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Published on: 27 Oct 2020 - bioRxiv (Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory)

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1 **High-resolution genomic comparisons within *Salmonella enterica* serotypes**
2 **derived from beef feedlot cattle: parsing the roles of cattle source, pen, animal,**
3 **sample type and production period**

4
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20 **Short title:** Genomic comparisons of cattle-origin *Salmonella*

21 **Keywords:** *Salmonella enterica*, beef cattle, population structure, feedlot, genomic
22 comparisons, core-genome MLST, phylogenetic analysis

23 **Abstract**

24 *Salmonella enterica* is a major foodborne pathogen, and contaminated beef
25 products have been identified as the primary source of *Salmonella*-related outbreaks.
26 Pathogenicity and antibiotic resistance of *Salmonella* are highly serotype- and
27 subpopulation-specific, which makes it essential to understand high-resolution
28 *Salmonella* population dynamics in cattle. Time of year, source of cattle, pen, and
29 sample type(i.e., feces, hide or lymph nodes) have previously been identified as
30 important factors influencing the serotype distribution of *Salmonella* (e.g., Anatum,
31 Lubbock, Cerro, Montevideo, Kentucky, Newport, and Norwich) that were isolated from
32 a longitudinal sampling design in a research feedlot. In this study, we performed high-
33 resolution genomic comparisons of *Salmonella* isolates within each serotype using both
34 single-nucleotide polymorphism (SNP)-based maximum likelihood phylogeny and
35 hierarchical clustering of core-genome multi-locus sequence typing. The importance of
36 the aforementioned features on clonal *Salmonella* expansion was further explored using
37 a supervised machine learning algorithm. In addition, we identified and compared the
38 resistance genes, plasmids, and pathogenicity island profiles of the isolates within each
39 sub-population. Our findings indicate that clonal expansion of *Salmonella* strains in
40 cattle was mainly influenced by the randomization of block and pen, as well as the
41 origin/source of the cattle; that is, regardless of sampling time and sample type (i.e.,
42 feces, lymph node or hide). Further research is needed concerning the role of the
43 feedlot pen environment prior to cattle placement to better understand carry-over
44 contributions of existing strains of *Salmonella* and their bacteriophages.

45 **Importance**

46 *Salmonella* serotypes isolated from outbreaks in humans can also be found in
47 beef cattle and feedlots. Virulence factors and antibiotic resistance are among the
48 primary defense mechanisms of *Salmonella*, and are often associated with clonal
49 expansion. This makes understanding the subpopulation dynamics of *Salmonella* in
50 cattle critical for effective mitigation. There remains a gap in the literature concerning
51 subpopulation dynamics within *Salmonella* serotypes in feedlot cattle from the beginning
52 of feeding up until slaughter. Here, we explore *Salmonella* population dynamics within
53 each serotype using core genome phylogeny and hierarchical classifications. We used
54 machine-learning to quantitatively parse the relative importance of both hierarchical and
55 longitudinal clustering among cattle host samples. Our results reveal that *Salmonella*
56 populations in cattle are highly clonal over a 6-month study period, and that clonal
57 dissemination of *Salmonella* in cattle is mainly influenced spatially by experimental
58 block and pen, as well by the geographical origin of the cattle.

59 Introduction

60 Globally, *Salmonella enterica* subsp. *enterica* is among the leading foodborne
61 bacterial pathogens and is responsible for negative effects both on public health and on
62 the economy (1). While there are over 2,500 identified *Salmonella* serotypes, only a
63 minor set (~100) of these serotypes are commonly identified as the source of human
64 *Salmonella* infections and outbreaks (2). Each year, approximately 93.8 million human
65 cases occur worldwide due to *Salmonella*, resulting in 155,000 deaths (3). Human
66 infections caused by pathogenic *Salmonella* strains often result in mild gastroenteritis
67 and do not require antibiotic treatment. At-risk individuals, such as infants, the elderly,
68 or immunocompromised patients, may require the use of antibiotics to counter the
69 pathogen's invasive and adverse health effects. Over the last decade, high levels of
70 hospitalization and increased mortality rates associated with multidrug-resistant (MDR)
71 *Salmonella* serotypes (4, 5) have, indeed, become a serious public health concern (6,
72 7).

73 The majority of *Salmonella* outbreaks are related to the consumption of
74 contaminated food products (3). *Salmonella*-contaminated beef products are a major
75 culprit in foodborne *Salmonella* outbreaks (8). *Salmonella* contamination of carcass
76 surfaces can occur during slaughter evisceration and de-hiding processes due to direct
77 contact with cattle feces and aerosolization of fecal material from hides, respectively.
78 Lymph nodes harboring *Salmonella* embedded in fat tissue can also contaminate final
79 beef products (e.g., ground beef) as fat trim (9).

80 Since the gastrointestinal tract of cattle is known to be a natural niche for a
81 number of *Salmonella* serotypes, those that can cause human infections through the
82 ingestion of contaminated beef products are commonly found not only in cattle but also
83 in their feedlot pen environments (10-15). *Salmonella* serotypes Typhimurium, Newport,
84 Enteritidis, Montevideo, Anatum, Cerro, Kentucky, and Mbandaka are commonly found
85 in cattle, beef products, and in cattle production environments (8, 11, 14-18). Among
86 these, Typhimurium and Newport are the serotypes most commonly derived from
87 human cases of *Salmonella*, followed next by Anatum and Montevideo (16, 19, 20).
88 Cattle-origin *S.* Typhimurium and Newport are also serotypes commonly associated
89 with a phenotypic MDR profile (8, 11, 14-17).

90 In an effort to minimize public-health risks of *Salmonella* originating from cattle,
91 multiple teams of researchers have previously explored serotype-level dynamics of
92 *Salmonella* in healthy cattle among samples taken from feces, lymph nodes and hides,
93 as well as from feedlot pen environments. These teams have documented not only a
94 shift of the serotype-level population as influenced by geographical, ecological, and
95 seasonal (or temporal) changes, but also an elevated association between specific
96 antibiotic resistance profiles found in specific serotypes (10, 15, 21-25)

97 Pathogenicity (virulence) and antibiotic resistance are two of the major
98 adaptation, survival, and defense mechanisms of *Salmonella*. These mechanisms are
99 located on bacterial chromosomes or plasmids, and are considered among either the
100 core- or accessory-genomes of *Salmonella* (26-32). The majority of the core genome
101 and almost half of the accessory genes of *Salmonella* are serotype-specific (29, 33). For

102 instance, plasmidal defense mechanisms are mainly responsible for the transmission of
103 virulent and antibiotic-resistant strains among humans, animals, and the environment,
104 and are often serotype-specific (34, 35). The increasing use of whole-genome
105 sequencing and the development of allele- and SNP-based techniques used for high-
106 resolution genomic comparisons of *Salmonella* (36-39) recently revealed that
107 pathogenicity and antibiotic resistance mechanisms in *Salmonella* were associated with
108 genetic diversity of clonal groups belonging to the same sequence type, or else to
109 lineages within the same serotype (30, 33, 40-42).

110 Several genomic epidemiology studies have investigated potential drivers of
111 clonal expansion of outbreak-related serotypes, such as *S. Typhimurium*, Enteritidis,
112 Newport, Dublin, Kentucky, Montevideo, and Cerro, all of which are highly prevalent in
113 cattle, by using genomic comparisons of the isolates derived from various host species,
114 food sources, environments and geographical locations (29, 30, 34, 36, 40-54). A
115 subset of these studies demonstrated that subpopulation-level genetic variations were
116 strongly influenced by time and varied by geographical location at global- (36, 40, 41,
117 49, 50), country- (49, 51), and state-levels (29, 30, 44, 52). In addition to geographical
118 location, a group of studies also showed distinct host- and source-specific
119 macroevolutionary patterns that were observed across human-, animal-, food-, and
120 environment-origin *Salmonella* isolates (29, 30, 34, 40, 42-46, 53). The genetic variation
121 observed among the geographical location, host and environment were attributed
122 mainly to the alterations observed in the prophage regions (43, 45, 54), the absence or

123 presence of pathogenicity-related genes (36, 42-44, 46, 52, 54) as well as antibiotic
124 resistance genes (41, 44, 50).

125 In the literature, there remains a gap in studies of high-resolution population
126 dynamics of *Salmonella* serotypes in cattle from the beginning of the feeding period until
127 slaughter; in case of the latter, this represents the most critical period for mitigating
128 *Salmonella* impacts on public health. Notably, the temporal evolutionary changes
129 observed within serotype and the potential factors that play a role in the
130 microevolutionary patterns of *Salmonella* populations in cattle are yet to be discovered
131 and thoroughly understood (4).

132 Previous work by our group measured the effects of single-dose metaphylactic
133 antibiotic treatments on *Salmonella* prevalence in beef feedlot cattle feces, hides, and
134 lymph nodes, and reported no treatment effects on the prevalence or phenotypic
135 antibiotic resistance profiles of *Salmonella* (25). However, the serotype-level distribution
136 of *Salmonella* (Anatum, Lubbock, Cerro, Montevideo, Kentucky, Newport, and Norwich)
137 that corresponded to a single sequence type was found to be mostly influenced by the
138 geographical origin of the cattle and the experimental blocks of pens that housed them
139 through the study period.

140 Our primary objective in the present analysis was to investigate the temporal
141 microevolutionary patterns of *Salmonella* within each serotype to quantify the relative
142 importance of cattle source and experimental allocation via blocks and pens over a
143 study period of several months. We also explored the specific role of sample types (i.e.,
144 feces, lymph nodes, hides) by using in each case the core-genome SNP-based

145 maximum-likelihood phylogeny and hierarchical clusters of core-genome multilocus
146 sequence types (HierCC) analyses to explore the multiple levels of resolution of core-
147 genomic relationships among the subpopulations within the *Salmonella* serotypes. We
148 further compared the HierCC-levels and cluster numbers with a publicly available
149 *Salmonella* whole-genome database that includes human clinical disease isolates
150 (Enterobase Platform <http://enterobase.warwick.ac.uk/species/index/senterica>) to
151 explore the potential public health risks of the *Salmonella* subpopulations identified in
152 our study (38, 55). Secondly, using a supervised machine-learning algorithm, we
153 explored the relative importance of each experimental component in contributing
154 towards clonal *Salmonella* expansion within each serotype. Lastly, we investigated the
155 presence and distribution of antibiotic resistance genes, along with plasmids and
156 pathogenicity islands, within the entire *Salmonella* population isolated during the study.

157

158 **Materials and Methods**

159 This study was reviewed for animal use and biosafety and approved by the West
160 Texas A&M University/Cooperative Research, Educational and Extension Team
161 Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (Protocol no. 05-09-15) and the Texas
162 A&M University Institutional Biosafety Committee (IBC2017-049), respectively.

163 The experimental design of the study was previously described by Levent et al.
164 (2019) (25). Briefly, a total of 134 cross-bred beef cattle was purchased from two
165 different sources (35 cattle from Source 1 [Hereford, Texas], and 99 cattle from Source

166 2 [Abilene, Texas], located 480 km apart from each other) in west Texas, USA. Cattle
167 were shipped to a research feedlot operated by West Texas A&M University and
168 located near Canyon, Texas. Upon arrival to the feedlot, cattle were source- and weight-
169 blocked and allocated into four blocks (1-4); within each block, cattle were randomized
170 into three pens to control for possible cattle source- and host-related confounders.
171 Later, cattle pens (with 11-12 steers) in each block were randomly assigned to receive:
172 1) ceftiofur, 2) tulathromycin or, 3) remain as a control group without any antibiotic
173 treatment, respectively. For each treatment pen, all but one (or two) of the cattle were
174 administered subcutaneously a single dose one-time injection of either ceftiofur
175 crystalline-free acid (Excede[®], Zoetis Inc., Kalamazoo, MI, USA) at 6.6 mg/kg or else
176 tulathromycin (Draxxin[®], Zoetis Inc., Kalamazoo, MI, USA) at 2.5 mg/kg. Staff involved
177 in this study were blinded as to treatment to avoid possible selection bias. From time of
178 antibiotic treatment (Day 0), until the time of slaughter (between Days 99 -141), cattle
179 were fed and raised without any additional antibiotic supplements. Starting from Day 99,
180 cattle that had reached the desired body weight for slaughter were sent to the
181 slaughterhouse as experimental blocks until Day 141, which was the end of the study.
182 Fecal samples (*per rectum*) were collected via sterile obstetric gloves immediately prior
183 to the antibiotic treatment (Day 0), a week after the injection (Day 7), and on multiple
184 additional days up until slaughter. At slaughter, one final fecal sample and an additional
185 hide swab, rubbed from a one-m² cranial ventral (brisket) area, were collected from
186 each steer. In addition, two peripheral sub-iliac lymph nodes were collected from each
187 hot carcass during slaughter at a local federally inspected processing plant. Study
188 design details relating to allocation of the 134 cattle purchased from two different

189 locations (sources) to the experimental blocks and pens and the sample types
190 corresponding to each of the sampling days are provided in Table 1.

191 *Salmonella* isolates derived from fecal samples during the early feeding period
192 (Day 0 and 7) and fecal, sub-iliac lymph node, and hide swab samples obtained at
193 slaughter included for analysis in this study are previously reported in detail by Levent et
194 al. (2019). A total of 399 isolates was previously isolated, sequenced, serotyped and
195 sequence typed (using legacy 7-gene MLST [multi-locus sequence type]), and were
196 identified as Lubbock ST413 (n =136), Anatum ST64 (n=113), Montevideo ST138
197 (n=68), Cerro ST138 (n=64), Kentucky ST152 (n=11), Newport ST118 (n=6), and
198 Norwich ST2119 (n=1).

199 The methods related to *Salmonella* isolation, DNA extraction, whole-genome
200 sequencing, genome quality, genome assembly, and *in silico* tools used for legacy 7-
201 gene MLST and serotyping are previously published by Levent et al., 2019 (25). Paired-
202 end raw sequencing reads and assemblies of 399 *Salmonella* isolates have previously
203 been deposited in the NCBI database under BioProject number PRJNA521731.
204 BioSample numbers of each assembly, and the metadata related to each isolate are
205 listed in Supp. Dataset 1.

206

207 Phylogenetic analyses

208 *Salmonella* strains restricted to those from serotypes Anatum, Cerro,
209 Montevideo, and Lubbock and isolated from multiple sample types arising from

210 individual cattle throughout the study were included in the core-genome SNP analysis
211 using maximum-likelihood phylogeny. This was performed to obtain a high degree of
212 resolution of the population structure within each serotype; importantly, all isolates of
213 one serotype were identified as being from the same legacy 7-gene MLST group (39).
214 Cattle source, block, pen, day, and sample type distribution of the isolates included in
215 the SNP-based phylogenetic analysis from each of the four serotypes are presented in
216 Table 2. Kentucky, Newport, and Norwich isolates were excluded from phylogenetic
217 analysis due to small sample sizes ($n < 12$).

218

219 *Reference genome selection*

220 In order to perform core-genome-level SNP analysis, the complete reference
221 genomes at the closest genomic distance for each serotype were selected using the
222 Similar Genome Finder Service on PATRIC (the Pathosystems Resource Integration
223 Center: available at <https://www.patricbrc.org/app/GenomeDistance>). The selection
224 criteria were kept at default threshold values (maximum hit value of 50, P value of 1,
225 and Mash/MinHash distance [estimating the distance based on the rate of sequence
226 mutation] value of 0.05) (56, 57). The selected reference genomes were further
227 screened for prophage regions using PHASTER (Phage Search Tool Enhanced
228 Release, available at <http://phaster.ca/>) (58). The complete and questionable prophage
229 regions were further masked using BEDTools v.2.18 (59) and were carried to the next
230 step; that is, alignment of sequencing reads from the isolates for phylogenetic analyses.

231

232 *Variant calling, tree inference and tree visualization*

233 Reference alignment and variant-calling processes for those isolates that shared
234 the same serotype were performed using the McOutbryk SNP calling pipeline (available
235 under the Massachusetts Institute of Technology license at
236 <https://github.com/hcdenbakker/McOutbryk>) using raw (FASTQ) sequencing short reads
237 with a minimum sequencing depth of 24X and a reference genome (60). This pipeline
238 uses the McCortex tool (61) to build graphs of a reference sequence along with the data
239 of the genomes to be queried for SNP calling. The SNP-calling stage consists of two
240 phases: (Phase 1) an initial phase, which consists of a comparison of the reference
241 graph and each query genome to construct a list of putative variable sites within the
242 population, and (Phase 2) a final SNP-calling phase, which calls the allele for each
243 putative SNP site found in Phase 1. While the SNP calling is done *de novo* at the initial
244 step, the pipeline uses BWA (Burrow-Wheeler aligner)-mem (62) at the final step to
245 place the SNP sites in relation to the reference sequence. In addition to BWA, the
246 pipeline relies on VCFtools (63), and vcflib (available under the MIT license at
247 <https://github.com/vcflib/vcflib>) for VCF (Variant Call Format) file manipulation. K-mer
248 size 33 was set for variant analysis, and highly divergent isolates (number of SNPs >
249 5000) were excluded from the analysis by default. The matrices containing SNP sites
250 were later evaluated for the best-fit nucleotide substitution model using IQ-tree v.1.6.10
251 with ascertainment bias correction (ASC) option to construct a maximum-likelihood
252 phylogeny (64). Later, the phylogenetic trees were inferred using the selected

253 nucleotide submission model, including bootstrap estimates obtained with 1,000
254 iterations (64). The resulting trees were visualized and annotated with cattle source,
255 pen, block, day and sample type as features of the isolates using the interactive tree of
256 life (iTOL v.4) (65). The number of SNPs corresponding to the tree scale and the strong
257 branch support values (bootstrap values of 80%-100%) of the clades were presented on
258 each resulting phylogenetic tree.

259

260 Hierarchical clustering of cgMLST and feature importance analyses

261 Hierarchical clustering of the cgMLST (core-genome multilocus sequence typing,
262 also known as HierCC) cluster number of the isolates – including all serotypes – were
263 determined at multiple levels of HierCC clusters using the EnteroBase platform (based
264 on cgMLST V2 + HierCC V1) to obtain high resolution genomic-based comparisons via
265 HierCC (38, 55). The HierCC cluster numbers observed for each of the isolates derived
266 from our study were also compared with the publicly available whole-genomes in the
267 *Salmonella* database provided by EnteroBase to explore the public health-related
268 significance of our findings at the HC0-, HC2-, HC5-, HC10- and HC50-levels (38).

269 Furthermore, the importance of isolate features such as, cattle source (1 and 2),
270 block (1, 2, 3, and 4), day (0, 7, and 122 [collapsed to the average day from slaughter
271 days 99, 120, 134, and 141]) and sample type (fecal, lymph node, and hide) for the
272 prediction of the indistinguishable isolates (i.e., those that were highly clonal and
273 designated to the same HC0 cluster; that is, with no cgMLST allele difference) were

274 explored for each serotype population using the Orange v.3.26.0 data-mining toolbox
275 (66). The supervised machine learning algorithm Random Forest (67, 68) was used to
276 build a set of (n=10) decision trees for the clonal groups using the features listed above,
277 and the resulting trees were explored using Pythagorean Forest (69) algorithm. The
278 best tree that that requires only a few attributes to split the branches was selected to
279 evaluate the feature importance on the tree. Importance of the features was ranked
280 from the most important to the least important based on the values predicted by the
281 ReliefF algorithm (70, 71).

282

283 Characterization of antibiotic resistance genes, plasmids, and pathogenicity islands

284 *In silico* plasmid and antibiotic resistance gene detection and identification of 399
285 assembled genome sequences were performed using ABRicate v.0.8.7
286 (<https://github.com/tseemann/abricate>) using the ResFinder (72) and the PlasmidFinder
287 (73) databases as well as the SPIFinder (74) database that were obtained from the
288 Center for Genomic Epidemiology server (available online at
289 https://bitbucket.org/genomicepidemiology/spifinder_db/src/master/).

290

291 **Results**

292 Population structure of *Salmonella*

293 *Salmonella* Anatum, Cerro, Montevideo, and Lubbock isolates collected from
294 individual steers throughout the study period were included in core-genome SNP-based
295 phylogenetic analyses. Based on the resulting trees, the highest number of core-
296 genome SNPs (n=84) was observed among Lubbock isolates, followed by Anatum (66
297 SNPs), Cerro (17 SNPs) and Montevideo (12 SNPs); importantly, each demonstrated
298 distinct cattle source-, block-, pen-, and day-related patterns.

299 Population-based HierCC analysis showed that there were no more than 100
300 cgMLST allelic distance between *Salmonella* genomes of each serotype. Based on
301 HierCC designations, the highest level of cluster variation across all sample features
302 and within the constraints of a 122-day study was observed in Anatum (HC100),
303 Lubbock (HC10) and then Cerro (HC10) isolates, followed by Montevideo (HC5),
304 Kentucky (HC5), and Newport (HC0). Details concerning the multi-level HierCC cluster
305 numbers for the isolates found in this study are presented in Supp. Dataset 1 and Fig.
306 S1.

307 As of August 21, 2020, there were 7,149 publicly available *Salmonella* genomes
308 in EnteroBase with an allelic distance equal or less than 50 (HC50) found to be no; of
309 those, 6,934 genomes were found in the same HC50 cluster of serotypes, followed by
310 145 genomes in HC20, 65 genomes in HC10, and 4 genomes in the same HC5 cluster.
311 A single isolate was found in the HC2 cluster suggesting nearly complete homology.
312 Detailed information related to the HierCC cluster numbers, along with the geographical
313 region of origin, source type and other *Salmonella* genome-related data were
314 downloaded from EnteroBase and provided in Supp. Dataset 2. Technical information

315 related to the HierCC clustering method is also provided in the Enterobase (available at
316 <https://enterobase.readthedocs.io/en/latest/features/clustering.html> accessed on
317 10/20/2020)

318 Similarly, serotype-specific population structures of *Salmonella* isolates are
319 presented in further detail within specific sections immediately below.

320

321 S. Lubbock

322 The complete genome of a single previously reported Lubbock isolate (GenBank:
323 CP032814.1) was found to be the closest genome match to those Lubbock isolates
324 derived from our study. A total of 11 prophage regions were detected and masked in
325 this reference genome (Table S1). The phylogenetic tree of 136 Lubbock isolates was
326 inferred using the K2P+ASC model, which was the best nucleotide substitution model
327 according to the BIC value. The resulting tree had two clades (Clade I and II) and well-
328 supported subclades (bootstrap values of > 80%) with distinct patterns for source, block,
329 pen, and day (Fig. 1). While the isolates from Block 4 were commonly observed in
330 Clade I, isolates from Block 1 (Source 1) were only observed in Clade II. Lubbock
331 isolates derived from the early feeding period (Days 0 and 7) were only observed in
332 Clade II; that is to say, there was no early feeding period isolates observed in Clade I.
333 The phylogeny of Lubbock isolates yielded the highest total number of SNPs (n = 84)
334 when compared to the total number of SNPs obtained from other serotypes included in

335 this study. There were no sample type-related (feces, lymph node and hide)
336 phylogenetic differences observed among the Lubbock isolates derived at slaughter.

337 The cgMLST allelic distance measured among isolates of Lubbock (n=136) found
338 in this study was 10 or less. The most prevalent clonal group was identified in the
339 HC0_214521 cluster (n=31) and this clonal group was only observed at slaughter, and
340 only among pens that were from Source 2; further, 26 of the isolates in this group were
341 from Block 4. Another clonal group of the HC0_214545 cluster (n=28) was observed
342 only in Block 2 and only at slaughter. Interestingly, isolates in Cluster HC0_215282
343 (n=9) were only observed in cattle in pens from Block 1 at slaughter and identified once
344 again from Block 2 at slaughter. Isolates that were identified in Cluster HC0_214569
345 (n=2) were only observed in Pen 9 during the early feeding period (Days 0 and 7) and
346 were not identified later during the study period (Fig. S1a). There were no unique
347 patterns observed among different sample types (i.e., fecal, lymph node, and hide). The
348 important features contributing most to the clonality of Lubbock were ordered from
349 highest to lowest as experimental block, pen, source, day, and lastly sample type based
350 on their ReliefF scores (Table S2) which likewise confirmed the phylogenetic findings.

351 As of August 21, 2020, Lubbock isolated from this study were most closely
352 associated with two Texas origin dairy cattle isolates found in EnteroBase at HC2 and
353 HC5 levels, respectively. An additional two Texas origin isolates (beef cattle and beef
354 product origin) were in the same HC10 cluster. At the HC20-level, there were 139
355 isolates which were from the USA – and mainly from the states of Texas and Kansas.

356 Isolates in this cluster were derived mainly from cattle liver abscess and beef products;
357 importantly, no human origin isolate was reported in this cluster.

358

359 *S. Anatum*

360 The genome of a previously isolated *Anatum* strain (GenBank: CP007483.2) was
361 selected as the reference genome; prophage regions (n=5, Table S1) were masked
362 from this reference genome. One isolate in this study (BioSample ID SAMN10910080)
363 showed high divergence (> 5000 SNP differences as compared to the reference
364 genome) was unable to be genotyped using the McCortex genotyping algorithm;
365 therefore, this isolate was excluded from further analysis. As a result, 112 isolates were
366 carried forward for SNP analysis. The best-fit nucleotide substitution model was
367 selected as K3P+ASC according to the lowest BIC value. The resulting tree contained
368 two distinct clades (Clade I and II) containing well-supported subclades (bootstrap
369 values of >80%) that showed distinct patterns relating to source, day, experimental
370 block, and pen. While isolates derived at slaughter from cattle in Pens 7, 8, and 9
371 (Source 1, Block 1) were observed only in Clade I, isolates from cattle in Pens 55, 56,
372 57, and 58 (Source 2) were observed only in Clade II. When sample day-related
373 phylogenetic relationships were explored, no isolates were observed in Clade I from
374 Day 7 and no other sample day-related patterns were apparent for either clade (Fig. 2).

375 Considered in their entirety, *Anatum* isolates from this study did not show a
376 cgMLST allelic distance of more than ten, except one isolate (same isolate that was

377 excluded from the SNP analysis) that showed a large cgMLST allelic distance (50 or
378 less) compared to the rest of the isolates at HC50 cluster (Fig. S1b). The most prevalent
379 clonal group of Anatum was HC0_214518 (n=34), which was only observed in Blocks 3
380 and 4 and from Day 0 until the end of the study (Day 141). The second most prevalent
381 (n=13) clonal group was HC0_214565, which was only observed in Pen 54 at slaughter.
382 The clonal group of HC0_215273 (n=11) was only observed in Pen 52 during the
383 feeding period on Day 0 (n=1) and Day 7 (n=1); at slaughter, this clonal group had
384 become prevalent in the rest of the pens from Source 2 (n=9). This cluster was never
385 identified in cattle from Source 1 during the study period. In contrast, the HC0_215308
386 clonal group (n=8) was only identified at slaughter and only in cattle from Source 1 (Fig.
387 S1b). Based on the ReliefF scores, experimental block was the most important feature
388 for explaining Anatum clonal differences, followed by pen, source, day, and sample type
389 (Table S2).

390 The Anatum population identified in this study did not cluster with any public
391 *Salmonella* genomes until the HC50-level. As of August 21, 2020, there were 209
392 *Salmonella* genomes that shared the same clustering at HC50. These genomes mainly
393 originated from Texas and Kansas, USA and were derived from cattle and beef product
394 samples. Of interest, the single Anatum isolate that was highly divergent when
395 compared to the rest of the Anatum population was found to be in the same HC2 cluster
396 as a single equine isolate derived from Texas in 2015.

397

398 S. Montevideo

399 A previously sequenced *S. Montevideo* (GenBank: CP032816.1) strain was the
400 genetically closest genome to the Montevideo isolates derived from our study.
401 Prophage regions (n=4) masked in the reference genome are presented in Table S1.
402 The tree was inferred with a K2P+ASC model (according to the lowest BIC value) and
403 resulted in two clades (Clade I and II) for 68 Montevideo isolates. Clade I contained only
404 a single distinct hide origin isolate derived from a steer located in Pen 52. The
405 remaining isolates all were in Clade II. There was a subclade (a) within Clade II (Fig. 3)
406 that harbored only isolates derived at slaughter age though from all sample types. The
407 majority of isolates in this subclade was from Source 1, especially from Pens 8 and 9.
408 The remainder of the subclade was consistently populated with isolates derived from
409 feces sampled during the early feeding period, from a variety of pens. Montevideo
410 phylogeny revealed a highly conservative tree with distinct day- (or sample type), and
411 pen-related patterns and resulted in the lowest number of SNPs (n=12) when compared
412 to the other serotypes.

413 Montevideo isolates (n=68) identified in this study were highly clonal and isolates
414 were no more than two cgMLST allelic distance values removed from each other. The
415 most prevalent HierCC clonal group was HC0_214530 (n=30), which was observed only
416 in the early feeding period (Day 0 and 7) in all pens (except Pen 52) and was derived
417 from fecal samples of cattle that are from both sources. The second most prevalent
418 clonal group was HC0_215274 (n=22), which was only observed among pens from
419 Block 1 (Source 1) at slaughter, though it was found across all types of samples (Fig.
420 S1c). Sampling day was the most important feature with the highest ReliefF score for

421 clonal clustering of Montevideo, followed by sample type, pen, source, and experimental
422 block (Table S2).

423 Montevideo isolates from this study were found in the HC20_9091 cluster along
424 with a single isolate derived from swine feces in Texas. Besides that, isolate, there were
425 no other similar isolates observed in the same cluster until the HC50-level. At HC50, a
426 total of 1,543 isolates was found to cluster with our isolates, and the majority of those
427 isolates originated from the USA (mainly, the states of Texas and California). Isolates in
428 this cluster were primarily derived from beef products, followed by other cattle sources,
429 including the feedlot environment and human clinical samples.

430

431 S. Cerro

432 The Cerro population identified in this study was never observed in fecal samples
433 from the early feeding period; thus, the analysis was restricted to slaughter age
434 samples. The complete genome of a Cerro strain (GenBank: CP008925.1) was selected
435 as the reference genome, and five prophage regions (Table S1) were masked before
436 SNP analysis. The phylogenetic tree of 64 Cerro isolates was inferred using TIME+ASC
437 nucleotide substitution model according to the lowest BIC value. The resulting
438 phylogenetic tree revealed two separate clades (Clade I and II). Among those, Clade I
439 was well-supported (bootstrap value of > 80%) presenting distinct source, slaughter
440 sampling day (collinear with experimental block), and pen patterns (Fig. 4). Isolates
441 derived from cattle in Pens 7, 8 and 9 from Block 1 (Source 1 and slaughter Day 134)

442 and Block 4 (Source 2, slaughter Day 99) were found only in Clade I. Clade II harbored
443 only the isolates from Source 2 and mainly were from Pens 55 and 56 of Block 3
444 (slaughter Day 120). There were no obvious sample type-related phylogenetic patterns
445 observed among Cerro isolates.

446 A total of three clonal HC0 clusters was identified with an cgMLST allelic distance
447 of five or less. The most prevalent clonal HierCC cluster was HC0_214520 (n=23) which
448 was only found in cattle from Source 2, and 22 of these were arose from Pens 55 and
449 56 (Block 3); the remaining isolate was derived from Pen 52. The second most
450 prevalent clonal group was HC0_215280 consisting of 22 isolates; of those, 19 were
451 derived from Block 1 (Source 1) while the remaining three isolates were from pens
452 housing cattle from Source 2 (Fig. S1d). There were three isolates in the third clonal
453 group of HC0_214566; all arose from samples taken from Pen 59 at slaughter. This
454 group (HC0_214566) of isolates also differed from the rest of the isolates at the HC5
455 level (i.e., no more than cgMLST allelic distance of five). Based on ReliefF scores, the
456 most important feature of clonal Cerro clustering was experimental block (collinear with
457 slaughter day) followed by source, pen, and sample type (Table S2).

458 Similar to Anatum isolates, Cerro isolates were not found to be in the same
459 cluster as any other public *Salmonella* genomes until the level of HC50. At the HC50
460 cluster, as of August 21, 2020 there were 283 matching genomes (HC50_996) and the
461 majority of these were sequences from isolates collected in the United States and a few
462 other countries (e.g., Taiwan and the United Kingdom). The isolates from the USA

463 mainly were from Texas, followed by California. Cerro genomes at the HC50 cluster
464 level were mostly associated with beef products, cattle, and humans.

465

466 Other serotypes

467 Kentucky (n=11) isolates were derived only from early feeding period (Days 0
468 and 7) fecal samples of cattle purchased from Source 1 and were highly clonal; of
469 these, 9 isolates were identified as being in a single highly clonal group (HC0_214531)
470 as shown in Fig. S1e. Kentucky isolates were not closely related to any other isolated
471 Kentucky genomes until the HC50-level. At this level (HC50_16), a total of 4,521
472 Kentucky genomes were matched with the HierCC inquiry, and mainly originated from
473 the USA; of those, the majority of isolates were derived from California, followed by
474 Georgia and then Texas. A majority of Kentucky genomes at the HC50 clustering level
475 were associated with poultry, and rarely with either cattle or human isolates.

476 Newport (n=6) isolates were derived only from fecal samples and lymph nodes of
477 cattle located in Pen 53 and only at slaughter age. These isolates were
478 indistinguishable from each other and belonged to a single clonal group (HC0_215270)
479 as also shown in Fig. S1f. Newport isolates derived in our study were no more than
480 cgMLST allelic distance of 20 (clustered at HC20) from two *Salmonella* genomes
481 derived from human clinical specimens in the USA. The next HierCC cluster match was
482 observed at HC50-level with 284 isolates, the majority of those were from Arizona,

483 followed by California and Texas. Isolates from this cluster were primarily isolated from
484 human, seeds and vegetables and rarely found in cattle related sources.

485 Only a single Norwich isolate was identified at slaughter from a fecal sample of a
486 steer located in Pen 52. This isolate was no more than five cgMLST allelic distance to
487 four human isolates from the USA. In addition, there was a total of 72 human or
488 outbreak origin Norwich genomes that were observed in the same HC10 cluster. There
489 was no other public *Salmonella* genome found in the HC20 or HC50 cluster of the single
490 Norwich isolate.

491

492 Antibiotic resistance, plasmids, and pathogenicity island profiles

493 Among 399 *Salmonella* isolates screened for antibiotic resistance genes and
494 plasmids. All Montevideo isolates (except for one) harbored a tetracycline resistance
495 gene *tet(A)*, all of which were located on an IncN (IncN_1) plasmid-related contig. A
496 subset of isolates (n=62) carried an IncI1 (IncI_1_Alpha) plasmid, which was not
497 serotype-specific and was found only among a subset of Anatum, Lubbock and
498 Montevideo isolates.

499 A total of ten *Salmonella* pathogenicity islands (SPIs) were identified across
500 these same 399 isolates. Of those, SPI1, SPI2, SPI5, and SPI9 were found in all
501 serotypes with few exceptions; on the other hand, C63PI, SPI3, SPI8, SPI13, and SPI14
502 were found to be highly serotype-specific. The SPI4 mainly varied across the Cerro and
503 Lubbock subpopulation of isolates, regardless of the clonal distribution of these isolates

504 and of any other features such as pen, day, or sample type. Antibiotic resistance genes,
505 plasmids and SPIs that were identified within each serotype are provided in Table 3. No
506 distinct plasmidal or pathogenicity island profiles were found to be related to a specific
507 clonal group (Supp. Dataset 1).

508

509 **Discussion**

510 Our previously published randomized controlled longitudinal feedlot trial was
511 initially designed to explore the effects of single-dose antibiotic metaphylaxis for bovine
512 respiratory disease on antibiotic resistance and the prevalence of *Salmonella* in cattle
513 feces during the feeding period, and in feces, sub-iliac lymph nodes and on hide
514 surfaces at slaughter. The results of our previous study reflected no significant
515 differences between the prevalence of *Salmonella* in cattle that received either antibiotic
516 treatment (ceftiofur or tulathromycin) and those in the control group that received
517 neither. What varied instead, was the distinct serotype distribution patterns observed
518 across sampling days and sample types among the 12 pens, four experimental blocks,
519 and the two sources the cattle were purchased from, which merited further investigation
520 into how the subpopulations within the serotypes were influenced when a higher
521 resolution was obtained. The isolates identified as Anatum, Lubbock, Cerro,
522 Montevideo, Kentucky, and Newport serotypes each appeared in their own same legacy
523 7-gene MLST groups, which initially suggested clonal dissemination of *Salmonella*
524 within the cohorts of cattle throughout the feeding period and at slaughter (25).

525 However, initial examinations of the phylogenies of these longitudinally sampled isolates
526 suggested that simplistic reasoning was likely wrong.

527 In this follow-up study, we further explored the clonal distribution and evidence
528 for temporal and geographical dissemination of *Salmonella* isolates by performing core-
529 genomic comparisons with increased resolution using core-genome SNP-based
530 maximum likelihood phylogeny and allele-based approach using HierCC method.
531 HierCC analyses directly supported the clonal distributions that were observed on the
532 phylogenetic trees. The latter analysis method was used specifically to identify clonal
533 groups, predict the importance of the study design-related features as well as the
534 genomic distance between the isolates derived from this study and the isolates derived
535 from clinical human cases. HierCC methods have been shown to be highly reliable in
536 predicting legacy 7-gene MLST groups (HC900), endemic persistence of strains
537 (HC100 and HC200), as well as the clonal groups of epidemic outbreak strain (HC2,
538 HC5, and HC10) clusters based on distances observed among cgMLST alleles (38).

539 Overall, the results we obtained from SNP- and allele-based distance analyses
540 showed that experimental blocks – wherein 11-12 cattle randomized to three adjacent
541 pens were geographically co-located – and the geographical origin of the cattle (source)
542 were the most consistently predictive factors explaining clonal clustering and expansion
543 observed in the *Salmonella* population. These two factors were followed by sampling
544 day and sample type, though of lesser importance.

545 *Salmonella* Cerro (legacy 7-gene MLST ST367) isolates were identified in cattle
546 from all experimental blocks; however, this serotype was only isolated from samples

547 collected when cattle were eligible to be sent to slaughter between Days 99 and 141
548 (specific slaughter sampling dates by experimental block are listed in Table 1). Our
549 findings show that clonal clustering/expansion of the Cerro population was most
550 influenced by experimental block (or, by slaughter day due to collinearity), followed by
551 source, pen, and sample type. However, it seems most likely that the clonal effects
552 observed are attributable to block rather than sampling day. Relatively short intervals
553 between sampling days at slaughter eligibility underlies this hypothesis, which will also
554 have applied to the other serotypes that were derived during the study within the
555 constrained period of slaughter, or where the clonal expansion of *Salmonella* seemed
556 affected less by day than by block. While the Cerro population derived from our study
557 were genetically clustered with other publicly available genomes of the isolates
558 originated from Texas, the beef-, human-, and cattle-origin Cerro population showed a
559 strong endemic persistence of the outbreak-related strains and had no more than 50
560 cgMLST allelic distance from the isolates derived from our study. Preceding our study,
561 the work of Kovac et al. (2017) identified geographical location as a potential driver of
562 the clonal expansion of the Cerro population (ST367) derived from dairy cattle located
563 either in Texas or New York state (52).

564 Prior to this present study, the potential drivers of the clonal clustering/expansion
565 of Lubbock and Anatum populations in cattle had not been explored. Our results
566 indicate that experimental block, pen, and cattle source are the most important features
567 for explaining clonal relatedness of Lubbock (ST413) and Anatum (ST64) populations in
568 fed cattle during a study period such as ours. In addition, the HierCC results of our

569 study suggest that dissemination of Lubbock and Anatum related clones has been
570 restricted primarily to Texas and Kansas, U.S. states where these two serotypes mainly
571 were isolated from cattle and beef products. However, neither set of serotypes clonal
572 groups have been associated with human isolates at the HC50-level. An emerging
573 serotype first reported in 2015, Lubbock was first identified in a sub-iliac lymph node of
574 a harvest-ready steer located in Texas. The study of Bugarel et al. (2015) suggested the
575 novel serotype evolved from its ancestral serotype Mbandaka through recombination
576 events (75). As of yet, no Lubbock strain was reported as a source of human clinical
577 *Salmonella* outbreaks. Thus, the possible public health outcome of the Lubbock
578 population remains unknown.

579 In contrast to *S. Anatum*, Lubbock and Cerro, the clonal clustering/expansion of
580 the Montevideo (legacy 7-gene MLST ST138) population was influenced mainly by
581 sampling day, sample type and pen; in contrast to the other serotypes, experimental
582 block, and cattle had much less influence on their apparent dissemination. This
583 difference was perhaps not surprising since the majority of Montevideo strains were
584 identified in fecal samples initially from the beginning of the early feeding period and
585 across all pens from both sources or mainly from Source-1 at slaughter time on day 134
586 (Fig. 3). While our machine-learning approach suggests that features related to
587 sampling day and sample type had more bearing on Montevideo clonal
588 clustering/expansion, it also is possible that our study design might have masked the
589 pen-, block-, and source-related influence. The well-supported (bootstrap value of
590 >80%) subclade (a) within the Clade I observed in the phylogenetic tree of Montevideo

591 also reinforced that there was an even greater effect of pen when multiple sample types
592 were accounted for (Fig. 3). In addition, sample type has not earlier been reported as
593 being associated with clonal clustering/expansion of *Salmonella* subpopulations
594 reported (42, 51). Typhimurium and Derby isolates derived from swine feces, lymph
595 nodes and carcasses in farms located in the state of North Carolina have yielded, for
596 example, no phylogenetic relations when comparing among the sample types from
597 which isolates were derived (42). The Montevideo (legacy 7-gene MLST ST138)
598 population in our study displayed more similarities with previously recorded cattle-origin
599 isolates than with human-origin isolates at the HC50-level. The research of Nguyen et
600 al. (2018), likewise, revealed with a few exceptions that Montevideo legacy 7-gene
601 MLST ST138 strains were related mainly to cattle origin isolates and were located in
602 different clades than human outbreak origin isolates which mainly were from ST316
603 (43).

604 We also identified 11 highly clonal Kentucky isolates from the early feeding
605 period (Day 0 and 7); importantly, these were identified only from those cattle
606 purchased from Source 1. We believe that Kentucky was the serotype most likely to
607 have pre-existed in a group of cattle prior to placement in the feedlot. Further, this helps
608 to explain the apparent greater effect of source and sampling day than of experimental
609 block and pen (geographical and environmental surrogates) on the clonal
610 clustering/expansion of the Kentucky population. In addition, a total of six Newport
611 isolates were identified, all of which were found to be highly clonal and originated from
612 either a lymph node (n=5) or fecal sample (n=1) of cattle housed in the same pen (Pen

613 53). This population exhibited no more than 20 cgMLST allelic distance from human-
614 and outbreak-related isolates. Although these isolates had no antibiotic resistant genes,
615 the presence of the highly clonal Newport population in the lymph nodes poses a
616 potential risk for contamination of ground beef. This is a tangible public health risk, since
617 a recent *Salmonella* outbreak similarly originated in a contaminated ground-beef
618 product, was traced to a pan-susceptible Newport isolate in 2018, and resulted in 403
619 reported cases in 30 states causing 117 hospitalizations (76). Besides Newport, our
620 study identified a single Norwich strain isolated from a cattle fecal sample at slaughter.
621 This isolate was found to be related to 70 human and outbreak origin isolates at the
622 HC10-level and 4 out of 70 came from the same cluster at the HC5-level which is
623 reveals this strain to be a clonal epidemic outbreak strain (38).

624 Our data did not reflect any SPIs specific to a certain clonal group of *Salmonella*.
625 The exception was the presence of SPI4, which varied within both the Cerro and
626 Lubbock populations. The SPI4 is known to carry virulence genes responsible for
627 epithelial adhesion and host invasion (77). When we examined the absence or
628 presence of SPI4 regions at the population level, for instance, patterns related to
629 individual cattle seemed more consistent compared to those related to pen, block,
630 source, and day. Over the entire feeding period, we identified only two types of plasmids
631 (IncN and IncI1) – both, incompatibility group plasmids previously reported to harbor
632 beta-lactam class resistance genes in *Salmonella* isolated from farm animals (78). Even
633 though the selection pressure of ceftriaxone metaphylaxis was applied to one group of
634 cattle on day 0, none of the isolates derived bore IncI1 and IncN plasmids harboring *bla*

635 genes. The presence of the IncI1_alpha plasmid was related neither to a particular
636 clonal group nor to a particular serotype. IncI plasmids can, in fact, be found in a wide
637 range of *Salmonella* serotypes and may or may not carry antibiotic resistance and
638 virulence genes; however, the exact function of IncI1 plasmid remains unknown (79).

639 We found an IncN_1 plasmid and *tet(A)* gene associated with all of our
640 Montevideo isolates. Cattle-origin Montevideo isolates were previously found to be
641 related to an IncN_1 plasmid harboring *tet(A)* genes (28); however, no sequence type
642 (legacy 7-gene MLST) of the Montevideo isolates in that study were reported. Another
643 study – Nguyen et al. (2018) – examined a cattle origin Montevideo (legacy 7-gene
644 MLST ST138) population, but did not report any IncN plasmids and tetracycline
645 resistance genes (43), suggesting that the IncN plasmid and *tet(A)* gene presence in
646 Montevideo ST138 may be related to the particular feedlot environment or the
647 geographical origin of the cattle. We have previously described the antimicrobial
648 susceptibility phenotype of these same isolates (25) and showed that the Montevideo
649 isolates that carried the *tet(A)* gene were also found to be phenotypically resistant to
650 tetracycline. However, based on sequencing data, 21 isolates that were previously
651 identified as phenotypically resistant to streptomycin did not bear any such streptomycin
652 (aminoglycoside) resistance genes, such as of the *str*, *aad*, *aph*, or *arm* families. This
653 inconsistency between the genotypic and phenotypic streptomycin resistance could
654 possibly be ascribed to the uncertainty of the MIC breakpoints that have been
655 determined for phenotypic streptomycin resistance (80).

656 Our results showed no antibiotic resistance, plasmid, and pathogenicity island
657 profile association among varied *Salmonella* subpopulations derived from individual
658 cattle, pens, blocks, and sources during the study period. However, the prophage
659 regions of the isolates that are expected to usually vary by host and environment was
660 not explored in our study. Beside the lack of prophage profile findings, another lack of
661 finding was the absence of samples from the environment (e.g., pen floor, feedlot dust)
662 to measure the environmental contribution on *Salmonella* dynamics in feedlot cattle.

663 We employed a supervised machine-learning algorithm to estimate the relative
664 importance of features such as source, experimental block, pen, sampling day, and
665 sample type for explaining clonal clustering/expansion of *Salmonella* serotypes. We
666 used a Random Forest algorithm with ReliefF-based feature selection to rank the
667 prediction power of these features by their potential to forecast clonal outcomes (68,
668 71). While the outcomes of the feature importance were consistent with the core-
669 genomic subpopulation-related analysis performed in this case, the interpretation of
670 results in cases where machine-learning methods are used needs to be handled with
671 care; specifically, with an eye to prioritizing the qualitative roles of biology and study
672 design over numeric predictions. Our study suggests that the application of machine-
673 learning tools, when used for the prediction of feature importance on clonal clustering
674 and expansion, can be a promising approach. However, used in studies such as ours,
675 with more limited sample size numbers, makes interpretation in relation to the biology
676 and study design features even more important.

677 In summary, this was the first study of its kind to attempt to monitor and measure
678 the microevolutionary progress of *Salmonella* subpopulations over time among various
679 sample types collected from a group of beef cattle during the feeding period and at
680 slaughter. We aimed to explore the potential initiators and drivers of *Salmonella*
681 population dynamics as observed in feces, lymph nodes, and hide samples, all of which
682 are among potential contaminants of beef products at slaughter. Our research findings
683 stress the importance of cattle origin, which impacts background microbiota on arrival
684 and also the starting feedlot environment into which these same cattle are placed
685 (including the geospatial placement of cattle and their pens). In total, these two features
686 are the main drivers of initial shared *Salmonella* clonal profiles that later morph in
687 response to microevolutionary pressures. In order to combat antibiotic resistance and
688 reduce the pathogenicity of *Salmonella* found in final beef products, more research is
689 needed to explore the feedlot management and environmental effects on clonal
690 *Salmonella* clustering and expansion, including pre-existing soil and manure pack
691 microbiota and dust contribution as well as the bacteriophages that are in the feedlot
692 environment.

693

694 **Acknowledgments**

695 We acknowledge the H. M. Scott laboratory graduate and undergraduate students for
696 assisting with sample collection and microbiological processing. This study was funded
697 by the National Cattlemen's Beef Association, a contractor to the Beef Checkoff (no.
698 22615).

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971 *Salmonella* and *Escherichia coli*. FEMS Microbiol Lett 363.
- 972
- 973

974 Table 1. Study design representing number of cattle distributed among source, block,
 975 and pen along with the sample types collected each sampling day.

| Source | Block | Pen identifier | Treatment | Number of cattle per pen | Feeding period (feces only) | Slaughter period (feces, lymph node, hide) | | | |
|--------------------------|-------|----------------|-----------|--------------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------------------------------|-------------|-------------|--------|
| Hereford, TX (Source -1) | 1 | 7 | Tul | 12 | Day 0 and 7 | Day 134 | | | |
| | | 8 | Cont | 11 | | | | | |
| | | 9 | Cef | 12 | | | | | |
| Abilene, TX (Source-2) | 2 | 51 | Tul | 11 | | Day 0 and 7 | Day 141 | | |
| | | 52 | Cont | 11 | | | | | |
| | | 53 | Cef | 11 | | | | | |
| | 3 | 54 | Cont | 11 | | | Day 0 and 7 | Day 120 | |
| | | 55 | Cef | 11 | | | | | |
| | | 56 | Tul | 11 | | | | | |
| | 4 | 57 | Cef | 11 | | | | Day 0 and 7 | Day 99 |
| | | 58 | Tul | 11 | | | | | |
| | | 59 | Cont | 11 | | | | | |

976

977

978 Cattle in Pens 7, 8 and 9 were from Source 1 and were located next to one another in
 979 the feedlot. Cattle from Source 2 were located next to one another in Pens 51, 52, 53,
 980 54, 55, 56, 57, 58, and 59. A schematic of the pen locations in the feedlot was published
 981 previously in Levent et al. (2019) (25). Pens within each block (see Table) were
 982 randomly assigned for cattle to receive either ceftiofur (Cef) or tulathromycin (Tul) on
 983 Day 0 prior to first fecal sample collection, or else to remain as control (Cont) animals.
 984

985 Table 2. Number of isolates selected for phylogenetic analysis by serotype, source,

986 block, pen, day, and sample type.

987

| Anatum (ST64) | | | | | | | Lubbock(ST413) | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|---------|--------|-------|-------|----------|-------|-----------------------|--------|----------|---------|--------|-------|----------|-------|------|---|
| | | | Day 0 | Day 7 | Terminal | Lymph | Hide | | | | Day 0 | Day 7 | Terminal | Lymph | Hide | |
| | | | fecal | fecal | fecal | node | | | | | fecal | fecal | fecal | node | | |
| Source 1 | Block 1 | Pen-7 | 3 | 0 | 6 | 3 | 0 | | Source 1 | Block 1 | Pen-7 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 0 |
| | | Pen-8 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | | | | Pen-8 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 3 | 4 |
| | | Pen-9 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | | | | Pen-9 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| Source 2 | Block 2 | Pen-51 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | | Block 2 | Pen-51 | 0 | 0 | 10 | 6 | 8 | |
| | | Pen-52 | 3 | 1 | 3 | 1 | 3 | | | Pen-52 | 4 | 0 | 4 | 4 | 5 | |
| | | Pen-53 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 3 | 0 | | | Pen-53 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 2 | 9 | |
| | Block 3 | Pen-54 | 1 | 1 | 4 | 10 | 8 | | Source 2 | Block 3 | Pen-54 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| | | Pen-55 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 7 | 1 | | | | Pen-55 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| | Block 4 | Pen-56 | 1 | 1 | 5 | 8 | 0 | | Block 4 | Pen-56 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 | |
| | | Pen-57 | 0 | 3 | 6 | 3 | 0 | | | Pen-57 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 11 | |
| Pen-58 | | 1 | 7 | 0 | 0 | 1 | | Pen-58 | | 1 | 0 | 10 | 5 | 9 | | |
| Pen-59 | | 0 | 2 | 1 | 3 | 0 | | Pen-59 | | 1 | 0 | 5 | 1 | 10 | | |

| Cerro (ST367) | | | | | | | Montevideo (ST138) | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|---------|--------|-------|-------|----------|-------|---------------------------|--------|----------|---------|--------|-------|----------|-------|------|---|
| | | | Day 0 | Day 7 | Terminal | Lymph | Hide | | | | Day 0 | Day 7 | Terminal | Lymph | Hide | |
| | | | fecal | fecal | fecal | node | | | | | fecal | fecal | fecal | node | | |
| Source 1 | Block 1 | Pen-7 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 4 | 7 | | Source 1 | Block 1 | Pen-7 | 6 | 3 | 0 | 2 | 0 |
| | | Pen-8 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 2 | | | | Pen-8 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 5 | 0 |
| | | Pen-9 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 | | | | Pen-9 | 1 | 0 | 10 | 10 | 4 |
| Source 2 | Block 2 | Pen-51 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | | Block 2 | Pen-51 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| | | Pen-52 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | | | Pen-52 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | |
| | | Pen-53 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | | | Pen-53 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| | Block 3 | Pen-54 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | | Source 2 | Block 3 | Pen-54 | 7 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| | | Pen-55 | 0 | 0 | 8 | 2 | 9 | | | | Pen-55 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| | Block 4 | Pen-56 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 11 | | Block 4 | Pen-56 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| | | Pen-57 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | | | Pen-57 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| Pen-58 | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | | Pen-58 | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | | |
| Pen-59 | | 0 | 0 | 3 | 1 | 1 | | Pen-59 | | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | | |

988

989

990 Table 3. Distribution of isolates harboring antibiotic resistance genes, plasmids, and
 991 pathogenicity islands by serotype.

992

| | | Anatum (n=113) | Cerro (n=64) | Kentucky (n=11) | Lubbock (n=136) | Montevideo (n=68) | Newport (n=6) | Norwich (n=1) |
|-----------------------|----------------------|-------------------|-----------------|--------------------|--------------------|----------------------|------------------|------------------|
| Resistance genes* | <i>tet(A)_6</i> | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 67 | 0 | 0 |
| Plasmids | <i>IncN_1</i> | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 67 | 0 | 0 |
| | <i>Incl1_1_Alpha</i> | 16 | 3 | 0 | 43 | 2 | 0 | 0 |
| Pathogenicity islands | C63PI | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 6 | 1 |
| | SPI-1 | 113 | 64 | 11 | 136 | 68 | 6 | 1 |
| | SPI-2 | 111 | 64 | 11 | 136 | 68 | 6 | 1 |
| | SPI-3 | 113 | 63 | 11 | 0 | 68 | 6 | 1 |
| | SPI-4 | 112 | 54 | 10 | 104 | 68 | 6 | 1 |
| | SPI-5 | 113 | 64 | 11 | 136 | 68 | 6 | 1 |
| | SPI-8 | 0 | 0 | 11 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| | SPI-9 | 113 | 64 | 11 | 136 | 68 | 6 | 1 |
| | SPI-13 | 113 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 68 | 6 | 1 |
| | SPI-14 | 113 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 68 | 6 | 1 |

993 *Cryptic aminoglycoside gene *aac(6')-Iaa_1* was in all *Salmonella* isolates.

994

995 Resistance genes were identified using the ResFinder Database updated on 06-03-
 996 2020 with the minimum threshold set for 97% for ID and 97% for coverage match.

997 Plasmids were identified through the PlasmidFinder database updated on 06-03-2020
 998 with the minimum threshold set for 97% for ID and 80% for coverage match.

999 Pathogenicity islands were identified through the SPIFinder database updated on 07-
 1000 24-2017 with the minimum threshold set for 97% for ID% and 60% for coverage match.

1001

1002 Figure 1. Phylogenetic analysis of 136 *Salmonella* Lubbock isolates, based on
1003 maximum-likelihood analysis of 84 SNP sites; of these, 36 were identified as parsimony
1004 informative and the remaining 48 were singleton sites.

1005 The tree scale (0.0001) was calculated to be equivalent to approximately 2.8 nucleotide
1006 substitutions per site. Full tree is presented in a miniaturized boxed view; expanded
1007 here, Clade I is in the middle and Clade II is on the right. Those branches with bootstrap
1008 support values of 80-100% are represented with a grey circle located in the middle of
1009 the corresponding branch and sized proportional to the given support values. Pen (first
1010 column) and cattle source (second column) colors are presented in the legends.
1011 Sampling days are presented in the next six columns. Sample types are indicated in the
1012 last three columns.

1013

1014 Figure 2. Phylogenetic analysis of 112 *Salmonella* Anatum isolates based on maximum-
1015 likelihood analysis of 66 SNP sites; of these, 36 were identified as parsimony
1016 informative and the remaining 30 were singleton sites.

1017 The tree scale (0.0001) shows approximately 2.2 nucleotide substitutions per site.
1018 Those branches with bootstrap support values of 80-100% are presented with a grey
1019 circle located in the middle of the corresponding branch and sized proportional to the
1020 given support values. Pen (first column) and cattle source (second column) colors are
1021 presented in the legends. Sampling days are presented in the next six columns. Sample
1022 types are indicated in the last three columns.

1023

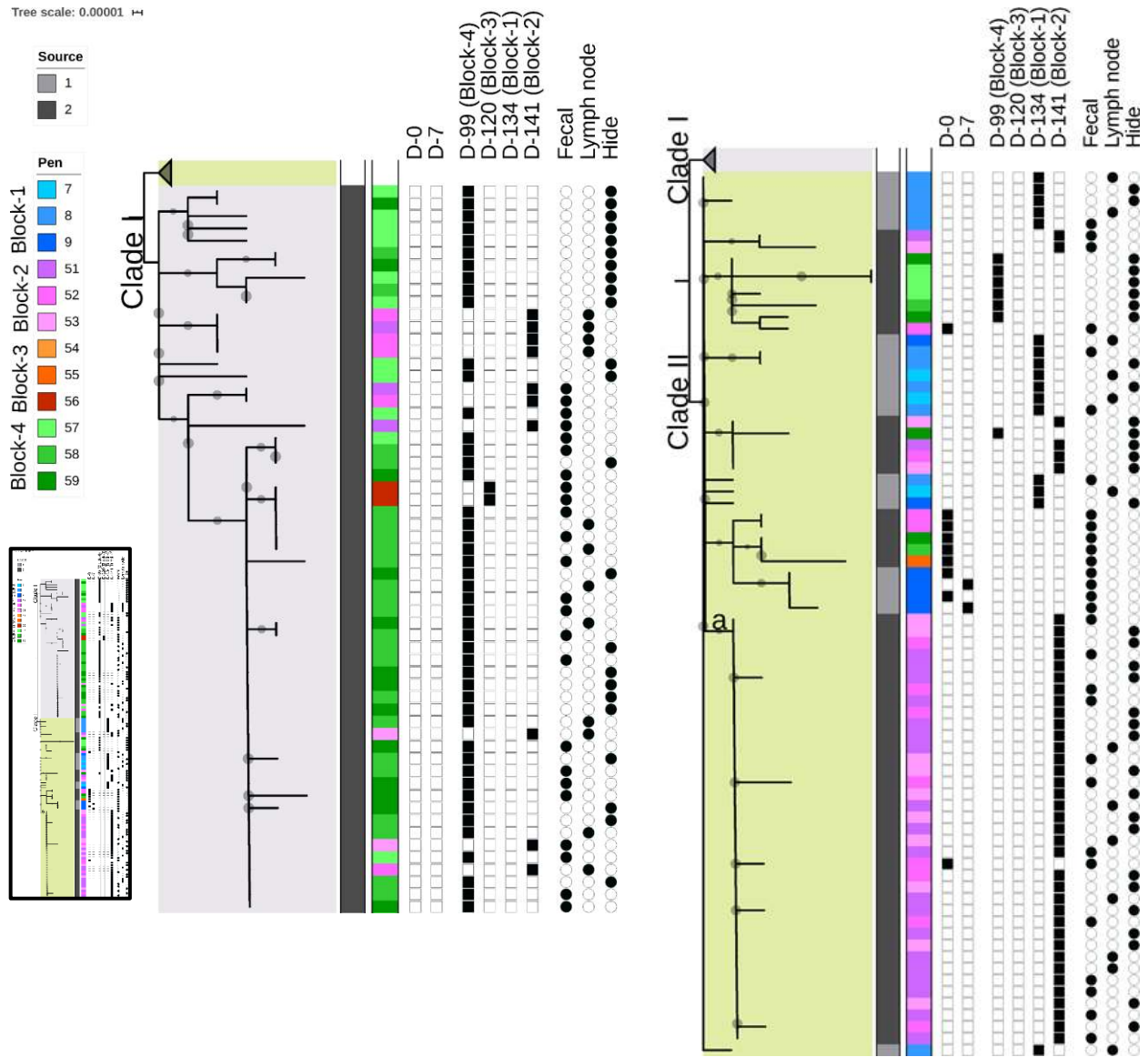
1024 Figure 3. Phylogenetic analysis of 68 *Salmonella* Montevideo isolates based on
1025 maximum-likelihood analysis of 12 SNP sites; of these, one was identified as parsimony
1026 informative and the remaining 11 were singleton sites.

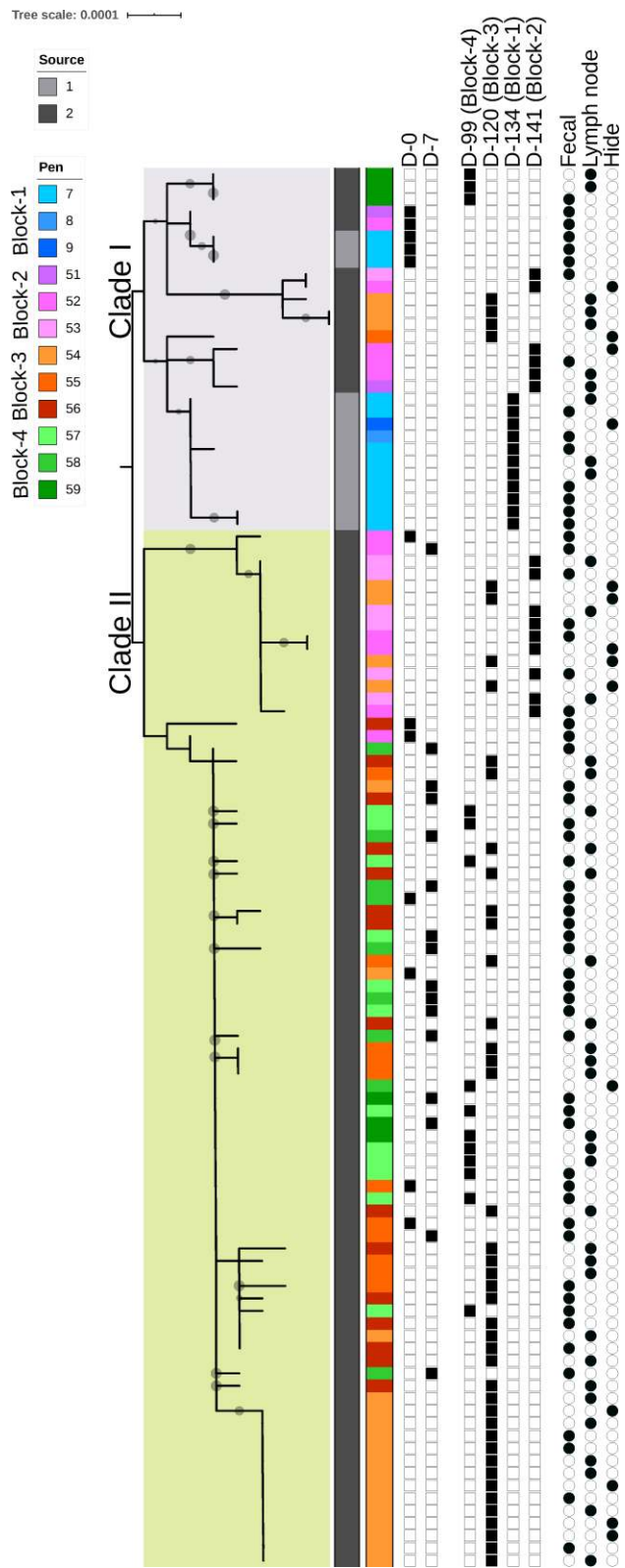
1027 The tree scale of 0.0001 is equivalent to approx. 0.4 nucleotide substitutions per site.
1028 Those branches with bootstrap support values of 80-100% are presented with a grey
1029 circle located in the middle of the corresponding branch and sized proportional to the
1030 given support values. Pen (first column) and cattle source (second column) colors are
1031 presented in the legends. Sampling days are presented in the next six columns. Sample
1032 types are indicated in the last three columns.

1033

1034 Figure 4. Phylogenetic analysis of 64 *Salmonella* Cerro isolates based on maximum-
1035 likelihood analysis of 17 SNP sites; of these, 9 were identified as parsimony informative
1036 and the remaining 8 were singleton sites.

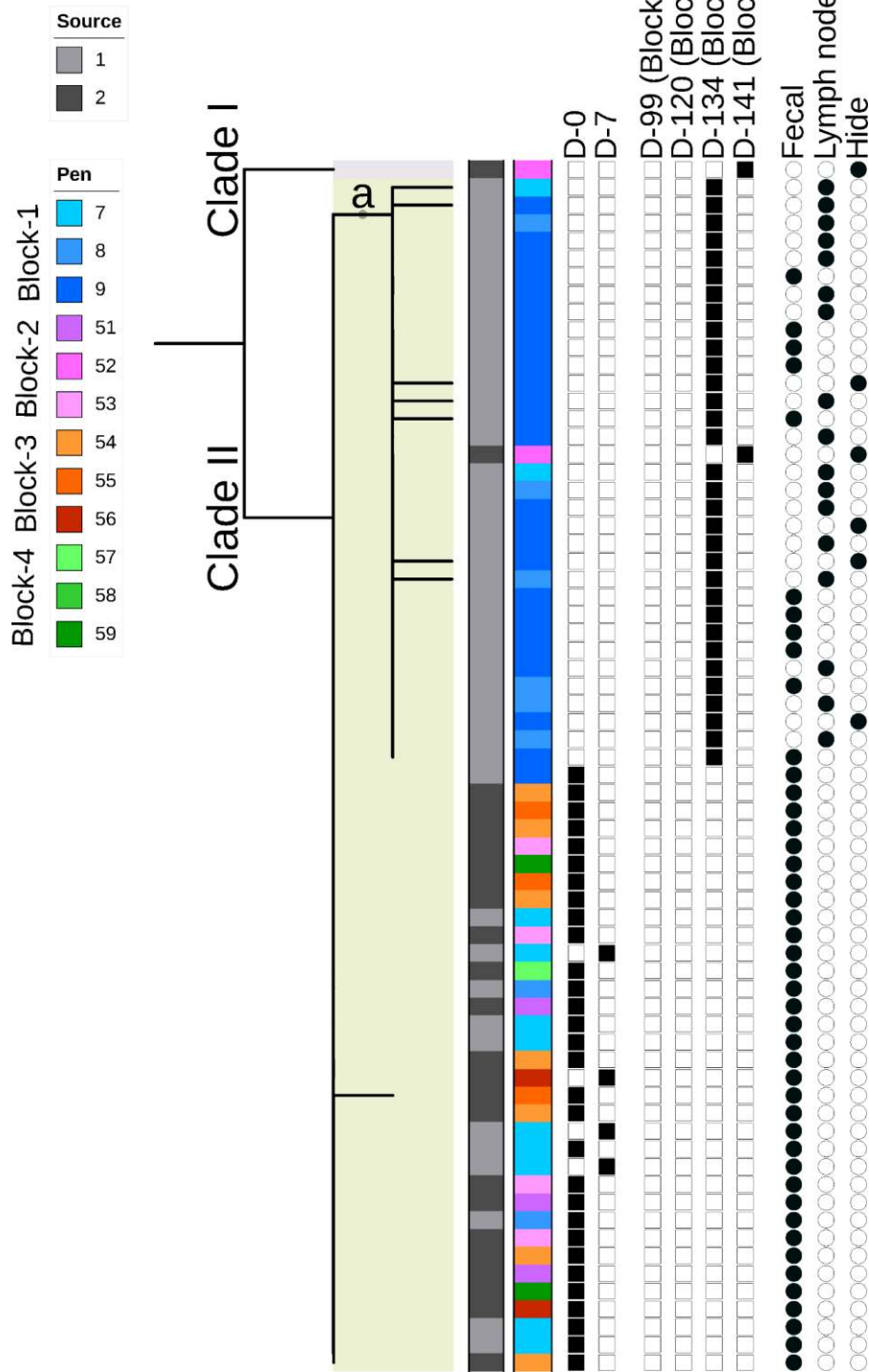
1037 The tree scale (0.0001) shows approximately 0.4 nucleotide substitutions per site. S.
1038 Cerro isolates were derived only at slaughter age in this study. Those branches with
1039 bootstrap support values of 80-100% are presented with a grey circle located in the
1040 middle of the corresponding branch and sized proportional to the given support values.
1041 Pen (first column) and cattle source (second column) colors are presented in the
1042 legends. Sampling days are presented in the next four columns. Sample types are
1043 indicated in the last three columns





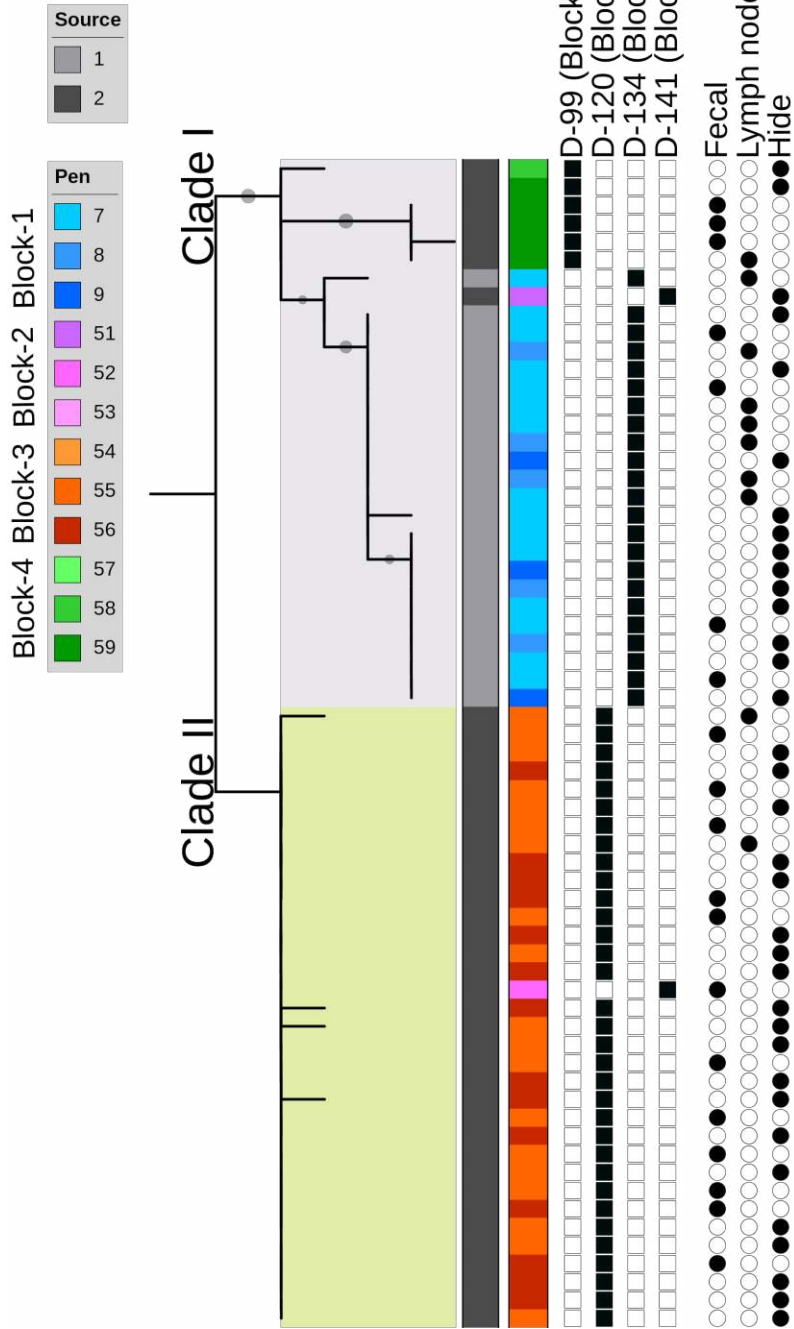
1046

Tree scale: 0.0001



1047

Tree scale: 0.0001 H



1048