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Global dissemination of a multidrug resistant *Escherichia coli* clone

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Escherichia coli sequence type 131 (ST131) is a globally disseminated, multidrug resistant (MDR) clone responsible for a high proportion of urinary tract and bloodstream infections. The rapid emergence and successful spread of *E. coli* ST131 is strongly associated with several factors, including resistance to fluoroquinolones, high virulence gene content, the possession of the type 1 fimbriae FimH30 allele, and the production of the CTX-M-15 extended spectrum β -lactamase (ESBL). Here, we used genome sequencing to examine the molecular epidemiology of a collection of *E. coli* ST131 strains isolated from six distinct geographical locations across the world spanning 2000–2011. The global phylogeny of *E. coli* ST131, determined from whole-genome sequence data, revealed a single lineage of *E. coli* ST131 distinct from other extraintestinal *E. coli* strains within the B2 phylogroup. Three closely related *E. coli* ST131 sublineages were identified, with little association to geographic origin. The majority of single-nucleotide variants associated with each of the sublineages were due to recombination in regions adjacent to mobile genetic elements (MGEs). The most prevalent sublineage of ST131 strains was characterized by fluoroquinolone resistance, and a distinct virulence factor and MGE profile. Four different variants of the CTX-M ESBL-resistance gene were identified in our ST131 strains, with acquisition of CTX-M-15 representing a defining feature of a discrete but geographically dispersed ST131 sublineage. This study confirms the global dispersal of a single *E. coli* ST131 clone and demonstrates the role of MGEs and recombination in the evolution of this important MDR pathogen.

bacterial evolution | genomics | phylogeography | genomic epidemiology

Many multidrug-resistant (MDR) bacterial strains are now recognized as belonging to clones that originate in a specific locale, country, or even globally. *Escherichia coli* sequence type 131 (ST131) is one such recently emerged and globally disseminated MDR pandemic clone responsible for community and hospital-acquired urinary tract and bloodstream infections. *E. coli* ST131 was identified in 2008 as a major clone linked to the spread of the CTX-M-15 extended-spectrum β -lactamase (ESBL) resistance (1–3). Since then, *E. coli* ST131 has also been strongly associated with fluoroquinolone resistance, and core-sistance to aminoglycosides and trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole (4–6). Alarmingly, strains of *E. coli* ST131 resistant to carbapenems have also been reported (7, 8), further limiting treatment options for this clone.

E. coli ST131 belongs to the B2 phylogenetic subgroup I, with most isolates characterized as serotype O25b:H4 (1). Epidemiology studies using pulse-field gel electrophoresis (PFGE) have demonstrated that *E. coli* ST131 strains exhibit diversity, with

some dominant PFGE pulsotypes including the UK epidemic strain A (9) and pulsotype 968 (10, 11) widely distributed across the globe. More recently, a typing scheme using the type 1 fimbriae *fimH* adhesin gene revealed that a large subclonal lineage of *E. coli* ST131 strains possess the FimH30 allele, which is also associated with specific mutations in the *gyrA* and *parC* genes that confer resistance to fluoroquinolones (12).

Several whole genome (13–16) and PCR (1, 17–20) studies have revealed that *E. coli* ST131 strains possess a variable complement of genes encoding established virulence factors commonly associated with extraintestinal pathogenic *E. coli* (ExPEC). Indeed, few virulence genes appear to be uniformly present in *E. coli* ST131 and, thus, it is likely that differences in virulence gene content contribute to the variable virulence potential that has been reported. For example, although some ST131 strains cause rapid death in a mouse sepsis infection model (21), this phenotype is not consistent among all strains (22). The *E. coli* ST131 strain EC958, which is a representative of the FimH30-fluoroquinolone resistant subgroup, has been characterized at the molecular level (15). *E. coli* EC958 contains an insertion in the type 1 fimbriae regulator gene *fimB* (15) that

Significance

Escherichia coli sequence type 131 (ST131) is a globally disseminated multidrug-resistant clone associated with human urinary tract and bloodstream infections. Here, we have used genome sequencing to map the temporal and spatial relationship of a large collection of *E. coli* ST131 strains isolated from six distinct geographical regions across the world. We show that *E. coli* ST131 strains are distinct from other extraintestinal pathogenic *E. coli* and arose from a single progenitor strain prior to the year 2000.

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was also found to share the same *fimH30-gyrA1AB-parC1aAB* allelic profile (12).

Analysis of the density of all SNPs along the SE15 reference chromosome revealed a nonhomogeneous distribution, with many core-genome regions associated with a density ~ 8.5 -fold higher than the expected average (Fig. 2). Because discrete regions with a high-density of SNPs may be the result of recombination events, as opposed to mutational hotspots (31, 32), we inferred the recombination across ST131 genomes by using a Bayesian clustering approach that was previously successfully applied to *S. aureus* and *Streptococcus pneumoniae* (33, 34). We found that recombination has introduced 76.6% of the 16,424 SNPs and 2,050 small indels that differentiate the strains within the ST131 lineage (SI Appendix, Fig. S3 and Dataset S3). Phylogenetic analysis using only SNPs found in recombinant regions also clustered the ST131 strains into the same three-clades structure (SI Appendix, Figs. S1B and S2B). Overall these results reflect the significant role that recombination has played in shaping the three major ST131 lineages with subsequent point mutations driving the fine-scale diversity within each clade.

Antibiotic Resistance Is Associated with ST131 Clade C. Besides the major contribution of recombination events to the between-clade diversity of ST131, we also observed differences in the distribution of SNPs between recombinant and nonrecombinant regions (Fig. 2). SNP density across all strains combined was higher in recombinant regions with an estimated 1.19×10^{-2} SNPs per site compared with 1.39×10^{-3} SNPs per site in nonrecombinant regions. Despite the lower density of SNPs, nonrecombinant regions were characterized by a relatively higher ratio of non-synonymous to synonymous SNPs (0.05 and 0.07 SNPs per kilobase, respectively) compared with recombinant regions (0.2 and 0.89 SNPs per kilobase, respectively). This difference was significant ($\chi^2 = 1,045.8$, $P < 0.00001$) and is consistent with a pairwise comparison of ST131 clade A and clade C strains (23).

Fluoroquinolone resistance is one of the major determining features of the ST131 clone and is associated with point mutations in the *gyrA* and *parC* genes (12) (Fig. 1). The three major *gyrA* alleles found in our ST131 dataset were attributed to vertically transmitted point mutations, with unique *gyrA* mutations also found in clade A strain S5EC (A669T) and clade C strain B36EC (Q453R), respectively. In contrast, the *parC1aAB* allele was introduced into clade C via recombination, replacing the *parC1* allele and surrounding Rec_089 region that is conserved in most clade A and B strains (Dataset S3). Multiple, overlapping recombination events continue to shape the ST131 lineage as evidenced by two independent replacements of Rec_089 in subgroups of clade A (encompassing *parC2*) and clade B (*parC3A*), with a further two partial replacements of a 1.8-kb Rec_089 subfragment immediately upstream of *parC* in two clade C

strains (S101EC and S113EC). Among the 34 nonsynonymous and nonrecombinant substitutions that define clade C, we could map nine to crystal structures of homologs, several of which encode amino acid changes that may impact their function (SI Appendix, Fig. S5 and Dataset S2). For example, there is a mutation in the gene encoding the MukB chromosome partition protein, a known interacting partner of ParC (35). In addition to established *fimH*, *parC* and *gyrA* mutations in clade C strains, our identification of further genes with clade C-specific mutations paves the way for more targeted investigations to identify key evolutionary events that underpin the success of *E. coli* ST131.

Among the SNPs that have arisen in individual ST131 clade C strains or subgroups, there are a number within potential antibiotic resistance genes that may have been selected in response to antibiotic treatment (Dataset S2). Each ST131 clade C strain (minus NA114) has between 0 and 50 (mean = 13, SD = 11) unique, nonrecombinant SNPs, 49% of which are nonsynonymous. There are numerous examples of nonsynonymous SNPs within genes that encode homologs of multidrug resistance proteins or other putative transporters that may affect antimicrobial uptake or efflux (Dataset S2). There are also several SNPs in genes encoding penicillin-binding proteins (e.g., ECSF_2363/PBP1C, ECSF_0094/PBP3), other cell wall modifying enzymes (e.g., ECSF_2495 lytic murein transglycosylase B) and examples of cell division genes (e.g., ECSF_2198), or essential genes that may be important for intrinsic resistance development. Although the majority of ST131 clade C SNPs are unique to the strain in which they are found, or exhibit patterns of descent consistent with the inferred phylogeny, we identified genes in which the same mutation appeared to have been acquired independently (Dataset S2). For example, the dihydrofolate reductase gene (ECSF_0053) acquired the trimethoprim resistance L28R mutation in two phylogenetically separated clade C strains (S116EC and S11EC), with several other nonsynonymous mutations in this gene present in different strains.

The majority of clade C strains also possess the CTX-M-15 gene (36 of 42 strains in sublineage C2), with seven other clade C strains containing different CTX-M alleles (3, 14, or 27) (Fig. 1A and Dataset S1). The CTX-M-15-positive strains cluster within a discrete, but temporally and geographically dispersed, sublineage within clade C (Fig. 1B). Although the pattern of CTX-M-15 distribution within this sublineage is suggestive of an ancestral acquisition of the CTX-M-15 gene and subsequent loss by some individual strains, this allele does not associate with any particular plasmid incompatibility group defined by sequence-based typing (SI Appendix, Fig. S4). Furthermore, the CTX-M-15 gene is found on assembled contiguous fragments (contigs) ranging in size from 1.4 kb to 10 kb with variable adjacent gene content (many of which have been previously identified on plasmids), suggesting that the CTX-M-15 gene has

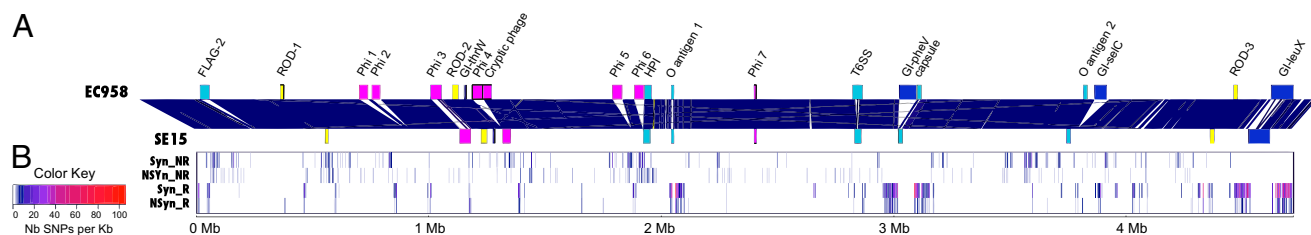


Fig. 2. Distribution of ST131-only core SNPs in recombinant versus nonrecombinant regions. (A) Comparison of the linear genome arrangement of the clade C strain EC958 (Upper) and the clade A strain SE15 (Lower). Solid dark-blue lines between EC958 and SE15 indicate BLAST match of $\geq 99\%$ nucleotide identity between the two genomes. Genomic features of interest are highlighted for both strains as follows: prophages (pink); ST131 characteristic ROD1, ROD2, and ROD3 (yellow); previously characterized genomic islands (blue); and other regions of interest (turquoise). Labels refer to the ST131-characteristic regions defined in the genome of EC958 (15). (B) Heatmap showing the density of 16,424 ST131-only core SNPs along the SE15 chromosome: Syn_NR (synonymous, nonrecombinant); NSyn_NR (nonsynonymous, nonrecombinant); Syn_R (synonymous, recombinant); and NSyn_R (nonsynonymous, recombinant). ST131-only core SNPs were defined as bases called from the mapping data in all strains of the dataset with polymorphisms specific to the ST131 lineage. Recombinant region coordinates were delineated by using BratNextGen. The SNP density heatmap with (number of SNPs per 1 kbp nonoverlapping bin) is indicated by the color key. The x axis at the bottom of the figure represents the SE15 reference chromosome coordinates.

Fewer recombinant regions distinguish clade B from clade C, with the majority of differences contained in regions upstream of *Phi3*, and upstream and downstream of *GI-pheV* and *GI-leuX*, respectively (Dataset S3).

A striking feature of the recombination distribution along the chromosome is that the majority of large recombinant regions were associated with the sites of insertion of prophage and genomic island MGEs (SI Appendix, Fig. S3). Statistical evaluation of 10,000 replicates of the Kolmogorov–Smirnov test confirmed that the distribution of the observed distances between recombinant regions and MGEs was significantly negatively skewed compared with randomly selected regions (K–S test, mean $D = 0.370$, SD = 0.049, mean $P = 6.082 \times 10^{-6}$, SD = 8.004×10^{-5}) (SI Appendix, Fig. S8). This phenomenon has been observed in a comparison using the *E. coli* ST131 SE15 and NA114 genomes, for which our analysis agrees with 20 of 22 recombination regions (23), and in other comparisons of closely related *E. coli* genomes (44). In contrast, a reduced role for recombination was reported in a study comparing 12 ST131 genomes and 50 publicly available *E. coli* reference genomes (45).

Recombinant Regions Have Shaped the ST131 Lineage. Fimbrial adhesins and bacterial motility genes were significantly over-represented in recombinant fragments (SI Appendix, Fig. S9). A prime example was the *fliC-fliY* flagellar locus encoded on the recombinant fragment Rec_051 (ECSF_1762 to ECSF_1776). In SE15 and other ST131 clade A strains, the *fliC* allele corresponds to the H5 serogroup. In contrast, clade B and C strains possess an H4 *fliC* allele within Rec_051, a 12.6-kb recombinant fragment that is adjacent to the *Phi5* insertion in EC958. The *fim* operon containing the type 1 fimbrial *fimH* gene resides within Rec_137, which at 92.6 kb is one of the largest and most complex recombinant fragments within the ST131 lineage (Dataset S3). The subfragment of Rec_137 that encodes the region *fimC* to *uxuR* displayed characteristic recombination patterns, introducing a clade-specific *fimH* allele (*fimH41* in clade A, *fimH22* in clade B, and *fimH30* in clade C). Interestingly, these three *fimH* alleles were also identified as the major signatures in a small collection of mainly American isolates, and the same recombinant region was deduced from the comparison of SE15 and NA114 (23). As observed in EC958 (15), an insertion within *fimB* was found in clade C strains, although it is not clear if this insertion was acquired by homologous recombination concomitant with the acquisition of the *fimH30* subfragment, or subsequent to this event. The only exception in our collection was the ST131 clade C strain S77EC, which contained a large deletion encompassing part of the 3' end of the adjacent *GI-leuX* island (Fig. 3) and the *fim* locus.

Several regions containing putative virulence genes, namely Rec_087 (ECSF_2626 to ECSF_2634) and part of Rec_088 (ECSF_2784 to ECSF_2804), which contain genes related to a Type 6 Secretion System (T6SS) and a Type 2 Secretion System (T2SS), respectively, have also undergone gene conversion. Clade B and C strains carry T6SS alleles that are distinct from clade A strains. In contrast, the T2SS locus in clade C strains appears to have been subjected to several independent recombination events, consistent with its location in a recombination hotspot downstream of the *GI-pheV* island (SI Appendix, Fig. S3). Between the T2SS region and *GI-pheV*, the Rec_088 recombinant fragment also encodes the group II capsule synthesis locus (ECSF_2771 to ECSF_2783). Several variant region 2 gene clusters were observed between region 1 (*kpsFEDUCS*) and region 3 (*kpsTM*) of ST131 genomes, consistent with multiple instances of replacement since divergence of ST131 clades A and C with corresponding differences in K-antigen serotype (46). As described above, differences in the LPS core biosynthesis locus within the 70.3-kb Rec_069 recombinant fragment suggest that the O25b serotype is also associated with divergence of clades B and C from clade A (13).

Several less-well characterized genomic regions that could differentiate clade C strains from other ST131 strains were also

identified. Two regions with the most distinctive recombination profiles that clearly distinguished all three clades were Rec_131 (ECSF_4099 to ECSF_4159) upstream of *GI-leuX*, and part of Rec_137 (ECSF_4277 to ECSF_4338). The Rec_131 region contains the *tamAB* genes, which encode a recently described translocation and assembly module that contributes to the secretion of some AT proteins (47), whereas the Rec_137 region contains genes associated with salt resistance (*osmY*), siderophore-based iron transport (*fhuF*), and regulation (*creBC*). When the impact of recombination on major gene functions independent of virulence was considered, significant differences were observed in genes encoding transporters, fructose-mannose metabolism, histidine metabolism, and the pentose-phosphate pathway (SI Appendix, Fig. S9). The impact of these sequence changes remains to be determined.

Conclusion

Our whole-genome phylogenetic analysis indicates that ST131 has arisen from a single progenitor *E. coli* that diverged into three sublineages some time before the year 2000 with acquisition of multiple mobile genetic elements, associated recombination events, and point-mutations jointly responsible for the emergence of the most prevalent clade C strains. In addition to the known *fimH*, *fimB*, *parC*, and *gyrA* alleles that characterize ST131 clade C, we have defined several additional genes and regions that may be important for adaptive diversification in response to host or antibiotic resistance pressures. These results also provide a framework for future PCR-based assays to rapidly classify ST131 strains and monitor their evolution. Further molecular analysis of the clade defining variants and MGEs identified in this study will help to elucidate the mechanisms that have led to ST131 colonization of the urinary tract and other clinical sites, and the rapid global dispersal of this important group of ExPEC.

Materials and Methods

Genome Sequencing and Assembly. Draft genomes were generated by using 100-bp paired-end Illumina HiSeq 2000 reads and assembled with Velvet (48). Contigs ≥ 200 bp were ordered against the EC958 draft genome (BioProject: PRJEA61443) by using Mauve (49). Sequencing reads are available at the European Nucleotide Archive under study number ERP001354, accessions in Study ERP001354 (ERS126551–ERS126646) (see Dataset S1 for accession numbers) with draft genomes available at http://github.com/BeatsonLab-MicrobialGenomics/ST131_99. See also SI Appendix, SI Materials and Methods.

Genome Analysis. Alignment of the ST131 draft genome assemblies and three ST131 reference genomes (SE15, NA114, and EC958), plus completely sequenced non-ST131 genomes belonging to the *E. coli* B2 phylogenetic group (CFT073, UT189, E2348/69, ED1a, 536, S88, APEC O1), was performed by using Mugsy (50) and GBLOCKS (51) with a minimum syntenic block of 5 kbp. Recombination in the ST131 sequences was estimated by using BratNextGen, which implements a Bayesian clustering algorithm for detection of recombinant fragments in closely related sequences (34). See also SI Appendix, SI Materials and Methods.

Read Mapping and SNP Analysis. Reads from each ST131 isolate and reads simulated *in silico* for the 10 complete genomes used in this study were mapped onto the reference genome SE15 (16) by using SHRIMP 2.0 (52). Nsoni (www.vicbioinformatics.com/software/nsoni.shtml) was used to perform SNP calling (conservative default parameters), small indel prediction, and coding effect SNP annotation. In addition, the Nsoni *n*-way pairwise comparison method was used to establish the list of all polymorphic positions conserved in all strains of the dataset. Polymorphic substitution-only sites were concatenated to produce an alignment that was used for phylogenetic tree construction. Analysis and visualization of SNP distribution across the collection were performed by using custom R scripts. See also SI Appendix, SI Materials and Methods.

Phylogeny. ML phylogenetic trees were estimated by using RAXML 7.2.8 (53) for the inferred core genome and the SNP alignments (prerecombination and postrecombination filtering) under the GTR nucleotide substitution model with a gamma correction for ASRV. Recombination filtering was performed by collapsing the recombinant segment boundaries predicted for each strain into a unique list of 137 nonoverlapping segments and subsequently

masking these regions from the alignment (Dataset S3). Support for nodes was assessed by using 1,000 random bootstrap replicates. See also *SI Appendix, SI Materials and Methods*.

Comparative Genomics. Virulence factor profiles, and the presence of other regions in the draft genomes, were visualized by using seqfinder (<http://github.com/mscook/seqfinder>). Query sequences and their source are listed in Dataset S1 and with sequences available at http://github.com/BeatsonLab-MicrobialGenomics/ST131_99/. Comparisons between individual genomes and verification of seqfinder results were performed by using BLAST (54), Artemis Comparison Tool (55), Easyfig (56), and BRIG (57). See also *SI Appendix, SI Materials and Methods*.

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