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Genomic insights of high-risk clones of ESBL-producing *Escherichia coli* isolated from community infections and commercial meat in Southern Brazil.

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- 22 resistome.
- 23

24 ABSTRACT

25 During a microbiological and genomic surveillance study to investigate the molecular 26 epidemiology of extended-spectrum beta-lactamase (ESBL)-producing *Escherichia coli* from 27 community-acquired urinary tract infections (UTI) and commercial meat samples, in a 28 Brazilian city with a high occurrence of infections by ESBL-producing bacteria, we have 29 identified the presence of CTX-M (-55, -27, -24, -15, -14 and -2)-producing E. coli belonging 30 to the international clones ST354, ST131, ST117, and ST38. The ST131 was more prevalent 31 in human samples, and worryingly the high-risk ST131-C1-M27 was identified in human infections for the first time. We also detected CTX-M-55-producing E. coli ST117 isolates 32 33 from meat samples (i.e., chicken and pork) and human infections. Moreover, we have 34 identified the important clone CTX-M-24-positive E. coli ST354 from human samples in 35 Brazil for the first time. In brief, our results suggest a potential of commercialized meat as a

reservoir of high-priority *E. coli* lineages in the community. In contrast, the identification of
 E. coli ST131-C1-M27 indicates that novel pandemic clones have emerged in Brazil,
 constituting a public health issue.

39 INTRODUCTION

40 Escherichia coli is a commensal of the human intestinal tract and most warm-blooded mammals and figures as an important pathogen for humans and animals^{1,8}. In humans, 41 urinary tract infection (UTI) is the second most common bacterial infection managed in 42 43 primary care, and uropathogenic E. coli (UPEC) is responsible for 75% to 95% of the cases¹. 44 The increasing antimicrobial resistance (AMR) detected in clinical UPEC isolates has been of concern¹ and infections caused by antimicrobial-resistant bacteria as extended-spectrum β -45 lactamase (ESBL)-producing E. coli represent significant healthcare issues⁸ since it 46 47 compromises the effective treatment, being responsible for a large number of morbidity and mortality 4 . 48

Since *E. coli* can act as a large reservoir of resistance genes that directly impact treatment in human and veterinary medicine, the debate over the transmission of multiresistant *E. coli* strains between animals and humans through numerous pathways has become increasingly important. However, the interaction between food-producing animals, humans, and the environment regarding the transmission of these resistant pathogens is not yet fully understood^{8,9}.

The isolation of ESBL-producing *E. coli* from food-production animals is increased worldwide, mostly from chicken meat^{8,9}. The excessive use of antimicrobials in livestock is one of the practices that help in the emergence of pathogens resistant to humans. The consumption of meat, direct contact with colonized animals, or manure spread in the environment are sources for the transmission of livestock AMR to humans^{5,6}. Besides that, AMR gene transfer may occur between different bacterial species in the gut of animals and humans⁷.

The CTX-M type is one of the largest groups of ESBL, and recent studies that addressed the epidemiology of these enzymes in Brazil, show that CTX-M-2, CTX-M-8, CTX-M-9, and CTX-M-15 are the predominant variants in the country^{10–12}. Many types of CTX-Mproducing *E. coli* have been recognized as belonging to specific clones commonly isolated from UTI cases originating in a particular locale, country, or even globally. Some studies

show that isolates from foods CTX-M genotypes sometimes correspond with the locally
dominant human types^{13,14}.

Considering the emerging AMR in Brazil, both in human medicine as in livestock, and the
need for understanding this panorama, we conducted next-generation sequencing (NGS)based analysis adopting a One Health approach to assess national transmission of CTX-Mproducing *E. coli* isolated from meat products and human patients.

73 **RESULTS**

74 The results for each of 91 *E. coli* isolates included in this study can be seen in **Figure 1**. It is 75 notorious high rates of resistance to ampicillin (100%), ceftriaxone (87.91%), nalidixic acid 76 (87.91%), cefepime (83.52%), trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole (82.42%), nitrofurantoin 77 (76.92%), norfloxacin (75.82%) and ciprofloxacin (72.53%). Less than half showed resistance to gentamicin (36.26%) and amoxicillin/clavulanate (21.98%). Only three (3.30%) 78 79 isolates were resistant to piperacillin-tazobactam and two (2.20%) to amikacin. Some isolates 80 also showed intermediate resistance levels: 28.57% to amoxicillin/clavulanate; 4.40% to 81 piperacillin-tazobactam and gentamicin; 1.10% to ciprofloxacin and norfloxacin.

82 Genomic analysis revealed 57 genes associated with resistance to aminoglycosides (n = 15), 83 β -lactams (n = 12), trimethoprim (n = 8), phenicols (n = 5), tetracyclines (n = 4), macrolides 84 (n = 4), sulfonamides (n = 3), quinolones (n = 3), lincosamides (n = 2) and fosfomycin (n = 3)85 1). Regarding aminoglycosides, the most prevalent genes were strA and strB, both with 86 39.56%, followed by the *aadA1* gene (36.26%). The *dfrA17* and *dfrA1* genes, associated with 87 resistance to trimethoprim, were detected in 31 (34.07%) and 13 (14.29%) isolates, 88 respectively. Genes related to phenicols resistance had similar prevalence, being *catB3* (8.79%), floR (5.49%), catA1 (4.40%) and cmlA1 (4.40%). Concerning to tetracyclines 89 90 resistance, we detected the tet(A) (38.46%) and tet(B) (27.47%) genes. About macrolides the 91 mph(A) gene (29.67%) was found and the detected genes related to sulfonamides were sull 92 (56.04%) and sul2 (53.85%). Few isolates had lincosamide resistance genes, two of them had 93 Inu(F) (2.20%) and one Inu(A) (1.10%). The fosA gene found in three isolates was the only 94 one associated with fosfomycin resistance.

95 The genes associated with resistance to β -lactams were $bla_{\text{TEM-1B}}$ (48.35%), $bla_{\text{OXA-1}}$ (7.69%),

96 bla_{CMY-2} (6.59%), and bla_{TEM-1A} (2.20%), in addition to eight variants of the bla_{CTX-M} gene

97 that encode CTX-M-type ESBL enzymes. Among the ESBL coding genes, $bla_{\text{CTX-M-55}}$ was

98 the most detected (21.98%), mainly from chicken meats (n = 10), followed by humans (n = 6)

and porks (n = 4). The $bla_{CTX-M-15}$ was found predominantly in human isolates (n = 14) and only in one pork isolate. On the other hand, $bla_{CTX-M-2}$ was also detected in 15 isolates (16.48%), being them chicken meat (n = 7), human (n = 6) and pork (n = 2). The CTX-M-8 and CTX-M-14 coding genes were present in eight and five human isolates, and two and one chicken meat isolates, respectively. The CTX-M-24 (n = 4), CTX-M27 (n = 3) and CTX-M-3 (n = 1) coding genes were present only in human isolates.

- 105 In this work, 52 plasmid incompatibility groups belong to the p0111, IncF, IncI1, and IncN
- 106 families. In human isolates, the most frequent pMLST were IncI1[ST-113] (n=9), IncF[F-: A-
- 107 : B-] (n=7), IncF[F1: A2: B20] (n=5), IncF[F48: A1: B49] (n=5) and p0111 (n=5). In chicken
- meat isolates, IncF[F18: A-: B1] (n=8), p0111 (n=7) and IncN [Unknown ST] (n=5) were the
- 109 most frequent pMLST. In isolates of pork, the most frequent incompatibility groups were
- 110 IncN[Unknown ST] (n=4) and IncF[F33: A-: B1] (n=3).
- 111 In total, 40 sequence types (STs) were found, the most observed were the ST131 (n = 12), 112 ST38 (n = 8), ST648 (n = 7), and ST354 (n = 6). Some STs were detected in more than one 113 source, demonstrating a genetic relationship between these isolates, mainly between humans 114 and chicken meat. The ST38, ST131, ST354, and ST1196 were found in both urine and 115 chicken meat strains in the respective quantities of 5 and 3, 12 and 1, 4 and 3 and 1 and 1. 116 The ST410 was the only observed in urine (n = 1) and pork (n = 1) strains. The ST117 was 117 present in the three sources studied, with two strains from urine, one from chicken meat and 118 pork. The clonal relationship between the isolates in this study and the dissemination 119 distribution in Brazil can be seen in Figure 2A-C. Additionally, it is possible observed that 120 UK sample (ST131) clustered with other samples isolates in Brazil (ST131), all results could 121 be view in Microreact link
- 122 (https://microreact.org/project/2mKg54AHdWj5xdJ5VFejY8).

123 DISCUSSION

This study presents the first reports of *E. coli* ST131-C1-M27 in human infection and CTX-M-24-positive *E. coli* ST354 from ITU, in Brazil. In Latin America CTX-M-producing *E. coli* are endemic. Our data show a wide distribution of these isolates belonging to the international clones in livestock and the community. The extensive presence of CTX-M enzyme-producing strains in several sources raises the hypothesis that the spread occurs with greater frequency and efficiency, especially among enterobacteria¹⁰.

130 E. coli ST131 globally known and is related to the spread of resistance genes, including specific CTX-M coding genes¹⁵. Recent studies have shown that ST131 is rare among animal 131 132 isolates, becoming almost exclusively a human pathogen, as demonstrated by our results, where ST131 is predominantly found in strains of human urine¹⁶. The subclade C2 is 133 associated with *bla*_{CTX-M-15} that can be carried by different groups of plasmids¹⁷. Here we also 134 135 observe that all $bla_{CTX-M-15}$ are involved with the incompatibility group IncF. In a study by Peirano et al. (2020), it was shown that clade C was related to the highest rates of UTI, with 136 subclade C2 being the most common and associated with incompatibility group IncFII¹⁸. 137 138 Besides, CTX-M-15-producing E. coli ST131 has already been shown to be involved in 139 outbreaks in health institutions and is the most prevalent ESBL-producing E. coli worldwide¹⁹. 140

141 The CTX-M-27-producing ST131-C1 has been considered a new epidemic clone, and there 142 have been no reports of human infections so far, in Brazil. Clade C1-M27 is associated with 143 CTX-M-27 and was first observed as colonizing children in France in 2012. Recent studies 144 suggest that the subclade C1-M27 was recently selected since SNPs have a smaller difference 145 between isolates of this same subclade than SNPs of isolates of subclade C2 and A. In addition, the plasmid predominantly involved with the dissemination of *bla*_{CTX-M-27} is 146 147 IncF[F1:A2:B20], as found in our study. Resistance to fluoroquinolones, macrolides, 148 tetracyclines, aminoglycosides, and sulfonamides appears to be part of the profile of C1-M27 isolates^{20,21}. 149

150 The CTX-M-14 and CTX-M-24 enzymes belong to the CTX-M-9 group. Although the first 151 one is widely distributed worldwide, especially in China, South-East Asia, Japan, South 152 Korea, and Spain, microorganisms producing CTX-M-24 remain relatively rare, reported with greater incidence in countries such as Peru and Bolivia^{18,22,23}. This study found an 153 154 important association between CTX-M-24 and E. coli ST354 detected in two human isolates, 155 never before reported in UTI in Brazil. In a study by Dagher et al. (2018), ST354 isolates were positive to bla_{CTX-M-24} and resistant to ciprofloxacin, associated with extra-intestinal 156 157 infections, animals and humans, reinforcing the zooanthroponotic hypothesis of these clones²⁴. 158

ESBL type CTX-M-2 and CTX-M-55 are frequently found, and their coding genes are spread in several ways. Some studies suggest that the plasmid IncF[F33: A-: B-] is involved in disseminating these genes, which may explain the coexistence of these two genes in two strains belonging to ST1725 isolated from urine samples²⁵. Although another strain of *E. coli*

163 ST6448 isolated from chicken meat also showed the coexistence of $bla_{CTX-M-2}$ and $bla_{CTX-M-5}$, 164 the plasmids that carried them belonged to IncF [F24: A-: B73] and IncI1 [ST -131], 165 respectively. In the last ten years, IncI1-type plasmids have had a high spread, mainly in 166 animal reservoirs. There are reports of $bla_{CTX-M-2}$, $bla_{CTX-M-8}$ and $bla_{CTX-M-55}$ genes frequently 167 found on IncI plasmids from *E. coli* isolated from chickens and pigs several countries, such 168 as China, France, the United States of America, and the United Kingdom^{26–28}.

169 The international clone ST117, found in the three different sources of this study, is often 170 found in chicken meats and pork, and it is also associated with human infections. Studies 171 have already reported the multiple resistance profile of ST117 and associated it with CTX-M-55 expression, consistent with our results^{29,30}. Likewise, ST38 is also widely found in 172 chickens and humans, worldwide, and is related to several ESBL genes, such as *bla*_{CTX-M-14}, 173 174 *bla*_{CTX-M-27}, and *bla*_{CTX-M-55}. One of the hypotheses for the successful dissemination of these 175 genes among the E. coli clones is that the families of plasmids IncI1 and IncF are important 176 vectors for disseminating *bla*_{CTX-M}. In China, South Korea, and Japan, studies suggest an epidemic of *bla*_{CTX-M} genes carried by plasmids IncI1, IncF[F33: A-: B-], IncF[F46: A-: B20] 177 and IncF[F18: A-: B1], found in cattle, pigs, chickens, pets and humans³¹⁻³³. The second 178 179 hypothesis suggests that E. coli ST131 isolated in UK in 2001, could be the origin clone of E. 180 coli ST131 disseminated in Brazil, and may be after arrived in Brazil this clone acquired a 181 plasmid carrying *bla*_{CTX-M-55} gene.

182 In conclusion, E. coli carrying bla_{CTX-M} genes from different sources seem to be related to the 183 spread of internationally known clones (ST354, ST131, ST117, ST38). Some clones 184 associated with some CTX-M variants are more prevalent in some sources than others do not exclude the possibility that new clones are entering and establishing themselves in different 185 186 niches, as shown in this study. Thus, novel studies should continue to be carried out with 187 more samples and sources to understand further the dynamics of dissemination, shift, and 188 establishment of ESBL-producing E. coli clones at the interface between animal sources and 189 human health.

190 MATERIAL AND METHODS

191

192 **Study population**

During June 2016 to May 2019, 195.080 urine cultures were performed in a by public health services, in a city in south of Brazil. A total of 34.293 (17,6%) were positive for grampositive or gram-negative microorganisms; of these 22.698 (66,2%) were E. coli strains and a

196 total of 2.033 (6,2%) ESBL producing bacteria, being 1.389 (51,2%) ESBL production E. 197 coli. Concomitantly, a surveillance study from January to May 2019 was carried out, to 198 research ESBL-producing E. coli, in chicken and pork meat, bought at markets and butcher 199 shop near public health services. Fluoroquinolone-resistant and ESBL-producing E. coli were 200 investigated in chicken meat (n = 50), and pork (n = 50) samples. A total of 102 E. coli was 201 isolated from chicken meat marketed, with 52 ESBL positive. And 67 resistant E. coli were 202 isolated in pigs, 31 ESBL positive. This study included for sequencing 91 E. coli strains of 203 102 total isolates: 59 isolated from urine culture (n=59), chicken meat (n=24) and pork (n=8). 204 These strains were selected by the similarity profile established by ERIC-PCR analysis of 205 1.389 ESBL-producing isolates. The study was approved by the Ethics and Research 206 Committee of the State University of Londrina CAAE 56869816.0.0000.5231.

207

208 Microbiological methods

Urine collected from women patients was inoculated on CHROMagar (Becton Dickinson,
Heidelberg, Germany) and MacConkey (Merck, Darmstadt, Germany) plates using a
calibrated inoculating loop with a capacity of 10 µl and incubated at 37°C for 24h.

The samples of chicken meat and pork were dipped in Brain Heart Infusion broth (Oxoid) with cefotaxime ($4\mu g / mL$), ciprofloxacin ($4\mu g / mL$), and both (Sigma-Aldrich, Munich, Germany) to selected resistant *E. coli* strains. After incubation, the solution was inoculated in the same way used for urine samples. All the isolates were stored in Tryptic Soy Broth (TSB) with 15% glycerol (-20°C).

The identification and bacterial susceptibility were performed by the automated VITEK^{\mathbb{R}} 2 217 system, using the VITEK[®] 2 AST 239 card and the VITEK[®] 2 GN ID card (BioMérieux, 218 bacterial susceptibility was tested for 14 antibiotics: 219 The ampicillin, USA). 220 amoxicillin/clavulanate, ceftriaxone, cefepime, ertapenem, meropenem, nalidixic acid, 221 ciprofloxacin, norfloxacin, gentamicin, amikacin nitrofurantoin, trimethoprimsulfamethoxazole, and piperacillin-tazobactam. The CLSI 2020 (Clinical and Laboratory 222 Standards Institute) criteria were used for interpretation. E. coli ATCC[®]25922 strain was 223 224 used as quality control.

225 ERIC-PCR

1.389 ESBL-producing isolates were subjected to Enterobacterial Repetitive Intergenic
 Consensus (ERIC-PCR), by Versalovic et al. (1991)³⁴. Analysis of genomic fingerprinting

228 was performed using GelJ v.2.0 software by the Dice similarity method (HERAS et al.,

229 2015)³⁵. Strains were considered genetically related if the similarity index was $\ge 85 \%$.

230 DNA isolation and whole-genome sequencing

231 For DNA extraction, strains were grown on Mueller-Hinton Agar overnight at 37 °C. 232 Subsequently, a single colony was inoculated in 2 mL of Luria-Bertani broth for 12 hours at 233 37 °C. The suspension was used to continue extraction and purification by the DNA 234 extraction kit (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA). The extracted DNA was quantified by Qubit 235 dsDNA (double-stranded DNA) BR assay kit (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA). After 236 quantification, the DNA was used to construct a paired-end library (150 bp), sequenced using 237 the NextSeq platform (Illumina). The instructions of each manufacturer were followed in all 238 steps.

239

240 **Bioinformatic analysis**

241 Genome quality filter and assemblies were performed by the CLC Genomics Workbench 242 version 7.0 (Aarhus, Denmark). Multilocus sequence type (MLST), resistome, and virulome 243 were identified using MLST v2.0 (Larsen et al., 2012), ResFinder v3.1(Bortolaia et al., 244 2020), VirulenceFinder v2.0, (Joensen et al., 2014), PlasmidFinder v2.1 (Carattoli et al., 245 2014), FimTyper v1.0 (Roer et al., 2017) and SerotypeFinder v.2.0 (Joensen et al., 2015), respectively. The BacMet database (Pal et al., 2013) was used to identify biocides and heavy 246 metal (HM)^{31,36-42}. The EnteroBase (https://enterobase.warwick.ac.uk/) was used to create a 247 248 single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) project to strains that showed the same STs 249 genomes were aligned against genomes of other Brazilian studies.

250

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416 Data availability

417 Draft whole-genome assembly was deposited in GenBank under the bioproject 418 PRJNA578368. data the figures The of can be accessed in Figshare 419 (https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.12808439.v1).

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421 ETHICS DECLARATIONS

422 **Competing interests**

423 The authors declare no competing interests.

424

425 **Ethical approval**

- 426 The study was approved by the Ethics and Research Committee of the State University of
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Figure 01 – Heatmap show AMR profile, ST and Resistome.



Figure 02 – (A) *E. coli* Phylogenomic SNP tree with circular heatmap shows source type (first inner circle), sequence type (second inner circle) and ESBL-gene (third inner circle. (B) *E. coli* Phylogenomic SNP tree with columns shows ESBL-gene (column 1) and source type (column 2); light pink highlights the clade where UK-ST131 samples clustered with Brazilian ST131 samples. (C) dissemination distribution map in Brazil.