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# Gene exchange drives the ecological success of a multi-host bacterial pathogen

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1 **Gene exchange drives the ecological success of a multi-host bacterial**  
2 **pathogen**

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**Abstract**

The capacity for some pathogens to jump into different host-species populations is a major threat to public health and food security. *Staphylococcus aureus* is a multi-host bacterial pathogen responsible for important human and livestock diseases. Here, using a population genomic approach we identify humans as a major hub for ancient and recent *S. aureus* host-switch events linked to the emergence of endemic livestock strains, and cows as the main animal reservoir for the emergence of human epidemic clones. Such host-species transitions are associated with horizontal acquisition of genetic elements from host-specific gene pools conferring traits required for survival in the new host-niche. Importantly, genes associated with antimicrobial resistance are unevenly distributed among human and animal hosts reflecting distinct antibiotic usage practices in medicine and agriculture. In addition to gene acquisition, genetic diversification has occurred in pathways associated with nutrient acquisition, implying metabolic remodeling after a host-switch in response to distinct nutrient availability. For example, *S. aureus* from dairy cattle exhibit enhanced utilization of lactose, a major source of carbohydrate in bovine milk. Overall, our findings highlight the influence of human activities on the multi-host ecology of a major bacterial pathogen, underpinned by horizontal gene transfer and core genome diversification.

# 1 Introduction

2

3 Many bacterial pathogens are host specialists that co-evolve with a single host-species.  
4 However, the capacity to switch host species can provide opportunities for expansion  
5 into new host populations. The domestication of animals in the Neolithic period (10,000-  
6 2,000 BC approximately) and the more recent intensification of livestock farming  
7 provided increased opportunities for the movement of bacterial pathogens between  
8 humans and animals<sup>1</sup>. Of note, the majority of emerging human infectious diseases  
9 have been traced to an animal origin<sup>2</sup>. *Staphylococcus aureus* is associated with a wide  
10 spectrum of diseases in humans and strains of both methicillin-sensitive (MSSA) and  
11 methicillin-resistant *S. aureus* (MRSA) are common causes of nosocomial and  
12 community-acquired infection<sup>3,4</sup>. In addition, *S. aureus* causes an array of infections of  
13 livestock that are a major burden on the agricultural industry, including mastitis in cows,  
14 sheep and goats<sup>5,6</sup>, septicemia and skeletal infections in commercial broiler chickens<sup>7</sup>,  
15 exudative epidermitis in pigs<sup>8</sup> and skin abscesses and mastitis in rabbits<sup>9</sup>.

16

17 *S. aureus* has a clonal population structure defined by a relatively low level of  
18 recombination, comprised of lineages that have single or multiple host-tropisms<sup>10-12</sup>.  
19 Inter-host species transmission can be of critical public health importance, as  
20 exemplified by the livestock-associated methicillin-resistant clonal complex (CC) 398,  
21 which is associated with pigs and other livestock, but can cause zoonotic infections of  
22 pig-farmers and their contacts<sup>13,14</sup>. Previous work employed multi-locus sequence typing  
23 (MLST) to provide evidence for the occurrence of host-jump events from humans

1 leading to the emergence of *S. aureus* clones in livestock populations<sup>11,12</sup>. More  
2 recently, whole genome sequencing has been employed to investigate the evolution of  
3 individual clones, providing insights into the emergence, transmission and acquisition of  
4 antibiotic resistance in hospital, community, and agricultural settings<sup>13,15-17</sup>. In addition, a  
5 role for specific mobile genetic elements (MGEs) and core gene mutations in the host-  
6 adaptation of *S. aureus* has been identified<sup>9,18,19</sup>. For example, the major porcine and  
7 avian clones of *S. aureus* likely originated in humans and the host-jumps were  
8 associated with acquisition of MGE not found among human isolates<sup>13,18</sup>. Similarly, the  
9 major *S. aureus* clone associated with sheep and goats evolved through a combination  
10 of gene acquisition, and allelic diversification including loss of gene function<sup>20</sup>.  
11 Furthermore, several studies have reported the host-specific functional activity of *S.*  
12 *aureus* effectors such as leucocidins, superantigens, and the von Willebrand factor-  
13 binding protein<sup>21-26</sup>. In addition, it was demonstrated that for *S. aureus* strains  
14 associated with natural infections of rabbits, a single mutation was responsible for  
15 conferring infectivity to the progenitor strain found in human populations<sup>9</sup>. Taken  
16 together, these studies highlight the capacity for bacteria to undergo host-switching  
17 events and adapt to different species by multiple evolutionary genetic and functional  
18 mechanisms. However, a large-scale, genome-based analysis of the evolutionary  
19 history of *S. aureus* in the context of its host ecology is lacking, and the scale and  
20 molecular basis of host-switching events remains poorly understood.

21  
22 Here, we carry out a population genomic analysis of over 800 *S. aureus* isolates  
23 selected to represent the known breadth of host-species diversity in order to provide a

1 high-resolution picture of the dynamics of *S. aureus* in the context of its host. The data  
2 reveal the impact of human activities such as domestication and the use of antibiotics in  
3 medicine and agriculture on the recent evolution of *S. aureus*, and identify the key  
4 evolutionary processes underpinning its multi-host species ecology.

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## 1 **Results**

### 2 **Extensive host-switching events define the evolutionary history of *S. aureus*.**

3 We selected *S. aureus* strains to represent the breadth of the known clonal, geographic,  
4 and host-species diversity (Isolate selection details in Methods section). Overall, we  
5 included 800 isolates representative of 43 different host species, 77 clonal complexes  
6 (CCs), isolated in 50 different countries across 5 continents (Supplementary Figure 1-3;  
7 Supplementary Table 1). Among the 800 isolates, a total of 115,149 SNPs were  
8 identified in a core genome of 711,562 bp and used for reconstruction of the maximum-  
9 likelihood (ML) phylogeny for the *S. aureus* species (Fig. 1). The *S. aureus* species tree  
10 indicates the existence of highly divergent clades representative of the recently-  
11 described *Staphylococcus argenteus* and *Staphylococcus schweitzeri* species which  
12 belong to the extended *S. aureus*-related complex (Fig. 1a)<sup>27</sup>. *S. argenteus*, an  
13 emerging cause of human clinical infection<sup>28</sup>, is more closely related to bat and monkey  
14 isolates than to other human *S. aureus* sequence types (STs), consistent with a  
15 possible non-human evolutionary origin for *S. argenteus*. Removal of isolates from the  
16 divergent clades resulted in a phylogeny of 783 isolates that segregated according to  
17 clonal complexes defined by MLST (Fig. 1b). The phylogeny indicates the broad  
18 diversity of isolates of human origin with expansion of several successful epidemic  
19 hospital and community-associated clones including CC22, CC30, and ST45, as  
20 previously described<sup>29</sup> (Fig. 1). Animal isolates are typically found in discrete host-  
21 specific clades interspersed among human lineages, consistent with ancient and recent  
22 host-switching events across the phylogenetic tree (Fig. 1). In order to examine the  
23 frequency and timing of host-switching events during the evolution of *S. aureus*, we

1 employed Bayesian evolutionary analysis by sampling trees (BEAST) using substitution  
2 rates from published datasets (Fig. 2; Supplementary Table 2). We estimated the  
3 number of cross-species transmissions for 10 major host categories (Supplementary  
4 Table 3, Supplementary Figures 2-5) using BEAST with Markov Jumps<sup>30</sup>. In order to  
5 reduce bias caused by the larger numbers of sequences from human and cow hosts  
6 compared to the other host types we used 10 stratified subsamples containing 252  
7 sequences each, designed to maintain geographic, host-type and temporal diversity  
8 while reducing over-representation. To assess the robustness of the main analysis, we  
9 performed additional analyses as outlined in Supplementary Material (Supplementary  
10 Notes; Supplementary Figures 4-11; Supplementary Tables 4-5), that included 'severe  
11 balanced' subsamples of 97 taxa each containing 18-20 taxa of 5 host-types, and  
12 ancestral state and host-jumps using the BASTA approximation to the structured  
13 coalescent<sup>31</sup>. However, we had difficulty in getting BASTA to run and converge possibly  
14 due to its assumptions about the structure of the data and numerical instability. Each  
15 subsampled sequence set was analyzed separately within BEAST and resulted in a  
16 collection of posterior trees per dataset (Supplementary Figures 6-10). In each case, the  
17 analysis revealed extensive host-switching events that occurred over a time-frame  
18 spanning several thousand years up to the present decade (Fig. 2a).

19  
20 Our analysis identifies humans as a major donor with host-jumps identified from  
21 humans into all other host-species groups examined (Fig. 2b, Supplementary Figure 4).  
22 The most common recipient for *S. aureus* jumps from humans was cows with a median  
23 of 14 jumps (HPD 3-22) between the years -2000 and 2012. Cows also represented a  
24 major donor for host-switching events back into humans (n=10; HPD 2-26). In addition,



1 there were numerous *S. aureus* host-switches among ruminants, particularly between  
2 cattle and goats in both directions and into sheep. However, host jumps from sheep into  
3 other species are rare and not strongly supported by our analyses suggesting that  
4 although a common host for *S. aureus*<sup>5</sup>, sheep do not represent a major reservoir for  
5 the spread of *S. aureus* to other animals.

6

7 **Host-specific accessory gene pools promote adaptive evolution after host-**  
8 **switching events.** In order to investigate the distribution of MGEs on a population level  
9 across human and animal isolates, we employed a pangenome-wide association  
10 analysis approach to identify genes that were enriched among isolates from specific  
11 host-species. First, to account for phylogeny we removed genes identified among all  
12 strains within clonal complexes associated with multiple host-species (lineage-  
13 dependent genes). Network analysis indicated a remarkable correlation between  
14 accessory genome and host-species revealing that diverse clonal complexes can share  
15 highly similar accessory genomes that are specific for birds, pigs or horses,  
16 respectively. This strongly points to the existence of a host-specific gene pool required  
17 for *S. aureus* host-adaptation. Although accessory genomes of *S. aureus* obtained from  
18 humans, and from cows, sheep and goats also tended to cluster together in a host-  
19 specific manner, there was greater diversity in gene content (Fig. 3). This may reflect  
20 the existence of multiple cryptic niches that exist within a single host-species such as  
21 those proposed previously for *Campylobacter jejuni*<sup>32</sup>. We note the existence of a small  
22 number of clusters made of isolates from multiple host-species. The existence of these  
23 clusters suggests that some accessory gene combinations may confer a more

1 generalist host tropism with the capacity to infect multiple host-species. Alternatively,  
2 insufficient time may have passed since the host-transition event for loss of dispensable  
3 MGE to occur. Of note, antibiotic resistance gene determinants influenced the clustering  
4 of equine and pig isolates suggesting a role for acquisition of resistance in host-  
5 adaptation (Supplementary Figure 12).  
6  
7 Further examination of the impact of the accessory genome on successful host-  
8 switching events was carried out by identifying gene acquisition or loss events that  
9 correlated with host-switching events identified on the phylogeny of *S. aureus*. A total of  
10 36 distinct MGEs including predicted plasmids, transposons, *S. aureus* Pathogenicity  
11 Islands (SaPIs) and prophages were identified to be associated with host-switch events  
12 ( $p < 0.0001$ ) (Fig. 4a, Supplementary Table 6). Several of the MGEs have previously  
13 been identified and demonstrated to encode proteins with host-specific activity. For  
14 example, the  $\beta$ -converting phage  $\phi$ Sa3 encodes modulators of the human innate  
15 immune response, and pathogenicity islands encode superantigens or von Willebrand  
16 factor-binding proteins with ruminant-specific activity<sup>19,33</sup>. In addition, equine isolates  
17 contain a phage encoding a novel equine allele of the staphylococcal inhibitor of  
18 complement (*scn*) which also encodes the LukP/Q toxin, recently characterized to have  
19 equine-specific activity<sup>22,25</sup>. However, numerous uncharacterized MGEs have been  
20 identified in the current study to be linked to successful host-switch events providing  
21 many novel avenues for characterizing the molecular basis of *S. aureus* host-adaptation  
22 (Fig 4b). For example, in isolates from pigs, a putative novel plasmid linked to *SCCmec*  
23 encoding resistance to heavy metal ions, a common supplement in pig-feed, was linked

1 to host-switching events from humans into pigs (Fig. 4b). Finally, several gene clusters  
2 encoding bacteriocins were enriched in isolates from specific host-species ( $p < 0.0001$ )  
3 or were linked to host-switching events ( $p < 0.0001$ ), consistent with the need to compete  
4 with resident bacteria for survival (Supplementary Table 6). Taken together, these data  
5 suggest that successful host-switch events are associated with acquisition of MGEs  
6 from an accessory gene pool that exists in the recipient host-species, and/or loss of  
7 MGEs linked to the source species.

8  
9 In order to investigate the potential origin of MGEs horizontally acquired after a host-  
10 switch event, we examined the codon usage bias of host-specific MGE, and found that  
11 MGEs enriched in pig isolates had significantly elevated %GC content and reduced  
12 codon adaptive index (CAI) indicative of a distinct genealogical origin (Supplementary  
13 Figures 13-15). Of note, an MGE found in pig isolates had highest BLASTn similarity to  
14 a putative pathogenicity island previously identified in the pig-associated zoonotic  
15 pathogen *Streptococcus suis* (GC content of ~41%) (Supplementary Table 6).

16  
17 **Both gain and loss of gene function are associated with *S. aureus* host-**  
18 **adaptation.** Determination of the number of predicted functional genes in each *S.*  
19 *aureus* genome identified a significantly higher number of genes in bird strains  
20 compared to *S. aureus* from any other host-species (Supplementary Figures 16-17).  
21 In contrast, the number of pseudogenes per genome is significantly higher ( $p < 0.0001$ -  
22 0.02) in ruminant strains compared to those from other host-species suggesting that the  
23 niche occupied by *S. aureus* in cows may provide stronger selection for loss of gene

1 function compared to the niches for *S. aureus* in birds and pigs. Numerous  
2 pseudogenes associated with transport of nutrients in *S. aureus* including  
3 carbohydrates, are over-represented in ruminant isolates implying metabolic remodeling  
4 in response to distinct nutrient availabilities in the bovine niche (Supplementary Table  
5 8).

6  
7 **Refinement of host adaptation involves modification of biological pathways in**  
8 **response to nutrient availability.** In addition to accessory genes, adaptive mutations  
9 in the core genome may be selected for in response to environmental changes such as  
10 antibiotic exposure or a switch in host-species<sup>9,34</sup>. In order to examine the impact of  
11 host-species on diversification of the *S. aureus* core genome, we identified groups of  
12 related isolates (e.g. within CCs or STs) associated with a specific host-species for  
13 genome-wide analysis of positive selection (Supplementary Table 9; Supplementary  
14 Figure 18). Positive selection was identified across all host-associated groups  
15 examined, with an average of 68 genes (33 to 129) representing approximately 2.7%  
16 (1.3% to 5.1%) of a clade-specific core genome (Supplementary Table 10). A limited  
17 number of genes were under diversifying selection across multiple host species,  
18 including several that encode membrane proteins, lipoproteins and a protein involved in  
19 biofilm formation. Some genes were identified as undergoing positive selection in  
20 distinct lineages that were associated with the same host-species (mostly human),  
21 suggesting strong selective pressure leading to convergent evolution. However, for the  
22 most part, our analysis detected distinct sets of genes under positive selection in  
23 different lineages, suggesting that signatures of host-adaptation are dependent on the

1 genetic background of the strain, and that host-adaptation can occur via multiple  
2 trajectories involving modification of distinct pathways.

3

4 We predicted functional categories of genes under positive selection and the biological  
5 pathways affected revealing several functional groups that were enriched for positively  
6 selected genes independently of the host species including genes linked to  
7 pathogenesis, immune evasion and maintenance of MGEs ((Supplementary Table 11;  
8 Supplementary Figure 19). However, the majority of the functional categories were host-  
9 species dependent, consistent with distinct mechanisms underpinning adaptation to  
10 different host-species (Supplementary Table 11; summarized Fig. 5). In particular,  
11 biological pathways associated with amino acid metabolism and iron acquisition were  
12 under positive selection in several host-species suggesting diversification in response to  
13 distinct nutrient availability in different host niches. In addition, genes associated with  
14 transport and metabolism of carbohydrates demonstrated signatures of positive  
15 selection in *S. aureus* clones from humans and cows (Fig. 5).

16

17 **Bovine *S. aureus* strains utilize lactose with higher efficiency compared to human**  
18 **or avian strains.** Considering the signatures of positive selection identified among  
19 pathways associated with carbohydrate and amino acid metabolism, we investigated  
20 differences in growth phenotype of selected host-specific *S. aureus* strains using a  
21 metabolic phenotype microarray (Biolog), and observed preliminary strain-dependent  
22 differences in growth that were influenced by the availability of specific amino acids or  
23 carbohydrates. For example, *S. aureus* strains from cows had higher relative growth in

1 the presence of lactose, the primary disaccharide available in bovine milk. The genome-  
2 wide positive selection analysis indicated that in bovine strains, genes associated with  
3 the functional category of transport of disaccharides and oligosaccharides were  
4 impacted by positive selection. To further investigate this, we carried out phenotypic  
5 analysis of *S. aureus* strains from bovine, human and avian host- species of different  
6 clonal complexes when grown in the presence of lactose (Fig. 5e). As lactic acid is  
7 produced by *S. aureus* as a by-product of fermentation, we measured pH levels in  
8 culture media containing lactose and identified a decrease in pH levels for bovine *S.*  
9 *aureus* clones in comparison to human or avian clones, consistent with increased  
10 efficiency of fermentation of lactose (Fig. 5f). These data support the concept that *S.*  
11 *aureus* undergoes genetic diversification in response to the nutrients that differ in  
12 availability in different niches.

13

14 **Resistance to antimicrobials differs among human and pig *S. aureus*.** Our  
15 understanding of the relative contribution of the use of antibiotics in human medicine  
16 and agriculture to the emergence of antibiotic resistance is very limited. To address this  
17 question for the model human and animal pathogen *S. aureus*, we examined the  
18 distribution of antibiotic, antiseptic and heavy metal-ion resistance determinants among  
19 human and livestock isolates, and then accounted for phylogenetic relatedness for  
20 resistance to different classes of antibiotic (Supplementary Table 12). An array of  
21 resistance determinants were significantly enriched in human, ruminant, and pig  
22 isolates, respectively, but not among avian isolates, consistent with a limited role for the  
23 poultry industry in the emergence of antibiotic resistance in *S. aureus*.(Fig. 6; Table

1 S12). When testing for phylogenetic independence, we aimed to maximize statistical  
2 power by including all gene determinants into groups specific for each class of  
3 antimicrobial, and also examined selected individual determinants *str* and *sdrM*. The  
4 analysis indicated that resistance to streptomycin, antiseptics, and tetracyclines were all  
5 significantly associated with pig isolates, whereas *sdrM* was  
6 enriched in human isolates. However, fluoroquinolone and heavy metal ion resistance  
7 did not correlate with hosts after correction for phylogeny implying that expansion of  
8 specific clones has contributed to the high frequency of those resistance determinants  
9 among human and pig hosts, respectively. Taken together, these data demonstrate that  
10 resistance to specific classes of antimicrobial in *S. aureus* is host species-dependent  
11 providing evidence for distinct antibiotic selective pressures in humans and livestock. Of  
12 note tetracyclines, and aminoglycosides (such as streptomycin) are used in much  
13 higher amounts in farmed animals compared to human medicine<sup>35</sup>. Zoonotic  
14 transmission of *S. aureus* is a relatively common occurrence for some clones,  
15 particularly between pigs and humans in the case of CC398, providing a route for the  
16 transmission of resistant strains and associated resistance determinants to humans<sup>36</sup>.

17

## 18 **Discussion**

19

20 Many new pathogens emerge following zoonotic or anthroponotic events providing the  
21 opportunity for spread within a new host population<sup>2</sup>. *S. aureus* is considered a  
22 generalist bacterial species, capable of colonizing a wide range of hosts<sup>5</sup>. However, the  
23 species is composed of distinct sub-lineages that are commonly associated with

1 particular hosts or host groups<sup>10,14</sup>. Accordingly, *S. aureus* represents an excellent  
2 model to explore the dynamics of a bacterial pathogen at the human-animal interface.  
3 Here, we demonstrate that the segregated host-specialism of *S. aureus* arose via  
4 multiple cross-species transmission events that occurred over the last 5,000-6,000  
5 years, leading to the emergence of successful endemic and epidemic clones circulating  
6 in distinct host-species populations. We identify humans as a major reservoir for the  
7 spread of *S. aureus* to livestock, reflecting the role of humans in domestication of  
8 animals, and subsequent opportunities for cross-species transmission events consistent  
9 with analysis using MLST<sup>12</sup>. Importantly, we also identify cows as the main animal  
10 source for the emergence of *S. aureus* clones that are epidemic in human populations  
11 consistent with a previous study that identified a bovine origin for emergent CC97  
12 clones causing human infections across multiple continents<sup>17</sup>.

13

14 The identification of combinations of MGEs that are associated with specific host-  
15 species and linked to host-switching events provides compelling evidence for the key  
16 role of horizontal gene acquisition in the adaptation of *S. aureus* to their hosts. While  
17 several MGEs have been identified to be associated with host-specific clones<sup>18,19,22,24</sup>,  
18 our species-wide analysis reveals combinations of MGEs linked to specific host species  
19 providing many new avenues for investigating mechanisms of bacterial host-adaptation.  
20 Overall, the data suggest that host-specific accessory gene pools presumably present in  
21 the microbiota of the new host-species promote the host-adaptive evolution of *S.*  
22 *aureus*.

23



1 In addition to gene acquisition associated with host-switch events, we identified  
2 evidence of adaptive evolution in the core genome consistent with host-specific  
3 selective pressure driving the diversification of biological pathways that are involved in  
4 survival or transmission. Furthermore, in some cases, distinct pathways were under  
5 positive selective pressure in different clones associated with the same host-species,  
6 implying that multiple distinct pathways may mediate host-adaptation depending on the  
7 genetic background of the strain. In particular, pathways linked to carbohydrate  
8 transport exhibited signatures of host-adaptation and phenotypic analysis revealed  
9 enhanced utilization by bovine *S. aureus* clones of the disaccharide lactose, the major  
10 carbohydrate available in bovine milk.

11

12 These findings inform a model of *S. aureus* host-adaptation in which acquisition of a  
13 specific set of MGEs occur rapidly after a host-switch event (although we can't rule out  
14 this could occur prior to the jump in some cases), conferring the capacity for survival in  
15 the new host, largely through targeting of the innate immune response via bacterial  
16 effectors such as leukocidins, superantigens and other immune-modulators. Other  
17 MGEs confer resistance to antibiotics and heavy metal ions allowing survival under  
18 strong anti-microbial selective pressures. Subsequently, positive selection acts on the  
19 core genome via point mutation and/or recombination<sup>37</sup> causing allelic variation and  
20 loss of gene function that results in modification of metabolism in response to distinct  
21 nutrient availability.

22

1 Our findings suggest that since human-driven domestication, interactions with livestock  
2 have provided opportunities for numerous successful host-switch events between  
3 humans and livestock hosts. Further, industrialization of agriculture including use of  
4 antibiotics and feed supplements in intensive farming have directly influenced the  
5 evolution of *S. aureus* clones resulting in the emergence of resistance in response to  
6 distinct antibiotic selective pressures in human medicine and agriculture<sup>18,38</sup>. These data  
7 support the idea that surveillance could play a critical role in the early identification of  
8 emerging clones that have jumped host.

9  
10 Taken together, our data provide a high-resolution view of the capacity for a model  
11 multi-host pathogen to undergo radical changes in host ecology by genetic adaptation.  
12 Investigation into the functional basis of these genetic changes will reveal key host-  
13 pathogen interactions that could be targeted for novel therapies. Further, the  
14 identification of the common routes for *S. aureus* livestock-human host-species  
15 switches and distinct types of antimicrobial resistance in humans and livestock species  
16 could inform the design of more effective farm security and antibiotic treatment practices  
17 to limit the emergence of new resistant clones. These findings will be relevant to other  
18 major bacterial pathogens with the capacity to spread between livestock and humans.

19

## 20 **Methods**

21

22 **Isolate selection.** For selection of isolates, the literature was reviewed (date:  
23 November 2013) and all available *S. aureus* strains associated with animals and

1 humans for which genomes had been determined were identified. We aimed to include  
2 isolates to represent the breadth of clonal complexes, host-species diversity,  
3 geographical locations and as wide a temporal scale as possible (Supplementary  
4 Tables 1-3). Publicly available sequences were selected as follows; 74 reference  
5 genomes, 302 from the EARSS project<sup>29</sup>, and 252 from other published studies of the  
6 authors (Supplementary Table 1). Furthermore, to be as representative of the known *S.*  
7 *aureus* host, clonal, and geographic diversity as possible we selected an additional 172  
8 isolates for whole genome sequencing (Supplementary Table 1). Our dataset is biased  
9 towards human isolates which represent approximately 60% of the total with 40%  
10 approximately from animal sources. This reflects that fact that much of the known  
11 diversity of the *S. aureus* species is of human origin<sup>12</sup>, and also that fewer number of  
12 isolates that have been obtained from animals. Given the predominant European origin  
13 of the animal isolates (due to the contemporary interest in animal *S. aureus* in Europe),  
14 we chose to enrich the number of human isolates with the EARSS collection  
15 representative of the diversity of invasive *S. aureus* circulating among humans in  
16 Europe in 2006<sup>29</sup>. Accordingly, there is a European bias to the sample dataset and we  
17 can't rule out that we have under-sampled the *S. aureus* diversity that exists in other  
18 parts of the world. Nonetheless, our dataset contained isolates from 50 different  
19 countries across 5 continents and many sequence types are widely distributed on an  
20 intercontinental scale. In addition, our dataset includes isolates from the years 1930 to  
21 2014, although the majority have been isolated since 2005 reflecting the greater  
22 availability of recent clinical isolates (particularly from animals). It should therefore also  
23 be considered that the dataset is biased towards contemporary *S. aureus* and that older

1 lineages that are now less abundant or extinct may not be represented in our dataset. In  
2 order to partially address the uneven distributions of isolates by host, space and time,  
3 where appropriate, we have carried out experimental replicates based on severe  
4 subsampling of the dataset that provide more evenly distributed groups. In addition, we  
5 have drawn conclusions that are consistent across subsampled data and, when  
6 appropriate, multiple different analytic approaches. Overall, we included 800 isolates  
7 representative of 43 different host species and 77 clonal complexes (CCs), isolated in  
8 50 different countries across 5 continents (Supplementary Table 1). All sequences and  
9 associated metadata have been uploaded to Microreact a publicly accessible database  
10 that allows visualization and analysis of the data <https://microreact.org/project/shacdata>  
11 <sup>39</sup>.

### 13 **Sequencing, genome assemblies, variant calling and phylogenetic**

14 **reconstruction.** For the current study, bacterial DNA was extracted and sequenced  
15 using Illumina HiSeq2000 with 100-cycle paired-end runs at the Wellcome Trust Sanger  
16 Institute or Illumina HiSeq2000 at Edinburgh Genomics. The nucleotide sequence data  
17 were submitted to the European Nucleotide Archive (ENA) ([www.ebi.ac.uk/ena](http://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena)) with the  
18 accession numbers listed in Supplementary Table 1. Completed genomes downloaded  
19 from the NCBI database were converted into pseudo-fastq files using Wgsim  
20 (<https://github.com/lh3/wgsim>). For each isolate the sequence reads were used to  
21 create multiple assemblies using VelvetOptimiser v2.2.5<sup>40</sup> and Velvet v1.2<sup>41</sup>. The  
22 assemblies were improved by scaffolding the best N50 and contigs using SSPACE<sup>42</sup>  
23 and sequence gaps filled using GapFiller<sup>43</sup>. Isolates were excluded from the analysis for

1 the following reasons that are indicative of contamination or poor quality sequence data;  
2 a large number of contigs and a large number of 'N's in the assemblies or large genome  
3 size (>2.9 Mb). Sequence types were determined from the assemblies using MLST  
4 check ([https://github.com/sanger-pathogens/mlst\\_check](https://github.com/sanger-pathogens/mlst_check)), which was used to compare  
5 the assembled genomes against the MLST database for *S. aureus*  
6 (<http://pubmlst.org/saureus/>). Sequence reads were mapped to a relevant reference  
7 genome (European Nucleotide Archive (ENA) ST425 (strain LGA251, accession  
8 number FR821779), using SMALT (<http://www.sanger.ac.uk/science/tools/smalt-0>)  
9 following the default settings to identify single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs).  
10 Consensus sequences were obtained using samtools and concatenated into core  
11 genome alignments<sup>44</sup>. SNPs located in mobile genetic elements were removed from the  
12 alignments and a maximum likelihood tree was constructed using RAxML following  
13 default settings and 1000 bootstrap replicates<sup>45</sup>.

14

15 **Time scaled trees and estimation of the number of host jumps.** Time scaled trees  
16 were generated using BEAST 1.8.2<sup>46</sup>. All isolates with unknown date, unknown host  
17 species or unknown geographical location were removed in addition to the diverse  
18 BAPs groups 12 and 14 leaving a total of 696 isolates. Sites determined to be affected  
19 by recombination from the BNG analysis of the individual BAPs groups, were coded as  
20 missing data. Since missing data can effect phylogenetic inference and contribute to  
21 heavy likelihood calculations, sites that had more than one missing state in the  
22 alignment (either from missing mapped reads or recombination) were excluded from  
23 further analyses, leaving a total of 55,778 sites (4306 segregating sites).

1 To account for different evolutionary processes acting at synonymous and non-  
2 synonymous sites, RNA and noncoding sites, the evolutionary model was partitioned in  
3 to 1+2nd sites, 3rd sites, non-coding sites, and RNAs according to the reference strain  
4 LGA251. Pseudogenes were partitioned in to 1+2nd and 3rd sites with the rationale that  
5 they may be functional in other isolates. For overlapping reading frames, sites were  
6 assigned to the region of highest constraint (e.g. when coding and RNA, sites assigned  
7 as RNA, when 1st and 3rd, sites assigned as 1+2nd etc.). For all partitions, we used an  
8 HKY +  $\Gamma$  substitution model.

9  
10 **Dating.** We treated all sequences as contemporaneous but assigned a median prior of  
11 1.61 [0.604, 2.9] substitutions per site per million years on to 3rd positions, which are  
12 less likely to be subject to strong purifying selection (known to affect rates over different  
13 timescales). The prior comes from previous studies of *S. aureus* using tip dates on  
14 different strain types (Supplementary Table 3). An uncorrelated lognormal model of  
15 changes in substitution rate across different branches was employed. An initial MCMC  
16 run with this model was performed in BEAST v1.8.2<sup>46</sup> using Beagle<sup>47</sup> with two  
17 independent chains, removing the appropriate burnin and run for approximately  
18 100,000,000 generations.

19 In addition, a 10 further subsampled datasets were produced that included only  
20 sequences from the 10 major host types. These were stratified subsamples containing  
21 252 samples each, designed to maintain the host species, geographic and temporal  
22 diversity. The major hosts types are birds, cows, goats, carnivores, horses, humans,

1 rabbits, sheep, rodents and pigs. From these analyses, we subsampled an empirical  
2 distribution of 1000 trees post burnin which were used for all further BEAST analyses.  
3

4 **Markov Jump analysis.** In order to reconstruct host transition events, we used an  
5 asymmetric discrete state phylogeographic analysis with Markov Jumps (REF: 51)  
6 applied to the 10 major host types with default priors. We employed the Markov jump  
7 analysis to estimate the posterior expectation of the number of host change events  
8 across the branches of the phylogeny<sup>30</sup>, using posterior sets of 1000 time scaled trees  
9 from the initial BEAST analyses on the subsampled data sets. The trait models were  
10 used in an MCMC chain of 1,100,000 steps, sampling every 100 steps and discarding  
11 the first 10% as burn-in, leaving 10,000 trees annotated with the host information (i.e.  
12 approximately 10 model instances per tree of the original posterior set). Since biased  
13 sampling can lead to biased results when using these trait models, in addition to using  
14 the 10 stratified subsamples of 252 sequences each we performed additional analyses  
15 with host state randomization and using 100 bootstrapped maximum likelihood trees  
16 (RAxML) in place of the 1000 original BEAST trees (for the 10 stratified subsamples) To  
17 balance the numbers of isolates per host category further, we also created 10 'severe'  
18 stratified subsamples containing 97 sequences each with 20 from Humans, Cows and  
19 Sheep+Goats combined and 19 and 18 from Birds and Pigs respectively. Necessarily in  
20 these severe subsamples it was not possible to maintain the full human and cattle  
21 diversity, although sequences from different geographic locations and years were  
22 chosen. We applied BEAST with Markov Jumps on these 5 host categories using: full  
23 joint inference of trees using sequences and traits together; trees using the sequences

1 only followed by the trait mapping as before; and the BASTA structured coalescent  
2 approximation <sup>31</sup>.

3

4 **Pseudogene analysis.** Pseudogenes were predicted during the PROKKA annotation  
5 process<sup>48</sup>. Specifically, each protein in a genome was searched against UniProtKB  
6 (Swiss-Prot) using BLASTp<sup>49</sup> or UniProtKB (TrEMBL). If no significant hits were  
7 identified, proteins were examined for conserved motifs. Any proteins exhibited less  
8 than 95% coverage of their top hit were listed as potential pseudogenes. The region of  
9 the top hit that was not present in the protein sequence was then interrogated against  
10 all contigs using BLASTn<sup>49</sup>. Hits that were in the correct orientation and on the same  
11 contigs were accepted as pseudogenes and labelled according to their type (frameshift,  
12 stop codon, insertion). Proteins that were less 95% coverage of their top hit and on the  
13 edge of a contig with their counterpart on another contigs were not labelled as  
14 pseudogenes, rather CDS that have split due to the assembly breaking at this point.

15

16 The UniProt ID Mapping tool was used to assign Gene ontology (GO) terms to all  
17 pseudogenes by transferring the GO terms assigned to the closest reference (identified  
18 during the annotation process described above). GO was assigned to all non-  
19 pseudogenes (CDS features) using the same method and InterProScan<sup>50</sup>. The R  
20 package topGO<sup>51</sup> with Fisher's exact test was used to identify enriched GO terms whilst  
21 taking into account the GO hierarchy (the p-value was adjusted using Bonferroni  
22 correction).

23



1 **Pan-genome association analysis.** All genomes in this study were organised into a list  
2 of reference genomes followed by assembled contigs. The second genome in the list  
3 was aligned to the first genome using Nucmer<sup>52</sup> and any regions larger than 100 bp that  
4 did not map to the first genome were appended to the end of it to produce a pangenome  
5 representing the unique regions in the first two genomes. Each subsequent genome  
6 aligned to the combination of all unique regions from the previously aligned genomes in  
7 the list producing a pangenome that represents all of the nucleotide sequences of all  
8 genomes. All genes were organised into groups of orthologues using the bi-directional  
9 best hits algorithm in Get\_homologues with a minimum coverage setting of 50% and  
10 minimum sequence identity setting of 80%<sup>53</sup>. The pangenome was used as the  
11 reference and the coding sequences (CDS) predicted in the annotations described  
12 previously were compared to all CDS within the pangenome. Features annotated as  
13 pseudogenes were excluded from this analysis. The Get\_homologues  
14 compare\_clusters perl script was used to create a pangenome matrix of all identified  
15 gene clusters against all genomes. All core gene clusters (clusters that contain genes  
16 from every genome) were removed from the pangenome matrix. Further to this all  
17 clusters that only contained genes from one genome or all genomes except one were  
18 removed. Furthermore, gene clusters that were found in all members of any STs  
19 associated with multiple host species were removed on the basis that they are not  
20 specific to a single host species. This has the effect of removing lineage-associated  
21 genes resulting in a set of gene clusters that are strain-dependent and largely  
22 independent of phylogeny. Hypergeometric testing was used to find over- and under-  
23 represented gene clusters for each host (the p-value was adjusted using Bonferroni

1 correction). All gene clusters were searched against the NCBI non-redundant nucleotide  
2 database using blastn to provide the most up to date annotation and to examine the  
3 likely bacterial species origin of each MGE.

4  
5 A pairwise distance matrix was calculated from the pangenome matrix using the distmat  
6 function in EMBOSS<sup>54</sup>. The matrix was converted into a bidirectional graph with  
7 distance as the edge weight parameter. The graph was processed in BioLayout with an  
8 edge weight threshold of 0.5<sup>55</sup>.

#### 9 10 **Identification of gene acquisitions or losses associated with host-switching**

11 **events.** The R package APE (Analysis of Phylogenetics and Evolution)<sup>56</sup> was used to fit  
12 a single discrete trait model and get the ancestral state of each node for each gene  
13 cluster against the phylogenetic tree. From this, a vector for every gene cluster was  
14 created with gene acquisition/loss events by comparing every child node in the tree to  
15 its parent node to determine if there was no change, a gene acquisition or a gene loss  
16 event. This was performed separately for each host type (i.e. human, ruminant, bird,  
17 horse and pig) to identify which nodes are associated with a host-switching event. All  
18 gene state vectors were compared to all host state vectors using a Fisher's exact test to  
19 show whether a gene loss/acquisition even is related to a host switch event. The p-  
20 values were adjusted using Bonferroni correction.

21  
22 **Codon usage bias analysis.** The codon adaptation index is used to calculate codon  
23 usage bias by comparing the CAI of a gene against the codon usage table of a

1 reference set of genes. The codon usage table was calculated using the EMBOSS tool  
2 cusp<sup>54</sup>. For this study, the codon usage table was comprised of all genes that were not  
3 significantly over represented in a host or significantly associated with a host switch.  
4 The codon adaptation index (CAI) for all genes significantly over represented in a host  
5 and significantly associated with a host jump was calculated using the EMBOSS tool  
6 cai<sup>54</sup>. The codon adaptation index was also calculated using five random subsets of 50  
7 genes as controls. A one-way ANOVA test was used to test whether there was a  
8 significant effect of host upon CAI. A Tukey HSD test was then applied to compare the  
9 CAIs between host species.

10

11 **Distribution of antibiotic resistance genes analysis.** Antimicrobial resistance genes  
12 were identified as described by Holden et al<sup>15</sup>. Resistance genes were identified by a  
13 combination of BlastN and mapping against assemblies and as previously described <sup>57</sup>  
14 and resistance SNPs identified by mapping against a pseudomolecule of genes with  
15 previously reported resistance-conferring mutations. Isolates were grouped into human  
16 isolates and all animals and them human, rabbits, companion animals (horses, dogs,  
17 cats), marine, pigs, primates, ruminants (goats, sheep, cows) and small mammals (rats,  
18 mice, other small mammals). The proportions of isolates with each resistance gene and  
19  $\geq 1$  resistance conferring SNP for each antibiotic was compared to identify enrichment  
20 using a two-tailed Fishers Exact test with a Bonferroni correction for multiple testing.  
21 Determinates with a P value  $< 9.9 \times 10^{-5}$  were considered statistically significantly  
22 enriched. To examine whether the Fisher Exact tests of independence were robust  
23 when accounting for population structure, we tested whether resistance phenotypes and

1 host were correlated across the *S. aureus* phylogeny. We conducted these for  
2 pig/human and ruminant/human since these were the only comparisons where  
3 significant differences were observed according to the Fisher's exact test. In order to  
4 maximise statistical power, we grouped all gene determinants into specific classes of  
5 antimicrobial (e.g. Tetracycline-resistant if encoding any *tet* allele) and tested for  
6 correlation with host species using the program BayesTraits<sup>58</sup> (using the posterior  
7 sample of trees from our earlier BEAST analysis). We note that the correlated  
8 evolutionary analysis may be overly conservative in cases where horizontal gene  
9 transfer is rampant or homoplasies are high. BayesTraits uses a continuous-time  
10 Markov model to estimate transition rates between the presence and absence of a gene  
11 or SNP and between human and non-human hosts. We allowed the transition rates to  
12 evolve in either a correlated fashion (where the rate of change in one trait depends on  
13 the state found in the other trait) or independently. Posterior distributions of parameters  
14 were estimated from up to 4 million iterations of the MCMC with default priors. After  
15 discarding burn-in, the marginal likelihoods of the dependent and independent models  
16 were obtained using the Akaike Information Criterion (AICM) estimated using the  
17 methods-of-moment estimator in Tracer 1.6<sup>59</sup>

18  
19 **Genome-wide positive selection analysis.** To identify genes under positive selection  
20 in different host groups, we first identified lineages (STs or CCs) correlated with  
21 particular hosts. As the power of the selection analysis is determined by the number of  
22 isolates included, only clades with more than 10 isolates associated with a host were  
23 considered. Based on these criteria, 15 CCs from four groups of hosts were analyzed: 9

1 for humans (CC30, CC5, CC59, CC15, CC12, ST239, ST8, CC22 and CC45), 3 for  
2 ruminants (CC133, primarily associated with sheep and goats and the cows related  
3 CC151 and CC97), 2 for birds (CC5 and CC385) and one for pigs (CC398)  
4 (Supplementary Table 7). Although the CC398 clade also contained several human  
5 isolates, these mostly represent spill-over events rather than an established association  
6 so the CC398-human group was not included for the analysis. Given the variable  
7 number of isolates of each CC-host group, in order to standardize the analysis while  
8 preventing the underestimation of genes under positive selection, 10 isolates linked with  
9 a host were analyzed at a time. Replicates or triplicates of different subsets of genomes  
10 using sampling with replacement was carried out if the number of isolates for that  
11 lineage was large enough. Next, we identified orthologous genes in each of these  
12 groups using the algorithm OrthoMCL integrated in get\_homologues (identity >70%,  
13 similarity >75%, f50, e-value =  $1e-5$ )<sup>53</sup>. Genes were considered orthologous if they were  
14 present in at least 70% of the genomes. Since alignment of coding DNA sequences  
15 may insert gaps in codons and produce frame-shifts, we aligned genes at the protein  
16 level using MUSCLE 3.8.31<sup>60</sup> and translated these sequences back to DNA using  
17 pal2nal v14<sup>61</sup>. Genes identified as inparalogous that turned out to be duplications were  
18 kept for further analyses, otherwise discarded. For every alignment, recombination was  
19 detected using the NSS, Max Chi and Phi tests included in PhiPack<sup>62</sup> and recombinant  
20 genes removed from further analyses. For the gene clusters containing 10 isolates,  
21 phylogenetic trees were extracted from the 783 isolates ML tree. For clusters with less  
22 than 10 genomes, subtrees were produced from the general tree using the tree prune  
23 function in ete2<sup>63</sup>. The DNA alignments and trees were used for PAML analysis<sup>64</sup>. We

1 employed the site evolution models of Codeml (M1a, M2a, M7, M8 and M8a) to perform  
2 codon-by-codon analysis of dN/dS ratios (nonsynonymous to synonymous substitution,  
3  $\omega$ ) of genes and a likelihood ratio test (LRT) was used to determine significant  
4 differences between nested models M1a-M2a, M7-M8, M8a-M8, where one accounts  
5 for positive selection (alternative hypothesis) and the other specifies a neutral model  
6 (null hypothesis). Statistic tests were assessed to a chi-square distribution with 2 and 1  
7 degrees of freedom<sup>64</sup>. Bayes Empirical Bayes<sup>65</sup> was used to calculate the posterior  
8 probabilities of amino acid sites under positive selection of proteins that had significant  
9 LRTs. As independent replicates from similar CC/Host groups resulted in slightly  
10 different genes positively selected, we used get\_homologues to merge the core  
11 genomes and genes selected for each group using same parameters as above. Genes  
12 under positive selection were considered when they were in common for different  
13 replicates with a p-value of 0.05 or were identified in different replicates with a stringent  
14 p-value (0.05/number of genes per core genome).

15 To explore functional categories under positive selection we performed classification of  
16 Clusters of Orthologous Groups (COGs), annotated Gene Ontology terms (GO) and  
17 analysed metabolic pathways (KEGG). To assign COG terms, we performed BLASTp of  
18 single representatives of the orthologous clusters against the prot2003-2014 database,  
19 retrieving the top 5 hits to include alternative annotations. We mapped the gene IDs  
20 obtained to the cog2003-2014.csv database from which the COGs were inferred.

21 Frequencies of COGs for positively selected genes in each CC-host were compared  
22 with the average COG frequencies in the respective core genomes. GO annotations  
23 were obtained by mapping the genes to the go\_20151121-seqdb, uniprot\_sprot and

1 uniprot\_trembl databases using BLASTp. From these, the UniProtKB were mapped to  
2 the gene\_association\_goa database and filtered by bacteria domain to obtain the GO  
3 categories. To visualize and identify overrepresented GO categories of positively  
4 selected genes in different hosts, we used BiNGO<sup>66</sup>. We identified overrepresented  
5 categories using the hypergeometric test with the Benjamini & Hochberg False  
6 Discovery Rate (FDR) multiple testing correction at a significance level of 5%. We  
7 chose the 'Biological Process' category and the prokaryotic ontology file  
8 (gosubset\_prok.obo). However, as most groups did not show significant  
9 overrepresentation, we visualized all the GO categories of genes under positive  
10 selection and used REVIGO<sup>67</sup> with the p-values from BiNGO in order to obtain  
11 summaries of non-redundant GO terms classified into functional categories.

12  
13 **Analysis of lactose fermentation.** *S. aureus* was cultured in Tryptic Soy Broth (TSB) in  
14 presence or absence of 100 mM lactose at 37°C for 17 h with shaking at 200 rpm. OD<sub>600</sub>  
15 was measured and culture supernatants were collected by centrifugation. Subsequently,  
16 the pH of the supernatants was measured using a pH meter (Sartorius, UK). Delta pH  
17 values were calculated by subtracting the pH values of TSB cultures supplemented with  
18 100 mM lactose from the pH values of normal TSB cultures. Statistical analysis was  
19 performed in Graphpad Prism 7 using One-Way ANOVA followed by Tukey's multiple  
20 comparison test.

21  
22 **Data availability.** The sequence datasets generated during the current study are  
23 available in the European Nucleotide Archive (ENA) ([www.ebi.ac.uk/ena](http://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena)) with the

1 accession number PRJEB20741. Accession numbers of previously published  
2 sequences analyzed in the current study are listed in Supplementary Table 1. All data  
3 analysed during this study are included in this published article (and its supplementary  
4 information files).

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14

## 15 **Author contributions**

16 J.R.F. S.J.P, J.P, M.H., E.M.H, L.A.W., and M.T.G.H., conceived and designed the  
17 study. E.J.R., R.B., E.M.H., L.A.W., S.L , M.V. and K.R. carried out experiments. E.J.R.,  
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19 J.R.F analysed data. S.Y.C.T., A.S., and W.vW. provided isolates. E.J.R., R.B., E.M.H.,  
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21

## 22 **Competing Interests**

23

24 The authors declare no competing interests.

25

26

## 27 **Figure legends**

28

29 **Figure 1. *Staphylococcus aureus* phylogeny according to host-species origin.** (a)  
30 Phylogenetic tree of 800 isolates constructed using the maximum likelihood (ML) method  
31 demonstrating the relationship between *S. aureus* and other members of the *S. aureus*  
32 complex; *S. schweitzeri* and *S. argenteus*; (b) Phylogenetic (ML) tree of 783 *S. aureus*  
33 isolates, with host species indicated in colour or animal symbols indicating major

1 domesticated animal clones that are largely host-specific. The evolutionary history of *S.*  
2 *aureus* was calibrated using well-established substitution rates from published datasets  
3 (see methods).

4  
5 **Figure 2. *S. aureus* has undergone extensive ancient and recent host-switching**  
6 **events with humans acting as a major hub.**

7 (a) Time-scaled phylogeny of a  
8 subsample of the *S. aureus* sequences with clonal complexes (CCs) labeled, branches  
9 colored according to host-species group. Pie charts indicate relative probability of host  
10 origin at the ancestral nodes, and line thickness corresponds to probability of the  
11 majority host (see Supplementary Figures 6-10 for all subsamples). Major clonal  
12 complexes (CC)s are indicated. (b) Quantification of the number of host-switch events:  
13 Host transition count network from BEAST Markov Jumps models averaged over all  
14 subsamples of the data. Line-width represents the average Markov Jump count per  
15 tree, averaged over all subsamples (Supplementary Figures 4-5) and line color  
16 represents the significance compared to permuted label analysis (Z-score). Only  
17 transitions with higher counts compared to models with permuted host-labels are shown  
18 (Z-score  $\geq 0.5$ ).

19 **Figure 3. Network analysis of *S. aureus* accessory genome indicates clustering**  
20 **according to host species group.**

21 Network graph of pairwise distances of accessory  
22 genome gene content between isolates. Each node represents an isolate, colour-coded  
23 to indicate host species origin, and each edge indicates greater than 50% of shared  
24 accessory genome content with the length of the edges weighted by distance  
25 (proportion of shared accessory genes; shorter edges have more genes in common). All  
26 edges with  $<50\%$  shared accessory genome content were removed.

27 **Figure 4. Identification of horizontally-acquired genetic elements correlated with**  
28 **host-adaptation.**

29 (a) Schematic representation of the *S. aureus* pan-genome with gene  
30 clusters linked to host-species indicated by shading. Coloured symbols indicate the  
31 nature of the mobile genetic element and the associated host-species (b) Annotated  
gene maps of selected novel genetic elements linked to specific host species.

1 associated with acquisition of MGEs from an accessory gene pool that exists in the  
2 recipient host-species, and/or loss of MGEs linked to the source species.

3

4 **Figure 5. Summary of biological pathways under positive selection in different**  
5 **host-species and evidence for phenotypic adaptation.** The main anatomical  
6 isolation sites on each host group are indicated by filled circles. Functional categories  
7 *virulence and pathogenesis, resistance to antibiotics, transport of ions and cell wall*  
8 *biosynthesis* were under positive selection in all 4 host-species groups. In humans (a)  
9 and ruminants (b) the categories *amino acids biosynthesis* and *transport/metabolism of*  
10 *carbohydrates* were positively selected. The categories *amino-acid*  
11 *transport/metabolism* and *biosynthesis of osmoprotectants* were under positive  
12 selection in birds (c) and *transposable elements* in pigs (d). (e) Phylogenetic tree  
13 indicating the distinct lineages selected for comparative analysis of lactose  
14 fermentation,(f) Fermentation of the disaccharide lactose is enhanced in bovine  
15 lineages. Acidification of *S. aureus* culture supernatant in presence of 100 mM lactose  
16 as indicated by the delta pH. Experiments were performed in triplicate with 5 strains per  
17 clonal lineage. Each dot represents the average delta pH per strain and bars indicate  
18 the SEM per clonal lineage (n = 5). Asterisks indicate significant differences between  
19 bovine (CC97 and CC151, n = 10), avian (CC5 and CC385, n = 10) and human  
20 lineages (CC22, CC30, and CC8, n = 15) with \*\*P<0.005, \*\*\*P<0.001 and \*\*\*\*P<0.0001  
21 using One-Way ANOVA followed by Tukey's multiple comparison test.

22

23 **Figure 6. Resistance to antimicrobials is non-randomly associated with host**  
24 **species.** Proportion (%) of isolates examined which contain the specified resistance  
25 determinant (Supplementary Table 12). Asterisks indicate significant association of  
26 resistance determinants with host-species (Fisher exact test), and colored borders  
27 indicate antibiotic class or single determinants (*sdrM* and *str*) that are associated with  
28 host-species group after testing for phylogenetic independence.

29