RESEARCH LETTER – Taxonomy & Systematics

Comparison of inferred relatedness based on multilocus variable-number tandem-repeat analysis and whole genome sequencing of Vibrio cholerae O1

Mahamud-ur Rashid1,2,†, Mathieu Almeida3, Andrew S. Azman4, Brianna R. Lindsay1,5, David A. Sack4, Rita R. Colwell6, Anwar Huq6, J. Glenn Morris, Jr7, Munirul Alam2 and O. Colin Stine1,*

1School of Medicine, University of Maryland, Baltimore, MD 21201, USA, 2Department of Microbiology, International Centre for Diarrheal Disease Research, Mohakhali, 1212 Dhaka, Bangladesh, 3Center for Bioinformatics and Computational Biology, University of Maryland, Paint Branch Road, College Park, MD 20742, USA, 4Department of International Health, Johns Hopkins Bloomberg School of Public Health, North Wolfe Street, Baltimore, MD 21205, USA, 5Merck & Co., Philadelphia, PA 19454, USA, 6Maryland Pathogen Research Institute, College of Chemical and Life Sciences, University of Maryland, College Park, MD 20742, USA and 7Emerging Pathogens Institute, University of Florida, 2055 Mowry Road, Gainesville, FL 32610, USA

*Corresponding author: Department of Epidemiology and Preventive Medicine, University of Maryland, 596 Howard Hall, 660 W. Redwood St., Baltimore, MD 21201, USA. Tel: +410-706-1607; Fax: +410-706-1644; E-mail: ostin001@umaryland.edu

†Mahamud-ur Rashid completed a laboratory rotation with Dr Stine at the University of Maryland. He is currently a laboratory technician leader at ICDDR,B. He hopes to go to graduate school to continue his education in infectious diseases research.

One sentence summary: Genetic relatedness of Vibrio cholerae isolates from distinct locations was similar when measured by multilocus variable tandem-repeat analysis or whole genome sequencing.

Editor: Craig Winstanley

ABSTRACT

Vibrio cholerae causes cholera, a severe diarrheal disease. Understanding the local genetic diversity and transmission of V. cholerae will improve our ability to control cholera. Vibrio cholerae isolates clustered in genetically related groups (clonal complexes, CC) by multilocus variable tandem-repeat analysis (MLVA) were compared by whole genome sequencing (WGS). Isolates in CC1 had been isolated from two geographical locations. Isolates in a second genetically distinct group, CC2, were isolated only at one location. Using WGS, CC1 isolates from both locations revealed, on average, 43.8 nucleotide differences, while those strains comprising CC2 averaged 19.7 differences. Strains from both MLVA-CCs had an average difference of 106.6. Thus, isolates comprising CC1 were more closely related (P < 10 −6) to each other than to isolates in CC2. Within a MLVA-CC, after removing all paralogs, alternative alleles were found in all possible combinations on separate chromosomes indicative of recombination within the core genome. Including recombination did not affect the distinctiveness of the MLVA-CCs when measured by WGS. We found that WGS generally reflected the same genetic relatedness of isolates as MLVA, indicating that isolates from the same MLVA-CC shared a more recent common ancestor than isolates from the same location that clustered in a distinct MLVA-CC.

Keywords: cholera; Vibrio cholerae; multilocus variable tandem-repeat analysis (MLVA); whole genome sequencing (WGS); recombination

Received: 23 March 2016; Accepted: 25 April 2016
© FEMS 2016. This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/), which permits unrestricted reuse, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.
INTRODUCTION

*Vibrio cholerae* causes cholera, a severe diarrheal disease, with hundreds of thousands of cases recorded annually in Africa and Asia (Ali et al. 2015). Understanding local transmission dynamics of *V. cholerae* should improve our ability to control this life-threatening disease and molecular methods offer insight complementary to traditional epidemiologic data analyses. Extensive genetic variation among cholera strains has been observed by multilocus variable-number tandem-repeat analysis (MLVA) (Kendall et al. 2010). These repeats are short DNA sequence motifs that are repeated multiple times (2–25, with the number of repeats determining the allele number) at a specific locus. For *V. cholerae*, at least five tandem-repeat loci are highly polymorphic (Danin-Poleg et al. 2007). MLVA of these loci has revealed a clustering of clinical isolates of *V. cholerae* from different geographic regions and different times of collection (Ghosh et al. 2008; Stine et al. 2008). Rashed et al. (2014) showed that, in two Bangladeshi communities, one group of related genotypes, a clonal complex (MLVA-CC), differentiated into 26 genotypes. Furthermore, in one of the communities, only isolates from this MLVA-CC had been isolated whereas in the other community, additional MLVA-CCs were identified during a year-long clinical and environmental surveillance. Isolates comprising a single MLVA-CC are hypothesized to have arisen from a common ancestor, with isolates of two separate MLVA-CCs assumed to represent independent genetic lineages.

Whole genome sequencing (WGS) offers a more precise identification of genetic lineages and, when combined with phylogenetic analysis, can be used to estimate migration patterns (over time and space) of isolates within lineages. Results from WGS of *V. cholerae* isolates have been interpreted as identifying three waves of migration across the globe over the past 50 years (Mutreja et al. 2011). The third wave interpreted by the authors to include the introduction of *V. cholerae* into Haiti by strains from Asia (Chin et al. 2011). WGS of *V. cholerae* isolates from Kenya showed two distinct genetic lineages residing in the country for about 10 years (Kiuru et al. 2013)—a qualitative conclusion drawn in a separate analysis employing MLVA (Mohamed et al. 2012).

In two previous studies of *V. cholerae*, results obtained using MLVA and WGS were compared. The first compared inferred relationships between 66 *V. cholerae* isolates collected over a 38-year period from various geographic locations throughout the world. The authors found no clear evidence of any relationship among the MLVA genotypes and single nucleotide polymorphism profiles and concluded that MLVA is useful only for analysis of isolates collected within a shorter time frame or geographic scale (Lam et al. 2010). In addition, a study of 38 isolates of *V. cholerae* from a single outbreak in northern India showed that MLVA discriminated isolates of the clades identified by WGS, but one small WGS clade contained isolates from three MLVA-CCs (Abd El Ghany et al. 2014). Neither study, however, systematically compared relatedness as measured by MLVA and by WGS.

In this study, strains of *V. cholerae*, comprising two clonal complexes, isolated from samples collected at two sites in Bangladesh located ca. 400 km apart (Rashed et al. 2014), were examined using WGS analysis to determine whether isolates of the same MLVA clonal complex but from samples collected at different locations were more recently derived from the same common ancestor than isolates from different clonal complexes at a single location.

METHODS AND MATERIALS

Bacterial isolates

A total of 42 *V. cholerae* O1 isolates were selected for study based on their MLVA genotype (Rashed et al. 2014). Isolates with the same MLVA genotype comprising CC1 were from Mathbaria (n = 2) and from Chhatak (n = 5). Isolates with different MLVA genotypes, but related by one or more successive changes of a single allele and also a member of CC1, from Mathbaria (n = 4) and from Chhatak (n = 6) were included. Isolates of the same genotypes from CC2 from Mathbaria (n = 9), different MLVA genotypes from CC2 from Mathbaria (n = 5) and isolates representing three additional complexes, CC3 (n = 3), CC4 (n = 2), CCS (n = 2), and four singleton strains (defined as unrelated to any of the other strains of this study at two or more loci) comprised the full set of genotypes included in this analysis.

Genomic DNA preparation

Genomic DNA was extracted from 3.0 ml of cells harvested from overnight LB broth culture using alkaline lysis followed by phenol–chloroform extraction, as described elsewhere (Chowdhury et al. 2000). The harvested DNA was stored at −20 °C.

Genome sequencing

Genome sequencing of the 42 *V. cholerae* O1 isolates was performed using DNA prepared for Illumina sequencing with the KAPA High Throughput Library Preparation Kit (Kapa Biosystems, Wilmington, MA, USA). DNA was fragmented with the Covaris E210. Libraries were prepared using a modified version of the with-bead protocol (Kapa Biosystems). The libraries were enriched and barcoded by ten cycles of PCR amplification with primers containing an index sequence of seven nucleotides in length. The libraries were sequenced on a 100-bp-paired-end run on an Illumina HiSeq2500 (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA).

Whole genome alignment and detection of single nucleotide variants

The quality of the 101-bp-end reads was confirmed using FastQC (http://www.bioinformatics.bbsrc.ac.uk/projects/fastqc). High quality reads were assembled with ‘spades’ software (v.3.6.2) (Bankevich et al. 2012), using the options ‘-careful’ to reduce the number of mis-assemblies and ‘-cov-cutoff auto’ to remove the potentially mis-assembled low coverage contigs. This package produces a ‘de novo’ assembly and is not dependent upon a previously published sequence for comparison. The advantage is that if any section of the genome is present in the assembled sequence and not in the reference sequence, that sequence section will be included in the assembly and analysis. The MLVA loci were omitted from the WGS analysis because the length of the alleles often exceeded the read length. Annotation was performed using the RAST server (Aziz et al. 2008). The assembled annotated files have been deposited in Genbank (SAMN03839339 to SAMN03839380). Nucleotide variations were identified by comparing with *V. cholerae* O1 El Tor reference strain N16961 (NCBI accession numbers AE003852 and AE003853) using default settings in CSI Phylogeny 1.0a (http://cge.cbs.dtu.dk/services/CSIPhylogeny/). Kaas et al. (2014). CSI Phylogeny uses Burrows-Wheeler Aligner, SAMtools, BEDTools, MUMmer and FastTree in succession, to generate a tree of genetic relatedness based on
| Strain ID | Location | MLVA genotype | MLVA clonal complex | Genome size (bp) | GC % | No. of variants found | Variants uniquely multiply |
|----------|----------|----------------|---------------------|-----------------|------|----------------------|---------------------------|
| NHCC_011 | Chhatak 9-4-14-9-17 | C1 | 4032 234 | 47.49 | 105 | 5 | 5 |
| NHCC_019 | Chhatak 9-4-14-21-12 | C1 | 4015 528 | 47.48 | 131 | 1 | 11 |
| NHCC_042 | Chhatak 9-4-14-21-17 | C1 | 4024 248 | 47.48 | 111 | 0 | 6 |
| NHCC_048 | Chhatak 9-4-14-25-15 | C1 | 4048 869 | 47.45 | 122 | 4 | 10 |
| NHCC_05 | Chhatak 9-4-14-16 | C1 | 4071 087 | 47.5 | 118 | 6 | 4 |
| NHCC_068 | Chhatak 8-4-14-21-16 | C1 | 4042 585 | 47.49 | 137 | 1 | 5 |
| NHCC_078 | Chhatak 9-4-14-23-18 | C1 | 4041 484 | 47.49 | 152 | 19 | 8 |
| NHCC_079 | Chhatak 9-4-14-23-18 | C1 | 4045 004 | 47.48 | 109 | 2 | 12 |
| NHCC_080 | Chhatak 9-4-14-23-18 | C1 | 4040 457 | 47.48 | 125 | 2 | 12 |
| NHCC_081 | Chhatak 9-4-14-23-18 | C1 | 4044 220 | 47.47 | 108 | 2 | 7 |
| NHCC_083 | Chhatak 9-4-14-23-18 | C1 | 4040 830 | 47.48 | 103 | 36 | 9 |
| EM_1706 | Mathbaria 10-4-14-9-18 | C1 | 3952 250 | 47.6 | 100 | |
| NHCM_043 | Mathbaria 9-4-14-22-18 | C1 | 4064 275 | 47.46 | 203 | 1 | 11 |
| NHCM_044 | Mathbaria 10-4-14-23-18 | C1 | 4040 600 | 47.48 | 109 | 0 | 10 |
| NHCM_047 | Mathbaria 9-4-14-23-18 | C1 | 4048 862 | 47.48 | 125 | 1 | 12 |
| NHCM_054 | Mathbaria 9-4-14-17-18 | C1 | 4044 549 | 47.48 | 90 | 2 | 6 |
| EM_1688 | Mathbaria 11-9-14-15-18 | C2 | 4063 740 | 47.46 | 156 | 1 | 7 |
| EM_1690 | Mathbaria 11-9-14-15-18 | C2 | 4063 337 | 47.46 | 90 | 0 | 10 |
| EM_1690A | Mathbaria 11-9-14-15-18 | C2 | 3969 556 | 47.48 | 113 | 0 | 2 |
| NHCM_012 | Mathbaria 11-9-14-15-18 | C2 | 4066 680 | 47.46 | 102 | 0 | 3 |
| NHCM_013 | Mathbaria 11-9-14-15-18 | C2 | 4064 645 | 47.45 | 165 | 1 | 7 |
| NHCM_016A | Mathbaria 11-9-14-15-18 | C2 | 4062 074 | 47.45 | 100 | 2 | 6 |
| NHCM_017 | Mathbaria 11-9-14-15-18 | C2 | 4280 674 | 46.96 | 247 | 0 | 5 |
| NHCM_029 | Mathbaria 11-9-14-15-18 | C2 | 4065 570 | 47.45 | 98 | 1 | 6 |
| NHCM_033 | Mathbaria 11-9-14-15-19 | C2 | 4098 822 | 47.46 | 96 | 1 | 4 |
| NHCM_037 | Mathbaria 12-9-14-15-18 | C2 | 4061 882 | 47.46 | 115 | 0 | 10 |
| NHCM_04 | Mathbaria 11-9-14-15-18 | C2 | 4059 738 | 47.46 | 104 | 0 | 3 |
| NHCM_048 | Mathbaria 11-9-7-17-16 | C2 | 3964 912 | 47.48 | 131 | 2 | 3 |
| NHCM_053 | Mathbaria 11-9-14-15-16 | C2 | 4062 854 | 47.45 | 87 | 1 | 3 |
| NHCM_06 | Mathbaria 11-9-14-15-17 | C2 | 4074 374 | 47.44 | 180 | 1 | 3 |
| EM_1542 | Mathbaria 10-7-14-14-15 | C3 | 4064 555 | 47.45 | 155 | |
| EM_1543 | Mathbaria 10-7-14-14-16 | C3 | 4071 079 | 47.45 | 108 | |
| NHCM_01 | Mathbaria 11-7-14-14-15 | C3 | 4067 119 | 47.45 | 155 | |
| EM_1626 | Mathbaria 9-4-14-14-16 | C4 | 4065 819 | 47.45 | 99 | |
| EM_1652A | Mathbaria 9-4-14-14-16 | C4 | 4059 450 | 47.47 | 80 | |
| NHCM_02 | Mathbaria 11-8-14-13-19 | C5 | 4065 626 | 47.45 | 103 | |
| NHCM_03 | Mathbaria 11-9-14-14-19 | C5 | 4069 444 | 47.45 | 100 | |
| EC_51 | Chhatak 10-8-14-17-18 | Singleton | 4077 853 | 47.38 | 137 | |
| NHCC_021 | Chhatak 9-4-6-17-11 | Singleton | 4051 529 | 47.48 | 113 | |
| NHCC_04 | Chhatak 11-8-7-17-17 | Singleton | 4048 335 | 47.5 | 158 | |
| EM_1654 | Mathbaria 9-4-19-16 | Singleton | 4060 969 | 47.47 | 101 | |

High-quality single nucleotide variants (SNVs). The program used default values to call, filter and validate the SNVs and based on concatenated alignment of the high quality SNVs, constructed a maximum-likelihood SNV tree of genetic relatedness (Kaas et al. 2014). The resulting tree was visualized using FigTree v1.4.1 (http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/software/figtree/). High-density SNV clusters and possible recombination sites were identified using a previously described method (Croucher et al. 2011). Identical results were obtained using SMALT (http://www.sanger.ac.uk/resources/software/smalt/).

Recombination analyses: SNVs were defined as those variants found in one or more isolates. Unique variants were found as those in only one isolate. The core genome was defined as those genes present in all genomes of this analysis that did not have a paralog. PARSNP (v1.2) (Treangen et al. 2014) was used to extract and align variable nucleotides from the core genome, using the parameter ‘–c’ to constrain the use of all input genomes. Gingr (v1.2) (Treangen et al. 2014) was used to export a file of the aligned variants which was loaded into Splitstree (Huson and Bryant 2006) to determine networks.

**Statistical analysis**

To understand how well MLVA-CC genotypes aligned with those obtained using WGS, pairwise SNV differences within and between clonal complexes were compared. A permutation test was used to determine whether a mean pairwise SNV difference within the clonal complexes was significantly smaller than the mean pairwise SNV difference between clonal complexes.

**RESULTS**

A total of 42 genomes with known MLVA genotypes were sequenced, analyzed and annotated (Table 1). Relationships between genotypes within the MLVA-CC of this study have been published previously and are shown in Fig. S1, Supporting
Information (Rashed et al. 2014). Average quality score ranged from 37 to 39 out of 40 and average depth of reads exceeded 100 times across the entire genome when compared to the reference sequences (V. cholerae O1 N16961). The genome assemblies contained an average of 128 contigs per isolate (range, 80–313), with an average G+C content of 47.45% (46.96%–47.49%) and 4.05 Mb average genome size (3.95–4.28 Mb). Variable nucleotides were found among isolates within the MLVA-CCs using CSI-Phylogeny (http://cge.dtu.dk/services/CSIPhylogeny/, Kaas et al. 2014), with a total of 553 variable nucleotides identified among the 42 isolates, compared to V. cholerae N16961 reference sequences. Pairwise nucleotide differences, defined as two genome sequences showing alternative nucleotides at the same locus, ranged from 11 to 251 for the 42 isolates. The 18 isolates comprising the CC1 established by MLVA showed pairwise nucleotide differences based on WGS ranging from 11 to 149, with an average of 43.8 and standard deviation of 30.0. Isolates comprising CC2 had pairwise nucleotide differences ranging from 11 to 36, with an average of 19.7 and standard deviation of 4.8 nucleotide differences. Pairwise nucleotide differences for CC3, CC4 and CC5, isolates ranged from 16 to 25, 88 and 16, respectively.

Pairwise nucleotide differences for isolates comprising CC1 and CC2 ranged from 15 to 144, with an average of 106.6 and standard deviation of 10.1. The SNV difference distributions of all pairs, both within and between MLVA-CCs 1 and 2 are shown graphically in Fig. 1. Mean pairwise SNV differences for isolates comprising CC1 and CC2 were significantly smaller than mean pairwise differences between the clonal complexes (43.8 versus 106.6, permutation test \( P < 10^{-6} \)).

SNVs in each clonal complex were examined using PARSNP (v1.2) (Treangen et al. 2014) as follows. The number of unique variants (present only in a single isolate) and the number of variants in more than one isolate for each isolate in clonal complex 1 and 2 was determined (Table 1). For 26 of 30 isolates, the number of unique variants is smaller than number of variants in multiple isolates. These results suggest that the stems of the phylogenetic tree should have a longer length than the terminal branches of a standard bifurcating tree. This was not the case (Fig. S2, Supporting Information). In the bifurcating tree, the terminal branches (the length of which is proportional to the distance or number of nucleotide changes) are longer than the shared length along the stems. The nucleotide changes within clonal complex 1 (Fig. 2) showed that at three selected loci the alternative alleles occur in all possible combinations (e.g. AA, AG, GA and GG) on separate chromosomes. This observation is consistent with recombination. To determine that this was not because of mis-assembly of paralogs, all paralogs were removed and only the remaining 2543 genes were analyzed. An alternative explanation that these parallel changes were from mutation was calculated to be less than \( 1.6 \times 10^{-13} \).

The presence of recombination among the chromosomes required network analysis of genetic relatedness. As shown in Fig. 3A, the network based on WGS separated CC1 from CC2, while CC3 and CC5 were closely related to CC2. Isolates from CC4 and one isolate of CC1 were determined to be genetically separate by WGS from their MLVA-CC. Isolates with an identical MLVA genotype and clustered in either CC1 (Fig. 3B) or CC2 (Fig. 3C) did not form a cluster in the respective networks. In addition, isolates in CC1 from Mathbaria did not comprise a cluster.

**DISCUSSION**

Isolates collected at two sites in Bangladesh located 400 km apart geographically but comprising the same MLVA-derived clonal complex (CC1) were more closely related to each other, based on WGS, than to isolates from a different MLVA-CC (CC2). MLVA and WGS would be expected to provide results reflecting the same genetic history, since both methods trace genetic relatedness based on distinct loci. On the other hand, circumstances will dictate whether the two measures reflect the same history since WGS genotypes are defined by a larger number of loci. Our observation of recombination in the core genome increases the complexity of tracking strains within a relatively small spatial and temporal scale, while variations in MLVA yield an interpretable pattern, an advantage for MLVA.

Distinct MLVA clonal complexes often, but not necessarily, identify distinct genetic lineages. CC1, CC2, CC3 and CC5, for example, were genetically distinguishable by MLVA and WGS. Isolates from CC2, CC3 and CC5 were very closely related (\( \leq 48 \) bp) according to WGS and more closely related than many isolates from CC1 were related to other members of CC1. It should be noted that CC3 and CC5 each contains only two genotypes and comprised two or three isolates. Whether these become distinct lineages or remain a single lineage may be resolved by more intense sampling or in future collections.

Three isolates showed non-concurrence between MLVA and WGS. CC4 did not form a coherent group, when assessed by WGS. This MLVA-CC had only two genotypes and consisted of two isolates. It also demonstrated a convergence of MLVA genotypes, since one of the genotypes was identical to a CC1 genotype from Chhatak, while WGS identified this genotype as unrelated (91–128 SNVs distant) to CC1. A second example of non-coherence is EM_1706, an outlier in CC1 (range 114–159 SNV to other members of CC1, while other members had an 82 SNV pairwise maximum). Given the limited number of loci and alleles measured by MLVA, some convergence is bound to occur and may explain the lack of congruence seen previously between isolates over large time scales (Lam et al. 2010). The consistency between MLVA-CC and WGS clades in our study is different from a previous report which found that both one WGS clades contained isolates from three MLVA-CCs (Abd El Ghany et al. 2014). However, their result is limited by the small sample size in one
WGS clade (n = 3). However, MLVA is easy to do, reagents are readily available and it is discriminative on a short time scale (outbreaks).

The core genome of *V. cholerae* recombines, contrary to the null hypothesis that the core genome does not recombine. Our identification of recombination events is concluded from the observation of two alleles at two loci with those alleles occurring in all four combinations (AA, GG, AG and GA). The presence of all four combinations of alleles at linked loci is the classic demonstration of recombination because two independent mutations at the nucleotide on alternative chromosomes in the same population are extremely rare. An exception is when the rate of mutation is very high as in the slip mispairing mutations in tandem repeats. For *V. cholerae*, recombination in the core genome is consistent with the presence of a molecular mechanism (Seitz and Blokesch 2013; Antonova and Hammer 2015) and recombination between serogroups (Blokesch and Schoolnik 2007; Gonzalez-Fraga et al. 2008). The barrier to
recognizing recombination events in the core genome has been an absence of genetic variation between isolates. Our sample is unusual in a way that many of our fully sequenced isolates were isolated from samples collected in the same geographic location at the same time. Hence, proximity serves as the prerequisite for recombination.

Recombination increases the difficulty of tracing strains on small spatial and temporal scales. If mutation were the only mechanism of change, then tracing strains would depend solely on distance along the bifurcating tree. However, once recombination intervenes, the appropriate path around the network becomes ambiguous. For MLVA, it is unlikely that two MLVA loci will be involved in a single recombination event because they are at least 115 kb distant and an event involving only one locus will appear to be a mutation.

The presence of the CC1 genetic lineage in both Mathbaria and Chhatak indicates a geographically and ecologically broad distribution for this genetic lineage in the areas of Bangladesh included in this study. Ecological and/or immunological selection patterns should prove useful in explaining this pattern of occurrence (Jutla et al. 2013).

In our study, MLVA and WGS generally reflect the same genetic relatedness of V. cholerae isolates; MLVA, with sufficient numbers and recognizing the potential for outliers, can address hypotheses concerning migration of strain genotypes across geographic regions.

SUPPLEMENTARY DATA
Supplementary data are available at FEMSLE online.

FUNDING
This research was supported by National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Disease (NIAID) grant no. 5R01AI039129 from the National Institutes of Health (NIH) under collaborative agreements between the Johns Hopkins Bloomberg School of Public Health, the University of Maryland, Baltimore (UMB), the University of Maryland, College Park (UMCP) and the International Centre for Diarrhoeal Disease Research, Bangladesh. ICDDR, B acknowledges the support of the governments of the Netherlands, Great Britain, Australia and Japan. MA was supported in part by NIH grant no. R01-AI-100947.

Conflict of interest. None declared.

References
Abd El Ghany M, Chander J, Mutreja A et al. The population structure of Vibrio cholerae from the Chandigarh region of Northern India. PLoS Negl Trop D 2014;8:e2981.
Ali M, Nelson AR, Lopez AL et al. Updated global burden of cholera in endemic countries. PLoS Negl Trop D 2015;9:e0003832.
Antonova ES, Hammer BK. Genetics of natural competence in Vibrio cholerae and other vibrios. Microbiol Spectrum 2015;3:VE-0010-2014.
Aziz RK, Bartels D, Best AA et al. The RAST server: rapid annotations using subsystems technology. BMC Genomics 2008;9:75.
Bankevich A, Nurk S, Antipov D et al. SPAdes: A new genome assembly algorithm and its applications to single-cell sequencing. J Comput Biol 2012;19:455–77.
Blokèsch M, Schoolnik GK. Serogroup conversion of Vibrio cholerae in aquatic reservoirs. PLoS Pathog 2007;3:e81.
Chin CS, Sorenson J, Harris JB et al. The origin of the Haitian cholera outbreak strain. New Engl J Med 2011;364:33–42.
Chowdhury NR, Chakraborty S, Ramamurthy T et al. Molecular evidence of clonal Vibrio parahaemolyticus pandemic strains. Emerg Infect Dis 2000;6:631–6.
Croucher NJ, Harris SR, Fraser C et al. Rapid pneumococcal evolution in response to clinical interventions. Science 2011;331:430–4.
Danin-Poleg Y, Cohen LA, Gancz H et al. Vibrio cholerae strain typing and phylogeny study based on simple sequence repeats. J Clin Microbiol 2007;45:736–46.
Ghosh R, Nair GB, Tang L et al. Epidemiological study of Vibrio cholerae using variable number of tandem repeats. FEMS Microbiol Lett 2008;288:196–201.
Gonzalez-Fraga S, Pichel M, Binsztein N et al. Lateral gene transfer of O1 serogroup encoding genes of Vibrio cholerae. FEMS Microbiol Lett 2008;286:32–8.
Huson DH, Bryant D. Application of phylogenetic networks in evolutionary studies. Mol Biol Evol 2006;23:254–67.
Jutla A, Whitcombe E, Hasan N et al. Environmental factors influencing epidemic cholera. Am J Trop Med Hyg 2013;89:597–607.
Kaas RS, Leekitcharoenphon P, Aarestrup FM et al. Solving the problem of comparing whole bacterial genomes across different sequencing platforms. PLoS One 2014;9:e104984.
Kendall EA, Chowdhury F, Begum Y et al. Relatedness of Vibrio cholerae O1/O139 isolates from patients and their household contacts, determined by multilocus variable-number tandem-repeat analysis. J Bacteriol 2010;192:4367–76.
Kiuru J, Mutreja A, Mohamed AA et al. A study on the geophenology of clinical and environmental Vibrio cholerae in Kenya. PLoS One 2013;8:e74829.
Lam C, Octavia S, Reeves P et al. Evolution of seventh cholera pandemic and origin of 1991 epidemic, Latin America. Emerg Infect Dis 2010;16:1130–20.
Mohamed AA, Oundo J, Kariuki SM et al. Molecular epidemiology of geographically dispersed Vibrio cholerae, Kenya, January 2009–May 2010. Emerg Infect Dis 2012;18:925–31.
Mutreja A, Kim DW, Thomson NR et al. Evidence for several waves of global transmission in the seventh cholera pandemic. Nature 2011;477:462–5.
Rashed SM, Azman AS, Alam M et al. Genetic analysis of Vibrio cholerae in the human population of two rural communities in Bangladesh during outbreaks. Emerg Infect Dis 2014;20:54–60.
Seitz P, Blokesch M. DNA-uptake machinery of naturally competent Vibrio cholerae. P Natl Acad Sci USA 2013;110:17987–92.
Stine OC, Alam M, Tang L et al. Seasonal cholera from multiple small outbreaks, rural Bangladesh. Emerg Infect Dis 2008;14:831–3.
Treangen TJ, Ondov BD, Koren S et al. The Harvest suite for rapid core-genome alignment and visualization of thousands of intraspecific microbial genomes. Genome Biol 2014;15:524.