure created with BioRender.com.

Figure 2. Global population structure and pangenome composition of *Streptococcus dysgalactiae* subsp. *equisimilis* (SDSE). **a)** Minimum evolution phylogenetic tree of 501 SDSE isolates using recombination masked genomic distances. Fifty-nine distinct whole genome clusters are highlighted by alternating blue and grey shades from internal nodes. Newly published sequences from this study are highlighted by red points at the tips of the tree. Isolates

carrying the group A carbohydrate are marked by asterisks. The outer ring around the tree

denotes geographical region of isolation. **b)** Alluvial plot of the SDSE pangenome with

categorisation of core (present in ≥99% of isolates) and accessory genes into summarised COG

functional groups. Accessory genes are further characterised based on the type of element they

are most frequently found. Genes associated with prophage and prophage-like elements were

grouped together. Genes associated with mobile genetic elements (MGE) that could not be

classified further were assigned to mobility elements (ME). A small number of unclassified

accessory genes were present only adjacent to contig breaks without an integrase and could not

confidently be classified into a MGE or non-MGE category. ICE, integrative conjugative

element; IS, insertion sequence; non-MGE, non-mobile genetic element.

Figure 3. Clustering and genome localisation of *Streptococcus dysgalactiae* subp. *equisimilis* (SDSE) and *S. pyogenes* mobile genetic elements (MGEs). **a)** Location of SDSE MGE insertion regions relative to the GGS_124 reference genome (NC_012891.1). Insertion regions are labelled from 1 to 55 of which 16 (29%) were shared with *S. pyogenes* (highlighted in purple). Shared insertion regions at which MGE clusters were present and shared across species are highlighted with asterisks. The outer ring indicates the type of element detected at each insertion region in SDSE. tRNA and rRNA regions, the *mgg* regulon containing the *emm* gene, and the two FCT loci in GGS_124 are marked on the genome representation. **b)** Clustering of 3,630 MGEs at 16 shared insertion regions across SDSE and *S. pyogenes*. Each cluster is outlined by an ellipsoid. Of the 40 MGE clusters, 10 (25%) were shared across species. Clusters which contained notable examples of near-identical (>80% nucleotide identity and coverage) cross-species MGEs are labelled: the global M1T1 ϕ5005.3 prophage carrying the Sda1 streptodornase (104 *S. pyogenes*, 12 SDSE), ϕ*sda1* refers to a prophage carrying a *sda1* allele 95% similar to ϕ5005.3 (2 *S. pyogenes*, 1 SDSE), ϕ*speC* refers to a previously described prophage carrying *speC* and *spd1*[18] (2 *S. pyogenes*, 1 SDSE), *ermB* ICE refers to a complex nested ICE and IS/transposon element carrying multiple AMR genes including *ermB* (1 *S. pyogenes*, 1 SDSE). These MGEs represent a subset of elements within each respective cluster. **c)** Genome architecture and comparison of the *S. pyogenes* M1T1 prophage ϕ5005.3, with a near identical prophage found in group G SDSE isolate 1D-1878 at insertion site 45. 1D-1878 was isolated from a case of invasive disease in Denmark in 2018[53]. Regions of genomic similarity were inferred using BLAST and plotted using Easyfig v2.2.3[76]. The grey gradient indicates the percent identity in the legend. The same prophage was detected in an additional 19 SDSE isolates spanning 10 distinct genome clusters and 7 countries indicating significant dispersion of the prophage in the SDSE population.

Figure 4. Comparison and recombination signatures between the *Streptococcus dysgalactiae*

subsp. *equisimilis* (SDSE) and *S. pyogenes* pangenome. **a)** Alluvial plot of the shared SDSE

(n=501) and *S. pyogenes* (n=2,083) pangenome. Categorisation of core genes (present in ≥99%

of isolates in both species) and accessory genes by association with mobile genetic element

(MGE). ICE, integrative conjugative element; IS, insertion sequence; ME, mobility element.

Genes classified as belonging to different types of MGEs or an MGE/non-MGE combination

across the species were binned as ME in the merged pangenome. Unclassified genes were

excluded and a small number of genes were merged when overlaying pangenomes resulting in

a slightly smaller merged pangenome than the pangenomes of individual species. **b)** Circular

rainfall plot of core genes with signatures of recombination flagged by fastGEAR[35] plotted

relative to the GGS_124 reference genome (NC_012891.1). Genes flagged with putative

interspecies recombination events are highlighted by red points. The distance between each

gene with its neighbour within the same category is plotted on a $\log_{10}$ scale between 1 bp to 32

kbp. The innermost track plots the density of genes with evidence of interspecies recombination

using a window size of 10,000 bp. MGE regions are masked in grey. The rainfall plot

demonstrates that genes flagged as affected by inter-species recombinants are dispersed across

the SDSE genome.

Figure 5. Theoretical coverage of preclinical vaccine candidates and multi-component formulations in global *Streptococcus dysgalactiae* subsp. *equisimilis* (SDSE, n = 501) and *S. pyogenes* (n = 2,083) populations. **a)** Whole gene candidates were screened in both species at 70% nucleotide length and identity. Theoretical coverage of the population (% presence) is expressed by length of bar and conservation relative to the *S. pyogenes* query sequence is reflected by gradient fill from 80% similar (yellow) to 100% (black). **b)** Peptides and gene subdomain candidates were screened without calculation of sequence diversity. Peptide fragments

were screened using a 100% match approach and a six-frame translation of the sequence (J8.0,

S2, P*17, StreptInCor 'common epitope') and gene sub-domains (30-valent *emm*, T antigen

fragments in TeeVax1, TeeVax2, TeeVax3) were screened at 70% nucleotide identity and

coverage. **c)** Theoretical coverage of SDSE and *S. pyogenes* isolates in this study by multivalent

vaccine candidates. **d)** Exemplar of putative recombination between *S. pyogenes* and SDSE

vaccine candidate *spyAD*. *S. pyogenes* isolate NS1140 demonstrated evidence of cross-species

recombination around the vaccine candidate *spyAD* gene. Sequence similarity between *S.*

pyogenes reference genome SF370 NC_002737.2 (top), recombinant *S. pyogenes* isolate

NS1140 (middle), and SDSE reference 3836-05 (bottom) demonstrated greater similarity

between NS1140 and 3836-05 at position 419 of *spyAD* to 2 ORFs downstream. Regions of

genomic similarity were inferred using BLAST and plotted using Easyfig v2.2.3[76].

Author Contributions

OX, DJM and MRD planned the study. RJT, LS, KSS, TH, PG, ACS, MRB, BWB, MDP, MR, DEB, BJC and DJM provided samples and metadata. OX, JMM, AJH, MGJ, JA Lees, NLBZ, OB, SLB, GPC, GTH, LM, JA Lacey, TBJ, SAB, GD, SDB, MJW, SYCT, DJM and MRD designed experimental procedures and generated data. OX, JMM, AJH, MGJ, JA Lees, NLBZ, SLB, GPC, SYCT, DJM and MRD analysed data. OX, JMM, AJH, SLB, GPC, DJM and MRD wrote the manuscript. All authors revised and approved the manuscript.

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