



Comparative Genome Analysis of an Extensively Drug-Resistant Isolate of Avian Sequence Type 167 *Escherichia coli* Strain Sanji with Novel *In Silico* Serotype O89b:H9

Xiancheng Zeng,^{a,b} Xuelin Chi,^{a,b} Brian T. Ho,^{c*} Damee Moon,^d Christine Lambert,^e Richard J. Hall,^e Primo Baybayan,^e Shihua Wang,^b Brenda A. Wilson,^d Mengfei Ho^{b,d}

^aKey Laboratory of Fujian-Taiwan Animal Pathogen Biology, College of Animal Sciences, Fujian Agriculture and Forestry University, Fuzhou, China ^bCollege of Life Sciences, Fujian Agriculture and Forestry University, Fuzhou, China

^cDepartment of Microbiology and Molecular Genetics, Harvard Medical School, Boston, Massachusetts, USA

^dDepartment of Microbiology, School of Molecular and Cellular Biology, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, Urbana, Illinois, USA ^ePacific Biosciences, Menlo Park, California, USA

ABSTRACT Extensive drug resistance (XDR) is an escalating global problem. *Esche*richia coli strain Sanji was isolated from an outbreak of pheasant colibacillosis in Fujian province, China, in 2011. This strain has XDR properties, exhibiting sensitivity to carbapenems but no other classes of known antibiotics. Whole-genome sequencing revealed a total of 32 known antibiotic resistance genes, many associated with insertion sequence 26 (IS26) elements. These were found on the Sanji chromosome and 2 of its 6 plasmids, pSJ_255 and pSJ_82. The Sanji chromosome also harbors a type 2 secretion system (T2SS), a type 3 secretion system (T3SS), a type 6 secretion system (T6SS), and several putative prophages. Sanji and other ST167 strains have a previously uncharacterized O-antigen (O89b) that is most closely related to serotype O89 as determined on the basis of analysis of the wzm-wzt genes and in silico serotyping. This O89b-antigen gene cluster was also found in the genomes of a few other pathogenic sequence type 617 (ST617) and ST10 complex strains. A time-scaled phylogeny inferred from comparative single nucleotide variant analysis indicated that development of these O89b-containing lineages emerged about 30 years ago. Comparative sequence analysis revealed that the core genome of Sanji is nearly identical to that of several recently sequenced strains of pathogenic XDR E. coli belonging to the ST167 group. Comparison of the mobile elements among the different ST167 genomes revealed that each genome carries a distinct set of multidrug resistance genes on different types of plasmids, indicating that there are multiple paths toward the emergence of XDR in E. coli.

IMPORTANCE *E. coli* strain Sanji is the first sequenced and analyzed genome of the recently emerged pathogenic XDR strains with sequence type ST167 and novel *in silico* serotype O89b:H9. Comparison of the genomes of Sanji with other ST167 strains revealed distinct sets of different plasmids, mobile IS elements, and antibiotic resistance genes in each genome, indicating that there exist multiple paths toward achieving XDR. The emergence of these pathogenic ST167 *E. coli* strains with diverse XDR capabilities highlights the difficulty of preventing or mitigating the development of XDR properties in bacteria and points to the importance of better understanding of the shared underlying virulence mechanisms and physiology of pathogenic bacteria.

KEYWORDS O-antigen, antibiotic resistance, capsular polysaccharide, extensively drug resistant, genome comparison, insertion sequence, pathogen evolution, plasmid-mediated resistance, prophage, secretion systems

Citation Zeng X, Chi X, Ho BT, Moon D, Lambert C, Hall RJ, Baybayan P, Wang S, Wilson BA, Ho M. 2019. Comparative genome analysis of an extensively drug-resistant isolate of avian sequence type 167 *Escherichia coli* strain Sanji with novel *in silico* serotype 089b:H9. mSystems 4:e00242-18. https://doi.org/10 .1128/mSystems.00242-18.

Editor Nicola Segata, University of Trento

Copyright © 2019 Zeng et al. This is an openaccess article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International license.

Address correspondence to Brenda A. Wilson, wilson7@illinois.edu, or Mengfei Ho, mho1@illinois.edu.

* Present address: Brian T. Ho, Department of Biological Sciences, Birkbeck, University of London, London, United Kingdom.

Comparative genome analysis of XDR E. coli strain Sanji with other recently emerged XDR pathogenic ST167 strains reveals novel in silico serotype O89b:H9 and multiple paths toward achieving XDR and highlights difficulty in preventing development of XDR.

Received 6 October 2018 Accepted 23 January 2019 Published 26 February 2019





The alarming increase in multidrug-resistant (MDR) and extensively drug-resistant (XDR) bacterial strains is a global health crisis (1–3). Many currently circulating intestinal pathogenic *Escherichia coli* strains, such as the well-known O157:H7 strain (4, 5), are still susceptible to antibiotics. However, the threat of pathogenic *E. coli* acquiring antibiotic resistance genes from environmental reservoirs is of escalating concern (6, 7), and more-recent O104:H4 clonal lineages have acquired not only Shiga toxin-encoding phage but also extended-spectrum- β -lactamase (ESBL) resistance (8, 9). To tackle this problem, it is important to understand not only how multiple antibiotic resistances are acquired but also how they can be accumulated within a commensal or pathogenic bacterium.

Certain traits of genomes in transition toward niche or host adaptation include an increase in mobile genetic elements that imbue the bacteria with the potential to acquire additional traits that might enhance virulence in the host (10). Mobile genetic elements, such as plasmids, bacteriophages, insertion sequence (IS) elements, and transposons, are well-established players in the acquisition of virulence traits leading to the emergence and evolution of bacterial pathogens. Despite the critical role that plasmids and other mobile genetic elements play in antibiotic resistance spread (11, 12), we still cannot predict which resistance genes or plasmids will be acquired by a bacterial pathogen to cause the next XDR superbug to emerge.

Comparative whole-genome sequence analysis of MDR/XDR strains has enabled phylogenetic studies into the evolutionary mechanisms involved in acquisition and accumulation of antibiotic resistance genes (12), including studies exploring evolutionary trade-offs between virulence and resistance (13–16); tracking the spread of resistant pathogens (17–19), or monitoring within-host evolution of pathogens (20, 21). One comparative genomics study revealed the stepwise evolutionary process by which a highly infectious clone of extraintestinal pathogenic *E. coli* (ExPEC) of sequence type 131 (ST131) gained multiple virulence and antibiotic resistance gene clusters over a period of about 60 years (22), ultimately leading to its current global dominance as an XDR pathogen (23). A similar pattern of sequential emergence of increasing virulence potential and antibiotic resistances over a period of 30 years has been documented for another pathogenic *E. coli* clonal group, ST393 (24).

We report the comparative genome characterization of pathogenic *E. coli* strain Sanji, which was isolated from pheasants during a 2011 outbreak of colibacillosis and was refractory to clinical application of commonly used veterinary antibiotics. Antibiotic susceptibility testing confirmed that the isolate was XDR. Whole-genome sequencing of the bacterial genome, including its six plasmids, and comparative multilocus sequence typing (MLST) revealed that the core genome of Sanji is nearly identical to the genomes of a number of recently sequenced pathogenic XDR *E. coli* strains belonging to sequence type ST167. *In silico* serotyping revealed that Sanji, like other ST167 strains, has a unique capsular polysaccharide gene cluster and a previously unidentified *in silico* serotype, O89b. The presence of numerous antibiotic resistance gene clusters and IS26 elements accounts for the observed XDR phenotype. Comparison of Sanji to other members of the ST167 lineage further revealed the extent and diversity of the paths used by these bacteria to achieve XDR. This group of ST167 strains represents another emerging pathogenic clonal lineage with XDR.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Antibiotic susceptibility profile of *E. coli* Sanji. The antibiotic susceptibility profile of *E. coli* Sanji was compared directly to that of two reference strains: *E. coli* ATCC 25922, a standard strain used by the CLSI, and *E. coli* MG1655, a prototype K-12 strain chosen for its genetic similarity to *E. coli* Sanji. As shown in Fig. 1, Sanji has resistance to most antibiotics, exhibiting sensitivity only to carbapenem (meropenem) and partial sensitivity to a few others (e.g., amikacin, spectinomycin, furazolidone, and nitrofurantoin). Sanji also exhibits resistance to a β -lactam combination with β -lactamase inhibitor (piperacillin-tazobactam). All three *E. coli* strains, Sanji, MG1655, and ATCC 25922, displayed apparent resistance in the Kirby-Bauer assay to polymyxin B, even though





🗆 E coli ATCC25922 🛛 E coli MG1655 🛛 E coli Sanji

FIG 1 Antibiotic susceptibility profiles for *E. coli* strains Sanji, MG1655, and ATCC 25922. Shown are the mean zones of inhibition (in millimeters) recorded for Kirby-Bauer disc diffusion assays (6.5-mm to 7.0-mm disc diameter) for the indicated antibiotics. Open bars, *E. coli* ATCC 25922; hatched bars, *E. coli* MG1655; black bars, *E. coli* Sanji. Error bars represent means \pm standard deviations of results from three independent experiments. Direct comparison of Sanji with ATCC 25922 and MG1655 showed little or no susceptibility of Sanji to most of the antibiotics listed (black bars), as evidenced by the lack of a zone of inhibition beyond the disk diameter. Note that Sanji and MG1655 were found to be susceptible to polymyxin B and colistin by the broth microdilution method.

they do not possess the *mcr-1* gene. Sanji does possess a phosphoethanolamine transferase (*eptA*) gene with homology to all *mcr* genes, notably, 41% identity with *mcr-3* and 43% identity with *mcr-8*. However, this *eptA* gene is also present in MG1655 and many other *E. coli* strains. When tested against polymyxin B and colistin using the





FIG 2 Antibiotic resistance gene clusters in *E. coli* Sanji. (A) An 8.9-kb resistance gene cluster was found in the 69.2-kb insertion on the chromosome. (B) *blaCTX-M14* gene plus flanking genes found on plasmid pSJ_82. (C) An 80-kb resistance gene cluster was found on plasmid pSJ_255. In panels A to C, known antibiotic resistance genes are indicated in cyan; IS26 elements in magenta; IS4 elements in pale blue; IS1006 elements in pink; transposase genes in green; and other genes in maroon. The asterisk denotes a gene with a GNAT domain that overlaps a transposase gene.

broth microdilution method, the observed MICs for Sanji (0.3 μ g/ml each for colistin and polymyxin B) were only 2-fold higher than that of MG1655 and not 10-fold to 100-fold higher (MIC of 3 to 32 μ g/ml) such as would be expected for *mcr-1*-mediated resistance (25).

Antibiotic resistance genes in E. coli Sanji. PacBio whole-genome sequencing revealed that Sanji consists of a 4.9-Mb chromosome and 6 plasmids: pSJ_255 (255.4kb), pSJ_98 (98.4-kb), pSJ_94 (94.7-kb), pSJ_82 (82.3-kb), pSJ_3 (3.4-kb), and pSJ_2 (2.6-kb). Sanji has all of the known drug efflux pump genes belonging to all five classes of drug transporters found in MG1655 (26). The Sanji chromosome harbors an 8.9-kb cluster of genes associated with known drug resistance to sulfonamides (sul2), aminoglycosides (strAB), tetracycline (tetRA), and chloramphenicol (floR) (Fig. 2A). In addition to this locus, we identified a total of 32 distinct antibiotic resistance genes in Sanji within identifiable mobile elements (Table 1), including 6 genes within the chromosome, 1 gene on plasmid pSJ_82, and 27 genes on the large plasmid, pSJ_255, with two of the genes appearing in both the chromosome and a plasmid. The resistance gene identified on pSJ_82 encodes a class A extended-spectrum β-lactamase (ESBL), blaCTX-M-14 (Fig. 2B). CTX-M ESBLs have been implicated in resistance to third-generation β -lactams in multiple Enterobacteriaceae species (27). All 27 of the antibiotic resistance genes on pSJ_255 were localized to an 80-kb region (Fig. 2C). The genes carried on pSJ_255 included those conferring resistance to β -lactams (*blaOXA-1*), tetracyclines (tetM), aminoglycosides [aac(6')-lb, aac(3)-lVa, aac(4)-la, aadA2, aadA1, aph(3')-la, aph(4)-la, and aac(3)], chloramphenicol (catB3, floR, and cmlA1), rifampin (arr), guaternary ammonium compounds ($qacE\delta1$ and qacI), sulfonamides (sul1, sul2, and sul3), and macrolides (mphA, mrx, mphR, and glmM), as well as a known RND multidrug efflux pump (oqxABR).

	Result fo	or E. coli str	ain:												
Parameter	Sanji	ECONIH6	AR_0011	AR_0014	AR_0149	AR_0150	AR_0151	AR_0162	WCHEC005237	FDAARGOS_434	CRE1493	CREC-532	CREC-629	Υ5	SCEC020007
No. of plasmids	9	2		2	2	۳ ۲	2	4	8	-	5	m	m	6	
Total no. of AR genes ^b	32 (34)	21 (22)	12 (13)	00	e	14	4	15	21 (28)	15 (24)	30 (36)	19 (25)	19 (23)	25 (43)	16 (24)
Chromosome-carried AR genes	. 9	0	-	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	. 9	. 9	12 (20)	
Plasmid-carried AR genes	28	(22) 12	12 (13)	00	ſ	14	4	15	21 (28)	15 (24)	30 (36)	17 (19)	17	21 (23)	16 (24)
No. of IS26 elements on plasmids	12	í œ	6	9) -		·	6	10	2 C	12	10	. 00	10	
No. of AR genes near 1526 ^c	24	16	12	0 00	. 0	12	. 2	13		24	25	15	0 00	21	22
Presence of gene:															
aac(3)-lla	z	z	≻	7	z	z	z	z	z	z	×	z	z	z	7
aac(3)-IId	Z	Z	z	Z	Z	z	z	z	Z	Z	~	7	~	~	7
aac(3)-IVa	~	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	Z	Z	Z	Z	7
aac(2) * d	- >	: 2	: z	: 2	: 2	: 2	: 2	: z	: 2	: 2	: 2	: 2	: 2	: z	
	- >	2 2	2 >	2 >	2 2	2 2	2 2	2 2		2 2	2 >	2 2	2 2	2 >	
aaclo JID-cr	≻ ;	z	× :	× :	z	z	z:	z	۲ ۲	z	- :	z:	z	- ;	7
aadAl	7	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	7
aadA2	~	~	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	Y	~	z	z	z	7
aadA5	z	z	z	z	z	≻	z	z	z	Y	≻	7	×	~	
aadA16	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	×	z	z	z	z	z	
aph(4)-la	7	Z	z	Z	Z	z	z	z	Z	Z	z	Z	z	z	7
aph(2,)-10	- >	: 2	z	: 2	: 2	: 2	: 2	z	: 2	: 2	: 2	: 2	: 2	: >	
	- >	2 2	2 2	2 2	2 2	2 2	2 2	2 2	~ >	2 2	2 2	2 2	2 2	- >	
drr-3	- 2	z	zz	z	z >	z >	z;	z	× 4	z	zz	z	z	≻ >	7 7
blacMY-42	z	z	z	Z	~	×	Y	z	z	z	z	z	z	~	~
blaCTX-M-14	~	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	7	×	~	7
blaCTX-M-15	z	≻	≻	≻	z	z	z	≻	z	Y	≻	z	z	≻	7
blaCTX-M-55	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	Y	z	z	×	×	z	7
blaNDM-5	Z	~	z	z	z	~	~	z	~	~	~	Z	z	z	
hlanDM-7	z	· Z	z	z	: >	· Z	. Z	: >	. Z	. Z	· Z	: >	: >	: >	. 7
	2 >	2 >	2 >	2 >	- 2	2 2	2 2	- 2	2 2	2 2	2 >	- 2	- 2	- >	
	- 2	- 2	- 2	- 2	zī	zz	zz	z	z	z	- >	z	z	- 2	
DIGIENI-IA	z	z	z	z	z	Z ;	z;	z;	z;	z	- :	z;	z;	z	7 .
blaTEM-1B	z	z	z	z	z	~	~	~	~	z	z	~	~	z	
ble	z	~	z	z	~	~	≻	≻	~	~	~	~	~	~	~
catB3	≻	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	7
cmIA1	~	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	7
dfrA12	z	×	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	Y	×	z	z	z	
dfrA14	z	×	z	z	z	z	z	z	٢	z	z	z	z	z	7
dfrA17	z	z	z	z	z	×	z	z	z	Y	~	×	7	~	
dfrA27	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	Y	z	z	z	z	×	7
eamA	Z	~	~	~	z	~	z	~	~	~	~	Z	z	~	
erm(B)	Z	~	z	z	z	Z	z	~	Z	z	z	~	~	z	7
estX	~	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	7
flog 2	~ ~	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	. >	z	: >	z	z	: >	7
focA 14	. Z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	• >	z	·Z	z	z	. z	. 7
ntmM	: >	: 2	: >	: z	: 2	: z	zz	zz	- 2	zz	zz	zz	zz	: z	
guine mcr-1	- z	zz	- z	zz	zz	zz	zz	zz	2 Z	: z	: >	zz	zz	zz	
mnh(A)	2 >	2 >	zz	zz	zz	2 >	zz	< >	2 2	- >	- >	2 >	2 >	= >	
(N)//d///	- >	- >	zz	2 2	2 2	- >	zz	- >	2 2	- >	- >	- >	- >	- >	_ `
	- >	- >	2 2	2 2	2 2	- >	2 2	- >	2 2	- >	- >	- >	- >	- >	_ `
	- 2	- 2	zz	z	zz	- 2	zz	- 4	zz		- >	- 4	- 2	- 2	
nimc/nimA	Z ;	z	z	z	z	z	z:	z	z	z	≻ ;	z:	z	z:	7
oqxA	- :	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	× :	z	z	z	~
odxB	≻ ;	z:	z:	z:	z:	z :	z:	z:	z:	Z	- ;	z:	z:	z:	7
oqxR	≻ ;	z	z	z	z	z:	zï	z	zï	Z	- :	Z	zï	zï	7
bsb	~	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	7
													(Co	ntinued o	n next page)



	Result	for E. coli stra	ain:												
Parameter	Sanji	ECONIH6	AR_0011	AR_0014	AR_0149	AR_0150	AR_0151	AR_0162	WCHEC005237	FDAARGOS_434	CRE1493	CREC-532	CREC-629	Y5	SCEC020007
qacEd1	~	~	z	z	z	~	z	z	~	~	~	~	~	~	×
gacl	≻	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	Z	z	z	z	z	z
gnrS1	z	~	z	z	z	z	z	~	Y	Z	z	z	z	z	z
rmtB	z	≻	z	z	z	z	z	z	×	Z	z	z	z	z	~
strA	≻	7	7	z	z	z	z	7	×	Z	×	z	z	≻	z
strB	≻	7	7	z	z	z	z	7	Y	Z	7	z	z	≻	z
sul1	≻	≻	z	z	z	7	z	z	×	×	×	~	~	≻	~
sul2	≻	7	7	z	z	z	z	7	×	Z	×	z	z	≻	z
sul3	≻	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	Z	z	z	z	z	z
tet(A)	≻	≻	7	~	z	7	z	7	×	×	×	z	z	≻	~
tet(B)	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	Z	z	~	~	z	z
tetC	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	Z	z	7	7	z	z
tetD	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	Z	z	×	~	z	z
tet(M)	≻	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	Z	z	z	z	z	z
tetR	≻	~	~	~	z	~	z	~	Y	×	~	z	z	≻	~
tetR(B)	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	Z	z	~	~	z	z
tmrB	z	z	×	7	z	z	z	z	z	z	7	7	7	z	z
aY, yes (pres	ent); N, no	o (not present,													

^bAR genes, antibiotic resistance genes, including resistance genes carried on both plasmids and chromosomes and their associated transcriptional regulators. Multiple copies of the same genes were counted only once each. Numbers in parentheses represent all copies of genes. ^cNo. of AR genes near 1526, number of antibiotic resistance genes, including multiple copies of same gene, in a cluster within 20 kb of an 1526 element. Antibiotic genes found within 10 kb of each other were considered to be part of the same gene cluster. ^dA gene with a GNAT domain and overlapping with a transposase.



TABLE 1 (Continued)



Comparative genome sequence analysis of the Sanji chromosome. At the time of Sanji genome completion, the closest genome available was that of prototypic *E. coli* K-12 strain MG1655. Genome alignment of Sanji chromosome to MG1655 revealed that 77% of the open reading frames in Sanji are shared with MG1655. A synteny plot generated based on the genome alignment between Sanji and MG1655 showed high collinearity with 10 major insertions (Fig. 3A). Since then, many additional genomes within the K-12 clade showing close relationships with Sanji have become available. Comparison of Sanji with two closely related strains, WCHEC005237 and CRE1493, revealed even greater collinearity (Fig. 3B).

Multilocus sequence typing (MLST) analysis using seven housekeeping genes (*purA*, *adk*, *icd*, *fumC*, *recA*, *mdh*, and *gyrB*) (28) classified Sanji into the sequence type ST167 group. Genome BLAST searches, using the unique insertions identified in comparisons with MG1655 as the query, revealed additional genomes that share some of these unique features, including strains with sequence types ST10, ST167, and ST617. An MLST-based phylogenetic tree of these strains revealed that these sequence types are indeed related to each other and fall within the K-12 clade (Fig. S1). Comparative genome sequence analysis of the entire chromosome of Sanji with the other 14 ST167 strains (Fig. 4) further revealed that the ST167 genomes are highly similar beyond the seven genes used for MLST. Some of these strains contain up to 12 distinct resistance genes on the chromosome (see Table 1).

In comparison to MG1655, four of the chromosomal insertions in Sanji appear to be prophages (see Fig. 3A). Three insertions also found in other ST167 strains harbor specialized secretion systems (SS), namely, a 19.8-kb insertion containing a type 3 secretion system (T3SS), a 30.6-kb insertion containing a T6SS, and a 75.1-kb insertion containing a T2SS, although in some strains this insertion is truncated. Each of these insertions contains additional uncharacterized genes.

A 17.5-kb insertion containing an O-antigen biosynthesis cluster, flanked by a pair of insertion sequence 26 (IS26) elements, is shared with other ST167 strains, suggesting horizontal acquisition. Initial immunoserotyping analysis of the O-antigen gave positive results for type O6 but was unable to determine the H-type. PCR analysis failed to confirm the O6 serotype but gave positive results for H9 antigen. In silico serotyping based on the whole-genome sequence assigned the Sanji strain as serotype H9 based on the presence of the fliC gene sequence (98.9%). For the O-antigen, the closest match was related to serotype O89, based on the presence of wzm (94.1%) and wzt (93.5%). This newly determined 17.5-kb O-antigen gene cluster (\geq 99% sequence identity) was found to be present in all ST167 and ST617 strains examined, as well as in some strains within the ST10 clonal complex, including ST744, ST44, ST4981, ST1284, and ST10 (Fig. S1) (Table S1). We propose to designate this in silico serotype "O89b." A few of the O89b-containing strains have additional genes encoding other O-antigen types, including O9 (based on genes wzm and wzt) or O8 (based on a truncated wzt gene). With the exception of a few strains, all of the ST167, ST617, and ST10 complex strains examined are predominantly H9 or H10 (Table S1).

Maximum likelihood phylogenetic analysis of these O89b-containing strains was performed using MEGA7 for 6,890 core single nucleotide variants (SNV) across 39 Sanji-related genomes plus 19 ST167 assemblies and MG1655 (Fig. S2). Here, Sanji clustered with the early isolates of ST167, while later ST167 isolates showed more diversity. The ST617 isolates examined were less tightly clustered. The ST744, ST44, and ST10 isolates were more distant than the ST167 and ST617 groups. Using the same core SNV data set, the molecular evolution of these O89b-containing strains was also determined by a time-scaled Bayesian phylogenetic analysis in BEAST2 (29). From this analysis, it was estimated that development of these O89b-containing lineages took place about 30 years ago (Fig. 5). However, there is no clear geographical location associated with this emergence since members of this group appear to be dispersed globally. There also has been no clear time-dependent shifting of these lineages,





FIG 3 Synteny between the genomes of Sanji and related *E. coli* strains. (A) A pairwise genome comparison plot showing collinearity of genes between Sanji and MG1655. The 10 major insertions in the Sanji genome are labeled. The location of the capsular polysaccharide biosynthesis gene cluster in the Sanji corresponds to that of a lipopolysaccharide biosynthesis gene cluster in MG1655. All other insertions in MG1655 appear to be prophage-related genes. (B) A synteny plot comparing Sanji with two of the ST167 strains, CRE1493 and WCHEC005237. The 69.2-kb insertion is present only in Sanji, while the 30.3-kb insertion conferring yersiniabactin biosynthesis is present only in CRE1493. Each of the strains also has a few unique prophage insertions. The red and blue bands represent the forward and reverse matches, respectively.





FIG 4 Comparisons of ST167 chromosomes. Shown is a BRIG circular genome plot for BLASTN comparisons of Sanji and 14 other ST167 strains. The reference sequence was a composite generated by inserting DNA segments into the Sanji chromosome that were absent from Sanji. Selected gene clusters involved in antibiotic resistance, O-antigen biosynthesis, capsular polysaccharide biosynthesis, and virulence are labeled.

though it appears that ST167 and ST617 are the dominant O89b-containing strains. ST617 strains are also known to carry many antibiotic resistance genes (30–33).

A 32.7-kb insertion in Sanji contains a capsular polysaccharide biosynthesis (*cps*) gene cluster at a location that corresponds to a lipopolysaccharide biosynthesis gene cluster in MG1655. This *cps* gene cluster, flanked by IS elements, is also present in *E. coli* strains 127 and WCHEC005237 and has sequence homology with several K30 *Klebsiella pneumoniae* strains (28) but is truncated in several other ST167 strains (see Fig. 4).

A 69.2-kb insertion, unique to Sanji among the ST167 strains, contains the 8.9-kb antibiotic resistance gene cluster (see Fig. 2A), a raffinose utilization operon (*rafRABDY*), two toxin-antitoxin systems (*relE/parE* and *yeeV/yeeU*), and a number of unidentified genes. This insertion was also found in the chromosome of six other non-ST167 *E. coli* genomes (strains HB-Coli0, CRE1540, H8, MRY15-117, 14EC017, and WCHEC4533) (Table S2).

In addition to these major insertions, there are smaller insertions containing metabolic and nutrient acquisition genes, such as a 5.5-kb sucrose utilization operon (*cscBKAR*) shared with other ST167 strains. There were no other obvious toxins or other unique virulence factors that distinguished Sanji from the other ST167 strains. However, Sanji did exhibit *in vitro* growth inhibition against a laboratory strain of *E. coli* TOP10 expressing green fluorescence protein (GFP) (Fig. S3).

Comparative sequence analysis of the Sanji plasmids. For most ST167 genomes, including Sanji, the majority of their antibiotic resistance genes were located on various





FIG 5 Time-scaled phylogeny of O89b-containing *E. coli* strains. Molecular phylogeny based on the HKY85 model was calculated using a BEAST2 MultiTypeTree module of 6,890 core SNVs from 39 Sanji-related complete genomes plus 19 ST167 assemblies isolated between 1999 and 2010, as well as MG1655. The tree shown was generated by using R package ggtree, with associated 7-gene MLST, isolation region, source, and *in silico* O-antigen and H-antigen serotypes indicated.

plasmids (Table 1). Interestingly, all of the strains carried distinct sets of plasmids with different backbones and sizes (Table 2). The IncHI2 plasmid, pSJ_255, is unique to Sanji among ST167 strains and carries 27 of the 32 distinct antibiotic resistance genes found in Sanji (Fig. 2C). This plasmid belongs to a family of plasmids whose prototypical member is *Serratia marcescens* plasmid R478 (34) (Fig. 6). This family of plasmids contains the *ter* gene cluster, which has been shown to confer resistance to tellurite, some bacteriophages, and pore-forming colicins (35, 36). MDR plasmids in this family differ in the number of antibiotic resistance genes (Table S3). For example, R478 and a few others carry 4 to 8 antibiotic resistance genes, while others, including pSJ_255, carry 23 to 30. Additionally, each of these plasmids carries a different but overlapping set of antibiotic resistance genes.

One explanation for this high variability in the number and types of antibiotic resistance genes in SJ_255 is the presence of several IS26 elements (Fig. 2C). IS26 elements are known to facilitate the horizontal movement and accumulation of antibiotic resistance genes at a relatively high frequency (37, 38). Although pSJ_255 does

TABLE 2 Plasmid	MLST type	es associated	a with ST1	67 E. coli s	strains										
	Value(s) foi	E. coli strain:													
Parameter	Sanji	ECONIH6	AR_0011	AR_0014	AR_0149	AR_0150	AR_0151	AR_0162	WCHEC005237	FDAARGOS_434	CRE1493	CREC-532	CREC-629	Y5	SCEC020007
No. of plasmids (PubMLST)	9	2	m	2	2	m	2	4	8	F	Ω	m	m	m	2
Plasmid size (bp) ^a FIA_4; FIA_20; EIII 26	94,712 (0)					117,703 (10)				149,485 (24)	127,772 (15)			124,378 (13)	144,225 (24)
FIA_1; FIA_6; FII_22; FII_36												216,181 (17)	176,274 (15)		
FIA_4; FIA_20; FIB_1; FII_31; FII_36			181,430 (8	(8) 886,271 (
FIB_24 FIL 2	(U) 88C C8	100 080 (12)						(2) 000 (2)			73,992 (18)				
FIL_33	(0) 007'70	(21) 606,001						(r) 676'40	70,691 (2)						
FII_47 HCM1_178ac_2				33.548 (0)					100,229 (12)						
IncHI1															
IncHI2 DLST ST 3 smr0018 IncHI2	255,368 (27 2.640 (0)	-													
ardA_4; repl1_1; trbA_15; lncl1														61,695 (2)	
ardA_4; repl1_3; trhA_15: hcl1						50,235 (2)	50,228 (2)								
ardA_5; repl1_4; +rhA_15; loc1					48,528 (1)										
ardA_19 Incl1															84,952 (0)
ardA_24 Incl1									6,200 (3)						
trbA_43 Incl1 renN_6 IncN			57,991 (0) 76.680 (4)												
IncA/C ST 3														136,243 (8)	
A009_11 IncA/C								23,332 (0)			33,858 (1)				
A15/: 6 IncA/C A165_4 IncA/C	98,436 (1)	97,800 (10)						(8) 068,66			96,986 (0)	96,987 (0)	6,990 (0)		
A165_6 IncA/C A175_5 IncA/C	3,373 (0)					46.159 (2)	46.161 (2)	49828 (2)	3,684 (0) 46.161 (2)		46145 (2)				
parB_9 IncA/C					46,161 (2)	Î.						46137 (2)	46,161 (2)		
repA_4 IncA/C									121,908 (9)						
None ^b									2,959 (0)						
None									2,444 (0)						
No. of chromosome- borne resistance genes	9	0	-	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	Q	200	0
^a Numbers indicate pl	asmid sizes	(bp). Numbers	of resistance	e genes, inclu	uding replicat	tes and assoc	iated transcr	iptional reg	ulators, are shov	wn in parenthese:					

Ð л Л

"Numbers indicate plasmid sizes (bp). Numbe bNone, no match in PubMLST database. "Value includes 3 copies of a 4-gene cluster.

January/February 2019 Volume 4 Issue 1 e00242-18

mSystems^{*}





FIG 6 Comparisons of plasmids related to pSJ_255. Shown is a BRIG circular plot for BLASTN comparisons of pSJ_255 and related plasmids. The reference sequence is a composite generated by inserting sequences into the pSJ_255 sequence that were absent from pSJ_255. Each ring corresponds to a different plasmid, as follows from inner to outer ring: pSJ_255 represents plasmid pSJ_255 from *E. coli* Sanji; pHS13-1 represents plasmid pHS13-1 from *E. coli* HS13-1; WCHEC025943 represents plasmid pMCR1_025943 from *E. coli* WCHEC025943; pXGE1mcr represents plasmid pXGE1mcr from *E. coli* XG-E1; pHNSHP45-2 represents plasmid pHNSHP45-2 from *E. coli* SHP45; pHXY0908 represents plasmid pHXY0908 from *Salmonella enterica* serovar Typhimurium strain GDS147; pEC5207 represents plasmid pEC5207 from *E. coli* EC5207; pAPEC-O1-R represents plasmid pAPEC-O1; pSH111_227 represents plasmid pK28 from *Salmonella* Heidelberg; R478 represents plasmid R478 from *Serratia marcescens*; and WCHEC050613 represents plasmid pMCR_WCHEC050613 from *E. coli* WCHEC050613. All identifiable antibiotic resistance genes are labeled in red on the outer ring.

not carry genes with resistance to the current "antibiotics of last resort" (e.g., *blaNDM* or *blaKPC*, conferring resistance to carbapenems, or *mcr-1*, conferring hyperresistance to colistin), several plasmids in the IncHI2 family have acquired the *mcr-1* gene (Fig. 6; see also Table S3). Moreover, a recent report identified an IncHI2 plasmid that carries both *blaNDM-4* and *mcr-1* (39).

Sanji plasmid pSJ_82 belongs to the IncFII family of plasmids, which includes prototypical member pHK01 (40). Members of this family carry the ESBL-encoding *blaCTX-M-14* gene (41). Sanji, ECONIH6, and AR_0162 all have a plasmid with an FII_2 backbone (SJ_82, tig00008015, and pNDM-d2e9, respectively), carrying 0, 12, and 5 distinct antibiotic resistance genes, respectively (Fig. S4). Sanji plasmid pSJ_94 carries both IncFIA and IncFII replicons but no identifiable antibiotic resistance genes (Fig. S5). However, it does contain an IS26 element. In fact, close relatives of both pSJ_94 and pSJ_82 carry IS26 elements and a large number of associated antibiotic resistance genes (see Fig. S4 and S5).

Among the ST167 strains analyzed, the majority of their antibiotic resistance genes are associated with IS26 elements (see Table 1). Sanji pSJ_255 carries 24 IS26-associated antibiotic resistance genes. ST167 strain FDAARGOS_434 carries a plasmid related to pSJ_94 with 24 IS26-associated resistance genes, and strain ECONIH6 carries a plasmid



related to pSJ_82 that has 12 IS26-associated resistance genes. In Sanji, the ESBL encoded by *blaCTX-M-14* appears to be mobilized by ISEcp1 and is not associated with IS26 elements. However, there has been a report of a *blaCTX-M-14_ISEcp1* gene cluster that inserted into an IS26 element in a strain of *Proteus* (42), while there have been multiple reports of the *blaCTX-M-15* gene being associated with IS26 elements in *E. coli* (43, 44). Several of the ST167 strain plasmids also contained Tn3-mediated insertions of the *blaCTX-M-15* gene into IS26 elements (Fig. S5). The existence of these related plasmids containing IS26 elements suggests that pSJ_94 and pSJ_82 in Sanji have the potential to also accumulate multiple antibiotic resistance genes in a manner similar to that observed for pSJ_255.

Sanji plasmid pSJ_98 appears to be a P1-like enterobacteriophage. Closely related plasmids can be found in many bacteria, including some ST167 strains, CRE1493, CREC-532, and CREC-629 (Fig. S7). In rare cases, these plasmids can carry an antibiotic resistance gene, but there is no evidence for accumulation of multiple resistance gene clusters such as was observed with the other large Sanji plasmids.

Multiple paths to achieve XDR. ESBL-producing MDR and XDR *E. coli* isolates with sequence types ST167 and ST617 and others in the ST10 clonal complex have emerged over the past 5 years as common isolates from nosocomial sources as well as wild animal and domestic animal sources, including dairy and livestock sources, in Germany (45–47), Taiwan (48, 49), Tunisia (50, 51), and the Americas (52). Indeed, ST167 strains carrying carbapenemase activity have become the second most prevalent sequence type, behind only ExPEC ST131, among human clinical ESBL-producing *E. coli* isolates reported in China (27, 53–62), Spain (63, 64), France (65), India (66), Italy (67), Iran (68), Romania (69), and Tunisia (50).

Because IS26 elements can be readily exchanged between different DNA molecules (transposons, phages, conjugated plasmids, transformed DNA chromosomes, etc.), bacteria that can acquire multiple IS26-containing plasmids can facilitate the generation of expanded gene clusters with multiple antibiotic resistance genes. This process is accelerated under conditions conducive to the coalescence of diverse bacterial strains that are also amenable to horizontal gene transfer. The animal gut has been shown to be particularly conducive to high rates of conjugal transfer between bacteria under conditions of inflammation or disease (70–72). These disease conditions frequently coincide with administration of antibiotics, creating a strong selective pressure for accumulation of genes that confer antibiotic resistance.

The observed diversity in the number and type of antibiotic resistance genes and the diverse mechanisms for their spreading among Sanji and related O89b-containing *E. coli* strains indicate that acquisition of XDR properties can occur through multiple evolutionary paths. One implication of this observation is that targeted elimination of any existing XDR strain is unlikely to prevent the emergence of new strains with similar XDR properties. A second implication is that even the best antibiotic stewardship is unlikely to be sufficient to prevent or mitigate the development of XDR pathogens. These potential consequences underscore the urgency of the quest for better understanding the shared physiology and virulence mechanisms of pathogenic bacteria, such as the group identified here with O89b-antigens.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Isolation and serotyping of *E. coli* **strain Sanji**. *E. coli* **s**train Sanji was isolated from the duodenum of a pheasant during a 2011 outbreak of fowl colibacillosis on a farm in Fujian province, China, that had about 400 pheasants. Symptoms included drooping, anorexia, diarrhea, soft feet, and inability to flutter or fly. The disease was refractory to common veterinary antibiotics, including amikacin, which was administered after drug sensitivity testing during the second week of the outbreak. Within 1 month, all of the pheasants became severely ill and died or had to be culled. Serotyping of *E. coli* **Sanji**, which formed mucoid colonies on LB agar plates, was performed by the Tianjin Biochip Corporation.

Antibiotic susceptibility profiling of *E. coli* strain Sanji. Antibiotic susceptibility testing was performed using the Kirby-Bauer disk diffusion method with test discs (6.5-mm to 7.0-mm diameter), according to Clinical & Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI) M100 guidelines (https://clsi.org). Antibiotic susceptibility to colistin (Arcos) and polymyxin B (Sigma) was assayed using the broth microdilution method, according to EUCAST guidelines (www.eucast.org). Reference *E. coli* strain ATCC 25922 and



Kirby-Bauer test discs were obtained from Hangzhou Tianhe Microorganism Reagent Co., and reference *E. coli* strain MG1655 was obtained from Miao Ling Bio (Wuhan, China).

Genome sequencing, assembly, and annotation of the E. coli Sanji genome. Total genomic DNA was prepared using a Qiagen Genomic-tip kit, according to the manufacturer's protocol. Illumina sequencing was performed at the Beijing Genomics Institute (BGI; Shenzhen, People's Republic of China) using a HiSeg 2000 platform with insertions of 484 bp and 6,354 bp. Assembly of the 815 Mb of 90-bp read-length paired-end sequencing data generated from the Illumina platform was unable to close the genome, so we applied a PacBio SMRT sequencing and de novo assembly platform. For PacBio sequencing, library construction, sequencing, assembly, and annotation were performed by Pacific Biosciences (Menlo Park, CA), using a PacBio RS II system. Totals of 518,559,882 and 306,969,330 postfilter bases from the size-selected and non-size-selected libraries were obtained with mean subread lengths of 6,292 and 1,590, respectively. The size-selected library assay was performed using a BluePippin system (SageScience) to remove shorter DNA insertions with a size cutoff of \leq 15 kb. The non-size-selected library was also included to capture and sequence the smaller 3.4-kb and 2.6-kb plasmids. A total of 839,222,725 bases were assembled using the HGAP (v. 2.3) long-read assembler (73) into 15 polished contigs (maximum contig length of 4,926,777) with mean coverage of 135×. The resulting genomes of the single circular chromosome (4,891,769 bp) and six circular plasmids (255,368 bp, 98,436 bp, 94,712 bp, 82,288 bp, 3,373 bp, and 2,640 bp) were annotated using the best-placed reference protein set (GeneMarkS+) in the NCBI Prokaryotic Genome Annotation Pipeline (ver. 3.3).

In silico serotyping, antibiotic resistance gene profiling, and IS element analysis of *E. coli* strain Sanji. Sequence-based bacterial serotyping was performed using SerotypeFinder (ver. 1.1) at https://cge.cbs.dtu.dk/services/SerotypeFinder/ (74). Antibiotic resistance genes were identified using blastn against a database generated from the Resfams database at www.dantaslab.org/resfams (75), the ResFinder database at www.genomicepidemiology.org (76), and information obtained from the review published previously by Roberts et al. (77). A shell script was used to extract the list of antibiotic resistance gene clusters from the blastn output. Insertion sequence (IS) elements were identified using ISfinder at http://www-is.biotoul.fr (78).

Comparative genome sequence analysis. Genome sequences of E. coli ST167 strains (ECONIH6 [GenBank accession no. CP026199.1], AR_0150 [GenBank accession no. CP021736.1], AR_0151 [GenBank accession no. CP021691.1], AR_0149 [GenBank accession no. CP021532.1], WCHEC005237 [GenBank accession no. CP026580.2], FDAARGOS_434 [GenBank accession no. CP023870.1], CRE1493 [GenBank accession no. CP019071.1], AR_0014 [GenBank accession no. CP024859.1], AR_0011 [GenBank accession no. CP024855.1], AR_0162 [GenBank accession no. CP021683.1], CREC-532 [GenBank accession no. CP024830.1], CREC-629 [GenBank accession no. CP024815.1], Y5 [GenBank accession no. CP013483.1], SCEC020007 [GenBank accession no. CP025627.1], 51008369SK1 [GenBank accession no. CP029973.1], AR435 [GenBank accession no. CP029115.1], M217 [GenBank accession no. AP019189.1), ST617 strains (AR_0114 [GenBank accession no. CP021732.1], MRSN346355 [GenBank accession no. CP018121.1], MRSN346638 [GenBank accession no. CP018115.1], MRSN346595 [GenBank accession no. CP018109.1], MRSN352231 [GenBank accession no. CP018103.1], 5CRE51 [GenBank accession no. CP021175.1], SCEC020023 [GenBank accession no. CP025950.3], H8 [GenBank accession no. CP010172.1], WCHEC005784 [GenBank accession no. CP028578.2], 675SK2 [GenBank accession no. CP027701.1), ST10 strains (1283 [GenBank accession no. CP023371.1], Ecol_422 [GenBank accession no. CP018962.1], 6409 [GenBank accession no. CP010371.1], DA33133 [GenBank accession no. CP029574.1], 26561 [GenBank accession no. CP027118.1), ST744 strains (1223 [GenBank accession no. CP023383.1], EC590 [GenBank accession no. CP016182.2], W5-6 [GenBank accession no. CP032992.1), and other strains (Ecol_AZ155 [GenBank accession no. CP019005.1], CH611_eco [GenBank accession no. CP017980.1], AR_0137 [Gen-Bank accession no. CP021879.1], MG1655 [GenBank accession no. U00096.3), including their plasmids, were used for comparative genome sequence analysis. Multilocus sequence typing (MLST) of the Sanji strain and comparison with sequences of other related E. coli strains were based on the use of Achtman's seven housekeeping genes for E. coli (purA, adk, icd, fumC, recA, mdh, and gyrB) (28) and performed using a shell script based on the Enterobase database at https://enterobase.warwick.ac.uk/species/ecoli/ download_7_gene. Molecular phylogenetic analysis was performed by the maximum likelihood method based on the Tamura-Nei model (79) using MEGA7 (80) with 1,000 bootstrap iterations. Synteny plots were generated using Artemis Comparison Tool (ACT) software (81) and blastn results based on genome alignments. Circular plots for genome comparison were produced using BLAST Ring Image Generator (BRIG) (82). Plasmids were analyzed and typed by plasmid multilocus sequence typing (pMLST) using the PubMLST database (http://pubmlst.org/plasmid) (83). IS26-associated antibiotic resistance genes were defined as resistance genes located within 10 kb of an IS26-like element. Gene graphics were generated with the aid of SnapGene Viewer software (GSL Biotech).

The 39 Sanji-related genomes plus 19 ST167 assemblies, from isolates obtained between 1999 and 2010, and MG1655 were used to generate core single nucleotide variants (SNVs). The sequences of the 19 ST167 assemblies were downloaded from the Enterobase database at https://enterobase.warwick.ac .uk and concatenated as a continuous fasta file. The recurring regions and unique regions of the 40 complete genome sequences were removed using a shell script. This method is based on genome-to-genome blastn at 99% coverage and 99% identity and subsequent removal of recurring and unique regions. The Sanji genome reference template was used as a query for blastn analysis against another genome. The resulting common regions shared by the two genomes were then joined (as a "stitched" sequence) and used for blastn analysis of another new genome sequence to generate a new stitched sequence until all 40 of the genomes, including Sanji, were compared. This entire process was then repeated 10 times. After 6 iterations, a convergent, consensus stitched sequence of 2,493,769 bp was



obtained. This consensus stitched sequence was then subjected to blast analysis against each individual genome, followed by the use of a shell script to remove all sites with gapped or identical sequences to generate a string of ungapped 6,890 core SNVs. The consensus core stitched sequence was used similarly to generate a string of 6,890 core SNVs for each of the 19 assemblies. This alignment of SNVs was used for modeling mutation rate estimates and time-scaled phylogeny using MEGA7 and BEAST2.5.1 packages.

The MultiTypeTree module of BEAST2 was used with the following parameters: (i) tip dates were set as the sample isolation dates (or as the database submission date for cases where no isolation date was provided); (ii) tip locations were set as three geographic regions (Americas, Asia, and Europe); (iii) the gamma site model was selected with the HKY85 nucleotide substitution model (84); and (iv) a strict clock model was used with an initial mutation rate set at 10^{-10} mutations per site per year. For the priors, a uniform distribution was selected for clockRate.c with an initial value of 10^{-10} and an upper limit of 10^{-7} ; exponential distribution was selected for gammaShape.s with an initial value of 1; log normal was selected for kappa.s with an initial value of 2; 1/X distribution was selected for popSizes.t; exponential distribution was selected for rate Matrix.t; and equal population sizes and a symmetric migration rate matrix were assumed for the migration model. In trial runs sampling 10⁶ Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) steps, we explored HKY85, TN93, and generalized time-reversible (GTR) nucleotide substitution models with various parameters. The TN93 and GTR models could not accommodate mutation rates lower than 0.001, and even with the clock rate accepted by the module, runs were often terminated prematurely. For those runs that were completed, the models gave results comparable to those obtained with the HKY85 model. Using the HKY85 model, five runs with 10⁸ MCMC steps were performed, with 10% discounted as representing burn-in and a tree logging frequency of 10⁵. Tree files were combined using LogCombiner in the BEAST2 package, followed by the use of TreeAnnotator to annotate the combined trees. The annotated output trees file was used to generate the phylogenetic tree with associated metadata, including 7-gene MLST, isolation region (United States, Latin America, Europe, Asia), source (human, animal, environmental), and in silico O-antigen and H-antigen serotypes, using the R package ggtree.

Data availability. The complete genome and plasmid sequences of *E. coli* strain Sanji have been deposited in the NCBI under accession numbers CP011061.1 (circular chromosome; 4,891,769 bp), CP011062.1 (pSJ_255; 255,368 bp), CP011063.1 (pSJ_98; 98,436 bp), CP011064.1 (pSJ_94; 94,712 bp), CP011065.1 (pSJ_82; 82,288 bp), CP011066.1 (pSJ_3; 3,373 bp), and CP011067.1 (pSJ_2; 2,640 bp).

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIAL

Supplemental material for this article may be found at https://doi.org/10.1128/mSystems.00242-18.

FIG S1, PDF file, 0.1 MB. FIG S2, PDF file, 0.02 MB. FIG S3, PDF file, 1.6 MB. FIG S4, PDF file, 0.3 MB. FIG S5, PDF file, 0.4 MB. FIG S6, PDF file, 0.1 MB. FIG S7, PDF file, 0.9 MB. TABLE S1, PDF file, 0.1 MB. TABLE S2, PDF file, 0.1 MB.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was supported in part by the Research Board of the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign (grant RB18122 to B.A.W.), a Jinsang Scholarship (to M.H.), and the Science and Technology Innovation Special Foundation of Fujian Agriculture and Forestry University (grants KFA17221A and KFA17222A to X.Z.). Sequencing and assembly of the *E. coli* Sanji genome were supported by Pacific Biosciences, Inc. (to R.J.H. and P.B.).

M.H. and X.Z. designed and conceived the experiments. X.Z., X.C., M.H., and D.M. performed the experiments. C.L., R.H., and P.B. performed the sequencing and assembly of the genomes. M.H. performed scripting and bioinformatic analysis. M.H., B.T.H., R.J.H., and B.A.W. analyzed and interpreted the data. S.W., P.B., and B.A.W. provided reagents, materials, analytical tools, and support. B.A.W., B.T.H., and M.H. wrote the paper. All of us read, edited, and approved the final version of the paper.

C.L., R.J.H., and P.B. are full-time employees and shareholders of Pacific Biosciences, a company developing and commercializing single-molecule DNA sequencing technologies.



REFERENCES

- 1. O'Neill J. 2016. The review on antimicrobial resistance report: tackling drug-resistant infections globally: final report and recommendations. https://amr-review.org/sites/default/files/160518_Final%20paper_with %20cover.pdf. Accessed May 2018.
- Fukuda K. 2014. World Health Organization: antimicrobial resistance global report on surveillance. http://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/10665/ 112642/1/9789241564748_eng.pdf?ua=1. Accessed May 2018.
- Frieden T. 2013. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention report: antibiotic resistance threats in the United States, 2013. https://www.cdc .gov/drugresistance/pdf/ar-threats-2013-508.pdf. Accessed May 2018.
- Chekabab SM, Paquin-Veillette J, Dozois CM, Harel J. 2013. The ecological habitat and transmission of *Escherichia coli* O157:H7. FEMS Microbiol Lett 341:1–12. https://doi.org/10.1111/1574-6968.12078.
- Vidovic S, Korber DR. 2016. Escherichia coli O157: insights into the adaptive stress physiology and the influence of stressors on epidemiology and ecology of this human pathogen. Crit Rev Microbiol 42:83–93. https://doi.org/10.3109/1040841X.2014.889654.
- Lerner A, Matthias T, Aminov R. 2017. Potential effects of horizontal gene exchange in the human gut. Front Immunol 8:1630. https://doi.org/10 .3389/fimmu.2017.01630.
- Szmolka A, Nagy B. 2013. Multidrug resistant commensal *Escherichia coli* in animals and its impact for public health. Front Microbiol 4:258. https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2013.00258.
- Boisen N, Melton-Celsa AR, Scheutz F, O'Brien AD, Nataro JP. 2015. Shiga toxin 2a and enteroaggregative *Escherichia coli*–a deadly combination. Gut Microbes 6:272–278. https://doi.org/10.1080/19490976.2015.1054591.
- Fruth A, Prager R, Tietze E, Rabsch W, Flieger A. 2015. Molecular epidemiological view on Shiga toxin-producing *Escherichia coli* causing human disease in Germany: diversity, prevalence, and outbreaks. Int J Med Microbiol 305:697–704. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijmm.2015.08.020.
- Moran NA, Plague GR. 2004. Genomic changes following host restriction in bacteria. Curr Opin Genet Dev 14:627–633. https://doi.org/10.1016/j .gde.2004.09.003.
- 11. Carattoli A. 2013. Plasmids and the spread of resistance. Int J Med Microbiol 303:298–304. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijmm.2013.02.001.
- Koser CU, Ellington MJ, Peacock SJ. 2014. Whole-genome sequencing to control antimicrobial resistance. Trends Genet 30:401–407. https://doi .org/10.1016/j.tig.2014.07.003.
- Basra P, Alsaadi A, Bernal-Astrain G, O'Sullivan ML, Hazlett B, Clarke LM, Schoenrock A, Pitre S, Wong A. 7 February 2018. Fitness tradeoffs of antibiotic resistance in extra-intestinal pathogenic *Escherichia coli*. Genome Biol Evol https://doi.org/10.1093/gbe/evy030.
- Beceiro A, Tomas M, Bou G. 2013. Antimicrobial resistance and virulence: a successful or deleterious association in the bacterial world? Clin Microbiol Rev 26:185–230. https://doi.org/10.1128/CMR.00059-12.
- Durao P, Balbontin R, Gordo I. 2018. Evolutionary mechanisms shaping the maintenance of antibiotic resistance. Trends Microbiol 26:677–691. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tim.2018.01.005.
- Wilson BA, Garud NR, Feder AF, Assaf ZJ, Pennings PS. 2016. The population genetics of drug resistance evolution in natural populations of viral, bacterial and eukaryotic pathogens. Mol Ecol 25:42–66. https:// doi.org/10.1111/mec.13474.
- Brodrick HJ, Raven KE, Harrison EM, Blane B, Reuter S, Torok ME, Parkhill J, Peacock SJ. 2016. Whole-genome sequencing reveals transmission of vancomycin-resistant *Enterococcus faecium* in a healthcare network. Genome Med 8:4. https://doi.org/10.1186/s13073-015-0259-7.
- Nubel U. 2016. Emergence and spread of antimicrobial resistance: recent insights from bacterial population genomics. Curr Top Microbiol Immunol 398:35–53. https://doi.org/10.1007/82_2016_505.
- Snitkin ES, Zelazny AM, Thomas PJ, Stock F, Group NCSP. Henderson DK, Palmore TN, Segre JA. 2012. Tracking a hospital outbreak of carbapenemresistant *Klebsiella pneumoniae* with whole-genome sequencing. Sci Transl Med 4:148ra116. https://doi.org/10.1126/scitranslmed.3004129.
- Didelot X, Walker AS, Peto TE, Crook DW, Wilson DJ. 2016. Within-host evolution of bacterial pathogens. Nat Rev Microbiol 14:150–162. https:// doi.org/10.1038/nrmicro.2015.13.
- Lee AH, Flibotte S, Sinha S, Paiero A, Ehrlich RL, Balashov S, Ehrlich GD, Zlosnik JE, Mell JC, Nislow C. 2017. Phenotypic diversity and genotypic flexibility of *Burkholderia cenocepacia* during long-term chronic infection of cystic fibrosis lungs. Genome Res 27:650–662. https://doi.org/10 .1101/gr.213363.116.

- 22. Ben Zakour NL, Alsheikh-Hussain AS, Ashcroft MM, Khanh Nhu NT, Roberts LW, Stanton-Cook M, Schembri MA, Beatson SA. 2016. Sequential acquisition of virulence and fluoroquinolone resistance has shaped the evolution of *Escherichia coli* ST131. mBio 7:e00347-16. https://doi .org/10.1128/mBio.00347-16.
- Pitout JD, DeVinney R. 2017. *Escherichia coli* ST131: a multidrug-resistant clone primed for global domination. F1000Res 6:195. https://doi.org/10 .12688/f1000research.10609.1.
- Olesen B, Scheutz F, Menard M, Skov MN, Kolmos HJ, Kuskowski MA, Johnson JR. 2009. Three-decade epidemiological analysis of *Escherichia coli* O15:K52:H1. J Clin Microbiol 47:1857–1862. https://doi.org/10.1128/ JCM.00230-09.
- Hadjadj L, Riziki T, Zhu Y, Li J, Diene SM, Rolain JM. 2017. Study of *mcr-1* gene-mediated colistin resistance in *Enterobacteriaceae* isolated from humans and animals in different countries. Genes (Basel) 8:394. https:// doi.org/10.3390/genes8120394.
- Nishino K, Yamaguchi A. 2001. Analysis of a complete library of putative drug transporter genes in *Escherichia coli*. J Bacteriol 183:5803–5812. https://doi.org/10.1128/JB.183.20.5803-5812.2001.
- Zhao WH, Hu ZQ. 2013. Epidemiology and genetics of CTX-M extendedspectrum beta-lactamases in Gram-negative bacteria. Crit Rev Microbiol 39:79–101. https://doi.org/10.3109/1040841X.2012.691460.
- Wirth T, Falush D, Lan R, Colles F, Mensa P, Wieler LH, Karch H, Reeves PR, Maiden MC, Ochman H, Achtman M. 2006. Sex and virulence in *Escherichia coli*: an evolutionary perspective. Mol Microbiol 60:1136–1151. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2958.2006.05172.x.
- Bouckaert R, Heled J, Kuhnert D, Vaughan T, Wu CH, Xie D, Suchard MA, Rambaut A, Drummond AJ. 2014. BEAST 2: a software platform for Bayesian evolutionary analysis. PLoS Comput Biol 10:e1003537. https:// doi.org/10.1371/journal.pcbi.1003537.
- Aibinu I, Odugbemi T, Koenig W, Ghebremedhin B. 2012. Sequence type ST131 and ST10 complex (ST617) predominant among CTX-M-15producing *Escherichia coli* isolates from Nigeria. Clin Microbiol Infect 18:E49–E51. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-0691.2011.03730.x.
- Bagus Wasito E, Shigemura K, Osawa K, Fardah A, Kanaida A, Raharjo D, Kuntaman K, Hadi U, Harijono S, Marto Sudarmo S, Nakamura T, Shibayama K, Fujisawa M, Shirakawa T. 2017. Antibiotic susceptibilities and genetic characteristics of extended-spectrum beta-lactamase-producing *Escherichia coli* isolates from stools of pediatric diarrhea patients in Surabaya, Indonesia. Jpn J Infect Dis 70:378–382. https://doi.org/10 .7883/yoken.JJID.2016.234.
- 32. Seni J, Falgenhauer L, Simeo N, Mirambo MM, Imirzalioglu C, Matee M, Rweyemamu M, Chakraborty T, Mshana SE. 2016. Multiple ESBL-producing *Escherichia coli* sequence types carrying quinolone and aminoglycoside resistance genes circulating in companion and domestic farm animals in Mwanza, Tanzania, harbor commonly occurring plasmids. Front Microbiol 7:142. https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2016.00142.
- 33. Sonda T, Kumburu H, van Zwetselaar M, Alifrangis M, Mmbaga BT, Aarestrup FM, Kibiki G, Lund O. 2018. Whole genome sequencing reveals high clonal diversity of *Escherichia coli* isolated from patients in a tertiary care hospital in Moshi, Tanzania. Antimicrob Resist Infect Control 7:72. https://doi.org/10.1186/s13756-018-0361-x.
- 34. Gilmour MW, Thomson NR, Sanders M, Parkhill J, Taylor DE. 2004. The complete nucleotide sequence of the resistance plasmid R478: defining the backbone components of incompatibility group H conjugative plasmids through comparative genomics. Plasmid 52:182–202. https://doi .org/10.1016/j.plasmid.2004.06.006.
- Whelan KF, Colleran E, Taylor DE. 1995. Phage inhibition, colicin resistance, and tellurite resistance are encoded by a single cluster of genes on the IncHI2 plasmid R478. J Bacteriol 177:5016–5027. https://doi.org/ 10.1128/jb.177.17.5016-5027.1995.
- Whelan KF, Sherburne RK, Taylor DE. 1997. Characterization of a region of the IncHI2 plasmid R478 which protects *Escherichia coli* from toxic effects specified by components of the tellurite, phage, and colicin resistance cluster. J Bacteriol 179:63–71. https://doi.org/10.1128/jb.179 .1.63-71.1997.
- Harmer CJ, Hall RM. 2016. IS26-mediated formation of transposons carrying antibiotic resistance genes. mSphere 1:e00038-16. https://doi .org/10.1128/mSphere.00038-16.
- Harmer CJ, Moran RA, Hall RM. 2014. Movement of IS26-associated antibiotic resistance genes occurs via a translocatable unit that includes



a single IS26 and preferentially inserts adjacent to another IS26. mBio 5:e01801-14. https://doi.org/10.1128/mBio.01801-14.

- Liu BT, Song FJ, Zou M, Zhang QD, Shan H. 2017. High incidence of Escherichia coli strains coharboring mcr-1 and blaNDM from chickens. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 61:e02347-16. https://doi.org/10.1128/ AAC.02347-16.
- Ho PL, Lo WU, Wong RC, Yeung MK, Chow KH, Que TL, Tong AH, Bao JY, Lok S, Wong SS. 2011. Complete sequencing of the FII plasmid pHK01, encoding *CTX-M-14*, and molecular analysis of its variants among *Escherichia coli* from Hong Kong. J Antimicrob Chemother 66:752–756. https://doi.org/10.1093/jac/dkr010.
- Ho PL, Yeung MK, Lo WU, Tse H, Li Z, Lai EL, Chow KH, To KK, Yam WC. 2012. Predominance of pHK01-like incompatibility group FII plasmids encoding CTX-M-14 among extended-spectrum beta-lactamaseproducing *Escherichia coli* in Hong Kong, 1996–2008. Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis 73:182–186. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.diagmicrobio.2012.03 .009.
- 42. He D, Liu L, Guo B, Wu S, Chen X, Wang J, Zeng Z, Liu JH. 2017. Chromosomal location of the *fosA3* and *blaCTX-M* genes in *Proteus mirabilis* and clonal spread of *Escherichia coli* ST117 carrying *fosA3*positive IncHI2/ST3 or F2:A-:B- plasmids in a chicken farm. Int J Antimicrob Agents 49:443–448. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijantimicag.2016.12 .009.
- Cullik A, Pfeifer Y, Prager R, von Baum H, Witte W. 2010. A novel IS26 structure surrounds *blaCTX-M* genes in different plasmids from German clinical *Escherichia coli* isolates. J Med Microbiol 59:580–587. https://doi .org/10.1099/jmm.0.016188-0.
- 44. Partridge SR, Zong Z, Iredell JR. 2011. Recombination in IS26 and Tn2 in the evolution of multiresistance regions carrying *blaCTX-M-15* on conjugative IncF plasmids from *Escherichia coli*. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 55:4971–4978. https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.00025-11.
- Eisenberger D, Carl A, Balsliemke J, Kampf P, Nickel S, Schulze G, Valenza G. 2018. Molecular characterization of extended-spectrum betalactamase-producing *Escherichia coli* isolates from milk samples of dairy cows with mastitis in Bavaria, Germany. Microb Drug Resist 24:505–510. https://doi.org/10.1089/mdr.2017.0182.
- 46. Fischer J, Rodriguez I, Baumann B, Guiral E, Beutin L, Schroeter A, Kaesbohrer A, Pfeifer Y, Helmuth R, Guerra B. 2014. *blaCTX-M-(1)(5)*carrying *Escherichia coli* and *Salmonella* isolates from livestock and food in Germany. J Antimicrob Chemother 69:2951–2958. https://doi.org/10 .1093/jac/dku270.
- Irrgang A, Falgenhauer L, Fischer J, Ghosh H, Guiral E, Guerra B, Schmoger S, Imirzalioglu C, Chakraborty T, Hammerl JA, Kasbohrer A. 2017. CTX-M-15-producing *E. coli* isolates from food products in Germany are mainly associated with an IncF-type plasmid and belong to two predominant clonal *E. coli* lineages. Front Microbiol 8:2318. https://doi.org/ 10.3389/fmicb.2017.02318.
- Lee WC, Yeh KS. 2017. Characteristics of extended-spectrum betalactamase-producing *Escherichia coli* isolated from fecal samples of piglets with diarrhea in central and southern Taiwan in 2015. BMC Vet Res 13:66. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12917-017-0986-7.
- 49. Su Y, Yu CY, Tsai Y, Wang SH, Lee C, Chu C. 2016. Fluoroquinoloneresistant and extended-spectrum beta-lactamase-producing *Escherichia coli* from the milk of cows with clinical mastitis in southern Taiwan. J Microbiol Immunol Infect 49:892–901. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jmii.2014.10 .003.
- Dziri R, Klibi N, Alonso CA, Jouini A, Ben Said L, Chairat S, Bellaaj R, Boudabous A, Ben Slama K, Torres C. 2016. Detection of CTX-M-15producing *Escherichia coli* isolates of lineages ST131-B2 and ST167-A in environmental samples of a Tunisian hospital. Microb Drug Resist 22: 399–403. https://doi.org/10.1089/mdr.2015.0354.
- Mani Y, Mansour W, Mammeri H, Denamur E, Saras E, Boujaafar N, Bouallegue O, Madec JY, Haenni M. 2017. KPC-3-producing ST167 *Escherichia coli* from mussels bought at a retail market in Tunisia. J Antimicrob Chemother 72:2403–2404. https://doi.org/10.1093/jac/dkx124.
- 52. Baez J, Hernandez-Garcia M, Guamparito C, Diaz S, Olave A, Guerrero K, Canton R, Baquero F, Gahona J, Valenzuela N, Del Campo R, Silva J. 2015. Molecular characterization and genetic diversity of ESBL-producing *Escherichia coli* colonizing the migratory Franklin's gulls (*Leucophaeus pipixcan*) in Antofagasta, North of Chile. Microb Drug Resist 21:111–116. https://doi.org/10.1089/mdr.2014.0158.
- Chen D, Gong L, Walsh TR, Lan R, Wang T, Zhang J, Mai W, Ni N, Lu J, Xu J, Li J. 2016. Infection by and dissemination of NDM-5-producing *Esch*-

erichia coli in China. J Antimicrob Chemother 71:563–565. https://doi .org/10.1093/jac/dkv352.

- Huang Y, Yu X, Xie M, Wang X, Liao K, Xue W, Chan EW, Zhang R, Chen S. 2016. Widespread dissemination of carbapenem-resistant *Escherichia coli* sequence type 167 strains harboring *blaNDM-5* in clinical settings in China. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 60:4364–4368. https://doi.org/10 .1128/AAC.00859-16.
- 55. Shen P, Yi M, Fu Y, Ruan Z, Du X, Yu Y, Xie X. 2017. Detection of an *Escherichia coli* sequence type 167 strain with two tandem copies of *blaNDM-1* in the chromosome. J Clin Microbiol 55:199–205. https://doi .org/10.1128/JCM.01581-16.
- Xu M, Fan Y, Wang M, Lu X. 2017. Characteristics of extended-spectrum beta-lactamases-producing *Escherichia coli* in fecal samples of inpatients of Beijing Tongren Hospital. Jpn J Infect Dis 70:290–294. https://doi.org/ 10.7883/yoken.JJID.2016.023.
- Yang P, Xie Y, Feng P, Zong Z. 2014. *blaNDM-5* carried by an IncX3 plasmid in *Escherichia coli* sequence type 167. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 58:7548–7552. https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.03911-14.
- Zhang R, Liu L, Zhou H, Chan EW, Li J, Fang Y, Li Y, Liao K, Chen S. 2017. Nationwide surveillance of clinical carbapenem-resistant *Enterobacteriaceae* (CRE) strains in China. EBioMedicine 19:98–106. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ebiom.2017.04.032.
- Zhang X, Lou D, Xu Y, Shang Y, Li D, Huang X, Li Y, Hu L, Wang L, Yu F. 2013. First identification of coexistence of *blaNDM-1* and *blaCMY-42* among *Escherichia coli* ST167 clinical isolates. BMC Microbiol 13:282. https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2180-13-282.
- Zhou G, Guo S, Luo Y, Ye L, Song Y, Sun G, Guo L, Chen Y, Han L, Yang J. 2014. NDM-1-producing strains, family *Enterobacteriaceae*, in hospital, Beijing, China. Emerg Infect Dis 20:340–342. https://doi.org/10.3201/ eid2002.121263.
- Zhu YQ, Zhao JY, Xu C, Zhao H, Jia N, Li YN. 2016. Identification of an NDM-5-producing *Escherichia coli* sequence type 167 in a neonatal patient in China. Sci Rep 6:29934. https://doi.org/10.1038/srep29934.
- 62. Zong Z, Yu F, McNally A. 2017. New kids on the block: intercontinental dissemination and transmission of newly emerging lineages of multidrug resistant *Escherichia coli* with highly dynamic resistance gene acquisition. bioRxiv https://doi.org/10.1101/100941.
- 63. Oteo J, Diestra K, Juan C, Bautista V, Novais A, Perez-Vazquez M, Moya B, Miro E, Coque TM, Oliver A, Canton R, Navarro F, Campos J; Spanish Network in Infectious Pathology Project (REIPI). 2009. Extendedspectrum beta-lactamase-producing *Escherichia coli* in Spain belong to a large variety of multilocus sequence typing types, including ST10 complex/A, ST23 complex/A and ST131/B2. Int J Antimicrob Agents 34:173–176. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijantimicag.2009.03.006.
- 64. Sánchez-Benito R, Iglesias MR, Quijada NM, Campos MJ, Ugarte-Ruiz M, Hernández M, Pazos C, Rodríguez-Lázaro D, Garduño E, Domínguez L, Quesada A. 2017. Escherichia coli ST167 carrying plasmid mobilisable mcr-1 and blaCTX-M-15 resistance determinants isolated from a human respiratory infection. Int J Antimicrob Agents 50:285–286. https://doi .org/10.1016/j.ijantimicag.2017.05.005.
- 65. Cuzon G, Bonnin RA, Nordmann P. 2013. First identification of novel NDM carbapenemase, NDM-7, in *Escherichia coli* in France. PLoS One 8:e61322. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0061322.
- 66. Devanga Ragupathi NK, Muthuirulandi Sethuvel DP, Gajendiran R, Daniel JL, Walia K, Veeraraghavan B. 2017. First Indian report of IncX3 plasmid carrying *blaNDM-7* in *Escherichia coli* from bloodstream infection: potential for rapid dissemination. New Microbes New Infect 17:65–68. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nmni.2017.01.012.
- Giufre M, Errico G, Accogli M, Monaco M, Villa L, Distasi MA, Gaudio TD, Pantosti A, Carattoli A, Cerquetti M. 2018. Emergence of NDM-5producing *Escherichia coli* sequence type 167 clone in Italy. Int J Antimicrob Agents 52:76–81. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijantimicag.2018.02 .020.
- Solgi H, Giske CG, Badmasti F, Aghamohammad S, Havaei SA, Sabeti S, Mostafavizadeh K, Shahcheraghi F. 2017. Emergence of carbapenem resistant *Escherichia coli* isolates producing *blaNDM* and *blaOXA-48-*like carried on IncA/C and IncL/M plasmids at two Iranian university hospitals. Infect Genet Evol 55:318–323. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.meegid .2017.10.003.
- Usein C-R, Papagheorghe R, Oprea M, Condei M, Sträuţ M. 2016. Molecular characterization of bacteremic *Escherichia coli* isolates in Romania. Folia Microbiol (Praha) 61:221–226. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12223-015 -0427-6.
- 70. Fu Y, Ho BT, Mekalanos JJ. 2018. Tracking Vibrio cholerae cell-cell inter-



actions during infection reveals bacterial population dynamics within intestinal microenvironments. Cell Host Microbe 23:274–281.e2. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chom.2017.12.006.

- Nedialkova LP, Denzler R, Koeppel MB, Diehl M, Ring D, Wille T, Gerlach RG, Stecher B. 2014. Inflammation fuels colicin lb-dependent competition of *Salmonella* serovar Typhimurium and *E. coli* in enterobacterial blooms. PLoS Pathog 10:e1003844. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.ppat .1003844.
- 72. Stecher B, Denzler R, Maier L, Bernet F, Sanders MJ, Pickard DJ, Barthel M, Westendorf AM, Krogfelt KA, Walker AW, Ackermann M, Dobrindt U, Thomson NR, Hardt WD. 2012. Gut inflammation can boost horizontal gene transfer between pathogenic and commensal *Enterobacteriaceae*. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 109:1269–1274. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas .1113246109.
- Chin CS, Alexander DH, Marks P, Klammer AA, Drake J, Heiner C, Clum A, Copeland A, Huddleston J, Eichler EE, Turner SW, Korlach J. 2013. Nonhybrid, finished microbial genome assemblies from long-read SMRT sequencing data. Nat Methods 10:563–569. https://doi.org/10.1038/ nmeth.2474.
- Joensen KG, Tetzschner AM, Iguchi A, Aarestrup FM, Scheutz F. 2015. Rapid and easy in silico serotyping of *Escherichia coli* isolates by use of whole-genome sequencing data. J Clin Microbiol 53:2410–2426. https:// doi.org/10.1128/JCM.00008-15.
- Gibson MK, Forsberg KJ, Dantas G. 2015. Improved annotation of antibiotic resistance determinants reveals microbial resistomes cluster by ecology. ISME J 9:207–216. https://doi.org/10.1038/ismej.2014.106.
- Zankari E, Hasman H, Cosentino S, Vestergaard M, Rasmussen S, Lund O, Aarestrup FM, Larsen MV. 2012. Identification of acquired antimicrobial

resistance genes. J Antimicrob Chemother 67:2640-2644. https://doi .org/10.1093/jac/dks261.

- Roberts MC, Schwarz S, Aarts HJ. 2012. Erratum: Acquired antibiotic resistance genes: an overview. Front Microbiol 3:384. https://doi.org/10 .3389/fmicb.2012.00384.
- Siguier P, Perochon J, Lestrade L, Mahillon J, Chandler M. 2006. ISfinder: the reference centre for bacterial insertion sequences. Nucleic Acids Res 34:D32–D36. https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkj014.
- Tamura K, Nei M. 1993. Estimation of the number of nucleotide substitutions in the control region of mitochondrial DNA in humans and chimpanzees. Mol Biol Evol 10:512–526. https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordjournals .molbev.a040023.
- Kumar S, Stecher G, Tamura K. 2016. MEGA7: Molecular Evolutionary Genetics Analysis version 7.0 for bigger datasets. Mol Biol Evol 33: 1870–1874. https://doi.org/10.1093/molbev/msw054.
- Carver TJ, Rutherford KM, Berriman M, Rajandream MA, Barrell BG, Parkhill J. 2005. ACT: the Artemis Comparison Tool. Bioinformatics 21:3422–3423. https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/bti553.
- Alikhan NF, Petty NK, Ben Zakour NL, Beatson SA. 2011. BLAST Ring Image Generator (BRIG): simple prokaryote genome comparisons. BMC Genomics 12:402. https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2164-12-402.
- Jolley KA, Maiden MC. 2010. BIGSdb: scalable analysis of bacterial genome variation at the population level. BMC Bioinformatics 11:595. https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2105-11-595.
- Hasegawa M, Kishino H, Yano T. 1985. Dating of the human-ape splitting by a molecular clock of mitochondrial DNA. J Mol Evol 22:160–174. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02101694.