- 1 Virulence factors among isolates of extraintestinal Esherichia
- 2 coli (ExPEC) from hospitals in the United Kingdom.
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- 11 islands

Abstract

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13 182 genes associated with virulence were sought from the whole genome sequences of all 14 non-duplicate isolates of Escherichia coli received by the UK Health Security Agency's 15 Antimicrobial Resistance and HealthCare Associated Infections laboratory for typing 16 between June 2019 and March 2021 from hospitals in the United Kingdom and Republic of 17 Ireland (n=593). These were from healthcare associated investigations and were not 18 associated with diarrhoeal disease. Genes that were very common or very rare were 19 excluded from further analysis. The frequency of detection of genes was compared among 20 isolates from invasive infection, screening, urine samples and from neonates. cnf1 (coding 21 for cytotoxic necrotising factor), clbK (coding for colibactin), focCDF (coding for F1 fimbriae), 22 kpsM K1, neuBD (associated with the K1 capsule), mchBC, mcmA (coding for microcins), 23 papG allelellI (part of a cluster encoding P fimbriae), pic (protein involved in intestinal 24 colonization), sfaE/sfafoCDE (coding for S fimbriae), tcpC (encoding TLR domain containing-25 protein C) and vat (encoding toxin vacuolating autotransporter) were 4 to 28 times more 26 prevalent among isolates from invasive infections than among those from carriage. 27 Representatives of sequence types (ST) 12, 73, 998 and 127 carried multiple of these 28 virulence factors, no matter whether they were from screening swabs or from blood or other 29 infection sites. Isolates carrying multiple virulence factors were more prevalent from neonatal 30 screens than those from general screens. Genes associated with the K1 capsule (ibeA. 31 neuBD, kpsM_K1) were particularly found in STs 1193, 10, 998, 538, 80 and 141. Nanopore 32 sequencing of 14 isolates representing 10 different STs showed that the virulence elements 33 sought were largely carried in chromosomal genomic islands, which were mosaic in nature. 34 Some 9 % of isolates carried more than six of the main virulence genes/gene sets sought, 35 highlighting the potential for significant numbers of carriage isolates to cause extraintestinal 36 infections.

Introduction

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44 45 Pathogenic *E. coli* are associated with various infections in humans, the most important being those causing diarrhoea, urinary tract infections, sepsis and meningitis. An extensive array of virulence factors has been described in the organism [1], some of which are characteristic of the disease manifestation. For those causing diarrhoea, various pathotypes have been defined (enteropathogenic *E. coli* (EPEC), enterohemorrhagic (Shiga toxin-producing) *E. coli* (EHEC/STEC), enteroaggregative *E. coli* (EAEC), enterotoxigenic *E. coli* (ETEC), enteroinvasive *E. coli* (EIEC) and diffusely adherent *E. coli* (DAEC), each with their

46 own specific virulence factors e.g. stx genes are characteristic of EHEC, production of 47 enterotoxins is characteristic of ETEC and intimin (eae) is associated with EPEC [2]. 48 For those isolates not associated with diarrhoeal illness, the situation may not be as clear 49 cut. The patient's own intestinal flora is the reservoir for these 'extraintestinal' pathogenic E. 50 coli (ExPEC), which have evolved from commensal strains by acquisition of virulence factors 51 in a cumulative manner [3-6]. Virulence factors described are many and varied and there is 52 often overlap in the virulence gene content among different extraintestinal pathotypes. However, various associations have been made [1]. Uropathogenic (UPEC) E. coli are 53 54 associated with (among others) F1C fimbriae (promoting adhesion), tcpC (TLR domain 55 containing-protein C associated with immune evasion), cytotoxic necrotising factor cnf1, α-56 haemolysin toxins, pic (protein involved in intestinal colonization), sat (secreted auto 57 transporter toxin) and tsh (temperature sensitive hemagglutinin). Neonatal meningitis-58 associated (NMEC) E.coli are linked with the K1 capsule, with neuB and neuD genes 59 described as specific for the K1 capsule [7], ibe genes (of which ibeA is unique to E. coli K1), 60 S fimbriae (encoded by the sfaABCDEFGHS gene cluster) and also, in common with UPEC, 61 cnf1 toxin; this pathotype can also be responsible for sepsis. Accordingly, sfaE, sfafoCDE 62 (coding for S fimbriae) and tcpC (coding for Toll/interleukin 1 receptor (TIR)-containing 63 proteins) have been associated with sepsis [8]. The toxin vacuolating autotransporter 64 encoded by vat has also been significantly associated with bacteraemia [9]. The term NTEC 65 is sometimes used to refer to necrotoxic E. coli which express cnf1 [10]. Other potentially 66 important virulence factors include the colibactin biosynthetic cluster in the pks pathogenicity 67 island which is often found in combination with cnf1. Colibactin represents a class of 68 bacterial genotoxin inducing DNA damage and genomic instability in mammalian cells 69 [11,12]. An analysis of the prevalence of the colibactin island revealed that the pks island 70 was consistently associated with the versiniabactin gene cluster [12,13]. Genotoxic E. coli 71 may use colibactin to compete for gut niche utilization [14]. Microcin is also important in 72 establishing colonization in the gut [15,16]. 73 Many of these virulence factors are found as blocks of genes in integrative chromosomal 74 genomic islands referred to as pathogenicity islands (PAI) that are acquired by horizontal 75 transfer [17]. Since they often contain mobile elements derived from bacteriophages, 76 plasmids and insertion sequences, they are subject to rearrangements, insertions and 77 deletions and are therefore variable. These PAI are critical in providing elements encoding 78 functions (such as aiding colonization, immune evasion or adhesin and toxin production) that 79 are essential to the infection process.

80 In order to understand the importance or otherwise of the various virulence factors described 81 and to be able to identify isolates readily that are of particular virulence among those 82 submitted from healthcare associated investigations (excluding those relating to diarrhoea), 83 we sought 182 virulence factors from whole genome sequences from all isolates submitted 84 to our typing service for E. coli from UK hospitals over a period of 20 months during 85 2019/2020. These largely consisted of those isolated from screens, both for carbapenem 86 resistant organisms and from neonates, but also included clinical isolates from blood, urine, 87 CSF and other sterile sites. While acknowledging that all of the virulence factors play a role, 88 and that gut colonisation is an important step for strains causing extraintestinal infections, we 89 hypothesized that those isolates causing actual infections would be those most likely to 90 possess the full complement of characteristics required to cause those infections. Our panel 91 of isolates therefore provided a context against which to assess the various genes, allowing 92 us to identify a set characterising those of greatest virulence potential.

Methods

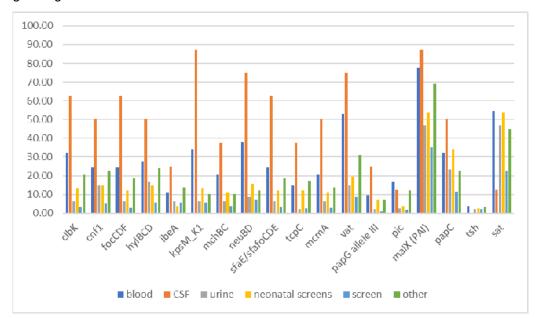
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94 All isolates submitted for cross-infection and outbreak investigation to the UK Health Security 95 Agency's Antimicrobial Resistance and HealthCare Associated Infection (AMRHAI) 96 laboratory were subjected to whole genome sequencing on a NextSeq Illumina platform 97 following QIASymphony extraction and Nextera® XT library preparation. The bioinformatic 98 pipeline identified the sequence type (ST), predicted O:H type, resistance elements and, 99 where applicable, the 'SNP address'. The SNP address allows comparison of isolates within 100 the same clonal complex, with groupings at the 0, 5, 10, 25, 50, 100 and 250 SNP levels 101 [18]. The pipeline also sought 182 genes associated with virulence. The set examined, 102 consisting of 593 isolates, were received between June 2019 and March 2021 from 65 103 hospital trusts from the United Kingdom and Republic of Ireland. These consisted of non-104 duplicate isolates from cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) (8), blood (53), urine (47), neonatal screens 105 (82), other screens (341) (consisting of 'CRE screens', rectal swabs, groin swabs and faeces) and others (ascitic fluid (2), bronchoalveolar lavage (BAL) (4), bile (1), endotracheal 106 aspirate (2), endotracheal tube (ET) secretions (5), endotracheal tube tip (ETT) (5), drain 107 108 fluid (3), eye (5), fluid (1) foot plantar (1), line tip (1), lung swab (1), lymph node (1), 109 nasopharyngeal aspirate (1), neck (1), pancreatic abscess fluid (1), perinephric collection 110 (1), peritoneal fluid (1), sputum (10) thigh tissue (1), throat (1), wound (5) and unknown (3), 111 and the hospital environment (mascerator (2), cotspace (1), sinkhole (1)). Isolates consisted 112 of 143 different sequence types, of which STs 131, 38, 69, 648, 167, 3168 and 73 were the 113 most common (120, 38, 33, 20, 17, 17 and 14 isolates, respectively). Although the number of 114 isolates from CSF were small (8), they were diverse, with each representing a different

115 sequence type. Phylogenetic groups were identified based on the combinations of the chuA. 116 TSPE4C2 and yiaA genes [19]. 117 14 isolates were also subjected to nanopore sequencing using a minION Mk1C following 118 DNA extraction with a GeneJet genomic DNA kit (ThermoFisher) and library preparation 119 using the Rapid Barcoding kit SQK-RBK004 (Oxford Nanopore Technologies). Libraries 120 were pooled and concentrated using Agencourt AMPure XP beads (Beckman Coulter). 121 Sequencing was carried out on up to 10 isolates at a time on a FLO-MIN 106D Spot-On 122 flowcell (R9 version) in 72 h runs as recommended by the manufacturer. Virulence genes 123 were further sought using VirulenceFinder 2.0 on the Center for Genomic Epidemiology 124 website (https://cge.cbs.dtu.dk/services/VirulenceFinder/) [20]. BLAST comparisons on a 125 local database were carried out to generate Figure 3 126 (https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi). Sequences were deposited in the sequence Read 127 Archive under project PRJNA870093. 128 Results 129 Highly common genes 130 Some of the genes were found in all (aer (a signal transducer for aerotaxis), csqABCDEFG 131 (encoding curli fibers), ibeC, mutS) or most (ecpA, fimH, ibeB, matA) isolates. Others that 132 were relatively common included *chuASTWXY* (associated with haem uptake), *fyuA*, *irp2*, 133 iucABC, iutA (part of the yersiniabactin and aerobactin siderophore gene clusters). 134 Rare genes 135 Other genes/gene alleles were not found in any of the isolates (aafABCD, aah, agg3A, 136 agg3B, agg3C, agg3D, agg5A (encoding aggregative adherence fimbriae), aidA (also 137 associated with adherence), bfpA, bmaE, cdtA, cdtB, cdtC (encoding cytolethal distending 138 toxin), cofA, eae (encoding intimin associated with ETEC), eatA, espB, espC, espF, etpD, 139 f17A, fanA, fanC, fasA, fedA, fedF, fim41A, hylE, ingA, ipaH, iucD, K88ab, itcA, neuC, nleA, 140 papG allelel, papG allelelprime, perA, pet, rfc, rpeA, saa, sta1, sta2, stb, subA, tir). Some 141 others were only found in a very small number of isolates (10 or less) (e.g. aaiC, cif, epeA, 142 espl, espJ, iha, ipaD, ingA, katP, nleB, nleC, sepA, toxB, virF). 143 Main study 144 As a result of these preliminary observations, the occurrence of the following virulence 145 genes was studied in more detail: clbK (part of the colibactin biosynthetic cluster), cnf1 146 (encoding cytotoxic necrotising factor 1), focCDF (encoding F1 fimbriae), hylBCD (encoding 147 α-haemolysin toxins), ibeA, neuBD, kpsM_K1 (associated with the K1 capsule), mchBC, 148 mcmA (encoding microcins), safE/sfafoCDE (encoding S fimbriae), tcpC (encoding TLR

domain containing-protein C), *vat* (encoding vacuolating autotransporter toxin), *papG*-_allelelll, *papC* (encoding pyelonephritis associated pili), *pic* (encoding protein involved in colonization), *tsh* (encoding temperature sensitive hemagglutinin), *sat* (encoding secreted autotransporter toxin) and *malX* (associated with a PAI). The percentage of isolates from various isolation sites carrying these genes is shown in Figure 1 and the distribution of isolates carrying from zero to 8 or more of these virulence factors (where gene clusters are counted as one) is shown in Figure 2. The presence of the rarer *upaH* and *virF* virulence genes was also noted.

Figure 1. Percentage of isolates from various isolation sites carrying each of 18 virulence genes/gene sets.



K1 capsule identified by neuBD and/or KpsM_K1

The K1 capsule is a PAI encoded protectin that protects the organism from phagocytosis, is associated with bacteraemia and is required for crossing of the blood-brain barrier [17,21].

74/593 isolates were positive for *neuB* (and *neuD*); all but 10 of these were also positive for *KpsM_*K1 indicating that they belong to capsular type K1 associated with neonatal meningitis. 20 (27 %) were from blood, 6 from CSF, 4 from urine, 3 from endotracheal secretions/tube tip, 1 from a diabetic foot lesion, 1 from eye, 1 from sputum and 1 from tissue; the remainder (37) were from screening swabs; at least 24 isolates were from neonates. 10 % of neonatal screens were positive for these elements, while only 7 % of other screens were positive for them. 38 % of blood isolates and 75 % of CSF isolates were positive, suggesting a strong association with sepsis/meningitis. Isolates consisted of 21 different sequence types (STs) of which ST 1193 (23 isolates) and 10 (5 isolates) were the

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most common, although some of the former were associated with clonal spread among patients related in space and time. No isolates in the entire set were positive for *neuC*. Ibe genes. The *ibe* genes are so called because they are associated with invasion of brain endothelial cells. ibeA is described as unique to E. coli K1, but only some isolates carried both ibeA and neuBD/KpsM K1 (19). Every isolate in the entire set (593 isolates) carried ibeC; all but one carried ibeB. ibeA was detected in 39 isolates in total, of which 5 (14 %) were from blood, 2 (5 %) from CSF, 3 from urine, 4 from respiratory samples, 1 from wound and 1 from eye; the remainder (22) were from screening swabs. At least 10 positive isolates were from neonates, but the gene was not more common among isolates from neonatal screens than from screens generally (4 and 6 % respectively). The gene was found in 11 %, 25 % and 6 % respectively of blood, CSF and urine isolates, compared with an overall prevalence of 7 %. The 39 isolates consisted of 22 STs, of which 538 and 998 were the most common, but both were associated with clonal spread among patients linked in space and time. S fimbriae (adhesin) genes Associated with NMEC and UPEC, these are the sfa (e.g. safE) and sfafoCDE genes. The presence of sfaE was always accompanied with that of sfafoCDE. In total, 54/593 isolates were positive for these genes, of which 5 were from CSF, 13 were from blood, 3 from urine, 1 from tissue, 1 from a line tip, 2 from eye swabs and 7 from other clinical sites; the remainder were from screens (21 isolates) and the environment (1). These genes were found in 25 %, 63 % and 6 % respectively of blood, CSF and urine isolates, compared with a prevalence in general screens of 3 %. F1C fimbriae (adhesin) genes These are associated with UPEC and were found in 53/593 isolates in our panel. We found focCDF to be more consistently found than focG and focH; focC, focD and focF were always found together. Isolates carrying focCDF consisted of 5 from CSF, 13 from blood, 3 from urine, 11 from other clinical sites, 10 from neonatal screens, 10 from general screens and 1 from the environment. Prevalence among blood, CSF, urine, neonatal and general screens was 25, 63, 6, 12 and 3 %, respectively, with an overall prevalence of 9 %. P fimbriae P fimbriae are encoded by the pap operon (pyelonephritis associated pili) and mediate Gal(α1-4)Gal-specific binding via the adhesin molecule PapG. There are three major alleles of papG (GI to GIII) of which alleles II and III are the most common in isolates causing infections in humans [17,23]. We sought papG_allele III in particular since we had noted an association with invasive isolates. We detected papG_alleleIII in 22/593 isolates, 6 from

207 blood, 2 from CSF, 1 from thigh tissue, 2 from ET tip, 1 from pus, 1 from urine and the 208 remainder from screens (6 from neonatal screens and 3 from adult rectal screens). The 209 isolates belonged to 12 STs, of which ST12 (9 isolates) was the most common. This allele 210 was found in 9 %, 25 %, 2 %, 7 % and 1 % of isolates from blood, CSF, urine, neonatal 211 screens, and general screens, respectively, compared with an overall prevalence of 3.5 %. 212 We detected papC in 110 isolates (19 %), of which 50 belonged to ST131, 10 to ST69 and 9 to ST12; 213 17 were from blood, 4 from CSF (representing 50 % of isolates from CSF), 36 from general screens, 214 28 from neonatal screens, 11 from urine, 13 from other clinical sites sites and 1 from the environment. 215 Cnf-1 (cytotoxic necrotising factor 1) 216 This exotoxin is associated with NMEC, UTEC and NTEC. It was detected in 68/593 217 isolates, always, in our experience, with hylBCD (encoding α-hemolysin), of which 4 were 218 from CSF, 7 from urine, 13 from blood and 13 from other clinical sites; the remainder were 219 from screens (30) and the environment (1). It was found in 25 %, 50 % and 15 % of blood, 220 CSF and urine isolates respectively compared with an overall prevalence of 11 %. It was 221 detected in 19 STs of which ST131 (16 isolates) and ST73 (12 isolates) were the most 222 common. 223 hylBCD encoding α-haemolysin 224 The hylBCD gene cluster encodes an exotoxin and is associated with UPEC, including those 225 causing upper UTIs such as pyelonephritis; it has been shown to target macrophages [22]. 226 In our study, hylBCD were generally found together, with two exceptions only. They were 227 found in 74/593 isolates, of which 8 were from urine, 4 from CSF, 14 from blood and 14 from 228 further clinical sites; the remainder were from neonatal (13), other (20) and environmental (1) 229 screens. The most common ST in which the hylBCD cluster was found was ST131 (17 230 isolates), followed by ST73 (12 isolates). 231 TcpC (immune evasion) 232 This gene encodes an inhibitor homolog of Toll-like receptors (TLR), dampening the 233 proinflammatory response and therefore contributing to immune evasion. It has been 234 associated with both sepsis and UPEC [8]. We detected this in only 41 (out of 593) isolates, 235 only 1 of which was from urine. The isolates were from CSF (3), blood (8), urine (1), other 236 clinical sites (10) and screens (9 from general screens, 10 from neonatal screens). tcpC

Colibactin

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positive isolates accounted for 15, 38, 2, 12 and 3 % respectively of blood, CSF, urine,

neonatal screen and general screen isolates, with a general prevalence of 7 %.

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We sought clbK, which is part of the colibactin biosynthetic cluster in the pks pathogenicity island. Colibactin is a bacterial genotoxin and is consistently associated with the yersiniabactin (siderophore) gene cluster. It has been associated with persistence in the gut [14]. 60/593 isolates were positive for clbK. These consisted of 5 isolates from CSF, 17 from blood, 3 from urine, 1 from tissue, 11 from other clinical sites, 11 from neonatal screens, 11 from general screens and 1 from the environment. These represented 32, 65, 6, 13 and 3 % respectively of isolates from blood, CSF, urine, neonatal screens and other screens, respectively with an overall prevalence of 10 %. Isolates belonged to 19 distinct sequence types, of which STs 73, 12, 1193, 127 and 998 were the most common, in that order. Despite being the most common sequence type (120/593), no representative of ST131 carried clbk. clbK was detected in all representatives of STs 127 and 998 and in all but one representative of STs 73 and 12. **Microcins** Siderophore-microcins are antimicrobial peptides that are post-translationally linked to a siderophore which can then kill related bacteria by mimicking iron—siderophore complexes. They therefore provide a competitive advantage in colonization of the gut. They are chromosomally encoded in small genomic islands that, in UPEC, interact with proteins from other genomic islands carrying virulence factors to produce the active siderophore-microcin [16]. We found mchBC in only 46 isolates of the set, consisting of isolates from CSF (3), blood (11), line tip (1), pus (1), nasopharyngeal aspirate (1), ET tip (1), sputum (2), urine (3) and screening isolates (9 from neonates, 13 general, 1 environmental) belonging to 22 STs of which ST 73 (12 isolates) and ST12 (8 isolates) were the most common. mcmA (microcin precursors) Similarly, 46/593 isolates were positive for mcmA, and again isolates from CSF (4 isolates). blood (11) and urine (3) were over-represented compared with their overall proportions in the set. Isolates were from 20 different STs, of which ST73 (11 isolates) and ST 12 (8 isolates) were the most common. **Autotransporters** Vacuolating autotransporter toxin (encoded by vat) vat was detected in 103 (17 %) of the isolates, 27 from blood, 6 from CSF, 7 from urine, 18 from other clinical sites (ascitic fluid, thigh tissue abscess, pancreatic abscess, ET secretions, line tip, ETT tip, nasopharyngeal aspirate, sputum, eye, pus), 15 from neonatal screens, 29 from other screens and 1 from the hospital environment (mascerator). These were over-represented in the blood, CSF and other clinical sites groups, representing 53, 75,

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and 29 % of the isolates in each group, compared with an overall prevalence of 17 % and a prevalence in screens (not neonatal) of only 9 %. Temperature sensitive hemagglutinin (encoded by *tsh*) The tsh gene was found in only 2 % of isolates in our panel. It was not found in any of those from CSF, nor was it found in enhanced numbers in isolates from urine compared to the overall prevalence or from that in screens. It was found in 3.8 % of blood isolates. Secreted autotransporter toxin (encoded by sat) Sat was detected in a third (34 %) of the isolates, with most representatives of ST131 (the most common ST by far) carrying the gene. It was found in 55 %, 13 %, 47 %, 54 % and 23 % of blood, CSF, urine, neonatal screens and general screens, respectively. Pic (protein involved in colonization) The pic gene was detected in almost 5 % of isolates overall, with an enhanced prevalence among those from blood (17 %) and CSF (13 %) compared with those from urine and neonatal and general screens (3 %, 4 % and 2 %, respectively). upaH upaH is a further autotransporter gene that has been associated with biofilm formation and bladder colonization [24]. Among our panel of isolates, we only detected it in 18 isolates, all but one of which belonged to ST73 or a single locus variant of ST73. This ST generally is associated with virulence; not surprisingly 7 of the 18 isolates were from blood and 2 from line-tips, while only 5 were from screens, despite the latter greatly outnumbering those from blood (53 blood isolates compared with 423 isolates from screening). The isolates were from 10 different hospitals, but 4 of them were clonally related to each other (5-SNP cluster) and were related in space and time. PAI marker gene *malX* malX codes for a phosphotransferase system enzyme that recognizes maltose and glucose. It is a PAI marker. It was detected in almost all representatives of ST131 (117/120 isolates) and was common among the panel, being found in 277/593 isolates (47 %) overall, with somewhat increased prevalence among blood (41/53) and CSF isolates (7/8) (77 and 89 %, respectively) compared with those from urine, neonatal and general screens (47, 54 and 35 % respectively). As well as ST131, it was strongly associated with STs 648 (18 isolates), 1193 (24 isolates) and ST73 (14 isolates).

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Prevalence of virulence genes in invasive isolates compared with screens These data do not provide sufficient support that tsh is more associated with invasive isolates compared with screen isolates. However, there is strong evidence in support of focCDF, sfaE/sfafoCDE, clbK, papG alleleIII, pic and mcmA being associated with sepsis (all greater than 7 times more prevalent among blood isolates than screen isolates), focCDF. sfaE/sfafoCDE, papG_allelellI, cblK and mcmA associated with CSF (all greater than 17 times more prevalent among CSF isolates than general screens and more than 6 times more prevalent among CSF isolates than overall) as well as cnf1, kpsM K1, mchBC, neuBD, vat and tcpC. hylBCD and cnf1 were associated with urinary tract infections (both greater than 2.8 times as prevalent among urine isolates than overall). A caveat to these observations is that the number of isolates from CSF were small (8/593 isolates); however, they were genetically diverse, each representing a distinct ST. Combinations of virulence genes. While some 355 isolates of the panel of 593 carried one or more of the virulence genes (or virulence gene sets) sought (clbK, cnf1, focCDF, ibeA, hylBCD, mchBC, neuBD, ibeA, sfaE/sfafoCDE, tcpC, KpsM K1, malX (PAI), mcmA, papC, papG, papG allelelll, pic, sat, sepA, tsh, upaH, vat, virF), 81 carried only one (particularly malX, sat, tsh, papC, or in one instance the rare gene virF found in only 2 isolates in our set), 86 carried only two (with the most common combinations being malX and sat (62) and papC and sat (8), and 49 carried only 3 (most, all of ST 131, carrying the malX, papC and sat combination (30)). A number of isolates including 12 from invasive sites carried the combinations of neuBD, KpsM K1, malX, sat, vat (15 isolates, all of ST 1193), neuBD, KpsM K1, malX, papC, sat (5 isolates) or ibeA, neuBD, KpsM_K1, malX, vat (7 isolates) (with 10 further isolates carrying one of these combinations and further genes), while the combination of cnf1, hylBCD, malX, papC, sat was found in 15 isolates (all of ST131), of which 4 were from urine (with a further 6 isolates carrying this combination and further genes). Some 53 isolates (8.9 %) carried more than 6 of these genes/gene sets, and all but one of these carried at least 8; one carried 15 (Table 1). Of these 53 isolates, which all belonged to phylogroup B2, 47 carried cblK; this

1). Of these 53 isolates, which all belonged to phylogroup B2, 47 carried *cblK*; this represents 78 % of all the isolates carrying *cblK*, showing that isolates carrying this gene are highly likely to carry multiple virulence factors. Many (16) carried one or more elements

associated with the K1 capsule (*KpsM_*K1, *ibeA*, *neuBD*). All but three carried the F1 fimbriae and S fimbriae genes *focCDF* and *sfaE/sfafoCDE*. Sequence types 73 (13 isolates,

plus 2 SLVs), 12 (8 isolates), 127 (6 isolates) and 998 (6 isolates, 4 from neonates from the

same hospital and 3 representing the same strain) were the most common STs among those

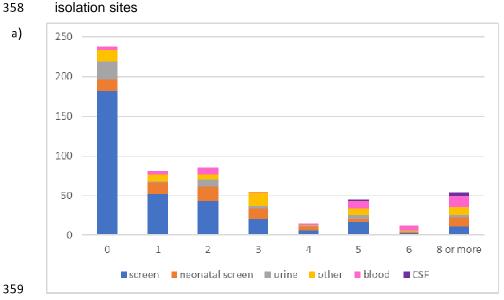
carrying 8 or more virulence genes/gene sets. Worrying, eight also carried bla_{OXA-48-like}

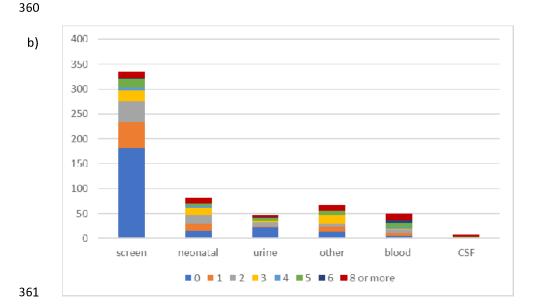
carbapenemase genes. In common with 3 of the 4 ST998 isolates, and 4 of the ST73

isolates, the two isolates belonging to ST416 and two of those belonging to ST80 were epidemiologically and clonally related; all the others were not. A further two of the 13 ST73 isolates were from the same hospital and submitted together but were more than 250 SNPs apart.

Figure 2.

- a) Distribution of isolates from different sites carrying 0 to 8 or more virulence genes/gene sets
- b) Distribution of number of virulence genes/gene sets among isolates from different isolation sites





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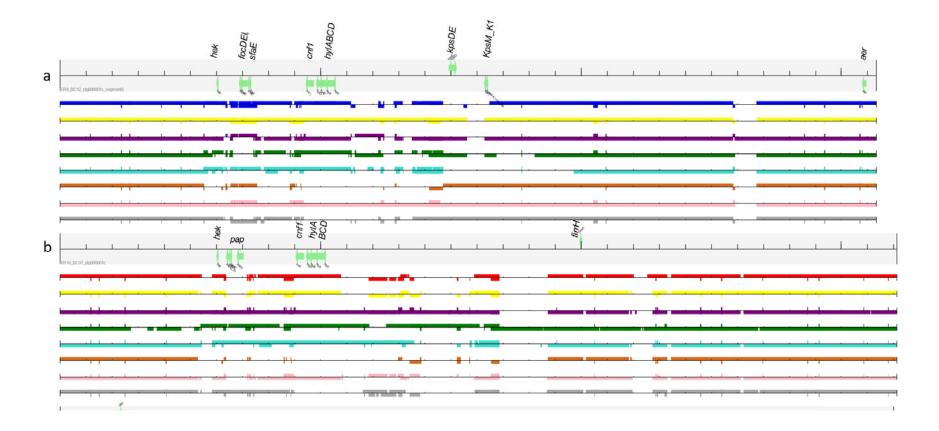
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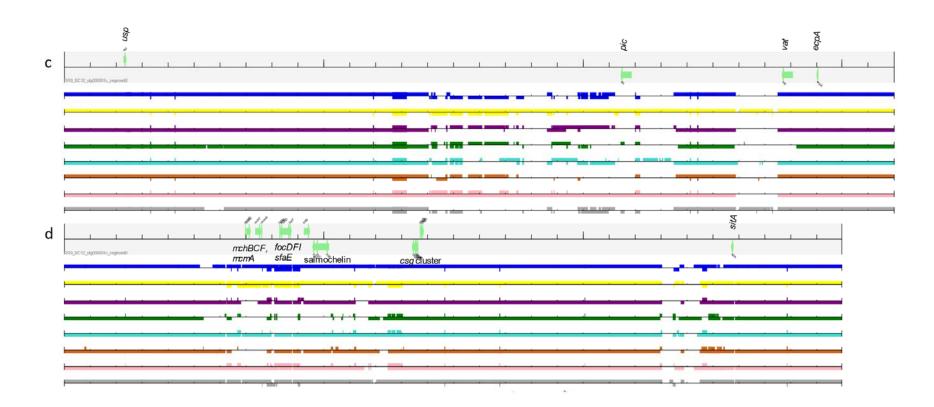
Nanopore sequencing results Nanopore sequencing was carried out on 14 isolates, consisting of 10 different sequence types (STs 12, 73, 80, 127, 131, 141, 72, 416, 1859 and 4456 (Table 1). Six of the isolates carried elements associated with the K1 capsule (KpsM K1, ibeA, neuBD). In most cases (9/14), the assemblies resulted in complete closed circular contigs for the chromosome and any plasmids present; these were those included in comparisons in Figure 3. It confirmed that the virulence genes sought were mostly chromosomally located in these examples. An exception was the 128 kb plasmid in N6 S1 40/19, which carried the aerobactin and salmochelin clusters, iss, ompT, sitA and traJ genes. In other isolates, these elements, where detected, (with the exception of *traT* and *traJ*) were chromosomally located. All the isolates carried *chuASTWXYU* (encoding haem uptake) in the chromosome in a gene cluster that was distant from the other virulence genes sought. The three representatives of ST12 from 3 different hospitals shared a similar arrangement in terms of order of genes detected by the VirulenceFinder software with all sharing a section of approximately 214 kb containing the genes sitA (coding for an iron transport protein), iss (increased serum survival), the salmochelin cluster (e.g. iroN encoding a siderophore protein), focC, sfaD (coding for S fimbriae/F1C minor subunit), mcmA, mchF, mchC, mchB (encoding microcins) and cea (coding for colicin E1) (in that order). This region also included the csgABCDEFG cluster (coding for curli fibers) and agn43 (coding for antigen 43 involved in biofilm formation). The 3 isolates shared high overall similarity with one another (with P7 NW2 18/20 having 99.5 % identity, 99 % coverage with N9_EE1_25/20 while P6_NW1_52/19 shared 99.95 % identity and 98 % coverage with it), with all carrying terC (encoding tellurium ion resistance protein), clbB (coding for hybrid non-ribosomal peptide/polypeptide megasynthase), yfcV (encoding a fimbrial protein), gad (coding for glutamate decarboxylase), ompT (encoding an outer membrane protease), vat (encoding vacuolating autotransporter toxin), usp (encoding uropathogenic specific protein), fyuA, cnf1, papA (papA F43 or papA F16), papC, hra (encoding heat-resistant agglutinin), irp2, chuA (encoding outer membrane hemin receptor), kpsE (encoding capsule polysaccharide export inner-membrane protein) with the position of fyuA and irp2 (both in the yersiniabactin siderophore cluster) relative to the other genes being the most variable. These isolates were associated with the kpsMIII K96 group 3 capsule allele. The one isolate (P6 NW1 52/19) carrying bla_{OXA-48} carried the gene in an IncL/M plasmid, as would be expected. The set included 3 representatives of ST73 from 2 different hospitals, which had completely different SNP addresses from one another (>250 SNP differences) showing that they were not epidemiologically related. These carried kpsMII_K5 (coding for polysialic acid transport

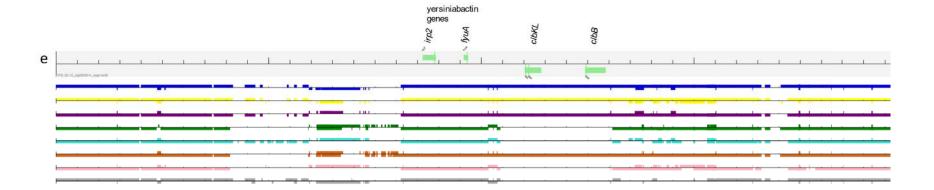
Table 1. Isolates subjected to nanopore sequencing. Each isolate was from a different patient and, with two exceptions only (hospitals NW1 and WM1), from a different hospital. Isolates were labelled by patient (P1-P29, N1-N24, where those beginning with N are from neonates), hospital (by region and number within that region) and date of isolation (week/year). Regions were EE, East of England, EM, East Midlands, WM, West Midlands, L, London, NE, North East, NW, North West, SE, South East, SW, South West, S, Scotland, W, Wales, Y&H, Yorkshire and Humber.

Isolate	ST	SNP address	O:H	Isolation	Carbapen-	Virulence genes
			type	site	emase gene	
P6_NW1_52/19	12	13.13.13.13.13.13	O4:H5	rectal screen	OXA-48	clbK, cnf1, focCDF, hylBCD, mchBC, sfaE, tcpC, malX, mcmA, papC, papG_allelelll, vat
P7_NW2_18/20	12	1.16.16.16.16.17	O4:H5	blood	none detected	clbK, cnf1, focCDF, hylBCD, mchBC, sfaE, tcpC, malX, mcmA, papC, papG_allelelli, vat
N9_EE1_25/20	12	1.17.17.17.17.18	O4:H5	faeces	none detected	cnf1, focCDF, hylBCD, mchBC, sfaE, tcpC, malX, mcmA, papC, papG_allelelll, vat
P11_NE1_45/19	127	3.9.9.9.19.20.20	O6:H31	kidney urine	OXA-48	clbK, cnf1, focCDF, hylBCD, sfaE, tcpC, malX, mcmA, papC, vat
P29_WM3_39/19	131	1.4.441.470.476.510.551	O25:H4	urine	none detected	cnf1, hylBCD, malX, papC, sat
P4_EM1_41/19	141		O50O2:H6	CSF	none detected	clbK, cnf1, focCDF, hylBCD, mchBC, neuBD, sfaE, tcpC, KpsM_K1, malX, mcmA, vat
N8_L2_07/20	1859		O99:H6	blood	none detected	cnf1, focCDF, hylBCD, ibeA, mchBC, neuBD, sfaE, KpsM_K1, malX, mcmA, pic, vat
P12_NW1_38/19	372		O83:H31	CSU	OXA-48	cnf1, focCDF, hylBCD, ibeA, mchBC, sfaE, malX, mcmA, papC, papG_allelelll, vat
	416					
N6_S1_40/19	(CC95)	6.27.28.28.28.29.53	O18ac:H7	blood	none detected	clbK, focCDF, ibeA, neuBD, sfaE, KpsM_K1, malX, vat
N10_L3_26/20	4456		O83:H4	blood culture	none detected	focCDF, ibeA, mchBC, neuBD, sfaE, KpsM_K1, malX, mcmA, papC, papG, vat
N5_WM1_04/20	73	56.70.70.71.72.73.74	O6:H1	line tip	none detected	clbK, cnf1, focCDF, hylBCD, mchBC, sfaE, tcpC, malX, mcmA, pic, sat, upaH, vat
P15_Y&H1_29/20	73	59.74.75.76.77.78.79	O6:H1	blood	none detected	clbK, cnf1, focCDF, hylBCD, mchBC, sfaE, tcpC, malX, mcmA, papC, pic, sat, upaH*, vat
				nasopharyngeal		
N12_WM1_31/20	73	61.76.77.78.79.80.83	O6:H1	aspirate	none detected	clbK, cnf1, focCDF, hylBCD, mchBC, sfaE, tcpC, malX, mcmA, pic, upaH, vat
						cblK, cnf1, focCDF, hylBCD, ibeA, mchBC, neuBD, sfaE, KpsM_K1, malX, mcmA, pic,
P1_SE1_24/20	80		O75:H7	urine	none detected	vat

- Figure 3. Examples of BLAST comparisons of chromosomal genomic regions carrying multiple virulence genes showing mosaic nature.
- a) region carrying focDFI, sfaE, cnf1, hylABCD, kpsDET, kpsM K1 and aer genes in P1 SE1 24/20 (ST80; run id RR9 BC12) compared with
- 406 those in P6_NW1_52/19 (ST12; run id RR10_BC07) shown in dark blue, N12_WM1_31/20 (ST73; run id RR14_BC03) shown in yellow,
- 407 P11_NE1_45/19 (ST127; run id RR14_BC11) shown in purple, P29_WM3_39/19 (ST131; run id RR14_BC01) shown in green,
- 408 P12_NW1_38/19 (ST372; run id RR9_BC02) shown in turquoise, N6_S1_40/19 (ST416; run id RR14_BC12) shown in brown, N8_L2_07/20
- 409 (ST1859; run id RR9_BC08) shown in pink and N10_L3_26/20 (ST4456; run id RR9_BC07) shown in grey.
- b) of the same region but comparison against that in P6_NW1_52/19 (ST12; run id RR10_BC07) carrying papCEFG, cnf1, hylABCD and fimH;
- the isolate in red is P1_SE1_24/20 (ST80; run id RR9_BC12)
- c) region carrying usp, pic, vat and ecpA in P1_SE1_24/20 (ST80; run id RR9_BC12) compared with that in the other isolates
- d) region carrying microcin genes (mchBCF, mcmA), csg and salmochelin gene clusters in P1_SE1_24/20 (ST80; run id RR9_BC12) compared
- 414 with the other isolates
- e) region carrying yersiniabactin and colibactin in P1_SE1_24/20 (ST80; run id RR9_BC12)
- Note the mosaic nature of this region carrying multiple virulence genes among the isolates.







- 422 protein; Group 2 capsule) but were otherwise highly similar in virulence gene content to the
- 423 ST12 isolates. Similarly, they carried a section carrying sitA, iss, iroN, focG, focCsfaE,
- 424 mcmA, mchF, mchC, mchB genes (in that order) followed by a section carrying ompT, vat,
- pic and usp. All also carried chuA, gad, tcpC, irp2, fyuA, clbB, yfcV, terC, hra, cnf1 and kpsE.
- The *cnf1* gene was in a cluster with the *hylABCD* genes.
- 427 Indeed, most of the isolates sequenced carried cnf1 and hylBCD, which were in a
- 428 chromosomal genomic island (Fig. 3 a and b). Although these elements were carried by
- 429 most isolates, the region was nevertheless quite mosaic in nature, with some isolates also
- carrying F1 and S fimbriae genes in this region, while others carried pap genes. Most of the
- 431 virulence genes sought (e.g. the microcin (Fig. 3d) and colibactin (Fig. 3e) genes) were
- 432 carried in such chromosomal islands, with clear differences in each region between isolates
- 433 (Fig. 3).

Discussion

- While all the virulence factors are important, many were very common or very rare among
- our set, and we have chosen to concentrate on those for which there was evidence of a
- 437 greater incidence among clinical isolates compared to that from screening isolates. Of
- 438 course, colonisation is the first step in the evolution from commensal to pathogen causing
- extraintestinal infection, so not surprisingly, these factors were by no means confined to
- 440 those from infections. In agreement with previously published work, it was clear from the
- 441 long-read sequencing that the virulence factors were largely associated with PAIs on the
- chromosome, which have been linked with the emergence of virulence [17]. It was also clear
- that some sequence types, particularly STs 12, 73, 998 and 127, were strongly associated
- 444 with multiple virulence factors, no matter whether they were from screening swabs or from
- blood or other infection sites. This was a consistent finding, not just within the study period,
- but also subsequently. Alhashash et al [25] noted an increase in incidence of representatives
- 447 of ST73 causing clinical infections, particularly bacteraemias, and showed that, whilst they
- 448 were relatively diverse, they mostly shared the same complement of virulence genes, a
- finding that was mirrored in this study. Similarly, STs 12, 80 and 998 were each associated
- 450 with a consistent set of virulence genes, despite coming from many different hospitals and
- often having clearly distinct SNP addresses (at least 100 SNPs apart); STs 80 and 998 were
- 452 notably strongly associated with the K1 capsule. It does seem that the number of virulence
- factors (VFs) is important, representing a continuum of acquisition in the evolution of the
- 454 organism from harmless commensal to one capable of causing extraintestinal infections.
- Notably, most (99/120) representatives of ST131 carried relatively few VFs (mostly *malX* or
- 456 malX, sat or malX, papC, sat among those sought), despite being considered one of the
- 457 most important ExPEC lineages, highlighting the need to be aware of less well recognised
- 458 linages. However, some representatives also carried cnf1 and hylBCD (17), or ibeA (2).

459 Worryingly, almost 9 % (53/593) of isolates in our study carried more than six virulence 460 genes/gene sets, highlighting the potential for significant numbers of carriage isolates to 461 cause extraintestinal infections. Of these, 13.6 % of isolates from neonatal screens carried 8 462 or more of the VFs sought, compared with 3.3 % of other screens. While this was in part 463 associated with outbreaks in two hospitals, it is nevertheless concerning, especially 464 considering that neonatal meningitis due to E. coli carries a high mortality (10%) and 465 morbidity (30%) rate [26]. NMEC are characterised by K1 capsular antigens or 466 the ibeA invasion gene, features particularly noted in STs 1193, 10, 998, 538, 80 and 141 in 467 this study. However, these STs were not confined to isolates from neonates. 468 This work has provided a framework in which to assess isolates for virulence amongst a 469 bewildering array of candidate genes and has highlighted types that harbour the greatest 470 number of these virulence factors. It has also shown that a significant proportion of isolates 471 carry numerous virulence factors with consequent increased potential to cause infection. 472 These virulence factors are largely found in genomic islands, mosaic integrative structures 473 that can be acquired by horizontal transfer.

Conclusions

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- cnf1 (coding for cytotoxic necrotising factor), clbK (coding for colibactin), focCDF (coding for F1 fimbriae), kpsM_K1, neuBD (associated with the K1 capsule), mchBC, mcmA (coding for microcins), papG_allelellI (part of a cluster encoding P fimbriae), pic (protein involved in intestinal colonization), sfaE/sfafoCDE (coding for S fimbriae), tcpC (encoding TLR domain containing-protein C) and vat (encoding toxin vacuolating autotransporter) were more prevalent among isolates from invasive infections than among those from carriage
- Representatives of STs 12, 73, 998 and 127 carried multiple of these virulence factors, no matter whether they were from screening swabs or from blood or other infection sites.
- Genes associated with the K1 capsule (*ibeA*, *neuBD*, *kpsM_*K1) were particularly found in STs 1193, 10, 998, 538, 80 and 141
- 9 % of isolates in our study carried more than six of these virulence genes/gene sets, highlighting the potential for significant numbers of carriage isolates to cause extraintestinal infections
- Isolates carrying multiple virulence factors were more prevalent from neonatal screens than those from general screens

 Most of the virulence factors were in chromosomal genomic islands, which are mosaic in nature

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