

Genomic analysis of Staphylococcus aureus sequential isolates from lungs of patients with cystic fibrosis

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| 1 | Genomic analysis of Staphylococcus aureus sequential isolates |
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| 2 | from lungs of patients with cystic fibrosis |
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| 14 | |
| 15 | Abstract |
| 16 | Staphylococcus aureus is the predominant pathogen in children with cystic fibrosis |
| 17 | (CF) in France and, around 80 % of them harbored S. aureus in their lungs. This study |
| 18 | investigated virulence and antimicrobial resistance-associated genes and within-host |
| 19 | evolution polymorphisms in 14 S. aureus persistent clones from 14 chronically infected |
| 20 | CF children. For each of the 14 patients, we compared genomes of two isogenic |
| 21 | sequential isolates separated by 2-9 years. All isolates were methicillin-sensitive and |

harbored the immune evasion gene cluster, whereas half of them harbored the enterotoxin gene cluster. Most clones were capsule type 8 (8/14) and accessory gene regulator (agr)-specificity group 1 (9/14). We identified convergent mutations in genes involved in carbohydrate metabolism, cell wall metabolism, genetic information processing and adhesion, which are likely to play important role in intracellular invasion and persistence. Further explorations relying notably on proteomics will contribute to improve our understanding of the mechanisms at play in the striking long-term persistence ability of *S. aureus*.

30

31 **1. Introduction**

32 *Staphylococcus aureus* is a host-associated bacterium, which primarily colonizes 33 asymptomatically human anterior nares of a third of healthy individuals. It is also an 34 opportunistic pathogen causing symptomatic infections ranging from superficial skin 35 and soft tissue infections to life-threatening invasive diseases [1]. *S. aureus* is one of 36 the first pathogens isolated from the airways of young cystic fibrosis (CF) patients, who 37 are chronically infected by lung-adapted *S. aureus* clones [2].

S. aureus belongs to the 'ESKAPE pathogens' category due to its resistance to 38 antibiotics. In 2018, the prevalence of Methicillin-resistant S. aureus (MRSA) and 39 Methicillin-sensitive S. aureus (MSSA) in individuals with CF in the United States was 40 25% and 55.3%, respectively [3]. In Europe, the overall proportion of MRSA in S. 41 aureus infections is below 10% [4]. CF Patients infected with MRSA are characterized 42 by accelerated lung function decline, higher mortality, and increased hospitalization 43 [5]; however, a consensus regarding the appropriate therapeutic approaches for MRSA 44 45 or MSSA is still lacking [6].

Respiratory epithelial cells of CF patients produce a thick and sticky mucus as a consequence of defective transmembrane conductance regulator CFTR protein. Airways of CF patients expose bacteria to selective pressures including host defense, antibiotic therapy and the competition with co-infecting pathogens [7]. This environment favors the emergence of highly adapted variants, which have greater 51 ability to survive and persist compared to their ancestors [8]. Phenotypic variations can result from genetic changes including minor or single nucleotide variations (SNVs) or 52 horizontal gene transfer (HGT), which can be selected if advantageous [9]. Whole-53 genome sequencing (WGS) allows the identification of underlying molecular 54 mechanisms of phenotypic variants observed during within-host adaptation, including 55 changes in antibiotic resistance, by comparing genomes of adapted isolates to the 56 ones of their isogenic ancestors [10]. In addition, analyzing the variable genome allows 57 58 clone assignment, typing and assessment of resistance and virulence potential. About 59 25% of *S. aureus* genes can be assigned to the variable genome, which is further divided into core variable genes and mobile genetic elements (MGEs) [11]. The S. 60 61 aureus repertoire of virulence genes is diverse and primarily dependent on the clone. Predicting clinical outcome from genotype information remains a major medical issue 62 and large-scale studies reporting S. aureus genomic analyses are needed to improve 63 genotype-phenotype relationships. 64

Using a collection of early-late pairs of sequential clonal isolates recovered from 14 patients, we recently investigated the consequences of *S. aureus* adaptation on the inflammatory response of respiratory cells [2]. The purpose of the current study was to report the genomic analysis of 14 persistent clones belonging to 12 different sequence types representative of major circulating clones in Europe [12].

70

71 2. Materials and methods

72 **2.1.** Study populations, bacterial isolates and genome sequencing.

Bacterial isolates and patients' characteristics have been described previously [2].
Briefly, at the time of early isolate collection, children ranged in age from 42 days to 13
years and from 2 to 21 years at the time of late isolate collection. The CF1 patient was

co-colonized with *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* at the time of early and late isolate
collection whereas the CF8, CF12, CF13 and CF17 patients were co-colonized with *P*. *aeruginosa* after the time of early isolate collection. *P. aeruginosa* was not found in the
other patients.

The whole genomes were sequenced on an Illumina MiniSeq instrument (2x150 paired-end sequencing) using a Nextera XT library preparation kit (Illumina) following the manufacturer's instructions.

83 **2.2. Genome comparison, molecular typing, resistance and virulence genes**

Assemblies were performed with de novo assembler SPAdes 3.9.0 and annotated using Prokka version 1.14.0. Single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) and small indels were assessed using Snippy v3.1 (<u>https://github.com/tseemann/snippy</u>). Briefly, Snippy was used to map the raw short reads of late isolates against the annotated assembly of the cognate early isolates and to classify variants by their predicted functional effect.

S. *aureus* isolates were typed by in silico multilocus sequence typing (MLST) using
 srst2 tool to directly match raw fastq files against the database of allele sequences and
 of sequence type profiles retrieved from pubmlst.org.

93 The alleles of virulence-associated genes including genes encoding toxins, immune evasion factors, microbial surface components recognizing adhesive matrix molecules 94 95 (MSCRAMM) as well as typing markers such as capsule and agr group typing markers were retrieved from Strauss et al [13]. The resulting database of 1,711 alleles from 96 182 genes were used with srst2 tool to match raw fastq files directly. The online 97 webtool PathogenWatch (https://pathogen.watch) spaTyper 1.0 98 and 99 (https://cge.food.dtu.dk/services/spaTyper/) were used to predict antibiotic resistance 100 profiles and spa typing respectively. The sequences reported here are available

at the National Center for Biotechnology Information's BioProject database under
 accession PRJNA720901.

103 2.3. Antimicrobial susceptibility testing

The susceptibility testing was performed and interpreted according to the European 104 105 Committee for Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing (The European Committee on Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing Breakpoint tables for interpretation of MICs and 106 zone diameters Version 11.0 http://www.eucast.org). For all isolates, susceptibility to 107 108 penicillin (1 U), cefoxitin (30 µg), gentamicin (10 µg), tobramycin (10 µg), tetracycline 109 $(30 \ \mu g)$, chloramphenicol $(30 \ \mu g)$, erythromycin $(15 \ U)$, clindamycin $(2 \ \mu g)$, ciprofloxacin (5 µg), linezolid (10 µg), and trimethoprim- sulfamethoxazole (1.25 + 110 111 23.75 μ g), fusidic acid (10 μ g) were determined.

112 2.4. Determination of mutation frequency

To assess the mutability rate, bacteria were cultivated until the stationary phase in 113 trypticase-soy (TS) broth at 37°C, 175 rpm. At the stationary phase, ~10⁸ bacteria were 114 spread onto TS agar supplemented with 100 µg/mL rifampin or 50 µg/mL streptomycin 115 116 (in cases of initial resistance to rifampicin) while serial tenfold dilutions of the same cultures were plated onto TS agar without antibiotics for the determination of total 117 118 colony forming units (CFUs). After 48 h of incubation at 37°C, the number of colonies was counted, and the mutation frequencies to rifampicin were determined relative to 119 120 the total count of viable organisms plated [14]. The experiments were carried out three 121 independent times.

122 **2.5. Statistical analysis**

Data were analyzed using GraphPad Prism 8 software. Results are presented as
 median ± 95% CI (confidence interval). The results were compared by nonparametric

tests. Median mutation frequencies were compared by the Kruskal–Wallis test. All *p* values were considered to be significant at $p \le 0.05$.

127

128 **3. Results**

This study investigated 14 pairs of sequential isogenic early and late isolates (14 early 129 and 14 late isolates) separated by 2- to 9-year intervals (Table S1). After de novo 130 131 assembly of genomes, coding DNA sequences (CDSs) were annotated and mutations 132 were identified by comparing late isolates to early isolates from each patient. The 133 maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree was shown in a previous study [2]. The polymorphisms identified were further categorized by type and predicted impact on 134 coding sequences. The total number of polymorphisms between early and late 135 genomes ranged from 1.5 to 365 mutations per year. The great majority of single-136 137 nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) fell in coding regions and resulted in missense variants. 138

The largest numbers of polymorphisms between the early and late isolates were 139 observed in patients CF8 and CF10 with 136.7 and 365 mutations per year 140 141 respectively. Considering that the reported mutation rate is approximately 8 mutations 142 per genome per year for the S. aureus species [15], this suggests a particular ability to 143 mutate in the CF8 and CF10 patients' clones. The role of a defect in methyl-mismatch 144 repair (MMR) system, through mutS and mutL mutations, in hypermutability of S. aureus has been well described [16]. Therefore, we analyzed the protein sequences of 145 146 MutS and MutL of CF8 and CF10 isolates. Sequence alignment showed that the 147 amino-acid sequences of MutS and MutL from CF8 and MutL from CF10 were identical 148 between early and late isolates. We found 1 amino-acid change (V516I) in the MutS 149 sequence of the late isolate of CF10 compared to the early isolate.

To further test the hypermutability hypothesis, we determined the mutation frequency of isolates from all the patients to rifampin or streptomycin resistance. All the tested strains showed mutation rates below 10⁻⁷, which is the mutation rate reported for mutator strains [17] (Fig. 1).

Genotyping information regarding ST, CC, spa-type, *agr* group, and capsule type are provided in Table 1. The most frequent *agr* type was type I (9/14), followed by type II (3/14), and type III (2/14). The most frequent capsule type was type 8 (8/14).

157 A summary of the occurrence of non-core (*i.e.*, genetic elements not shared by all 158 isolates) virulence-associated genes as determined by whole genome analysis is 159 presented in Table 1. The immune evasion gene cluster (IEC) is carried by β-160 hemolysin (hlb)-converting bacteriophages, which integrate within hlb gene and therefore prevent b-haemolysin production. It was previously shown to be present in 161 90% of the human clinical S. aureus isolates [18]. The IEC was present in the clones 162 of all patients. This cluster harbored the staphylococcal complement inhibitor (scn) 163 gene and a different combination of sea (encoding staphylococcal enterotoxin A), sep 164 165 (encoding staphylococcal enterotoxin-like P), sak (encoding staphylokinase) and chp (encoding the chemotaxis inhibitory protein). The enterotoxin gene cluster (egc: 166 167 harboring the sei, seg, sem, seo, seu enterotoxin genes) was present in the clones 168 of 7 out of 14 patients. The toxic-shock syndrome toxin (tst) was present in only 1 169 clone.

In Table S2, the antibiotic resistance of each isolate and the presence of the related genes are summarized. The predominant antibiotype in early isolates was an exclusive resistance to penicillin through the *blaZ* gene presence (9/14 early isolates). In most of the patients (10/14), no difference was observed in the antibiotype between early and late isolates. In 2 patients, the *blaZ* gene was lost in late isolates, resulting in penicillin susceptibility (late isolates CF10 and CF11); in another 2 patients, point
mutations in *rpoB* conferring resistance to rifampicin were observed. In addition, late
isolate of CF16 also exhibited mutations in *fusA*.

To identify genes potentially involved in the long-term persistence of S. aureus in CF 178 179 lungs in our cohort, we focused on genes mutated in the late isolates of at least 2 patients compared to their cognate early isolates (excluding CF8 and CF10 patients). 180 We thus identified 12 genes with SNPs listed in table 2. Mutated genes were involved 181 182 in carbohydrate metabolism, cell wall metabolism, genetic information processing and 183 adhesion. Concerning CF8 and CF10 patients, most of the more than 900 184 polymorphisms separating early and late isolates were synonymous, missense and 185 intergenic genetic alterations. Notable variations in CF8 and CF10 late isolates include 186 frameshifts and stop codon acquisition in genes encoding staphostatin B (sspC), aspartokinase (*lysC*), DNA-3-methyladenine glycosylase 1 (*tag*), Fe²⁺ transporter 187 (feoB), and heptaprenyl diphosphate synthase component 2 (hepT). 188

189

190 **4. Discussion**

We conducted a genetic analysis of 14 pairs of S. aureus sequential isolates from the 191 lungs of patients followed in a French cystic fibrosis center. There is no consensus on 192 193 the curative or preventive treatment of S. aureus in children with CF in France 194 compared to Great Britain [19]. In our center, children received anti-staphylococcal antibiotics only in cases of clinical deterioration. For each patient, only pairs of 195 196 genetically related isolates were submitted to in-depth analysis. This strategy enables us to easily identify genetic changes distinguishing late from early isolates, to 197 investigate phenotypic consequences of genetic changes (such as antibiotic 198 resistance), and to search for convergent evolution across pairs of isolates. By using 199

200 comparative genome sequencing of isolates obtained sequentially from respiratory 201 samples of CF patients, several studies have improved our understanding of S. aureus adaptation during long-term chronic infections [20]. Despite the coexistence of several 202 lineages in their airways, it has been shown that CF patients harbor a dominant 203 204 persistent lineage of S. aureus [21]. Since, there are no specific ST associated with 205 CF, most frequent ST associated with carriage and infections can be found in CF patients. For instance, animal-related ST398 isolates [22], which cause serious human 206 207 infections have lately emerged as animal-independent pathogens, particularly in 208 France and are observed among patient of our study. ST398 isolates have already 209 been observed in CF patients [23].

Supporting previous reports, the majority of isolates (64.3%) of our study were *agr* I. In addition, *agr* type II (21.4%) and type III (14.3%) were also found, supporting the notion that while the distribution of *agr* types may vary from one geographic region to another, *agr* type I is predominant and *agr* type IV is rare [24, 25].

214 Long et al. reported the whole-genome sequencing of 1,382 S. aureus isolates 215 collected longitudinally from 246 CF children across the United States, half of whom were infected with MRSA [20]. The authors showed that S. aureus lineages undergo 216 217 convergent evolution in key persistence and antimicrobial-resistance genes. They also 218 showed that in vivo mutation rates during CF infection were similar to values estimated 219 in other S. aureus populations [20]. In contrast, in the clones of the 14 patients investigated in our study, none were resistant to methicillin as the proportion of MRSA 220 221 in France is below 10% [4].

The importance of mutator strains in CF patients has been initially described in a seminal study carried out on *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* isolates from 30 CF patients revealing that 36% of the patients harbored a hypermutable strain [26]. Indeed, the positive selection of mutators appears to be a common feature of chronic infections
[27]. Hypermutable *S. aureus* strains in CF patients has also been reported [28] and
attributed to a defective MMR system due to *mutS* or *mutL* mutations [14].
Nevertheless, persistence of mutator *S. aureus* strains in CF patients seems far less
frequent to what has been observed with *P. aeruginosa* species [29].

However, despite a high number of genetic polymorphisms suggesting that patients CF8 and CF10 have mutator strains, no phenotypic observation of high mutation rates was obtained. A likely explanation is that hypermutability has been lost after reacquisition of MMR gene functions thus stabilizing mutations acquired during hypermutability. Another possibility would be the infection of the patient with a strain belonging to the same lineage.

Adaptation during the course of infection commonly occurred with selection of advantageous mutations in a set of genes related to persistence such as transcriptional regulators and antimicrobial resistance (*e.g., thyA, rpoB,* and *walk*) [8, 20]. In line with previous studies, we identified mutations linked to resistance in *rpoB* and *fusA* genes. We also identified mutations in *ebh* gene encoding a membrane protein involved in intracellular invasion and persistence [20, 30]. Of note, mutations in *agr* locus involved different genes (*agrA, agrC* and *agrD*) and have been previously reported [2].

To date, the presence of specific virulence genes has not been associated with changes in CF patients' outcome. However, presence of genes does not predict their expression and further explorations relying on proteomics will contribute to improve our understanding of the mechanisms at play in the striking long-term persistence ability of *S. aureus*.

248

249 Ethics statement

All experiments were performed in accordance with the guidelines and regulations described by the Declaration of Helsinki and the low Huriet-Serusclat on human research ethics and informed consent was obtained for all participating subjects. Clinical isolates of *S. aureus* were obtained from airway secretions from patients with cystic fibrosis at the Necker-Enfants Malades University Hospital, Paris, France. Sputum sampling is part of routine standard care. The research procedure is validated by Ile-de-France 2 IRB (ID-RCB/Eudract: 2016 A00309-42).

257

258 **Declaration of competing interest**

259 All authors declare no competing interests.

260

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267

268 Appendix A. Supplementary data

269 Supplementary data to this article can be found online.

270 Figure



271

272 Figure 1. Mutation frequencies for clinical isolates and control strain

273 Mutation frequencies to rifampicin or streptomycin resistance for USA300-LAC strain (USA300) and clinical isolates were determined. USA300 was shown as a control. 274 275 Spontaneous mutation frequency for each replicate was calculated as the number of 276 antibiotic-resistant colonies on trypticase-soy (TS)- plates containing antibiotics 277 divided by the number of colony-forming units counted following plating on TS-agar plates without antibiotic. CF13_late and CF14_late isolates are not represented due to 278 the lack of obtention of antibiotic-resistant colony. Error bars indicate median with 95% 279 CI (n = 3). Significance was assessed by the Kruskal–Wallis test. 280

| Table 1. | Typing and viru | ilence genes | in clones of 14 pa | tients |
|------------|----------------------|--------------|--------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------|
| Patient | ST/CC/spa | agr group | capsule genotype | virulence genes |
| CF4 | 59/59/t316 | 1 | 8 | chp, sasG, sak, scn, seb, sek, seq |
| CF5 | 45/45/t230 | | Ø | chp, cna, sak, scn, sec, seg, sei, sel, sem, sen, seo, seu |
| CF6 | 6/5/t701 | - | Ø | cna, sasG, lukED, sak, scn, sea, |
| CF7 | 398/398/t7880 | ب | σ | chp, cna, scn |
| CF8 | 8/8/t8 | _ | IJ. | chp, sasG, lukED, sak, scn |
| CF9 | 398/398/t6587 | _ | IJ | chp, cna, scn |
| CF10 | 5/5/t002 | 2 | IJ | chp, sasG, lukED, sak, scn, seg, sei, sem, sen, seo, sep, seu |
| CF11 | 2355/1/t4206 | 2 | IJ | cna, sasG, scn, sec, sei, sel, sem, sen, seo, seu |
| CF12 | 1165/45/t4206 | | œ | chp, cna, sak, scn, seg, sei, sem, sen, seo, seu |
| CF13 | 22/22/t2359 | | IJ | chp, cna, sasG, sak, scn, seg, sei, sem, sen, seo, seu |
| CF14 | 15/15/t084 | 2 | œ | chp, sasG, lukED, scn |
| CF15 | SLV-78/t786 | ω | œ | sasG, lukED, sak, scn, sec, sel |
| CF16 | 45/45/t31 | | œ | chp, sak, scn, sec, seg, sei, sel, sem, sen, seo, seu |
| CF17 | 30/30/t018 | ω | œ | chp, cna, sak, scn, sea, seg, sei, sem, sen, seo, seu, tst1 |
| SLV-78: \$ | Single locus variant | of ST78. | | |

| | | • | | | |
|---------------------------------|-----------------|----------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------|
| Ortholog | Gene name | SNP type | Product | Category | Patient |
| SAUSA300_0020/ SAUSA300_0021 | walKR | MS | Two-component system involved in cell wall metabolism and biofilm formation | Cell wall metabolism | CF12, CF17 |
| SAUSA300_0132 | epsF | SW | O-antigen biosynthesis glycosyltransferase | Cell wall metabolism | CF16, CF17 |
| SAUSA300_0333 | bglG | MS | Transcriptional antiterminator involved in carbohydrate metabolism | Metabolism (Carbohydrates) | CF14, CF17 |
| SAUSA300_0527 | rpoB | SW | DNA-directed RNA polymerase subunit beta | Genetic information processing | CF14, CF16 |
| SAUSA300_0708 | hisC | MS, FS | Histidinol-phosphate aminotransferase | Metabolism (Amino acids) | CF4, CF15 |
| SAUSA300_0772 | clfA | MS | Cell surface-associated protein clumping factor A | Adhesin | CF9, CF11 |
| SAUSA300_1251 | parC | MS, ins | DNA topoisomerase IV, subunit A | Genetic information processing | CF4, CF13, CF17 |
| SAUSA300_1327 | ebh | MS, stop | Extracellular matrix-binding protein | Adhesin | CF4, CF15 |
| SAUSA300_1611 | valS | SW | ValinetRNA ligase | Genetic information processing | CF5, CF11 |
| SAUSA300_1851 | tagG | MS | hypothetical protein teichoic acid transport system permease protein | Cell wall metabolism | CF12, CF17 |
| SAUSA300_2324 | scrA | MS | PTS system, sucrose-specific IIBC component | Metabolism (Carbohydrates) | CF7, CF15 |
| SAUSA300_2541 | mqo | MS, FS | putative malate: quinone oxidoreductase 2 | Metabolism (Carbohydrates) | CF4, CF16 |
| MS, missense; | FS: frameshift; | ins: insertion | | | |

Table 2. Genes with non-synonymous SNPs in several late isolates compared to early isolates (excluding CF8 and CF10)

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Supplementary Materials for

Genomic analysis of *Staphylococcus aureus* sequential isolates from lungs of patients with cystic fibrosis

Xiongqi Ding et al.

This file includes:

Tables S1 to S2

| Table S1. General | features | of detec | ted mu | tations | in S. au | reus lat | e isolate | s of 14 p | atients o | compare | d to earl | y isolate | Ű | |
|----------------------------------|----------|-----------|--------|---------|---------------|----------|------------|-----------|-----------|---------|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------|
| Patient | CF4 | CF5 | CF6 | CF7 | CF8 | CF9 | CF10 | CF11 | CF12 | CF13 | CF14 | CF15 | CF16 | CF17 |
| Time since early isolate (years) | 4.4 | 4.2 | 5.3 | 2.7 | 6.7 | 1.9 | 3.0 | 7.1 | 4.3 | 2.9 | 9.4 | 4.5 | 9.2 | 2.0 |
| Single-nucleotide polymorphism | 19 | 29 | 0 | 27 | 903 | 9 | 1085 | 23 | 18 | 13 | 27 | 63 | 42 | 50 |
| Insertion-deletion | | | 2 | 2 | 13 | - | 10 | Ν | <u>د</u> | - | - | 2 | 9 | N |
| Located in Coding sequence | 12 | 21 | CJ | 20 | 751 | 00 | 917 | 17 | 16 | 10 | 19 | 45 | 38 | 32 |
| Nonsynonymous mutation (%) | 9 (75) | 14 (66.7) | 4 (80) | 14 (70) | 363 (48.3) | 6 (75) | 391 (42.6) | 12 (70.6) | 11 (68.8) | 5 (50) | 14 (73.7) | 35 (77.8) | 31 (81.6) | 24 (75) |
| Frameshift variant | | | 2 | 2 | 13 | - | 10 | 2 | <u>د</u> | - | - | 2 | 9 | 2 |
| Missense variant | œ | 13 | N | 12 | 337 | 4 | 367 | 10 | Q | | 12 | 34 | 20 | 21 |
| Premature stop codon | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ω | 0 | | 0 | | | - | - | N | 0 |
| Other | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 10 | - | 13 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | <u>د</u> |
| Synonymous mutation | ω | 7 | - | Ø | 388 | 2 | 526 | J | CJ | U | IJ | 10 | 7 | ω |
| Intergenic | œ | 9 | ω | 9 | 165 | Ν | 176 | 8 | ω | 4 | Q | 18 | 13 | 17 |
| Total polymorphisms | 20 | 30 | 8 | 29 | 916 | 10 | 1095 | 25 | 19 | 14 | 28 | 65 | 51 | 52 |
| Mutations/year | 4.5 | 7.1 | 1.5 | 10.7 | 136.7 | 5.3 | 365 | 3.5 | 4.4 | 4.8 | 3.0 | 14.4 | 5. 5 | 26 |

| I ADIE 32. AIIU | มเบแต เธรารเสมตร เม | o. aureu: | s pairs of early and late | ISUIALES UL 14 PALIEITIS | |
|------------------|----------------------------------|------------|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| Patient | Resistance phen early isolate | otype | Resistance genotype early isolate | Resistance phenotype late isolate | Resistance genotype late isolate |
| CF4 | Pen | | blaZ | Pen | blaZ |
| CF5 | Pen | | blaZ | Pen | blaZ |
| CF6 | Pen | | blaZ | Pen | blaZ |
| CF7 | Ery | | ermT | Ery | ermT |
| CF8 | Pen | | blaZ | Pen | blaZ |
| CF9 | Ery | | ermT | Ery | ermT |
| CF10 | Pen | | blaZ | Susceptible | None |
| CF11 | Pen, Tet | | blaZ, tetK | Tet | tetK |
| CF12 | Pen | | blaZ | Pen | blaZ |
| CF13 | Susceptible | | None | Susceptible | None |
| CF14 | Pen, Tmp | | blaZ, dfrG | Pen, RA, Tmp | blaZ, dfrG, rpoB_S464P |
| CF15 | Pen | | blaZ | Pen | blaZ |
| CF16 | Pen | | blaZ | Pen, FD, RA, Ery | blaZ, fusA_P404L, rpoB_R484H |
| CF17 | Pen | | blaZ | Pen | blaZ |
| Pen: Penicillin; | Ery: Erythromycin; 7 | et: Tetrac | cycline; Tmp: Trimethopri | m; RA: Rifampin; FD: Fusid | lic acid |

Table S2_Antibiotic resistance in S. aureus pairs of early and late isolates of 14 patients