Typhi Mykrobe: fast and accurate lineage identification and

antimicrobial resistance genotyping directly from sequence reads for

the typhoid fever agent *Salmonella* Typhi

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Abstract

Background

Typhoid fever results from systemic infection with *Salmonella enterica* serovar Typhi (Typhi) and causes 10 million illnesses annually. Disease control relies on prevention (water, sanitation, and hygiene interventions or vaccination) and effective antimicrobial treatment. Antimicrobial resistant (AMR) Typhi lineages have emerged and become established in many parts of the world. Knowledge of local pathogen populations informed by genomic surveillance, including of lineages (defined by the GenoTyphi scheme) and AMR determinants, is increasingly used to inform local treatment guidelines and to inform vaccination strategy. Current tools for genotyping Typhi require multiple read alignment or assembly steps and have not been validated for analysis of data generated with Oxford Nanopore Technologies (ONT) long-read sequencing devices. Here, we introduce Typhi Mykrobe, a command line software tool for rapid genotyping of Typhi lineages, AMR determinants, and plasmid replicons direct from sequencing reads.

Results

We validated Typhi Mykrobe lineage genotyping by comparison with the current standard read mapping-based approach and demonstrated 99.8% concordance across nearly 13,000 genomes sequenced with Illumina platforms. For the few isolates with discordant calls, we show that Typhi Mykrobe results are better supported by the evidence from raw sequence read data than the results generated using the mapping-based approach. We also demonstrate 99.9% concordance for detection of AMR determinants compared with the current standard assembly-based approach, with similar results for plasmid marker detection. Typhi Mykrobe predicts clinical resistance categorisation (S/I/R) for eight drug classes, and we show strong agreement with phenotypic categorisations generated from reference laboratory minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) data for n=1,572 Illumina-sequenced isolates (>99% agreement within one doubling dilution). Using n=100 isolates sequenced with both Illumina and ONT, we show strong concordance (>96% for genotype and >98% for AMR and plasmid) between calls made from ONT reads and those made from Illumina reads. Typhi Mykrobe takes less than a minute per sample and is available at https://github.com/typhoidgenomics/genotyphi.

Conclusions

Typhi Mykrobe provides rapid and sensitive genotyping of Typhi genomes direct from Illumina and ONT reads. It demonstrated accurate assignment of GenoTyphi lineage, detection of AMR determinants and prediction of corresponding AMR phenotypes, and identification of plasmid replicons.

Background

Typhoid fever is caused by systemic infection with the human-restricted bacterium *Salmonella enterica* subspecies *enterica* serovar Typhi (Typhi) [1]. More than 10 million typhoid fever illnesses occur annually (mainly in south Asia), associated with 100,000 deaths, and the risk of complications and death increases without effective antimicrobial therapy [2]. The World Health Organization AWaRe (Access, Watch, Reserve) Antibiotic guidance recommends typhoid fever is treated with ciprofloxacin, unless resistance is prevalent locally, in which case azithromycin is recommended to treat uncomplicated disease and intravenous ceftriaxone is recommended for treatment of severe disease [3,4]. A high proportion of typhoid fever is caused by antimicrobial resistant (AMR) Typhi, and nearly all Typhi isolated in south Asia have been ciprofloxacin non-susceptible for over two decades [5,6]. Extensively drug resistant (XDR, resistant to amoxicillin/ampicillin, chloramphenicol, trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole, ciprofloxacin, and ceftriaxone) Typhi, for which the only treatment options are oral azithromycin or intravenous carbapenems, have been circulating in Pakistan for nearly a decade with travel-associated infections reported globally [7–9]. Concerningly, XDR Typhi with no travel links has been reported in USA and China [7,10], and XDR isolates with additional resistance to azithromycin and carbapenems were recently reported in Pakistan [11].

Tracking the emergence and spread of AMR Typhi through whole genome sequencing (WGS) is important to inform public health control measures such as deployment of typhoid conjugate vaccines (TCVs) [12], investigating and controlling outbreaks [10], and informing the development of antimicrobial treatment guidance [3], including management of travel-associated infections in non-endemic countries [4]. Genetic determinants of AMR are well-understood in Typhi [13,14], and include both acquired genes that are plasmid-borne or chromosomally integrated [15], and point mutations in core genes. These include *acrB* for azithromycin resistance [16], and quinolone resistance-determining regions (QRDR) of *gyrA*, *gyrB,* and *parC* for ciprofloxacin non-susceptibility and resistance [13,17]. Recently, carbapenem-resistant Typhi was described, due to acquisition of a plasmid-borne carbapenemase gene [11]. Typhi is highly clonal, which has hampered subtyping in the past; however, its population structure has been well defined using WGS [15], and the GenoTyphi framework for genotyping and variant nomenclature first proposed in 2016 [18] has been widely adopted by the global community to facilitate identification of emerging variants and communication across laboratories and settings [6,14,19–21].

The GenoTyphi scheme was originally defined based on nearly 2,000 WGS isolates from over

60 countries [18]. It uses a hierarchical framework based on the global phylogeny, stratifying the

Typhi population structure into four primary lineages, 16 clades, and 49 subclades (henceforth

referred to as genotypes), based on lineage-specific marker single nucleotide variants (SNVs).

Under the GenoTyphi scheme, the lineage known as 'H58', which has been associated with the

spread of multidrug resistance (MDR, resistant to amoxicillin/ampicillin, chloramphenicol,

trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole) Typhi throughout Asia and into Eastern Africa [15], was

designated genotype 4.3.1. The scheme was later extended to provide further discriminatory

power for identifying additional subpopulations of epidemiological importance [21–27], such as

the XDR Typhi lineage associated with outbreaks in Pakistan (genotype 4.3.1.1.P1) [26,27]. The

scheme currently includes 87 genotypes [28], and its future maintenance and development will

be managed by a working group within the Global Typhoid Genomics Consortium

(https://www.typhoidgenomics.org/).

The GenoTyphi scheme specification consists of a set of marker SNVs defining the hierarchical

genotypes, which in principle can be used by any bioinformatics tool to assign genotypes to new

genomes. The original GenoTyphi paper [18] was accompanied by a Python-based pipeline

(available at: https://github.com/typhoidgenomics/genotyphi) designed for typing Illumina WGS

data against the scheme. This implementation requires users to first map short reads or

assemblies to the reference sequence of Typhi strain CT18 (accession AL513382.1) [29], then

provide as input the resulting binary alignment map (BAM) or variant call file (VCF). Marker

SNVs were identified from these input files and used to assign genomes to genotypes.

Functionality was extended to include detection of mutations associated with reduced

susceptibility to ciprofloxacin or azithromycin [22]. This mapping-based approach had various

limitations, largely due to the need for users to pre-map their data to a specific reference, which

was cumbersome (e.g. some users had issues with mapping tools creating incompatible output

files, the BAM files are large and inefficient to process), and AMR analysis was restricted to

mutation detection. The GenoTyphi scheme has also been implemented in other genotyping

tools, including Typhi PathogenWatch, [13] which works by analysing assembled genomes, and

the split-*k*-mer-based BioHansel tool, which does not include AMR detection [30].

Here, we present a novel approach to rapid genotyping of both AMR and GenoTyphi lineages

from reads, implemented in the Mykrobe open-source software framework [31], dubbed Typhi

Mykrobe. Input into this new tool accepts raw WGS reads (FASTQ files), and has been tested

with reads generated by ONT and Illumina platforms. The tool performs rapid (i) lineage

genotyping using the GenoTyphi framework; (ii) detection of a broad range of clinically relevant

molecular determinants of AMR, including both acquired genes and mutations; and (iii)

detection of plasmid replicon markers common to Typhi. We validated GenoTyphi lineage

assignment from reads by comparison with the original mapping-based implementation, using

12,839 Typhi genomes [14]. We assessed AMR genotype calls by comparison with assembly-

based genotype calls from PathogenWatch, and with antimicrobial susceptibility phenotypes for

4,018 isolates. Finally, we assessed performance on long read data generated using Oxford

Nanopore Technologies (ONT) MinION devices, using 93 isolates with matched ONT and

Illumina data.

Implementation

Genotyping targets

The current scope of the GenoTyphi scheme as discussed here (n=87 genotypes) is illustrated

in **Supplementary Figure 1**. This includes five new genotypes (3.5.4.1, 3.5.4.2, 3.5.4.3,

4.3.1.2.1, 4.3.1.2.1.1) recently described in a technical report [28]. The full scheme specification

is available in the GenoTyphi repository (https://github.com/typhoidgenomics/genotyphi) in the

file Genotype_specification.csv.

The AMR and plasmid targets included in Typhi Mykrobe are summarised in **Figure 1**. These

include sequence probes targeted to detect presence/absence of epidemiologically relevant

mobile AMR determinants [13,14], conferring resistance to the currently recommended drugs

ciprofloxacin, ceftriaxone, and azithromycin, as well as older drugs ampicillin, chloramphenicol,

trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole, and tetracycline, as well as carbapenems. Fourteen SNVs

associated with resistance to ciprofloxacin and azithromycin are also included. In addition, Typhi

Mykrobe includes probes to detect the presence or absence of 13 plasmid replicons previously

reported in Typhi [14], including 11 associated with AMR plasmids, the cryptic plasmid pHCM2,

and linear plasmid pBSSB1, which carries the alternative flagellin z66 [32]. A marker SNV to

identify the plasmid sequence type 6 (PST6) lineage of the dominant IncHI1 plasmid is also

included [33]. The full list of AMR targets is available in the GenoTyphi repository

(https://github.com/typhoidgenomics/genotyphi) in the file AMR_genes_mutations_plasmids.csv.

Implementation in Mykrobe

The Mykrobe software, first developed in 2015 for *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* and *Staphylococcus aureus* [34], uses a *k*-mer-based approach to identify marker SNVs and the presence or absence of target genes using 'probe' sequences to screen against [31]. These data are then used to assign hierarchical genotypes and report AMR determinants. Probe sets have been previously developed and implemented for other bacterial pathogens including *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* [34–36], *Staphylococcus aureus* [31] and *Shigella sonnei* [37]. Mykrobe is available at https://github.com/Mykrobe-tools/mykrobe.

Mykrobe probe sets were created for genotype and AMR marker SNVs using the *mykrobe variant make-probes* command using a *k*-mer size of 21 and the Typhi CT18 reference genome (accession: AL513382.1). The nested hierarchical relationships of the marker SNVs were specified and Mykrobe used this information to identify the best supported genotype call (e.g., a call of '4.3.1.1' is typically supported by detection of three nested markers that demarcate different levels of the hierarchy: 4, 4.3.1, 4.3.1.1). Briefly, probe sets for gene presence or absence were created using a Python script that extracted the relevant AMR sequences. Details of the specific commands and Python scripts are provided in https://github.com/typhoidgenomics/genotyphi. Probe sets were also created to confirm input read sets as *S. enterica* using the presence of marker gene *invA*, involved in invasion of intestinal epithelium cells by *S. enterica*, and serovar Typhi based on the 26 known multi-locus sequence types (STs) (see **Figure 1**). Further details of the preliminary testing and implementation of the Typhi probe sets are available in the technical report https://zenodo.org/doi/10.5281/zenodo.7407984. The Typhi Mykrobe probe sets and typing panel are available at https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.27102334.

Summarising Mykrobe outputs

To support interpretation of the Mykrobe output, we developed a Python-based parser script *parse_typhi_mykrobe.py,* which takes as input a set of JavaScript Object Notation (JSON) files output by Mykrobe, and summarises them in a tab-delimited table with one row per genome, and columns to indicate the genotype calls (see **Figure 1**). Also included are several quality-control fields reported by Mykrobe, including read-level support for each marker SNV contributing to the final genotype call ('node support'), and for any additional markers detected. This information is helpful for identifying contaminated samples (see examples in Results). The parser script also assigns a summary 'confidence' level in the final GenoTyphi lineage call,

based on the Mykrobe quality scores for each nested component marker that makes up the final

genotype call. In brief, a 'weak' confidence call is assigned when one or more marker SNVs are

of low quality, defined as Mykrobe quality score of 0 or Mykrobe quality score of 0.5 with

minority support (i.e., <50% of reads) for the derived allele. A 'moderate' confidence call is

assigned if one (and only one) marker SNV has a Mykrobe quality score of 0.5 but with majority

support (i.e. ≥50% of reads) for the derived allele. Otherwise, the genotype call is assigned

'strong' confidence.

The parser script summarises the AMR markers detected by Mykrobe in the form of a pseudo-

antibiogram with one column per drug. Each drug column contains either 'S' (indicating no

markers detected) or 'R' (detected markers). For ciprofloxacin, it is useful to distinguish between

low-level resistance (MIC 0.06-0.5 mg/L), which is associated with a single mutation or acquired

gene and high-level resistance (MIC >0.5 mg/L), which is associated with combinations of two

or more determinants [14,17], because while both groups are associated with increased fever

clearance times and probability of treatment failure compared with susceptible strains, high-level

resistance is associated with worse outcomes than low-level resistance [38]. Current guidelines

and terminology for these groups vary, but for simplicity, the Mykrobe parser reports these

groups as 'I' (for intermediate) and 'R', respectively. This matches the current CLSI guidelines

(https://clsi.org/standards/products/microbiology/documents/m100/). However, it should be

noted that (i) EUCAST defines the clinical breakpoint for 'R' in *Salmonella* spp. as MIC >0.06

mg/L (https://www.eucast.org/clinical_breakpoints), which includes both low-level and high-level

resistance; and (ii) previous literature has referred to the low-level range as 'decreased

ciprofloxacin susceptibility' rather than 'I' [39]. In addition to this antibiogram-style summary,

individual AMR and plasmid markers are reported in their own columns, coded as 1=present

and 0=absent (as seen in **Supplementary Table 1,** available at

https://github.com/typhoidgenomics/TyphoidGenomicsConsortiumMykrobe).

All code and instructions for genotyping isolates with GenoTyphi using Typhi Mykrobe are freely

available in the GitHub repository at https://github.com/typhoidgenomics/genotyphi (DOI:

10.5281/zenodo.13859721).

Validation data

Validation on Illumina short-read data was conducted using the Global Typhoid Genomics

Consortium dataset described in Carey et al [14]. Reads were mapped to the CT18 reference

genome (accession: AL513382) [29] using bwa-mem v0.7.17 via the Centre for Genomic

Pathogen Surveillance (CGPS) mapping pipeline v1.2.2

(https://gitlab.com/cgps/ghru/pipelines/snp_phylogeny), to generate alignments in BAM format.

Assemblies were generated using the CGPS assembly pipeline v2.1.0

(https://gitlab.com/cgps/ghru/pipelines/dsl2/pipelines/assembly/) which utilises the SPAdes

assembler (v3.12.0) [40,41]. A total of 141 isolates were excluded due to excessive unclustered

heterozygous SNVs indicative of mixed cultures (n=92), assembly issues (n=46) or both (n=3),

resulting in 12,839 isolates for Mykrobe validation (listed in **Supplementary Table 2,** available

at https://github.com/typhoidgenomics/TyphoidGenomicsConsortiumMykrobe).

Validation of genotype calls

Typhi Mykrobe v0.12.1 was run on all (n=12,839) Illumina FASTQ files using the new Typhi

panel (v20221208) and the results were summarised using *parse_typhi_mykrobe.py*. To

validate Typhi Mykrobe's GenoTyphi genotype calls, we compared them with those called by

the original mapping-based approach. To do this, we used BAM file read alignments generated

from the same n=12,839 FASTQs as described above as input to the Python script genotyphi.py

(v2.0; available at https://github.com/typhoidgenomics/genotyphi) [18,22,28]. To validate the

AMR and plasmid calls, we compared them to those called in corresponding genome

assemblies by Pathogenwatch (available for n=11,992 genomes, assemblies for the other

genomes were excluded as they did not meet Pathogenwatch quality-control criteria[13]). We

downloaded the GenoTyphi, AMR, and plasmid replicon typing reports generated by Basic

Local Alignment Search Tool (BLAST) searching assemblies for these genomes from

Pathogenwatch on 7 March 2023 (GenoTyphi v20221208 specification for lineage genotypes).

Categorical agreement (percentage of genomes where both tools agreed on the same call of

presence or absence) was calculated separately for each marker, and collectively by drug

(percentage of genomes where both tools agreed that at least one marker was present or that

no markers were present) (**Supplementary Table 3,** available at

https://github.com/typhoidgenomics/TyphoidGenomicsConsortiumMykrobe). Probes for plasmid-

borne carbapenemase genes circulating in Enterobacterales (*bla*NDM-5, *bla*KPC-2, *bla*VIM-1,

*bla*IMP-27, *bla*OXA-48) were added to GenoTyphi v20240407 (DOI: 10.5281/zenodo.13859721)

following the report of *bla*NDM-5 in Typhi from Pakistan [11], and validated using the genomes

of the two distinct morphologic variants from that study (accessions: SRR22801766 and

SRR22801806). Comparisons and statistical analyses were conducted in R v4.1.0 using

tidyverse v1.3.1 [42].

Accuracy of AMR phenotype prediction

Antimicrobial susceptibility testing (AST) data were available for n=3,970 of the Illumina-

sequenced isolates, sourced from three separate datasets (**Supplementary Table 4,** available

at https://github.com/typhoidgenomics/TyphoidGenomicsConsortiumMykrobe). Minimum

inhibitory concentration (MIC) data were available from the UK Health Security Agency

(UKHSA) for n=852 isolates following EUCAST standards and interpretive criteria (v10, 2020)

[43] and the US Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (US CDC) for n=720 isolates

following CLSI standards and interpretive criteria (M100, 2023) [44]. Disk diffusion data

following EUCAST standards and interpretive criteria (v8.0, 2018) were available for n=2,446

isolates collected and analysed from three countries as part of the Surveillance for Enteric Fever

in Asia Project (SEAP), with multiple source labs contributing AST data and isolates for

sequencing [6]. Typhi Mykrobe AMR calls following the S/I/R categorisation described above

were compared with the phenotypic antimicrobial susceptibility S/I/R categorisation using the

relevant CLSI or EUCAST standards for each data set, for the currently recommended drugs

azithromycin and ciprofloxacin and ceftriaxone, and the older drugs ampicillin, chloramphenicol,

trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole, and tetracycline (note UKHSA tested amoxicillin rather than

ampicillin; and SEAP did not test tetracycline). To assess concordance between genotype and

phenotype, we followed the principles used for assessment of new AST devices by the US Food

and Drug Administration (FDA), which considers (i) categorical agreement, (ii) major error rate

(defined as the proportion of S isolates that test R with the new method [45,46]), and (iii) very

major error rate (defined as the proportion of R isolates that test S with the new method)

(**Supplementary Table 5,** available at

https://github.com/typhoidgenomics/TyphoidGenomicsConsortiumMykrobe). The FDA standard

requires >90% overall categorical agreement (within one doubling dilution), <3% major errors for

each drug, and <1.5% very major errors for each drug; hence, we adopted these thresholds to

assess the accuracy of the genotype-based prediction of phenotype. For drugs with high error

rates, we investigated the relationship between individual resistance markers and phenotype,

which we visualised using upset plots generated in R v4.1.0 using the ComplexUpset package

v1.3.3 (10.5281/zenodo.3700590). For five isolates with unexplained trimethoprim-

sulfamethoxazole resistance, we used nucleotide blast search of the genome assemblies to

confirm the presence of wild-type chromosomal *folA* and *folP* (100% nucleotide match to

reference sequences from Typhi strain Ty2) and screened the assemblies for other AMR

determinants using CARD RGI v6.0.3 [47].

Matched ONT and Illumina validation data

For 93 isolates, long-read ONT data were available in addition to the Illumina data; these

included 68 isolates from Carey et al 2023 [14] and 30 novel isolates from this study. Sample-

level details including accessions and technical specifications such as library, flow cell, device,

basecaller, and ONT processing (including demultiplexing, trimming and filtering), are available

in **Supplementary Table 6,** available at

https://github.com/typhoidgenomics/TyphoidGenomicsConsortiumMykrobe. These varied

between isolates including different flow cells (e.g., R9.4.1, n=30 and R10.4.1, n=24) and base

calling methods. Read depth for each ONT dataset was assessed by using seqtk v1.2-r94

(https://github.com/lh3/seqtk) to determine total number of bases per read set, which was

divided by the length of the CT18 reference genome (4,809,037 bases). For four genomes, ONT

reads were assembled to resolve discrepant plasmid calls, assembly was done using Flye

v2.9.1-b1780 [48] with default parameters and yielding genome sizes of the expected 4.8 Mbp.

Due to the high read depth (784×), the ONT data for SRR17299234 was subsampled prior to

assembly using Filtlong v0.2.1 (https://github.com/rrwick/Filtlong) to --target_bases 480000000

(resulting in 99.81× depth).

Results

Validation of GenoTyphi genotype calling

To validate Typhi Mykrobe for assigning hierarchical GenoTyphi genotypes, we ran it on

n=12,839 Illumina readsets and compared the resulting genotypes to those called using the

original mapping-based implementation. Five genomes were typed as 'not Typhi' by Mykrobe

and not analysed further. Of the remaining n=12,834 genomes, Mykrobe called the same single

genotype as the mapping-based approach for n=12,807 (99.79%). For a further n=17 genomes,

Mykrobe and the mapping-based pipeline gave concordant reports of two genotypes being

present, consistent with mixed samples (in the Typhi Mykrobe output this is reported as one

primary genotype plus additional markers, while in the mapping-based pipeline the result is

reported as a list of supported genotypes). Eight genomes belonged to genotype 3.5.3, which

was nested in 3.5.4, breaking the usual hierarchical structure of the scheme. Typhi Mykrobe

correctly reported these genomes as genotype 3.5.3 with support for both markers 3.5.4 and

3.5.3, as it has this nested relationship explicitly encoded in its hierarchy; whereas the mapping-

based pipeline does not have this logic and incorrectly reported these genomes as genotype

3.5.4.

There were two instances of genuine disagreement in the genotype calls generated by Typhi

Mykrobe as compared to the mapping-based approach. One isolate (ERR5243665) was called

as genotype 2 by Mykrobe with strong confidence (no reads support for any alternative alleles

or markers). It was genotyped as 0.1.3, albeit with low support, by the mapping-based

approach, but the genotype 2 marker was also detected. This isolate clustered with other

genotype 2 isolates in a distance-based phylogeny of genomes from the same study [6] (see

tree at https://pathogen.watch/collection/0z5knw9jic9b-guevara-et-al-2021), suggesting that the

Mykrobe call is correct. The other isolate (ERR2663783) was called as genotype 4.3.1.1 by

Typhi Mykrobe with strong confidence. It was reported as "4.3.1.1,4.3.1.3.Bdq" (with low

support) by the mapping approach; however, the support for the 4.3.1.3.Bdq marker was low.

This isolate clustered closely with other 4.3.1.1 isolates from the same study [25](see tree at

https://pathogen.watch/collection/b2k6dym3bdyq-tanmoy2018), which is consistent with the

Mykrobe call.

Validation of AMR genotyping

To assess the accuracy of Mykrobe for detecting the presence of AMR genes and mutations,

we compared genotype calls from Mykrobe (called from k-mer analysis of reads) with those

from Pathogenwatch (called from BLAST analysis of genome assemblies of the same read

sets). We found very strong categorical agreement between the two methods at the individual

marker level, with 99.88% of the 299,004 marker-genome combinations yielding the same call

(summarised in **Table 2,** full details in **Supplementary Table 2**). High concordance was evident

for all genetic markers of AMR (98.56–100%, **Table 2**), as well as plasmid replicon markers

(99.74–100%, **Table 3**).

Both Mykrobe and Pathogenwatch summarise AMR data in terms of a binary phenotype

categorization (S/R), assuming the presence of a marker associated with resistance to a drug

implies resistance 'R', with the exception of ciprofloxacin, where presence of any marker is

categorised as 'I' and specific combinations of markers are categorised as 'R', resulting in three

categories S/I/R (see Methods). Categorical agreement was very high between the drug-level

categorisations reported by both genotyping tools, with >99.7% agreement (n=2 to 33

discordant genomes) for each drug (**Table 2, Supplementary Table 3**), and for subsequent

categorisation as MDR (99.86%, n=17 discordant) or XDR (99.97%, n=4 discordant).

Validation of AMR phenotype prediction

To assess the accuracy of Mykrobe's genotype-based clinical resistance categorisations, we

compared them with AST data, which was available for a subset of n=4,018 isolates (see

Methods, **Supplementary Table 4**). These isolates were from three data sets, using different

methods (MIC with EUCAST standards, MIC with CLSI standards, disk diffusion with EUCAST

standards), hence we analyzed the results from each dataset separately. Categorical

agreement was high (>95%) for all drugs across all three datasets, and very high (>99%) for the

two sets of reference-laboratory MIC measures (**Figure 2, Supplementary Figure 5**). The only

exception was US CDC categorisation of low-level ciprofloxacin resistance (using the CLSI 'I'

threshold, ≥0.125 to 0.5 mg/L), which showed 97.36% agreement with Mykrobe calls of 'I' or 'R'.

This was mainly due to the presence of major errors (susceptible isolates with AMR

determinants detected, thus reported as R by Mykrobe, see Methods), whereby n=17 isolates

tested susceptible to ciprofloxacin (n=14 with MIC=0.06 mg/L, n=3 with MIC=0.015 mg/L) but

Mykrobe detected a known QRDR mutation (**Figure 3b**); categorical agreement within one

doubling dilution was 99.4%.

Major errors were infrequent (<3% prevalence) for all drugs in all datasets (**Figure 2**), except for

ciprofloxacin (**Supplementary Table 5**). Most of the ciprofloxacin major errors were in isolates

whose MIC or disk zone measurement were close to the breakpoint (**Figures 3, 4c**); all carried

well-characterized molecular resistance determinants (QRDR mutations and/or *qnr* genes, see

Figures 3, 4c), and in all but one case the same determinants were also detected in the

corresponding genome assemblies by Pathogenwatch (details below).

Very major errors (resistant isolates with no AMR determinants detected, thus reported as S by

Mykrobe) were also infrequent (<1.5% prevalence) for the reference-laboratory MIC datasets,

but errors were higher in the disk diffusion dataset (**Figure 2**). The only drugs showing major or

very major errors compared with the reference-laboratory MIC data were ciprofloxacin and

trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole (**Figure 2**). For ciprofloxacin, the US CDC categorisation of

high-level resistance (using the CLSI 'R' threshold, ≥1 mg/L) yielded four very major errors (R

isolate called as 'I' by Mykrobe). Two had a single mutation detected (*gyrA*-S83F) and two had

double QRDR mutations (*gyrA*-S83F plus *gyrA*-D87N or *parC*-S80I) (see **Figure 3**);

Pathogenwatch calls agreed in all instances. Importantly, all four isolates had MIC=1 mg/L, i.e.

they agreed with the genotype-based call within one doubling dilution. UKHSA uses the

EUCAST standards, which have a single (low-level) breakpoint for ciprofloxacin (R >0.06 mg/L),

and this yielded just two major errors (2.9%) and two very major errors (0.26%) (see **Figure 3**).

For trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole, Mykrobe analysis of the US CDC dataset yielded a single

error (R isolate called as S) but the MIC was 4 mg/L, i.e. within one doubling dilution, and the

isolate had no *sul* or *dfr* genes that were identified by Mykrobe or Pathogenwatch. Mykrobe

analysis of the UKHSA dataset yielded five errors for trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole; all were R

isolates called as S by Mykrobe, which detected *sul* genes but no *dfrA* genes. Interestingly, all

five isolates tested susceptible to trimethoprim alone (MIC ≤0.5, well below the >4 mg/L

breakpoint), supporting the absence of *dfrA* genes; these were also not detected by

Pathogenwatch analysis of the corresponding genome assemblies, or by UKHSA's internal

pipeline [44]. Further investigation of these genome assemblies confirmed the presence of wild-

type *folA* and *folP*, and no additional determinants were reported by CARD RGI (v6.0.3).

Mykrobe analysis of the SEAP dataset showed lower overall categorical agreement with AST

phenotypes (95.3–98.2%). As the testing was done using disk diffusion, it was not possible to

assess the categorical agreement within one doubling dilution of a MIC. However, most of the

errors were within 2–4 mm of the breakpoint (see **Figure 4**), and in all but one instance, the

Mykrobe genotype result matched that called by Pathogenwatch from the corresponding

genome assemblies. The only exception was a ciprofloxacin resistant isolate (ERR4325960),

which Mykrobe reported as carrying *gyrA*-S83F with no other determinants, but Pathogenwatch

detected both *gyrA*-S83F and *qnrS* in the assembly.

Validation on nanopore reads

We explored the accuracy of Typhi Mykrobe for genotyping ONT long-read data by comparing

results from 98 pairs of ONT to Illumina reads generated from the same isolates. Data were

contributed by members of the Global Typhoid Genomics Consortium and generated using

different library preparation methods and sequencing devices (see **Supplementary Table 6**).

Mykrobe called one Illumina read set and five ONT read sets as non-Typhi (mean ONT read

depths estimated as 0.04×, 4.06×, 8.01×, 26.40×, 27.85×), these were excluded from further

comparison as Mykrobe does not further genotype once an isolate is called as non-Typhi.

Among the n=92 Typhi genomes called from both ONT and Illumina reads, the Typhi Mykrobe

genotype lineage calls matched for n=89 (96.7%). For all three discrepant isolates, (all

sequenced on R.9 or R.9.4 flowcells), the set of SNV markers detected from ONT reads closely

matched those detected from Illumina reads, but with one or two markers missing from the

ONT-based calls and no unexpected markers reported resulting in final genotype calls of 4.3.1.1

vs 4.3.1, 4.3.1.2 vs 4.3.1, 2.1.7.2 vs 2.1.7. For the missing markers, Mykrobe reported low and

variable ONT read depths, with ranges 3–9, 4–31 and 1–14, suggesting that the errors are likely

due to lack of informative ONT reads at the marker loci. Notably, the overall ONT read depths

for these were reasonable (mean 35×, 170× and 90× respectively), suggesting the lack of

informative reads for genotyping may be caused by contamination from non-Typhi reads, or

high error rates resulting in low rates of k-mer matching.

AMR marker detection from ONT reads was highly concordant with Illumina-based calls, with

98.77% overall agreement across the n=736 isolate-drug combinations (92 isolates across 8

drugs; see **Supplementary Table 7**). There were nine genomes with disagreement of AMR

calls; five of these had a marker detected in Illumina reads but not ONT reads (n=1 *catA1*, n=1

qnr, n=3 QRDR mutations), three had *gyrB*-464F detected in ONT reads but not Illumina, and

one had *gyrA*-S464F detected in Illumina reads and *gyrA*-S83F in ONT. In all nine cases, the

Typhi Mykrobe call from Illumina reads matched that from Pathogenwatch analysis of the

corresponding assemblies of Illumina reads. There was no overlap between ONT read sets with

AMR discrepancies and those with lineage genotype discrepancies. Overall, ONT-based

resistance prediction showed complete agreement with Illumina for six of the eight drugs, 98.9%

agreement for chloramphenicol resistance, and 91% for ciprofloxacin resistance.

Plasmid marker detection from ONT data was also highly concordant with Illumina-based calls,

with 99.67% overall agreement across the n=1,196 isolate-marker combinations (92 isolates

across 13 markers; see **Supplementary Table 8**). Four genomes had discrepant plasmid

marker calls, all with a marker detected from Illumina reads but not from ONT reads. One isolate

(DRR070993) had a typical IncHI1 MDR plasmid profile reported from Illumina reads (IncHI1A,

IncHI1BR27, IncHI1_ST6 indicating presence of IncHI1-ST6 plasmid, with *catA1*, *dfrA7*, *bla*TEM-1,

sul1, *sul2*), but the ONT read profile was missing the *IncHI1A* and *catA1* markers (and missing

catA1 in the corresponding Illumina assembly and a mismatch for *IncHI1A*). The other three

isolates had pHCM2 detected in the Illumina reads and in the corresponding assemblies [14] but

not in ONT reads; for these isolates the ONT and Illumina sequencing was done on different

DNA extracts so this may reflect plasmid loss in the culture used for ONT sequencing.

Discussion

Typhi Mykrobe provides detection and genotyping of key features of clinical and public health

importance, including assigning lineages, AMR determinants, and plasmid replicons (**Figure 1**).

Compared with other tools for Typhi genotyping, Mykrobe has the advantage of not requiring

any pre-processing, aligning, or assembling of reads, but instead takes as inputs raw FASTQ

files. This simplifies bioinformatics workflows and reduces time-to-result as Typhi Mykrobe can

return a full genotype profile in typically <1 minute. Importantly, although Typhi Mykrobe is not a

QC tool *per se*, it provides useful data on the read-level support for individual genotype markers,

which can be used to help identify potentially mixed samples. As a command-line tool that is

easy to install locally using Bioconda, Typhi Mykrobe is suitable for research and public health

laboratory settings, facilitates standardized reporting of Typhi genotypes without the need to

share sequence data, and enables broader access to bioinformatics functionality across a

variety of settings.

Typhi Mykrobe showed very high genotyping accuracy, for GenoTyphi lineage assignment

(**Table 1**), and detection of AMR and plasmid markers (**Tables 2-3**), compared with existing

genotyping tools. Of note, the included IncY, pO111 and IncFIB for the cryptic pHCM2 replicon

targets have recently been shown to be sometimes carried on phage-plasmids [49,50], in

addition to conjugative plasmids such as the IncY plasmids associated with XDR Typhi [26].

Future work is required to identify additional targets to delineate the phage-plasmids, and the

Typhi Mykrobe software can be readily updated to include new markers.

In addition, we show that the panel of AMR markers currently included in Typhi Mykrobe can be

used to predict AMR phenotypes with high accuracy, demonstrating very high concordance with

S/I/R calls made from reference-laboratory MICs (**Figure 2**). Concordance was slightly lower

when compared with research laboratory disk diffusion data. However, as the phenotypic

resistance prevalence rates were similar across the three datasets, it is reasonable to assume

that the higher error rates in the disk diffusion dataset compared with the two reference-

laboratory MIC datasets most likely reflect comparatively lower accuracy of the disk diffusion

phenotype measurements, which are known to yield lower accuracy for some drugs such as

azithromycin [51,52] and in this case were completed across multiple laboratories. There are

currently no formal standards for assessing the accuracy of AMR phenotype predictions from

genomic data [53]; however, applying the standards for FDA licensing of new AST devices,

Typhi Mykrobe easily passed the target threshold for categorical agreement (>99% agreement

within one doubling dilution for reference-laboratory MIC data, >95% agreement for disk-

diffusion data; vs >90% target) (**Figure 2**).

Typhi Mykrobe also showed very low rates of major errors and very major errors compared with

the reference-laboratory MIC data, and for nearly all drugs these fell below the acceptable

thresholds for a new AST device (<3% and <1.5%, respectively) (**Figure 2**). The exception was

trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole, for which five UKHSA isolates tested resistant but Typhi

Mykrobe predicted as susceptible due to a lack of *dfrA* genes, which are thought to be required

for resistance to trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole along with *sul* genes, which were detected in

these genomes. Other genotyping tools (Typhi Pathogenwatch, CARD RGI) also could not

identify any known mechanisms of resistance to trimethoprim or trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole

in these genomes, and the isolates tested sensitive to trimethoprim. Therefore, we hypothesise

these isolates may harbour efflux mutations or a novel mechanism of resistance to

trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole that does not result in resistance to trimethoprim alone. Further

analyses to determine the exact resistance mechanism was beyond the scope of this study.

Ciprofloxacin showed very low error rates in the UKHSA MIC data, interpreted using the single

low-level resistance threshold (MIC >0.06 mg/L) recommended by EUCAST, but slightly higher

error rates for the US CDC MIC data, which was interpreted using low-level and high-level

resistance thresholds (although still below the acceptable thresholds within one doubling

dilution). Carbapenemase genes were added to the Typhi Mykrobe panel, but this resistance is

newly emerging and there was only a single carbapenem-resistant isolate sequenced at the

time of testing (in which *bla*NDM-5 was correctly identified by Typhi Mykrobe), therefore we

could not yet assess accuracy of phenotype prediction for carbapenems.

Finally, we demonstrated that Typhi Mykrobe can be used to genotype ONT reads, showing

high concordance with results obtained from the analysis of Illumina reads generated from the

same isolates (96.74% agreement on GenoTyphi lineage calls, 98.77% on AMR markers and

99.67% on plasmid markers). We did not have suitable data to directly assess ONT-based AMR

predictions with AST data. ONT-based and Illumina-based drug-level predictions of AST

phenotypes showed high agreement; however, future studies assessing ONT data compared to

reference-laboratory MIC data would be useful to confirm the accuracy of ONT data for

phenotype prediction. As one might expect, many of the errors occurred in isolates with lower
read depth. However, as the matched ONT-Illumina data available for testing were contributed
by different laboratories that used different ONT protocols and devices for library preparation,
sequencing, and base calling, we were unable to perform a detailed assessment of the impact
of read depth and quality on genotyping performance. The accuracy of ONT reads has greatly
increased in recent years and are approaching Illumina read accuracy of ~99%; hence modern
ONT data would be expected to perform similarly to Illumina data [54]
(doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.10397817). Future studies assessing the impact of read depth and
base calling methods on the performance of Typhi Mykrobe on ONT data would be desirable to
help guide laboratories on the most appropriate methods and target yield for ONT experiments
aiming to produce reliable genomic surveillance data for Typhi.

Conclusions

Typhi Mykrobe provides rapid and accurate genotyping of Typhi genomes directly from Illumina
reads, including (i) assignment of GenoTyphi lineage; (ii) detection of AMR determinants and
prediction of corresponding AMR phenotypes demonstrating >99% categorical agreement with
reference-laboratory MIC data; and (iii) detection of plasmid replicons. The software also
performs well on direct genotyping from ONT reads information, although further investigation is
needed to assess the accuracy of AMR phenotype prediction.
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Other sections

List of abbreviations

AMR: antimicrobial resistance
AST: antimicrobial susceptibility testing
CARD: Comprehensive Antibiotic Resistance Database
CLSI: Clinical & Laboratory Standards Institute
EUCAST: The European Committee on Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing
FDA: United States of America Food and Drug Administration
MDR: multidrug resistance
MIC: minimum inhibitory concentration
ONT: Oxford Nanopore Technologies

QRDR: quinolone resistance-determining regions

SEAP: Surveillance for Enteric Fever in Asia Project

SNV: single nucleotide variants

UKHSA: United Kingdom Health Security Agency

US CDC: United States of America Centres for Disease Control and Prevention

WGS: whole genome sequencing

XDR: extensively drug resistant

Availability and requirements

Project name: GenoTyphi

Project home page: https://github.com/typhoidgenomics/genotyphi

Operating system(s): Platform independent

Programming language: Python3 or higher

Other requirements: Mykrobe

License: GNU General Public License

Any restrictions to use by non-academics: None

Project name: Mykrobe

Project home page: https://github.com/Mykrobe-tools/mykrobe

Operating system(s): Platform independent

Programming language: Python3 or higher

Other requirements: anytree 2.8.0 or higher, Biopython 1.79 or higher, PyVCF3 1.0.3 or higher,

requests 2.27.1 or higher, mongoengine 0.24.1 or higher, cython 0.29.28 or higher, numpy

1.22.0 or higher, pytest

License: MIT License

Any restrictions to use by non-academics: None.

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate

Each contributing study or surveillance program obtained local ethical and governance

approvals, as reported in the primary publication for each dataset. Inclusion of data that were

not yet public domain by August 2021 was approved by the Observational / Interventions

Research Ethics Committee of the London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine (ref

#26408), on the basis of details provided on the local ethical approvals for sample and data
collection (listed in Carey et al, 2023, Supplementary file 1).

Consent for publication
Not applicable

Availability of data and materials
All code and instructions for genotyping isolates with GenoTyphi using Mykrobe is available in
the GitHub repository at https://github.com/typhoidgenomics/genotyphi. The version reported in
this paper is v2.1 (DOI: 10.5281/zenodo.13859721)
643
644   The datasets and analysis code used in this article are available in a GitHub repository at
645   https://github.com/typhoidgenomics/TyphoidGenomicsConsortiumMykrobe.
646

Competing interests
MML was a co-developer of a Trivalent Salmonella (Enteritidis/Typhimurium/Typhi Vi) conjugate
vaccine with Bharat Biotech International and the Wellcome Trust. MML has also received
payments from Pfizer for consultancy work. MML holds US patents for "Compositions and
Methods for Producing Bacterial Conjugate Vaccines". MML was a member of a NIH DSMB that
oversaw US government-funded efficacy trials of COVID-19 vaccines. DSMB was disbanded
after several vaccines were given Emergency Use Authorization. MML was a member of the
Vaccines and Related Biological Products Advisory Committee of the FDA. IIB was a consultant
for the Weapons Threat Reduction Program, Global Affairs Canada. AJP has been involved an
Oxford University partnership with AZ for development of COVI19 vaccines. AJP has received
payments for consultancy work from Shionogi. AJP is chair of DHSC's Joint Committee on
Vaccination and Immunisation, is a chair of WHOs Salmonella TAG, and was a member of
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JH, MH, ZI, ZAD and KEH – Software

DJI, JH, RRW, ZAD and KEH - Methodology

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965 **Tables and Figures**
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967 **Table 1. Validation of genotype calls**
968 Summary of Typhi Mykrobe genotype calls (GenoTyphi scheme) for 12,839 Illumina readsets,
969 compared with mapping-based genotype calls.

Typhi Mykrobe vs mapping-based genotype calls	Genomes (N)
invA-negative, thus designated non-Typhi and not genotyped by Mykrobe	5
Single genotype, exact match	12,807
Two genotypes, exact match (reported differently)	17
Genotype 3.5.3, mismatch (reported incorrectly by mapping pipeline as 3.5.4 due to breaking hierarchy assumption)	8
Discordant result (low support reported by mapping-based pipeline, phylogenetic tree supports Mykrobe call)	2

Table 2. Validation of AMR genotyping (vs assembly based)

Comparison of AMR genotyping by Typhi Mykrobe (kmer-based analysis of reads) vs

Pathogenwatch (based on nucleotide blast search of assemblies), for n=11,992 isolates.

Complete details of the call comparisons are given in **Supplementary Table 3**. Categorical

agreement at drug level is calculated based on agreement of the binary S/R categorisation of

the 11,992 isolates by each method (i.e. 'Concordant' means Typhi Mykrobe and Typhi

Pathogenwatch made the same call of S or R based on absence or presence, respectively, of

known genetic determinants; 'Discordant' means one method identified determinants and called

R, while the other did not and called S). *For ciprofloxacin, both tools categorise as S/I/R as

defined in Methods, and categorical agreement was calculated across these three categories.

**Results for *dfrA* genes are summarised together, and as some genomes have multiple *dfrA*

alleles the total observations is greater than the number of isolates (see details in

Supplementary Table 3).

Drug	Agreement (drug level)	Genetic marker	Concordant	Discordant	Agreement (marker level)
Ampicillin	99.72%	*bla*TEM-1	11,958	34	99.72%
		*bla*OXA-7	11,991	1	99.99%
Azithromycin	99.98%	*acrB*_717	11,991	1	99.99%
		mphA	11,992	0	100.00%
Ceftriaxone	99.97%	*bla*CTX-M	11,990	3	99.97%
		*bla*SHV-12	11,991	1	99.99%
		*bla*OXA-134	11,992	0	100.00%
		ampC	11,992	0	100.00%
Chloramphenicol	99.89%	*catA1*	11,979	13	99.89%
		cmlA1	11,992	0	100.00%
Ciprofloxacin*	99.72%	*qnrB*	11,979	13	99.89%
		qnrD	11,992	0	100.00%
		qnrS	11,987	5	99.96%
		*gyrA*_83	11,986	6	99.95%
		*gyrA*_87	11,986	10	99.92%
		*gyrB*_464	11,493	8	99.93%
		*parC*_80	11,976	17	99.86%
		*parC*_84	11,992	0	100.00%
Sulfonamides	99.81%	*sul1*	11,971	21	99.82%
		sul2	11,819	173	98.56%
Trimethoprim	99.83%	*dfrA* genes**	12,049	22	99.82%
Tetracycline	99.85%	*tetA(A)*	11,986	6	99.95%
		tetA(B)	11,980	12	99.90%
		tetA(C)	11,970	0	100.00%
		tetA(D)	11,970	0	100.00%
-	-	**Total**	**299,004**	**346**	**99.88%**

Table 3 - Validation of plasmid replicon detection (vs assembly based).
Comparison of plasmid replicon markers identified in the genomes by Typhi Mykrobe (kmer-based analysis of reads) vs Pathogenwatch (PW, based on nucleotide blast search of assemblies), for n=11,992 isolates.

Plasmid replicon marker	Both	Mykrobe only	PW only	Agreement
IncFIAHI1	251	0	0	100%
IncFIB(K)	175	0	1	99.99%
IncFIB(pHCM2)	1406	26	5	99.74%
IncHI1A	872	9	3	99.90%
IncHI1B	874	7	1	99.93%
IncHI2A	3	0	0	100.00%
IncI1	5	0	0	100.00%
IncL/M	1	0	0	100.00%
IncN	100	2	0	99.98%
IncX1				
IncX3	21	0	0	100.00%
IncY	666	0	0	100.00%
p0111				

A. Typhi Mykrobe pipeline

B. AMR determinants included in Typhi Mykrobe

Drug	Acquired genes	Point mutations
ampicillin	*blaTEM-1, OXA-7*	
azithromycin	*ereA, ermB, mphA*	*acrB-717*
carbapenems	*blaKPC-2, blaNDM-5, blaVIM-1, blaIMP-27, blaOXA-48*	
ceftriaxone	*ampC1, CTX-M-15, OXA-134, SHV-12*	
chloramphenicol	*catA1, cmlA1*	
ciprofloxacin	*qnrB1, qnrD1, qnrS1*	*gyrA-83, gyrA-87, parC-80, parC-84*
sulfonamides	*sul1, sul2*	
trimethoprim	*dfrA1, dfrA5, dfrA7, dfrA14, dfrA15, dfrA17, dfrA18*	
tetracycline	*tetA(A), tetA(B), tetA(C), tetA(D)*	

C. Plasmids included in Typhi Mykrobe

Group	Plasmid probe target
AMR-linked replicons	IncFIBK, IncHI2A, IncI1, IncL/M, IncN, IncX1, IncX3, IncY
IncHI1 targets	IncHI1A, IncHI1BR27, IncFIAHI1 (rep markers); C19241A (marker of PST6 lineage)
Non-AMR plasmids	IncFIB_pHCM2 (cryptic), pBSSB1 (z66 flagellin), pO111

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993 **Figure 1: Typhi Mykrobe functionality**

994 A) A schematic overview of the Typhi Mykrobe pipeline. B) Table of epidemiologically important

995 AMR determinants targeted for detection/typing by Typhi Mykrobe, grouped by drug. C) Table of

996 epidemiologically important plasmid replicons targeted for detection by Typhi Mykrobe.

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Figure 2: Validation of Typhi Mykrobe AMR predictions vs AMR phenotypes

Summary of Typhi Mykrobe's genotype-based clinical resistance categorisations compared with susceptibility phenotypes, for 4,018 isolates with publicly available matched genome and phenotype data. Comparisons are summarised as categorical agreement, and calculated separately for the three different source datasets, which used different phenotyping methods and interpretive standards (US CDC: MIC, CLSI; UKHSA: MIC, EUCAST; SEAP: disk diffusion, EUCAST; see **Methods**). Major errors were defined as susceptible isolates with AMR determinants detected (reported as R by Mykrobe). Very major errors were defined as resistant isolates with no AMR determinants detected (reported as S by Mykrobe). Error bars are shown that represent 95% confidence interval of proportion. Note UKHSA tested amoxicillin rather than ampicillin, the result is reported in the ampicillin row.

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Figure 3: Typhi Mykrobe genotypes vs minimum inhibitory concentration from two

reference laboratories, for ciprofloxacin.

a) UKHSA dataset, using EUCAST. **b)** US CDC dataset, using CLSI. Each column represents

the set of isolates in which Typhi Mykrobe identified a unique combination of genetic

determinants, indicated in the panel at the bottom. For each column, the violin plots show the

distribution of ciprofloxacin MIC values, and stacked barplots show the proportion of genomes

called as S, I, or R (coloured as per inset legend, and labelled with counts). The solid horizontal

lines on the violin plots mark the R breakpoint, the dashed line marks the CLSI I breakpoint

used for the US CDC dataset.

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Figure 4: Typhi Mykrobe genotypes vs disk diffusion data from the SEAP study, for three
drug classes
Data for three drugs are shown in panels **a)** Azithromycin, **b)** Ceftriaxone, and **c)** Ciprofloxacin.
Each column represents the set of isolates in which Typhi Mykrobe identified a unique
combination of genetic determinants, indicated in the panel at the bottom. For each column, the
violin plots show the distribution of disk diffusion values for azithromycin, ceftriaxonne or
ciprofloxacin. The stacked barplots show the proportion of genomes called as S, I, or R
(coloured as per inset legend, and labelled with counts). The solid horizontal lines on the violin
plots mark the R EUCAST breakpoint used for the SEAP disk diffusion data. The dashed line
marks the EUCAST breakpoint for I.
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