

THE UNIVERSITY of EDINBURGH

Edinburgh Research Explorer

Phylogenetic relationship and virulence composition of Escherichia coli O26:H11 cattle and human strain collections in Scotland; 2002-2020

Citation for published version:

Hoyle, D, Wee, BA, Macleod, K, Chase-Topping, M, Bease, A, Tongue, SC, Gally, D, Delannoy, S, Fach, P, Pearce, MC, Gunn, GJ, Holmes, A & Allison, L 2023, 'Phylogenetic relationship and virulence composition of Escherichia coli O26:H11 cattle and human strain collections in Scotland; 2002-2020', *Frontiers in Microbiology*, vol. 14, pp. 1-18. https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2023.1260422

Digital Object Identifier (DOI):

10.3389/fmicb.2023.1260422

Link:

Link to publication record in Edinburgh Research Explorer

Document Version: Peer reviewed version

Published In: Frontiers in Microbiology

General rights

Copyright for the publications made accessible via the Edinburgh Research Explorer is retained by the author(s) and / or other copyright owners and it is a condition of accessing these publications that users recognise and abide by the legal requirements associated with these rights.

Take down policy

The University of Édinburgh has made every reasonable effort to ensure that Edinburgh Research Explorer content complies with UK legislation. If you believe that the public display of this file breaches copyright please contact openaccess@ed.ac.uk providing details, and we will remove access to the work immediately and investigate your claim.





1 Phylogenetic relationship and virulence composition of *Escherichia coli*

- 2 O26:H11 cattle and human strain collections in Scotland; 2002–2020
- 3
- 4 AUTHORS
- 5 Deborah V. Hoyle¹^{†*}, Bryan A. Wee¹[†], Kareen Macleod¹, Margo E. Chase-Topping¹, Andrew
- Bease¹, Sue C. Tongue², David L. Gally¹, Sabine Delannoy³, Patrick Fach³, Michael C. Pearce²,
 George J. Gunn², Anne Holmes⁴[†][†], Lesley Allison⁴[†][†]
- 8

9 AFFILIATIONS

- ¹Roslin Institute, Royal (Dick) School of Veterinary Studies, University of Edinburgh, Easter Bush,
 EH25 9RG.
- 12 ²Centre for Epidemiology and Planetary Health, Department of Veterinary and Animal Science,
- 13 North Faculty, Scotland's Rural College (SRUC), Inverness, IV2 5NA, UK.
- 14 ³Unité ColiPath Plateforme IdentyPath, Laboratoire de Sécurité des Aliments, Agence Nationale
- De Sécurité Sanitaire de l'alimentation, de l'environnement et du travail (ANSES), 14 rue Pierre et
 Marie Curie, 94701 Maisons-Alfort Cedex, France.
- ⁴Scottish *E. coli* O157/STEC Reference Laboratory (SERL), Royal Infirmary of Edinburgh, 51 Little
 France Crescent, EH16 4SA, UK.
- 19 †These authors share first authorship
- 20 *††*These authors share last authorship
- 21
- 22 *Corresponding author: Deborah Hoyle, <u>deborah.hoyle@ed.ac.uk</u>
- 23
- 24 Key words: STEC₁, O26:H11₂, Cattle₃, Phylogenetic₄, whole genome sequencing (WGS)₅,
- 25 Virulence₆, Epidemiology₇
- 26

27 ABSTRACT

28 O26 is the commonest non-O157 Shiga toxin (stx)-producing Escherichia coli serogroup reported in

human infections worldwide. Ruminants, particularly cattle, are the primary reservoir source for human infection. In this study we compared whole genomes and virulence profiles of O26:H11

strains (n=99) isolated from Scottish cattle with strains from human infections (n=96) held by the

Statis (ii *yy*) isolated from Section earlier with stating from human infections (ii *yy*) here by the Scottish *Escherichia coli* O157/ STEC Reference Laboratory, isolated between 2002–2020. Bovine

33 strains were from two national cross-sectional cattle surveys conducted between 2002–2004 and

34 2014–2015. A Maximum Likelihood phylogeny was constructed from a core genome alignment with

the O26:H11 11368 reference genome. Genomes were screened against a panel of 2710 virulence

36 genes using the Virulence Finder Database.

37 All *stx*-positive bovine O26:H11 strains belonged to the ST21 lineage and were grouped into three

38 main clades. Bovine and human source strains were interspersed and *stx* subtype was relatively clade

39 specific. Highly pathogenic *stx*2a-only ST21 strains were identified in two herds sampled in the

40 second cattle survey and human clinical infections from 2010 onwards. The closest pairwise distance

41 was 9 single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) between Scottish bovine and human strains and 69

SNPs between the two cattle surveys. Bovine O26:H11 were compared to public EnteroBase ST29
 complex genomes and found to have greatest commonality with O26:H11 strains from the rest of the

44 UK, followed by France, Italy and Belgium.

45 Virulence profiles of *stx*-positive bovine and human strains were similar, but more conserved for the

46 *stx2a* subtype. O26:H11 *stx*-negative ST29 (n=17) and ST396 strains (n=5) were isolated from 19

47 cattle herds; all were *eae*-positive and ten of these herds yielded strains positive for *ehxA*, *espK* and

48 Z2098, gene markers suggestive of enterohaemorrhagic potential. There was a significant association

49 (p < 0.001) between nucleotide sequence percent identity and *stx* status for the bacteriophage insertion

site genes *yecE* for *stx2*, and *yehV* for *stx1*. Acquired antimicrobial resistance genes were identified *in silico* in 12.1% of bovine and 17.7% of human O26:H11 strains, with *sul2*, *tet*, *aph(3")* and *aph(6")*

being most common. This study describes the diversity among Scottish bovine O26:H11 strains and

53 investigates their relationship to human STEC infections.

54

55 DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

56 The data sets for all raw genome sequence data analysed in this study can be found in the ENA

(<u>https://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/browser/home</u>) and SRA databases (<u>https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/sra</u>)
 under the accessions PRJEB57355 and PRJNA419720.

59

60

61 1. INTRODUCTION

62 Shiga toxin-producing Escherichia coli (STEC) are a group of zoonotic pathogenic bacteria with a 63 ruminant reservoir that cause gastrointestinal infections in humans [1,2]. Transmission to humans occurs via foodborne routes, as well as by direct contact with infected animals and through 64 65 environmental contamination, particularly of water [3]. The Shiga toxin is the primary virulence 66 factor responsible for severe pathology and is encoded by stx genes hosted on mobile lysogenic 67 bacteriophage, which integrate into the bacterial genome at specific insertion sites [4]. There are two 68 main Shiga toxin proteins, Stx1 and Stx2, encoded by different gene subtypes stx1a, 1c, 1d, 1e and 69 stx2a-o [5–7], with the stx2a, 2c and 2d subtypes associated with more serious disease [8,9]. The 70 majority of STEC are typically characterised by the presence of the locus of enterocyte effacement 71 (LEE), which is required for the formation of attaching and effacing lesions in the intestine and encodes the intimin gene, eae, in addition to a number of other key virulence factors [10]. However, 72 LEE is not essential for human pathogenicity, with some LEE-negative non-O157 STEC serotypes 73 74 still capable of causing severe disease, mediated by other virulence determinants [11,12]. The LEE is 75 not specific to the STEC pathotype and is also found in the majority of enteropathogenic E. coli 76 (EPEC), which cause non-haemorrhagic gastro-intestinal illness in both animals and humans; EPEC

are primarily distinguished from STEC by the absence of the *stx* gene [13].

78 STEC cause a spectrum of clinical symptoms in humans, from uncomplicated diarrhoea to

79 haemorrhagic enteritis, haemolytic uraemic syndrome (HUS) and in exceptional cases, death. STEC

serotypes that are responsible for the more severe, haemorrhagic disease presentations are further

81 classified as enterohaemorrhagic (EHEC) [14]. Globally, *E. coli* O157:H7 is the commonest STEC/

82 EHEC serotype and is often associated with large foodborne outbreaks of disease. However, a 83 number of non-O157 STEC serotypes can also be classed as EHEC based upon their disease and

83 number of non-O157 STEC serotypes can also be classed as EHEC based upon their disease and 84 pathogenicity profile, with O26:H11 being the predominant non-O157 serotype of clinical relevance

in human cases worldwide [15,16]. In Europe, O26:H11 now surpasses O157:H7 reported cases, and

86 is currently the leading serotype responsible for human STEC infection, including paediatric HUS

87 [17].

88 The recent increase in the proportion of STEC clinical cases attributed to non-O157 serotypes may in

part be due to improvements in diagnostic testing methods [18]. However, the emergence of two

highly pathogenic, *stx2*-only positive O26:H11 clones, termed the new "European" and "French"

91 clones, has also resulted in a true increase in O26:H11 incidence across Europe over the past decade

92 [19–21]. These clones have been particularly associated with disease outbreaks and hospitalisations

in children, linked to the consumption of dairy produce in France, Italy and Romania [22–24].

94 Globally, O26:H11 strains can be grouped into two main multilocus sequence types (MLST), ST21

and ST29 [25]. The majority of all stx-positive O26:H11 belong to ST21, which includes the

96 predominant *stx1*-only strains, as well as dual positive *stx1+stx2* strains and less common strains

97 encoding *stx2a*, only. ST29 comprise mostly *stx*-negative O26:H11 strains, but also includes the

newly emerging stx2a+ "European" and stx2d+ "French" clones. STEC harbour large virulence

99 plasmids (pVF) that host genes for enterohaemolysin, *ehxA*, catalase peroxidase, *katP*, serine

protease, *espP*, and a type II effector protein, *etpD* [19,26]. The main O26:H11 lineages are
 distinguished by the presence or absence of these pVF genes, with the ST21 lineage characterised by

the ehxA+/katP+/espP+/etpD- gene profile. In contrast, the newly-emerging and highly virulent ST29

103 European stx^2 + clone bears a distinct ehxA+/katP-/espP-/etpD+ pVF gene profile [19,25].

104 ST29 stx-negative O26:H11 strains that carry the eae gene are classed as EPEC, however a subset of

105 these strains have also been shown to carry the ehxA+/katP+/espP+/etpD- pVF gene profile typically 106 seen in *stx*-positive ST21 strains, together with a range of additional virulence factors [27]. Such *stx*-

negative strains have been termed "EHEC-like", because the acquisition of the *stx* gene through

bacteriophage lysogeny could result in conversion to a highly virulent EHEC pathogenic strain

109 profile [28,29]. In order to distinguish between O26:H11 stx-negative EPEC and EHEC-like strains,

an additional set of genetic markers has been proposed to assist in the identification of strains with

EHEC potential [29,30]. These markers include the type III secretion system genes *espK* [31], urease

gene, *ureD* [32] and the open reading frame putative marker Z2098 [33].

113 Scotland has a higher incidence of human STEC infections than the EU average and has reported an

114 increased incidence of non-O157 serotypes isolated from clinical patients in recent years [34,35]. In

115 order to assess the prevalence and distribution of STEC in Scottish cattle, two national cross-

sectional surveys were conducted in 2002–2004 [36,37] and 2014–2015 [38], from which a

117 collection of bovine sourced *stx*-positive and negative O26 *E. coli* strains were isolated [36,39]. The

118 aim of this present study was to compare by whole genome sequencing the O26:H11 strains isolated 119 from bovine faecal samples collected through these two Scottish cattle surveys with clinical O26:H11

human strains isolated from patients and previously sequenced by the Scottish *E. coli* O157/STEC

Reference Laboratory (SERL) [34]. We also further examined how the Scottish bovine strains related

to human-derived O26:H11 strains from across the wider UK [40,41] and investigated their global

123 O26:H11 phylogenetic context, by comparison with the public collection of clonal complex 29

124 genomes deposited within EnteroBase [42].

125 Ongoing analysis of strains from reservoir hosts such as cattle are essential for monitoring the

126 microevolution and emergence of new pathogenic STEC and EHEC strains. These data inform on

127 risk and can assist in the public health management of this pathogen.

128

129 2. MATERIALS and METHODS

130 2.1 Bacterial genomes included in the study

131 In total, 195 O26:H11 *E. coli* strains from Scottish cattle (n=99) and the Scottish human strain

132 collection (n=96) were included in the analysis, together with three O177:H11 bovine strains that fell

133 within the ST29 complex and a single bovine O103:H14 strain as an outgroup (Table 1;

134 Supplementary Table 1).

135 Bovine strains were originally isolated from cattle faecal pat samples that had been obtained during

136 two cross-sectional surveys of Scottish cattle farms conducted between 2002–2004 [36] and 2014–

137 2015 [38,39], as previously described. In both surveys, the original faecal pat samples were collected

138 by sampling discrete, dropped, faecal pats present on the ground of grazing land or the floor of pens.

139 The cattle strain collection comprised 60 isolates obtained from 35 herds, sampled in the 2002–2004

survey (Archive), and 43 isolates obtained from 29 herds in the 2014–2015 study (BECS). In the

141 initial survey, Scotland was divided into six distinct geographical animal health district regions, as

142 previously outlined [36] and herds were therefore also grouped according to this geographic

143 classification in the second survey.

144 Human clinical O26:H11 genomes were provided from a collection of genome sequences held by the

145 SERL. Clinical O26:H11 human strains were originally isolated from faecal sample submissions

received by the SERL between 2002–2020 that were PCR-positive for *stx* genes. A subset of the human genomes sequenced at the SERL was included in this study, selected as described below in

Phylogenetic analysis. Only a single representative genome from any outbreak-linked human strains

149 was included in this comparative analysis.

Detailed methods used by the SERL for extraction, PCR, library preparation, sequencing and analysis 150 have been described elsewhere [34]. In brief, genomic DNA was extracted either manually with the 151 152 DNeasy Blood and Tissue Kit (Qiagen, Crawley, UK) or the QIAsymphony using the QIA DSP 153 DNA Mini Kit (Qiagen). Libraries were prepared using the Nextera XT kit and sequenced on the 154 Illumina MiSeq, producing paired-end reads of 250bp. Sequencing reads were processed in 155 BioNumerics using the wgMLST and E. coli genotyping plug-in tools. The assembly was performed using SPAdes and basic assembly metrics were calculated for quality assessment. Sequencing reads 156 157 were also processed using the Scottish Microbiology Reference Laboratory Edinburgh Bioinformatics Pipeline (SMiRLWBP). Trimmomatic [43] was used to removed bases with a Phred 158 159 score < 30 from the trailing edge. KmerID [44] identified bacteria species and the GeneFinder tool 160 mapped reads to a panel of serotype and virulence genes using Bowtie2 [45]. Only in silico 161 predictions of serotype and virulence that matched a gene determinant at >80% nucleotide identity and over >80% target gene length were accepted. MLST alleles of seven housekeeping genes (adk, 162 fumC, gyrB, icd, mdh, purA, recA) were determined using MOST (Metric-Oriented Sequence Typer) 163 164 [46]. Shiga toxin gene subtyping was performed using a combined mapping and BLAST approach as

165 previously described [47].

166 The funding bodies approved and authorised informed consent documentation for farm survey

167 participants, to enable collection of dropped faecal pat samples from participant land. Permission had

been granted and consent obtained for the samples, strains and data to be used for further research.All farm participant personal data were handled in accordance with the UK Data Protection Act

170 (1998) and are now handled in accordance with the UK General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR

171 2018).

- 172 The de-identified bacterial genomes from human clinical samples were obtained from the National
- 173 Health Service (NHS) Lothian following ethical approval from the biorepository bank in NHS 174 L the service (NHS) Lothian following ethical approval from the biorepository bank in NHS
- 174 Lothian covering the sequencing of samples (20/ES/0061).

175 2.2 DNA extraction and sequencing of cattle-sourced bacterial strains.

176 DNA was extracted from the cattle-sourced bacterial strains using the DNeasy Blood and Tissue Kit

177 (Qiagen, Crawley, UK). The quantity of the DNA was measured using the Qubit Fluorimeter 3.0

178 (ThermoFisher Scientific) with the dsDNA Assay HS Kit. The stx subtype for all bovine isolates was

179 determined initially by PCR as previously described [36,39] and library preparation, sequencing and

- 180 analysis for serotype, MLST and Shiga toxin subtyping was performed at the SERL, as described
- 181 above.

182 2.3 Phylogenetic analysis

183 A subset of the Scottish human strain genomes held by the SERL that differed by fewer than 50

184 cgMLST (core genome MLST) alleles to bovine strains was determined using an ad-hoc cgMLST

185 schema with chewBBACA v2.5.5 [48], using allele profiles downloaded from EnteroBase

186 (https:/enterobase.warwick.ac.uk/schemes/Escherichia.cgMLSTv1) and made available for

187 comparison with the bovine genomes. This subset of human strain genomes were provided as paired

188 Illumina raw reads for full comparative analysis with all bovine strain genomes. Raw reads were quality filtered using bbduk (v38.45) with the settings 'k=19 mink=11 hdist=1 ktrim=r

minoverlap=12 qtrim=rl trimq=20 minlength=50'[49]. All genomes were assembled using SPAdes

191 (v3.15.3) with the --careful option [50]. Criteria for inclusion were 50-51% GC, total assembly length

192 of 4.5 - 6.5 Mbp, a duplication ratio below 1.021 and a minimum N50 of 40 Kbp. Genome alignment

193 was performed using Parsnp v1.5.6 with reference genome AP010953.1 (O26:H11 str. 11368) (4.03

194 Mbp, 35 612 polymorphic sites) [51]. Recombinant SNPs were filtered using Gubbins with default

195 settings (v3.0.0) [52]. A Maximum Likelihood tree (IQTree v2.1.2) was constructed from the filtered

196 core genome alignment of 198 sequences with the TVMe+ASC model and 1000 bootstraps [53].

197 Figures were generated using iTol [54].

198 2.4 Virulence, phage insertion site and antimicrobial resistance gene identification

All genomes were screened against a panel of 2710 virulence genes from the *E. coli* specific

200 virulence gene database (Date downloaded: 10 Sep 2021) using Abricate (v1.0.1), supplemented

with 139 additional gene alleles of interest, run with default parameters (--minid 80, --mincov 80)
 (Supplementary Table 2; <u>https://github.com/phac-nml/ecoli_vf</u>) [55,56]. The percent identity was

recorded and gene target categorized as positive or negative, according to whether the gene was

203 recorded and gene target categorized as positive or negative, according to whether the gene wa 204 detected using Abricate threshold parameters of minimum 80% coverage and 80% identity.

Additional targets included the *espK*, *ureD* and *Z2098* genes, thought to be indicative for potential

pathogenicity of O26:H11 *stx*-negative strains following acquisition of the *stx* gene [29,30].

207 Sequences for these genes were sourced from the O26:H11 reference strain 11368, GenBank

208 AP010953. Genomes were additionally screened using Abricate for the presence of four phage

insertion site genes commonly associated with stx1 and stx2 bacteriophage insertion into the O26

- 210 E.coli serogroup: yecE and wrbA for stx2 and yehV and sbcB for stx1 [4].
- 211 To examine the potential for antimicrobial resistance, strain genomes were screened for acquired
- 212 antimicrobial resistance genes (ARG) using <u>StarAMR</u> (v0.5.1), and the ResFinder gene database
- 213 (downloaded 07 Sep 2021) using default parameters (--pid-threshold 98, --percent-length-overlap 60)
- 214 [57,58]. Cattle strains positive for ARGs were submitted to the web-based Mobile Genetic Element

- Finder (<u>https://cge.food.dtu.dk/services/MobileElementFinder/</u>) on 17th-30th October 2022, in order to examine whether identified ARGs were associated with particular mobile genetic elements [59].
- 217 The local arrangement of genes within the genome was examined for the single integron bearing
- bovine strain, and for exploration of bacteriophage insertion site genes in bovine strains, using

219 Artemis 18.1.0 [60]. Insertion site genes were identified using the navigator tool with primer

- 220 sequences according to Bonanno et al. 2015 [4]. Nucleotide and amino acid sequences were extracted
- 221 as fasta and verified in BLAST (https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi) and Uniprot
- 222 (<u>https://www.uniprot.org/</u>) [61,62].
- The potential carriage of any prophage sequences was assessed for all bovine *stx*-negative strains by submission to PHASTER (https://phaster.ca/) in March/November 2022 [63].

225 2.5 Comparison with publicly available worldwide genomes for *E. coli* ST29 complex

Publicly available genomes from the *E. coli* ST29 complex (n=8511; Supplementary Table 3) were downloaded from EnteroBase on 16 March 2022 [42]. The HeirCC HC-1100 cluster "2" was used to filter genome assemblies and we further selected genomes for which "Country" metadata were available (n=8332, from 36 countries).

230 2.6 Pairwise distance in core genome alignment between Scottish bovine, human and publicly 231 available O26:H11 genomes

A core genome alignment of the downloaded EnteroBase genomes in the *E.coli* ST29 complex,

together with 198 of the genomes from this study, was generated using <u>Snippy (v4.6.0)</u> against the

O26:H11 strain 11368 genome (AP010953.1) and the pairwise distances between genomes were
 calculated using Disty (v0.1.0) [64,65]. A conservative threshold of 200 core SNPs was used to

capture clusters of epidemiologically linked isolates [66]. Distances were compared within herds,

between herds and between cattle and humans within Scotland, as well as between cattle to non-UK

country O26:H11 genomes.

239 2.7 Statistical Analysis

240 Fisher-Freeman-Halton Exact tests for comparing category proportions was performed in StatXact

241 Version 11 (Cytel Inc., Cambridge, MA, US). Associations between binary virulence gene

occurrence, *stx* profile and host species for all *stx*-positive O26:H11 genomes were performed using

243 nonmetric multidimensional scaling (NMS), PC-ORD software version 7.04 (MJM Software Design,

Gleneden Beach, OR, US). Strains that were *stx*-negative (n=22) were excluded from the analysis, since the almost complete separation in virulence profiles between ST396 and the two differing

since the almost complete separation in virulence profiles between ST396 and the two differing clusters of ST29 prevented the model from reaching a stable solution. Genes were excluded from the

247 analysis where they were present in <4% or >96% of the samples, identical to or highly correlated

with other genes (Supplementary Table 4; Supplementary Figure 1). The final NMS was run with 30

genes and 173 strain genomes. NMS was used with a grower distance measure. The dimensionality

of the data set was determined by plotting an inverse measure of fit ("stress") to the number of

251 dimensions. Optimal dimensionality was based on the number of dimensions with the lowest stress.

252 A three-dimensional solution was shown to be optimal. Several NMS runs were performed for each

analysis to ensure that the solution was stable and represented a configuration with the best possible

fit. On this basis, 500 iterations were used for each NMS run, using random starting coordinates.

256 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

257 3.1 Phylogenetic analysis of O26:H11 genomes

258 All O26:H11 strains belonged to one of three sequence types: ST21 (87.2%, 170/195), ST29 (8.7%, 259 17/195) and ST396 (2.6%, 5/195), or other single locus variants of these STs (n=3) (Figure 1). All 260 stx-positive O26:H11 bovine strains belonged to ST21, as did the majority of the human strains 261 included in this analysis, whilst all stx-negative O26:H11 bovine strains belonged to either the ST29 or ST396 lineages. Three bovine O177:H11 strains that were also typed as ST29 were included in the 262 263 phylogeny: two stx1a positive strains from a single herd which also yielded a stx-negative O26:H11 264 strain and one stx-negative strain from a herd yielding stx2a+stx1a positive O26:H11 strains. This ST 265 distribution of O26:H11 strains in Scotland is highly similar to that reported for human cases in 266 England [38] and broadly in line with the most recent phylogenetic analysis of worldwide O26:H11 genomes by Long et al. [67], in which 84% and 16% of strains were identified as ST21 and ST29, 267 268 respectively.

269 Within the ST21 lineage, bovine and human *stx*-positive strains were interspersed within a relatively 270 diverse phylogeny, comprising three main clades (Figure 1). The first clade contained *stx2a*-only 271 positive O26:H11 cattle and human strains, which falls within the ST21C1a sub-lineage, as described 272 by Ogura and colleagues [25]. The second clade comprised predominantly *stx1a* positive strains only, 273 with two exceptions in human clinical strains, where *stx2a* was also present. The third clade 274 contained a combination of both *stx1*-only and dual *stx2+stx1* positive strains. Strain ST and *stx*

subtype are outlined in Supplementary Table 1.

The first *stx2a*-only human strains isolated from clinical samples in Scotland were recorded in 2010 [34]. We did not identify any *stx2a*-only positive bovine strains in the 2002–2004 cattle survey (n=338 sampled herds), however we isolated *stx2a*-only positive strains from two herds in the 2014– 2015 survey (n=110 sampled herds) that clustered with ST21 human *stx2a*-only strains (Table 1, Supplementary Table 1). This *stx2a*-only lineage has not been reported in Scottish cattle prior to this survey and are most likely explained by a relatively recent introduction into Scottish cattle, after the estimated emergence of this clade in the mid-20th century [25].

283 We did not identify any Scottish *stx*-positive bovine strains belonging to the newly emerging ST29, 284 highly pathogenic stx2a-only new European clones [19,68] which has been isolated from clinical 285 cases throughout Europe and at low levels in Japan [69]. ST29 stx2a-only strains have been isolated 286 from <3% of Scottish clinical O26:H11 infections [34]. However, these strains were above the 50 287 cgMLST genetic distance threshold to Scottish bovine strains in our initial cgMLST-based screening, 288 the limit for selection of clinical strains for inclusion in the comparative phylogeny. Metadata 289 reported for clinical submissions to the national reference laboratory in England, indicated that ST29 290 stx2a-positive strains isolated from human cases reported within the UK were predominantly 291 associated with travel abroad [40]. This data would suggest that if ST29 stx2a-only O26:H11 are present and circulating in the UK cattle population, this is not currently resulting in identifed human 292 293 infection.

We were interested in investigating the potential for O26:H11 pathogenicity in Scottish cattle

295 regardless of stx status and therefore sequenced strains from each of the nineteen herds yielding stx-

negative isolates (n=22). The majority of *stx*-negative strains belonged to ST29 (n=17 strains),

297 although four herds yielded minority strains (n=5) in ST396, a single-locus variant of ST29 [19]

298 (Figure 1). The ST29 genomes were split into two distinct clades, a relatively conserved clade

phylogenetically closer to the ST21 lineage and a more diverse clade at a greater distance. The separation of *stx*-negative ST29 into distinct lineages, with one sublineage phylogenetically closer to *stx*-positive ST21 is a broadly similar finding to that reported by Ogura *et al.* [25]. This also concurs with the population structure observed in ST29 *stx*-negative O26:H11 strains isolated from both US

and New Zealand cattle populations [70,71] and with the recent clade classification of *stx*-negative ST29 lineages by Long *et al.* [67]. Three Archive bovine strains which had been confirmed as *stx*-

305 positive by PCR at the SERL prior to long term cryostorage, were found to be *stx*-negative on

306 resuscitation, by both genome sequencing and repeat PCR. This may have been due to spontaneous

307 excision of the *stx*-encoding prophage.

308

309 3.2 Pairwise distances between bovine isolates from the two Scottish cattle surveys

310 Multiple O26:H11 isolates from individual herds were available for ten Archive and seven BECS herds and 47 herds yielded a single strain per herd (Supplementary Table 1). Multiple strains within 311 312 herds were compared to examine within-herd diversity. Overall, the closest observed relationship was 313 within-herd/within-survey, with a minimum pairwise difference of 0 SNP and median of 3 314 (interquartile range, IQR = 5) (Figure 2, Supplementary Table 5), although strains within-herd from 315 the BECS survey had closer SNP distances than those within-herd from the Archive survey. Ten stx1a genomes were available for a single Archive herd and gave a median pairwise difference of 4 316 SNPs and maximum of 15 SNPs, clustered within a single node. These data suggest that within the 317 318 study herds O26:H11 isolates with the same stx-profile spread clonally at the herd level, rather than supporting multiple lineage introductions across a herd cohort. A similar observation has been 319 reported for O26:H11 within cattle herds in New Zealand [71]. However, where stx profile differed 320 within a herd, the SNP difference was found to be 128 SNPs or more, reflecting the presence of 321 322 different circulating lineages. Two herds yielded strains with the same stx subtype in both surveys, 323 however the genetic distance between these isolates was 69 SNPs or more. This also suggested the presence of distinct lineages, since this pairwise distance is higher than the expected variation from a 324 single lineage over a 10-year period [40]. 325

Regionally, across both cattle surveys, the median SNP difference between genomes from different herds within an animal health district was 76 (IQR, 77) and between genomes across different animal health districts the median SNP difference was 112 (IQR 63) (Figure 2, Supplementary Table 5). These data indicate that herds that were geographically closer, showed closer genetic relationships

between strains. This is contrary to observations on regional differences reported for New Zealand [71], and may be due to stock movements being more limited by geographical distance within

332 Scotland, particularly for herds based on Scottish islands.

333

3.3 Pairwise distances between Scottish bovine isolates, Scottish human isolates and other closely related O26:H11 genomes around the UK and globally

A total of 3969 (47.6%) publicly available genomes within the HierCC:1100 (core genome ST complex) clade 2 from EnteroBase, were found to be within 200 core SNPs from Scottish bovine strain genomes (Supplementary Table 3, Supplementary Table 6). These genomes represented 24 countries; countries excluded that fell beyond the 200 SNP threshold were from South America, Africa or Asia, each representing fewer than five genomes, except for China, for which 11 genomes were available

341 (Supplementary Table 6).

342 The distribution profiles for pairwise SNP difference between bovine strains, between human strains 343 and between cattle to humans within Scotland and to humans across the rest of the UK were very 344 similar (Figure 3). All showed a biphasic distribution, due to the presence of two major clusters of 345 strains, with a similar median pairwise SNP difference in Scotland of cattle to cattle (between herds), 346 cattle to human, and human to human of 110 (IQR 63), 114 (IQR 66) and 118 (IQR 70), respectively 347 (Supplementary Table 5). The closest relationship between any bovine strain and a Scottish human 348 strain was 9 SNP between a BECS isolate (2014) and a human strain isolated in 2019. The closest 349 relationship to any UK human strain was 7 SNPs between this same BECS strain and a non-Scottish 350 UK human strain isolated from an individual with diarrhoea from the South of England in 2015 351 (Supplementary Table 6). For the latter example, the close relationship between the South England 352 human strain and the Scottish cattle strain could be due to either the movement of cattle or of a 353 bovine-contaminated food source, from Scotland to South England, or through human travel to and 354 consequent infection within Scotland. This study does not allow us to draw any conclusion on 355 directionality or source attribution, however these data could indicate a common source reservoir for 356 the majority ST21C1b lineage strains from cattle and humans within the UK.

357 The closest pairwise relationship observed between a Scottish bovine strain and an external country 358 genome was 10 SNP between three bovine strains from Archive 24 to a Canadian strain 359 (ESC IB7316AA AS), followed by 21 SNP between a 2019 French strain (ESC FB8524AA AS) and a BECS 5 strain, and 26 SNP between an Archive 14 strain and a 2018 isolate from the United 360 361 States (ESC RA4669AA AS) (Figure 4, Supplementary Table 3, Supplementary Table 6). The strain source for all these closest genomes was designated as "Human" origin in the EnteroBase "Source 362 363 Type" field. The 10 SNP difference between the Archive bovine strains and the human source Canadian strain is unexpectedly close. The metadata associated with this Canadian strain indicates 364 source as a human with gastroenteritis, but does not provide information on isolation date. The 365 366 second closest Canadian strain at 33 SNPs to a BECS bovine strain is attributed to the Canadian Food 367 Inspection agency. The nearest pairwise difference to a designated bovine source genome in the 368 Canadian dataset was 134 SNPs, to a Canadian bovine faecal sample collected in 2014.

369 While two of the three non-UK strains that were closest matching to Scottish bovine strains were of 370 North American origin, overall, considering the proportion of genomes matched within 200 SNPs, 371 together with pairwise difference, Scottish cattle most closely matched strains from Europe than 372 elsewhere, with the greatest commonality seen with France and Belgium (Figure 4, Supplementary Table 6). More than 60% of downloaded genomes from France, Italy, Belgium and Germany were 373 374 within 200 SNPs of our Scottish bovine strains, compared with less than 40% for North American 375 strains. Japan was an unusual outlier, matching 80% of genomes within 200 SNPs of Scottish cattle. 376 It has been previously noted that Japan imported relatively high levels of cattle from Western countries during the second half of the 20th century [72], which may account for the closer 377 relationship of Scottish bovine strains to O26:H11 strains from Japan, than to other Asian-Pacific 378 379 countries. An analysis of source type by country was not performed due to a lack of available 380 metadata within EnteroBase for the majority of the downloaded genomes.

381 Defining a core genome alignment depends on the diversity and quality of genomes included in the 382 analysis. In this study, for the initial screen to identify Scottish human O26:H11 genomes that 383 clustered with the bovine O26:H11 genomes, we used a reference-free cgMLST clustering approach, 384 which would be less affected by sequence quality. For the subsequent in-depth analyses, we used the 385 more conservative Parsnp whole genome aligner to align Scottish human and bovine genomes. For 386 all comparisons of pairwise distances we used the more robust short sequence mapping-based 387 Snippy-Core-SNP approach, taken from the same core genome alignment generated using Snippy-

388 Core. The size of the alignment was approximately 276,190 SNPs. The pairwise distances calculated

here are only meaningful when used to compare subsets of genomes that were included in the same core-genome alignment. This is because the core genome, by definition, is the collection of

391 nucleotide positions that are conserved across all the genomes in the given alignment and can change

392 according to the diversity of genomes being included.

393

394 **3.4 Virulence gene profiles**

395 All 195 O26:H11 genomes were screened against an E. coli-specific virulence gene database,

together with selected additional gene targets [56] and recorded as positive or negative according to

397 the described Abricate threshold parameters, (Supplementary Table 4, Supplementary Table 7). In

total, a conserved set of 154 genes, were identified as present in all genomes irrespective of *stx* status, including the key virulence factor genes *eae*, *tir*, *cif*, *espA*, *espB*, encoded on the LEE pathogenicity

island. Other common virulence genes present across all strains included *fim D, fim F-H, gadX, iss*,

lpfA, and the non-locus of enterocyte effacement effector (*nle*) genes *nleB1*, *nleG7*, *nleG8* and *nleH1*.

402 This observation concurs with the typical O26:H11 virulence profiles previously reported in bovine

403 EPEC O26:H11 strains from the United States and in STEC O26:H11 worldwide [67,70].

404 A total of 207 genes displayed differential occurrence, with distinct distributions noted according to

405 stx status (Supplementary Table 7). All genomes were negative for the *etpD* gene, with 96.5% of all

stx-positive strains (n=167/173) showing the pVF profile typically observed in ST21 strains
 ehxA+/katP+/espP+/etpD- (Figure 5). Three *stx*-positive Archive bovine strains from different herds

were ehxA-/katP-/espP-/etpD-, one Archive bovine and one human strain were ehxA+/katP+/espP-

409 /*etpD*-, with a further human strain having an *ehxA*+/*katP*-/*espP*-/*etpD*- pVF profile. The *stx*-negative

410 ST396 strains bore an identical core virulence profile to stx-positive strains, including the

411 *ehxA+/katP+/espP+/etpD-* profile. A further six *stx*-negative Scottish cattle herds yielded seven

412 strains that were *ehxA+/katP-/espP-/etpD-*, while the remaining nine *stx*-negative herds yielded ten

413 strains that were negative for all pVF genes. The *espL* and *fimB* genes showed similar distributions to

414 *ehxA* across all *stx* profiles, excluding the *stx*-negative ST396 lineage, of which all but one strain was

415 fimB negative. All but one of the stx-negative strains, regardless of ST or pVF profile, also carried a 416 distinct set of genes that were not detected in any stx-positive strains, including the genes aec17,

410 arstinet set of genes that were not detected in any six-positive strains, including the genes *aec17*, 417 *aec18*, *aec22*, *aec23*, *hcp* and *vgrG*, which encode components of the type VI secretion system [73],

418 and the genes Z0263 and Z0265.

419

420 **3.4.1** stx-positive strain virulence profiles

421 Other than *stx* subtype genes, the only gene specifically associated with *stx*-positive status was the 422 iron regulatory protein 1 gene, *irp1*, in 98.9% (n=171/173) of *stx*-positive strains, but not observed in

423 the *stx*-negative strains (Supplementary Table 7). In contrast, *irp2* was detected in all strains,

424 regardless of stx status. This is unusual, given that irp1 and irp2 are typically found together within a

425 high pathogenicity island. However, further analysis of a subset of these genomes using the Artemis

426 genome browser did identify an *irp1* variant allele in the *stx*-negative strains, bearing a nine base pair

427 insertion sequence, which presumably reduced the alignment to below the set Abricate threshold

428 parameters. The absence of *irp1* in the two *stx*-positive strains was found to be due to a contig break

429 within the gene. A further gene associated with *stx*-positivity was *nleG5-1*. This gene was found in $\frac{1}{2}$

430 97.7% (n=169/173) of *stx*-positive strains, but only 9.1% (n=2/22) of *stx*-negative strains.

431 Strains that were positive for stx2-only were distinguished from all other stx profiles, including

432 negative strains, by the absence of the type VI secretory system gene aec30. However, other aec

433 subtypes such as *aec17-19, 22, 23* were either absent in all stx strains, but detected in the majority of 434 stx-negatives, or in the case of subtypes aec24-29, detected across all categories. Additional genes

that were absent in stx2-positive strains, but observed in all other stx-positive strains and in up to 435

50% of negative strains included the *espO1-1*, *iuc* and *iut* genes (Supplementary Table 7). 436

437 A non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMS) ordination model was constructed to examine 438 potential associations between binary virulence gene occurrence, stx profile and host species for all 439 stx-positive O26:H11 genomes (n=173) (Figure 6; Supplementary Table 8a). A three-dimensional 440 solution to the model was obtained which explained 83.5% of the variation (axis 1 = 40.1%, axis 2 =441 27.3%, axis 3 = 16.1%). The graph was rotated to maximise the distance between cattle and human 442 strains on Axis 1 (Supplementary Figure 2). Axis 2 is explained by stx1 (Kendall's tau, -4.28) and 443 stx1+stx2 (Kendall's tau, 0.465) strains. Stx2 was located primarily on axis 3 (Kendall's tau, 0.312) 444 (Figure 6). A multiple permutation test (MRPP) found significant differences between human and 445 bovine for stx1 (bovine versus human, p=0.002) and stx1+stx2 (bovine versus human, p=0.002). 446 There were no differences for stx2-only strains between bovine and humans (MRPP, p=0.158). Using 447 Kendall's tau as an indicator, most genes were not highly correlated with the NMS axes, though a 448 weak to moderate association was observed for axis 3 and the non-LEE effector genes *nleC* and 449 nleG2-4 (Supplementary Table 8b). These data suggest that for our population, whilst some 450 differences exist in virulence background between the differing stx subtypes and host source within 451 the majority ST21 lineage, it was not possible to attribute this to specific genes. Virulence profiles 452 within the stx2a-only clade were more conserved than for the stx1 and stx1+stx2 strains, which supports the phylogenetic analysis and observation that these strains have appeared in both Scottish 453

- 454 cattle and human strain populations only relatively recently.
- 455

456 3.4.2 stx-negative strain virulence profiles

457 The 22 stx-negative strains from 19 herds grouped into two core virulence profiles, "A" and "B", 458 across the ST29 and ST396 lineages, resulting in three distinct stx-negative populations overall (Figure 5; Supplementary Table 9).

459

460 The 12 "A" profile strains, which included all ST396 strains from four herds and ST29 strains from 461 six herds, were located within the two clades phylogenetically closer to the stx-positive ST21 lineage. 462 The majority of "A" strains carried ehxA, Z2201 and espO1-1, as well as the triplicate of genes, ureD, 463 espK and Z2098, suggested as key markers for identifying E. coli with the potential for EHEC-type pathogenicity [30]. The presence of at least one of these three genes was always detected in all stx-464 465 positive bovine and human strains. ST396, is a less common ST variant of ST29 and all strains in this clade carried a greater complement of virulence genes, including the full ehxA + /katP + /espP + /etpD466 467 pVF profile, as well as in all except one strain, the three espK, ureD and Z2098 genes. ST396 stx2dpositive O26:H11 strains bearing the *ehxA+/kapP+/espP+/etpD*- profile have previously been 468

- reported in a minority of human HUS cases from Italy [74]. 469
- 470 The virulence gene profile borne by these "A" profile stx-negative strains, together with the
- 471 phylogenetic grouping, is consistent with an ST29C1 clade classification [25,67] and suggestive that 472 the strains are EHEC-like derivatives. The loss and acquisition of stx genes from O26 strains, both in
- 473 vivo and in vitro, has been previously documented [28,75]. Current diagnostic reliance on a positive

PCR result for *stx* and *eae* genes only, may therefore potentially result in false-negative classification
of EHEC strains that have lost the *stx* gene during laboratory isolation or within host. Our data

476 concur with the proposal by Delannoy *et al.* [30], that additional genes including *ehxA*, *espK*, *ureD*

477 and Z2098 should be included in diagnostic screening assays and as shown here, are optimal gene
 478 markers for the identification of O26:H11 EHEC potential in livestock and animal products.

4/8 markers for the identification of 020.111 Effect potential in investock and animal products

479 A further nine herds yielded ten ST29 EPEC strains that were negative for *ehxA* and bore the 480 virulence profile "B". Distinguishing genes for this profile included b2972, the gsp cluster genes C-481 M, yghg, hlyA, lda(A-I) and ccdb (Figure 5, Supplementary Table 9). This virulence profile is 482 consistent with the ST29C3 clade outlined by Long et al. [67] and observed elsewhere [27,29,70]. 483 Strains in this clade, whilst bearing a combination of virulence factors found across varying E. coli 484 pathotypes [10], do not appear to have the appropriate virulence background for EHEC pathogenicity 485 following a potential recombination event with stx-bearing bacteriophage and are mostly represented 486 by EPEC strains. The b2972 locus (*pppA* gene), *yghG* and *gsp(C-M*) are located in a common gene 487 cluster associated with the Type II secretion system found in both pathogenic and non-pathogenic E. 488 *coli* strains [76,77]. The *pppA* and *yghG* genes are also associated with regulation of heat-labile (LT) 489 toxin [78–80]. *hlyA* encodes α -haemolysin, an important cytotoxin found in uropathogenic E. coli 490 [81], while *ccdb* encodes a cytotoxin present in the toxin-antitoxin system targeting *E. coli* gyrase and is carried by the F plasmid [82]. The *lda* genes, present in the locus of diffuse adherence, encode 491 492 adhesins associated with atypical EPEC and have also been reported in an O26:H11 paediatric

493 clinical strain [83].

494 One herd (BECS_2) yielded both ST21 *stx1a+stx2a* positive and ST396 *stx*-negative strains bearing

495 very similar key virulence genes, including ehxA+/katP+/espP+/etpD-, though missing nleG-3,

nleG2-4, nleG5-1 and *fimB*. This herd also yielded an ST29 O177:H11 *stx*-negative strain, which
 while *ehxA* positive, was *katP* and *espP* negative. In contrast, a second herd (BECS 28) yielded both

while entA positive, was kair and espr hegative. In contrast, a second herd (BECS_28) yielded bo stx1a and stx-negative O26:H11 strains bearing the "B" virulence profile. A third herd (BECS_19)

499 generated an ST29 O26:H11 group "A" stx-negative strain and O177:H11 stx1a strains, both of

500 similar virulence profiles, though locating to different clades within the phylogeny.

501

502 3.5 Phage insertion site genes

503 The stx gene is encoded by mobile bacteriophage, which integrate into the bacterial host genome at

504 particular chromosomal insertion sites [84,85]. Insertion occurs within or adjacent to the host

505 insertion site gene and typically causes disruption to the insertion site gene sequence. A number of 506 integration sites have been identified for O26:H11 STEC, including the *yecE*, *wrbA*, *yehV* and *sbcB*

507 genes [4]. In order to examine whether there was any evidence for insertion of *stx*-phage at these sites

across the collection of strains in this study, we compared the gene sequence identity obtained from

509 the Abricate output, with presence and absence of *stx*, and the *stx* subtype. We observed variability in

510 nucleotide sequence percentage identity in the *stx* bacteriophage insertion site genes *yecE* and *yehV*,

511 according to stx status (Figure 7; Supplementary Table 10). yehV is one of the main insertion sites in

512 O26:H11 for the *stx*1 bacteriophage and *yecE* for *stx*2 [4]. For *yecE*, variation in nucleotide

513 percentage identity was significantly associated with the presence of the stx2 gene (p < .001, test

statistic 196, degrees of freedom 3), with 97% (64/66) of stx2-positive genomes showing a 90.6% identity, and 98% (126/129) of stx1-only and stx-negative genomes showing 100% identity to *vecE*.

In contrast, significant variation in percent identity for *yehV* appeared to be associated with stxl

status (p < .001, test statistic 90.8, degrees of freedom 6), with the majority of the ST21 stx1-positive

- 518 genomes, as well as a subset of *stx*-negative ST29, showing 94.13% identity to *yehV*. There was 519 limited variability in percent identity across the genomes to *wrbA* and *sbcB*: 99% of genomes showed
- 520 96.37% identity to *wrbA* (193/195) and 100% identity to *sbcB* (194/195).

521 The individual insertion site gene size, sequence and gene arrangements in the vicinity of the yecE 522 and yehV genes were examined for a subset of bovine strains across the different stx categories using 523 the Artemis genome viewer [60] (Supplementary Table 1). In the stx-negative and stx1-positive 524 genomes examined, yecE was 819 base pairs (bp) in size and was located within the consecutive gene 525 sequence yecD, yecE, yecN, cmoA and cmoB. In contrast, the four stx2-only positive bovine strains 526 contained a truncated 111 bp fragment directly located next to the *yecD* gene, the latter immediately 527 adjacent to a contig break. The truncated 111 bp fragment had 100% homology to bases 1-96 of the 528 full length yecE. A further 816 bp gene was located on an alternate contig at a different location 529 within the genome, adjacent to the yecN, cmoA and cmoB genes, in most case flanked by an integrase gene. This 816 bp gene showed 0% homology to yecE between bases 1-70 and 99% homology 530 531 between bases 71-819. All 13 stx1+stx2 strains examined also showed a truncated 816 bp vecE gene 532 adjacent to an integrase gene and seven of these additionally bore the 111 bp fragment. This suggests 533 the potential occurrence of an integration event at the *vecE* site, resulting in disruption of this gene in 534 the *stx2*-positive strains, which was not observed in the *stx1*-only and *stx*-negative strains.

We examined the yehV (mlrA), gene length and arrangement in 6 stx1-positive, 13 stx1+stx2 and 22 535 536 stx-negative cattle O26:H11 genomes. All stx1-positive, 11/13 stx1+stx2 and the 7 "A" profile ST29 537 stx-negative genomes showed $\leq 100\%$ homology to *yehV* and contained a 648 bp gene of 94.13% identity to *vehV*, flanked in all cases by *vehW* and the integrase *IntO* 1 or *IntO* 2 genes [86]. The 538 539 presence of the truncated yehV gene flanked by integrase intQ genes is highly suggestive of a phage 540 insertion event in these 7 "A" profile ST29 stx-negative strains. In contrast, 9/10 stx-negative ST29 profile "B" strains with 100% homology to yehV, as well as the three O177:H11 strains, contained a 541 542 full length 732 bp yehV (mlrA) gene, flanked by yehW and the sensory histidine kinase gene ypdA-1. 543 One "B" profile ST29 stx-negative strain contained two smaller gene fragments, and two stx1+stx2strains bore the full-sized gene 544

The ST396 "A" profile *stx*-negative strains carried a greater complement of virulence genes than the ST29 *stx*-negative strains. However, the *yehV* local gene arrangement in these ST396 strains did not show evidence of phage integration or interruption, with an intact 732bp *yehV* gene. We examined the gene arrangement in these strains at another potential bacteriophage insertion site, the *torS-T* intergenic region [87], however this region was uninterrupted in all the ST396 strains.

550 All stx-negative cattle genomes were submitted to PHASTER for identification of any stx-prophage 551 regions, however the results were inconclusive (Supplementary Table 9). Both intact and incomplete 552 prophage regions with homology to stx-prophage as the first or second listed most common phage were identified in the majority of the stx-negative strains. Due to the limitations of short read genome 553 554 assembly, long read sequencing would be required to confirm the presence of any inserted prophage 555 in stx-negative strains. However, given the distinct gene arrangement in the locality of vehV, together 556 with the virulence background present in these strains, it would seem probable that they had either 557 the potential for acquiring stx, or had previously been stx-positive and subsequently lost the stx gene from an integrated prophage. 558

559

560 **3.6** Antimicrobial resistance profiles of bovine strains

561 Acquired antimicrobial resistance genes (ARGs) were identified in silico for 12.1% (12/99) of the

562 O26:H11 bovine strains, in 15.6% of the cattle herds (10/64) (Table 2). The commonest genes

563 detected were *sul2* and *tet*, found in six herds, aph(3") and aph(6") in five herds, and bla_{TEM} and 564 *dfrA*, each detected in four herds. Three-quarters of resistant strains (9/12) were positive for more

than one ARG (median 4.5, range 1-5), with the commonest combination being $aph(3^{"})$, $aph(6^{"})$,

together with one or more further ARGs. Seventeen human strains (17.7%) carried ARGs (Table 2),

with the commonest being $aph(3^{"})$ and $aph(6^{"})$ in 13 strains, followed by sul2 and floR in eight

568 strains. Multiple resistance was also common in human strains (median 4, range 1-9).

569 Strains carrying resistance were screened for the presence of mobile genetic elements

570 (Supplementary Table 11). One bovine Archive genome carried a clinical class 1 integron with a

571 typical cassette arrangement of 5'-*intI1*, dfrA1, aadA1, $qacE\Delta1$, sul1-3' with an additional two

572 genes, *floR* and *sul2* found in close proximity on the same contig. Two multiply resistant human

573 strains also carried clinical class 1 integrons. Across all genomes, bla_{TEM} genes were found on 574 transposon Tn2 in six cases, and in cattle *dfrA1* was associated with the composite transposon

5/4 transposon 1n2 in six cases, and in cattle *djrA1* was associated with the composite transp

575 cn_4568_IS26 in two herds.

576 The resistome seen in the bovine isolates was very similar to that observed in the Scottish human 577 dataset, with the commonest ARGs conferring resistance to streptomycin and spectinomycin 578 aminoglycosides, sulphonamides, tetracyclines and beta-lactam agents such as ampicillin, the latter 579 class designated as critically important antimicrobials for human health by the World Health 580 Organisation [88]. The proportion of the bovine strains carrying ARGs is in line with that reported in 581 a collection of O26:H11 strains from home (non-travel associated) human STEC O26 cases from England & Wales isolated during 2015 [89], but slightly lower than described in a more recent report 582 on human case clonal complex 29 STEC isolates in England between 2014-2021 [41]. Our results 583 584 differ markedly from the very high AMR prevalence reported in a collection of O26:H11 strains from 585 feedlot cattle in the United States [70], however this likely reflects differences in the management 586 systems and associated antimicrobial usage of the livestock systems between the two countries.

587 Overall, these data are in accordance with current antimicrobial usage observed within the bovine 588 sector in the UK, with beta-lactams, tetracycline and streptomycin being the most frequently 589 prescribed antimicrobials in both beef and dairy cattle [90,91]. Given ruminants are the primary 590 reservoir source for human infection within the UK and antimicrobial therapy is generally not 591 indicated in human STEC infection[92], this agreement in resistome profile between the Scottish 592 cattle and human genomes is not unexpected.

593

594 4. CONCLUSION

595 In conclusion, within the study herds all *stx*-positive cattle O26:H11 strains fell within the ST21 596 lineage and no ST29 stx-positive strains were identified. Bovine and clinical human strain genomes 597 were relatively well interspersed, with stx subtype generally clade specific. Highly pathogenic stx2a-598 only ST21 were identified in two herds from the second cattle survey and in human strains from 2010 599 onwards. Where multiple strains were available from individual herds we observed limited variability 600 within stx-subtype, suggesting same stx-subtype strains typically spread clonally at the farm level, rather than supporting multiple lineage introductions across a cohort. Half of the stx-negative survey 601 602 herds yielded O26:H11 strains with virulence profiles similar to that observed in stx-positive strains, 603 including the genes ehxA, espK, Z2098, which have been proposed as markers for "EHEC-like"

- potential. These data suggest that the reservoir of O26:H11 in Scottish cattle bearing a genomic background compatible with EHEC potential and therefore of public health concern may be greater than would be expected based on detection of the STEC markers *stx* and *eae* alone.

609 TABLES

Strain Collection (Year)	Serotype	<i>stx</i> gene profile	Number of genomes	Reference
Archive cattle	O26:H11	stx1	41	Pearce et al. 2006
(2002–2004)		stx1+stx2	16	[36]
		stx-negative	3	
BECS cattle	O26:H11	stx1	10	Hoyle et al. 2021 [39]
(2014–2015)		stx2	4	
		stx1+stx2	6	
		stx-negative	19	
	O177:H11	stx1	2	
		stx-negative	1	
	O103:H14	stx-negative	1	
Human (SERL)	O26:H11	stx1	56	Food Standards
(2002–2020)		stx2	6	Scotland, 2020 [34]
		stx1+stx2	34	

Table 1. Summary of the bovine and human bacterial strain genomes included in this study.

Table 2. Summary of antimicrobial resistance genes detected in the Scottish bovine and human

614	O26:H11 genomes by STARAMR and ResFinder databases, where P indicates genome positive for
615	respective genes.

Strain ID	Source	ant(3'') or aadA1	aph(3")-Ib	aph(6")-Id	1-VXO <i>P</i> 1	<i>bla</i> тем-1в	<i>bla</i> TEM-1C	bla ^{TEM-30}	dfrAI	dfr:A5	floR	mph(B)	sull	sul2	tet A	tet B	tet C
XH2001256	Archive_31															Р	
XH2001264r	Archive_14	Р							Р		Р		Р	Р			
XH2001404	Archive_35		Р	Р				Р						Р	Р		
XH800939X	BECS_2		Р	Р			Р		Р					Р			
XH800941P	BECS_2		Р	Р			Р		Р					Р			
XH800951Y	BECS_16		Р	Р			Р		Р					Р			
XH800956T	BECS_25									Р					Р		
XH800958M	BECS_27		Р	Р		Р								Р	Р		
XH800985H	BECS_12		Р	Р							Р			Р			
XH800986Y	BECS_12		Р	Р							Р			Р			
XH800989A	BECS_24																Р
XH801004W	BECS_6																Р
SME-18-85	Human					Р											
SME-18-152	Human		Р	Р		Р								Р			
SME-18-190	Human	Р	Р	Р					Р		Р	Р	Р	Р	Р		
SME-18-45	Human		Р	Р													
SME-18-27	Human		Р	Р		Р					Р			Р	Р		
SME-18-201	Human		Р	Р		Р					Р			Р	Р		
SME-18-138	Human	Р											Р		Р		
SME-18-30	Human		Р	Р							Р			Р			
SME-18-194	Human		Р	Р			Р							Р			
SME-18-88	Human		Р	Р							Р			Р			
SME-18-10	Human		Р	Р				Р									
MUOON6	Human		Р	Р													
SME-19-228	Human		Р	Р							Р						
SME-18-195	Human		Р	Р													
SME-19-812	Human													Р			
SME-20-404	Human	Р			Р						Р			Р			
SME-20-481	Human		Р	Р							Р			Р			

617 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

618 Figure 1. A Maximum Likelihood core genome phylogenetic analysis of Scottish bovine and human

O26:H11 isolates (n=195) and three O177:H11 strains (*) analysed in this study. The inner ring 619

shows the presence of the stx1 and stx2 genes and the outer ring shows the MLST number. The tips 620 621 are coloured by source and dataset (cattle - BECS [orange] or Archive [yellow]; human clinical

622 [grey]). Red circles indicate branches with >90% bootstrap support. Tree scale is in substitutions per 623 site.

624 Figure 2. Histogram showing pairwise SNP differences <200 SNP, between bovine O26:H11 strains (n=99), for the comparisons "Within Herd", "Within Region" (excludes Within Herd), "Between 625 626 Regions" and "Between All Herds".

Figure 3. Histogram showing pairwise SNP differences between bovine O26:H11 strains (n=99), 627

628 Scottish human (n=96) and rest of UK human (n=1217), displaying comparison with <200 SNP

629 difference. Comparisons given as "Cattle to Scottish Human", "Between Scottish Cattle Herds", 630 Cattle to rest UK Human" and "Between Scottish Human". Pairwise comparisons include bovine

631 strains across both surveys.

Figure 4. Raincloud plot for the pairwise SNP difference between bovine O26:H11 strains (n=99) to 632

633 publicly available O26:H11 genomes from other countries present within the EnteroBase E.coli ST29

634 complex. Pairwise comparisons displayed for bovine strains across both surveys to countries where 635 five or more genomes match to bovine strains < 200 SNPs. Error bars illustrate the median and

636 interquartile range.

637 Figure 5. A Maximum Likelihood core genome phylogenetic analysis of Scottish bovine and human 638 O26:H11 isolates (n=195) and three O177:H11 strains (*), showing the presence of 14 selected key 639 virulence genes or gene clusters. From inner to outer ring (ehxA, katP, espP, ureD, espK, Z2098, iuciut, espO1-1, aec30, aec17, hlyA, gsp-yghg, lda, ccdb). Red circles indicate branches with >90% 640 641 bootstrap support. Tree scale is in substitutions per site.

642 Figure 6. Non-metric multidimensional scaling ordination model to examine potential associations 643 between a subset of differential gene occurrence for host source-stx profile combined (Human, Bovine; stx1: stx1, stx2: stx2, stx1+stx2: stx12), for all stx-positive genomes (n=173). Arrows

644

645 indicate vector direction.

646 Figure 7. A Maximum Likelihood core genome phylogenetic analysis of Scottish bovine and human O26:H11 isolates (n=195) and three O177:H11 (*) showing the sequence conservation of four known 647 phage insertion sites (yecE, yehV, sbcB, wrbA). Red circles indicate branches with >90% bootstrap 648 support. Tree scale is in substitutions per site. 649

650

- 651
- 652
- 653
- 654

655 CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

658 AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

659 D.V.H., A.H., L.A. and D.G., conceptualized the study. D.V.H. obtained funding for the study.

660 D.V.H. and B.W. analysed all the data and wrote the original manuscript. A.H. and L.A. sequenced

the isolates and curated data. B.W. performed bioinformatics analyses, including genome assembly,

polishing, annotation, phylogenetics and tree diagram generation. D.V.H carried out Artemis strain

analysis. K.M. isolated bovine strains from the BECS survey and prepared DNA. S.C.T., M.C.P. and
 G.J.G. performed the original cattle surveys and provided samples from which bovine isolates were

665 generated. M.C.T performed statistical analyses. A.B. performed data curation. S.D. and P.F.

provided guidance for interpretation of O26:H11 genomes. All listed authors reviewed and edited the

667 manuscript.

668 FUNDING INFORMATION

669 This research was funded by the Wellcome Trust, through a personal fellowship to D.V.H.

670 (105832/Z/14/Z). Additional resources to D.V.H and part funding for B.W. were provided through an

671 Institute Strategic Programme grant from the Biotechnology and Biological Sciences Research

672 Council (BBS/E/D/20002173). B.W. was also part funded by the Novo Nordisk Foundation Fund

673 (Grant: NNF16OC0021856: Global Surveillance of Antimicrobial Resistance).

674 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

675 We thank Sharif Shaaban for assisting with the initial ChewBBACA comparison of clinical and cattle

676 genomes and Stella Mazeri for assisting with R script provision for figure generation. We are grateful

677 to the staff of the Scottish O157/STEC Reference Laboratory for laboratory assistance and to all the

678 farmers who participated in the original Archive and BECS cattle surveys.

679 For the purpose of open access, the author has applied a CC-BY public copyright licence to any

680 Author Accepted Manuscript version arising from this submission.

681

682 REFERENCES

- World Health Organization, Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. Shiga
 toxin-producing *Escherichia coli* (STEC) and food: attribution, characterization, and monitoring.
 Published Online First: 2018.https://apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/272871 (accessed 12 Dec
 2022).
- Kolenda R, Burdukiewicz M, Schierack P. A systematic review and meta-analysis of the
 epidemiology of pathogenic *Escherichia coli* of calves and the role of calves as reservoirs for
 human pathogenic *E. coli*. Front Cell Infect Microbiol. 2015;5:23. doi:10.3389/fcimb.2015.00023
- Kintz E, Brainard J, Hooper L, *et al.* Transmission pathways for sporadic Shiga-toxin producing
 E. coli infections: A systematic review and meta-analysis. Int J Hyg Env. Health. 2017;220:57–
 67. doi:10.1016/j.ijheh.2016.10.011
- Bonanno L, Loukiadis E, Mariani-Kurkdjian P, *et al.* Diversity of Shiga toxin-producing
 Escherichia coli (STEC) O26:H11 strains examined via *stx* subtypes and insertion sites of *stx* and
 espk bacteriophages. Appl Env. Microbiol. 2015;81:3712–21. doi:10.1128/AEM.00077-15
- Scheutz F, Teel LD, Beutin L, *et al.* Multicenter evaluation of a sequence-based protocol for
 subtyping Shiga toxins and standardizing Stx nomenclature. J Clin Microbiol. 2012;50:2951–63.
 doi:10.1128/JCM.00860-12
- Hughes AC, Zhang Y, Bai X, *et al.* Structural and functional characterization of Stx2k, a new
 subtype of Shiga toxin 2. *Microorganisms* 2019;8:4. doi:10.3390/microorganisms8010004
- 701 7 Gill A, Dussault F, McMahon T, *et al.* Characterization of Atypical Shiga Toxin Gene Sequences
 702 and Description of Stx2j, a New Subtype. *J Clin Microbiol* 2022;60:e0222921.
 703 doi:10.1128/jcm.02229-21
- Friedrich AW, Bielaszewska M, Zhang W-L, *et al. Escherichia coli* harboring Shiga toxin 2 gene
 variants: frequency and association with clinical symptoms. *J Infect Dis* 2002;185:74–84.
 doi:10.1086/338115
- Persson S, Olsen KEP, Ethelberg S, *et al.* Subtyping method for *Escherichia coli* Shiga toxin
 (Verocytotoxin) 2 variants and correlations to clinical manifestations. *J Clin Microbiol* 2007;45:2020–4. doi:10.1128/JCM.02591-06
- 10 Kaper JB, Nataro JP, Mobley HLT. Pathogenic *Escherichia coli*. Nat Rev Microbiol 2004;2:123–
 40. doi:10.1038/nrmicro818
- 11 Newton HJ, Sloan J, Bulach DM, *et al.* Shiga Toxin–producing Escherichia coli Strains Negative
 for Locus of Enterocyte Effacement. *Emerg Infect Dis* 2009;15:372–80.
 doi:10.3201/eid1502.080631
- Colello R, Krüger A, Velez MV, *et al.* Identification and detection of iha subtypes in LEE negative Shiga toxin-producing Escherichia coli (STEC) strains isolated from humans, cattle and
 food. *Heliyon* 2019;5:e03015. doi:10.1016/j.heliyon.2019.e03015

- 13 Denamur E, Clermont O, Bonacorsi S, *et al.* The population genetics of pathogenic Escherichia
 coli. *Nat Rev Microbiol* 2021;19:37–54. doi:10.1038/s41579-020-0416-x
- 14 Nataro JP, Kaper JB. Diarrheagenic *Escherichia coli*. *Clin Microbiol Rev* 1998;11:142–201.
 doi:10.1128/CMR.11.1.142
- 15 Caprioli A, Morabito S, Brugère H, *et al.* Enterohaemorrhagic *Escherichia coli*: emerging issues
 on virulence and modes of transmission. *Vet Res* 2005;**36**:289–311. doi:10.1051/vetres:2005002
- I6 Johnson KE, Thorpe CM, Sears CL. The emerging clinical importance of non-O157 Shiga toxin producing *Escherichia coli*. Clin Infect Dis. 2006;43:1587–95. doi:10.1086/509573
- 17 European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control. Shiga toxin-producing *Escherichia coli* (STEC) infection - Annual epidemiological report for 2020. *Eur Cent Dis Prev Control* Published Online First: 12 September 2022.https://www.ecdc.europa.eu/en/publicationsdata/shiga-toxin-producing-escherichia-coli-stec-infection-annual-epidemiological-0 (accessed 12 Dec 2022).
- Parsons BD, Zelyas N, Berenger BM, *et al.* Detection, characterization, and typing of Shiga
 toxin-producing *Escherichia coli*. Front Microbiol. 2016;7:478. doi:10.3389/fmicb.2016.00478
- Bielaszewska M, Mellmann A, Bletz S, *et al.* Enterohemorrhagic *Escherichia coli* O26:H11/H-: a
 new virulent clone emerges in Europe. Clin Infect Dis. 2013;56:1373–81. doi:10.1093/cid/cit055
- 20 Zweifel C, Cernela N, Stephan R. Detection of the emerging Shiga toxin-producing *Escherichia coli* O26:H11/H- sequence type 29 (ST29) clone in human patients and healthy cattle in
 Switzerland. Appl Env. Microbiol. 2013;**79**:5411–3. doi:10.1128/AEM.01728-13
- Delannoy S, Mariani-Kurkdjian P, Bonacorsi S, *et al.* Characteristics of emerging human pathogenic *Escherichia coli* O26:H11 strains isolated in France between 2010 and 2013 and
 carrying the *stx2d* gene only. J Clin Microbiol. 2015;**53**:486–92. doi:10.1128/JCM.02290-14
- 22 Jones G, Lefevre S, Donguy MP, *et al.* Outbreak of Shiga toxin-producing *Escherichia coli* (STEC) O26 paediatric haemolytic uraemic syndrome (HUS) cases associated with the consumption of soft raw cow's milk cheeses, France, March to May 2019. Euro Surveill. 2019;24. doi:10.2807/1560-7917.ES.2019.24.22.1900305
- 23 Severi E, Vial F, Peron E, *et al.* Community-wide outbreaks of haemolytic uraemic syndrome associated with Shiga toxin-producing *Escherichia coli* O26 in Italy and Romania: a new challenge for the European Union. Euro Surveill. 2016;**21**. doi:10.2807/1560-7917.ES.2016.21.49.30420
- 24 Loconsole D, Giordano M, Centrone F, *et al.* Epidemiology of Shiga toxin-producing *Escherichia coli* infections in Southern Italy after implementation of symptom-based surveillance of bloody diarrhea in the pediatric population. Int J Env. Res Public Health. 2020;17. doi:10.3390/ijerph17145137
- 25 Ogura Y, Gotoh Y, Itoh T, *et al.* Population structure of *Escherichia coli* O26:H11 with recent and repeated *stx2* acquisition in multiple lineages. Microb Genom. 2017;**3**.
 doi:10.1099/mgen.0.000141

- Fratamico PM, Yan X, Caprioli A, *et al.* The complete DNA sequence and analysis of the
 virulence plasmid and of five additional plasmids carried by Shiga toxin-producing *Escherichia coli* O26:H11 strain H30. *Int J Med Microbiol* 2011;**301**:192–203.
 doi:10.1016/j.ijmm.2010.09.002
- 27 Leomil L, Pestana de Castro AF, Krause G, *et al.* Characterization of two major groups of
 diarrheagenic *Escherichia coli* O26 strains which are globally spread in human patients and
 domestic animals of different species. *FEMS Microbiol Lett* 2005;249:335–42.
 doi:10.1016/j.femsle.2005.06.030
- 28 Bielaszewska M, Prager R, Kock R, *et al.* Shiga toxin gene loss and transfer in vitro and in vivo
 during enterohemorrhagic *Escherichia coli* O26 infection in humans. Appl Env. Microbiol.
 2007;**73**:3144–50. doi:10.1128/AEM.02937-06
- Portion 2018
 Portion 2018
 Portion 2018
 Portion 2011
 Porti
- 30 Delannoy S, Beutin L, Fach P. Discrimination of enterohemorrhagic *Escherichia coli* (EHEC)
 from non-EHEC strains based on detection of various combinations of type III effector genes. J
 Clin Microbiol 2013;51:3257–62. doi:10.1128/JCM.01471-13
- Vlisidou I, Marches O, Dziva F, *et al.* Identification and characterization of EspK, a type III
 secreted effector protein of enterohaemorrhagic *Escherichia coli* O157:H7. FEMS Microbiol
 Lett. 2006;263:32–40. doi:10.1111/j.1574-6968.2006.00410.x
- Steyert SR, Rasko DA, Kaper JB. Functional and phylogenetic analysis of *ureD* in Shiga toxin producing *Escherichia coli*. *J Bacteriol* 2011;**193**:875–86. doi:10.1128/JB.00922-10
- 33 Delannoy S, Beutin L, Fach P. Towards a molecular definition of enterohemorrhagic *Escherichia coli* (EHEC): Detection of genes located on O Island 57 as markers to distinguish EHEC from
 closely related enteropathogenic *E. coli* strains. *J Clin Microbiol* 2013;51:1083–8.
 doi:10.1128/JCM.02864-12
- 782 34 Food Standards Scotland. Whole Genome Sequence Typing and Analysis of Non-O157 STEC.
 783 Published Online First: 2020.https://www.foodstandards.gov.scot/publications-and 784 research/publications/whole-genome-sequence-typing-and-analysis-of-non-o157-stec (accessed
 785 14 May 2021).
- 786 35 Public Health Scotland. STEC in Scotland, 2019. Enhanced surveillance and reference laboratory 787 data - STEC in Scotland: enhanced surveillance and reference laboratory data. Published Online 788 First: 2020.https://publichealthscotland.scot/publications/stec-in-scotland-enhanced-surveillance-789 and-reference-laboratory-data/stec-in-scotland-2019-enhanced-surveillance-and-reference-790 laboratory-data/ (accessed 12 Dec 2022).
- 36 Pearce MC, Evans J, McKendrick IJ, *et al.* Prevalence and virulence factors of *Escherichia coli* serogroups O26, O103, O111, and O145 shed by cattle in Scotland. Appl Env. Microbiol.
 2006;**72**:653–9. doi:10.1128/AEM.72.1.653-659.2006

- Pearce MC, Chase-Topping ME, McKendrick IJ, *et al.* Temporal and spatial patterns of bovine
 Escherichia coli O157 prevalence and comparison of temporal changes in the patterns of phage
 types associated with bovine shedding and human *E. coli* O157 cases in Scotland between 1998 2000 and 2002-2004. BMC Microbiol. 2009;9:276. doi:10.1186/1471-2180-9-276
- 38 Henry MK, Tongue SC, Evans J, *et al.* British *Escherichia coli* O157 in Cattle Study (BECS): to
 determine the prevalence of *E. coli* O157 in herds with cattle destined for the food chain.
 Epidemiol Infect. 2017;145:3168–79. doi:10.1017/S0950268817002151
- 39 Hoyle DV, Keith M, Williamson H, *et al.* Prevalence and epidemiology of Non-O157 *Escherichia coli* Serogroups O26, O103, O111, and O145 and Shiga toxin gene carriage in
 Scottish cattle, 2014–2015. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 2021;**87**:e03142-20.
 doi:10.1128/AEM.03142-20
- 40 Dallman TJ, Greig DR, Gharbia SE, *et al.* Phylogenetic context of Shiga toxin-producing
 Escherichia coli serotype O26:H11 in England. Microb Genom. 2021;7.
 doi:10.1099/mgen.0.000551
- 41 Rodwell EV, Simpson A, Chan Y-W, *et al.* The epidemiology of Shiga toxin-producing
 Escherichia coli O26:H11 (clonal complex 29) in England, 2014–2021. *J Infect* 2023;86:552–62.
 doi:10.1016/j.jinf.2023.04.006
- 42 Zhou Z, Alikhan N-F, Mohamed K, *et al.* The EnteroBase user's guide, with case studies on *Salmonella transmissions, Yersinia pestis* phylogeny, and *Escherichia* core genomic diversity. *Genome Res* 2020;**30**:138–52. doi:10.1101/gr.251678.119
- 43 Bolger AM, Lohse M, Usadel B. Trimmomatic: a flexible trimmer for Illumina sequence data.
 Bioinformatics 2014;**30**:2114–20. doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btu170
- 44 Chattaway MA, Schaefer U, Tewolde R, *et al.* Identification of Escherichia coli and Shigella
 Species from Whole-Genome Sequences. *J Clin Microbiol* 2017;55:616–23.
 doi:10.1128/JCM.01790-16
- 45 Langmead B, Trapnell C, Pop M, *et al.* Ultrafast and memory-efficient alignment of short DNA sequences to the human genome. *Genome Biol* 2009;10:R25. doi:10.1186/gb-2009-10-3-r25
- 46 Tewolde R, Dallman T, Schaefer U, *et al.* MOST: a modified MLST typing tool based on short
 read sequencing. *PeerJ* 2016;4:e2308. doi:10.7717/peerj.2308
- 47 Ashton PM, Perry N, Ellis R, *et al.* Insight into Shiga toxin genes encoded by Escherichia coli
 O157 from whole genome sequencing. *PeerJ* 2015;3:e739. doi:10.7717/peerj.739
- 48 Silva M, Machado MP, Silva DN, *et al.* chewBBACA: A complete suite for gene-by-gene
 schema creation and strain identification. *Microb Genomics*;4:e000166.
 doi:10.1099/mgen.0.000166
- 828 49 Bushnell B. BBMap. sourceforge.net/projects/bbmap/

- 829 50 Bankevich A, Nurk S, Antipov D, *et al.* SPAdes: a new genome assembly algorithm and its
 830 applications to single-cell sequencing. *J Comput Biol* 2012;19:455–77.
 831 doi:10.1089/cmb.2012.0021
- 51 Treangen TJ, Ondov BD, Koren S, *et al.* The Harvest suite for rapid core-genome alignment and
 visualization of thousands of intraspecific microbial genomes. *Genome Biol* 2014;15:524.
- 834 doi:10.1186/s13059-014-0524-x
- 52 Croucher NJ, Page AJ, Connor TR, *et al.* Rapid phylogenetic analysis of large samples of
 recombinant bacterial whole genome sequences using Gubbins. *Nucleic Acids Res* 2015;43:e15.
 doi:10.1093/nar/gku1196
- 53 Minh BQ, Schmidt HA, Chernomor O, *et al.* IQ-TREE 2: New models and efficient methods for
 phylogenetic inference in the Genomic Era. *Mol Biol Evol* 2020;**37**:1530–4.
 doi:10.1093/molbev/msaa015
- 54 Letunic I, Bork P. Interactive Tree Of Life (iTOL) v5: an online tool for phylogenetic tree display
 and annotation. *Nucleic Acids Res* 2021;49:W293–6. doi:10.1093/nar/gkab301
- 843 55 Seemann T. ABRicate. 2022.https://github.com/tseemann/abricate (accessed 13 Dec 2022).
- 84456Escherichia coli virulence factors. 2021.https://github.com/phac-nml/ecoli_vf (accessed 13 Dec8452022).
- 846 57 Bharat A, Petkau A, Avery BP, *et al.* Correlation between phenotypic and In Silico detection of
 Antimicrobial Resistance in *Salmonella enterica* in Canada Using Staramr. *Microorganisms* 2022;10:292. doi:10.3390/microorganisms10020292
- 58 Florensa AF, Kaas RS, Clausen PTLC, *et al.* ResFinder an open online resource for
 identification of antimicrobial resistance genes in next-generation sequencing data and prediction
 of phenotypes from genotypes. *Microb Genomics* 2022;8:000748. doi:10.1099/mgen.0.000748
- Johansson MHK, Bortolaia V, Tansirichaiya S, *et al.* Detection of mobile genetic elements
 associated with antibiotic resistance in *Salmonella enterica* using a newly developed web tool:
 MobileElementFinder. *J Antimicrob Chemother* 2021;**76**:101–9. doi:10.1093/jac/dkaa390
- 60 Carver T, Harris SR, Berriman M, *et al.* Artemis: an integrated platform for visualization and
 analysis of high-throughput sequence-based experimental data. *Bioinformatics* 2012;28:464–9.
 doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btr703
- 61 Camacho C, Coulouris G, Avagyan V, *et al.* BLAST+: architecture and applications. *BMC Bioinformatics* 2009;**10**:421. doi:10.1186/1471-2105-10-421
- 62 The UniProt Consortium. UniProt: the universal protein knowledgebase in 2021. Nucleic Acids
 861 Res 2021;49:D480–9. doi:10.1093/nar/gkaa1100
- 63 Arndt D, Grant JR, Marcu A, *et al.* PHASTER: a better, faster version of the PHAST phage
 search tool. *Nucleic Acids Res* 2016;44:W16–21. doi:10.1093/nar/gkw387
- 64 Seemann T. Snippy. 2022.https://github.com/tseemann/snippy (accessed 13 Dec 2022).

65 Disty McMatrixface. 2021.https://github.com/c2-d2/disty (accessed 13 Dec 2022).

- 66 Dallman TJ, Byrne L, Ashton PM, *et al.* Whole-Genome Sequencing for National Surveillance of
 Shiga Toxin–Producing Escherichia coli O157. *Clin Infect Dis* 2015;**61**:305–12.
 doi:10.1093/cid/civ318
- ⁶⁶⁹ 67 Long J, Geng J, Xu Y, *et al.* Large-scale phylogenetic analysis reveals a new genetic clade
 ⁶⁷⁰ among *Escherichia coli* O26 strains. *Microbiol Spectr* 2022;**10**:e02525-21.
 ⁶⁷¹ doi:10.1128/spectrum.02525-21
- 68 Karnisova L, Marejkova M, Hrbackova H, *et al.* Attack of the clones: whole genome-based
 characterization of two closely related enterohemorrhagic *Escherichia coli* O26 epidemic
 lineages. BMC Genomics. 2018;19:647. doi:10.1186/s12864-018-5045-7
- 69 Ishijima N, Lee KI, Kuwahara T, *et al.* Identification of a new virulent clade in
 enterohemorrhagic *Escherichia coli* O26:H11/H- Sequence Type 29. Sci Rep. 2017;7:43136.
 doi:10.1038/srep43136
- 70 Gonzalez-Escalona N, Toro M, Rump LV, *et al.* Virulence Gene Profiles and Clonal
 Relationships of *Escherichia coli* O26:H11 Isolates from feedlot cattle as determined by Whole680 Genome Sequencing. Appl Env. Microbiol. 2016;82:3900–12. doi:10.1128/AEM.00498-16
- 71 Browne AS, Midwinter AC, Withers H, *et al.* Molecular epidemiology of Shiga Toxin-Producing *Escherichia coli* (STEC) on New Zealand dairy farms: Application of a culture-independent
 assay and Whole-Genome Sequencing. Appl Env. Microbiol. 2018;84. doi:10.1128/aem.0048118
- 72 Browne AS, Biggs PJ, Wilkinson DA, *et al.* Use of genomics to investigate historical importation
 of Shiga Toxin-Producing *Escherichia coli* Serogroup O26 and nontoxigenic variants into New
 Zealand. Emerg Infect Dis. 2019;25:489–500. doi:10.3201/eid2503.180899
- Pukatzki S, McAuley SB, Miyata ST. The type VI secretion system: translocation of effectors
 and effector-domains. *Curr Opin Microbiol* 2009;12:11–7. doi:10.1016/j.mib.2008.11.010
- Michelacci V, Montalbano Di Filippo M, Gigliucci F, *et al.* Population analysis of O26 Shiga
 toxin-producing *Escherichia coli* causing hemolytic uremic syndrome in Italy, 1989-2020,
 through whole genome sequencing. *Front Cell Infect Microbiol* 2022;12:842508.
 doi:10.3389/fcimb.2022.842508
- 75 Senthakumaran T, Brandal LT, Lindstedt BA, *et al.* Implications of stx loss for clinical diagnostics of Shiga toxin-producing *Escherichia coli*. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis. 2018;**37**:2361–70. doi:10.1007/s10096-018-3384-6
- 76 Tauschek M, Gorrell RJ, Strugnell RA, *et al.* Identification of a protein secretory pathway for the
 secretion of heat-labile enterotoxin by an enterotoxigenic strain of *Escherichia coli. Proc Natl* Acad Sci 2002;**99**:7066–71. doi:10.1073/pnas.092152899
- Yang J, Baldi DL, Tauschek M, *et al.* Transcriptional Regulation of the *yghJ-pppA-yghG-gspCDEFGHIJKLM* cluster, encoding the Type II Secretion Pathway in enterotoxigenic
 Escherichia coli. J Bacteriol 2007;**189**:142–50. doi:10.1128/JB.01115-06

- 78 Strozen TG, Li G, Howard SP. YghG (GspSβ) is a novel pilot protein required for localization of
 the GspSβ Type II Secretion System secretin of enterotoxigenic *Escherichia coli*. *Infect Immun* 2012;80:2608–22. doi:10.1128/IAI.06394-11
- Fu E, Xie Y, et al. Electron acceptors induce secretion of enterotoxigenic Escherichia coli
 heat-labile enterotoxin under anaerobic conditions through promotion of GspD assembly. Infect
 Immun 2016;84:2748–57. doi:10.1128/IAI.00358-16
- 80 Wang H, Sanz Garcia R, Cox E, *et al.* Porcine enterotoxigenic *Escherichia coli* strains differ in
 their capacity to secrete enterotoxins through varying YghG levels. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 2020;86:e00523-20. doi:10.1128/AEM.00523-20
- 81 Ristow LC, Welch RA. Hemolysin of uropathogenic *Escherichia coli*: A cloak or a dagger?
 Biochim Biophys Acta BBA Biomembr 2016;1858:538–45. doi:10.1016/j.bbamem.2015.08.015
- 82 Bernard P, Couturier M. Cell killing by the F plasmid CcdB protein involves poisoning of DNAtopoisomerase II complexes. *J Mol Biol* 1992;226:735–45. doi:10.1016/0022-2836(92)90629-X
- 83 Scaletsky ICA, Michalski J, Torres AG, *et al.* Identification and characterization of the locus for
 diffuse adherence, which encodes a novel afimbrial adhesin found in atypical enteropathogenic
 Escherichia coli. Infect Immun 2005;**73**:4753–65. doi:10.1128/IAI.73.8.4753-4765.2005
- 84 Shaikh N, Tarr PI. Escherichia coli O157:H7 Shiga Toxin-Encoding Bacteriophages:
 Integrations, Excisions, Truncations, and Evolutionary Implications. *J Bacteriol* 2003;185:3596–605. doi:10.1128/jb.185.12.3596-3605.2003
- 85 Rodríguez-Rubio L, Haarmann N, Schwidder M, *et al.* Bacteriophages of Shiga Toxin-Producing
 Escherichia coli and Their Contribution to Pathogenicity. *Pathogens* 2021;10:404.
 doi:10.3390/pathogens10040404
- 86 Hall RJ, Whelan FJ, Cummins EA, *et al.* Gene-gene relationships in an *Escherichia coli* accessory genome are linked to function and mobility. *Microb Genomics* 2021;7:000650.
 doi:10.1099/mgen.0.000650
- 87 Gonzalez-Escalona N, Allard MA, Brown EW, *et al.* Nanopore sequencing for fast determination
 of plasmids, phages, virulence markers, and antimicrobial resistance genes in Shiga toxin producing *Escherichia coli.* PLoS One. 2019;14:e0220494. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0220494
- 88 Critically important antimicrobials for human medicine, 6th revision. Geneva: : World Health
 Organization 2019.
- 89 Day M, Doumith M, Jenkins C, *et al.* Antimicrobial resistance in Shiga toxin-producing *Escherichia coli* serogroups O157 and O26 isolated from human cases of diarrhoeal disease in
 England, 2015. J Antimicrob Chemother 2017;**72**:145–52. doi:10.1093/jac/dkw371
- 936 90 Humphry RW, Henry MK, Reeves A, *et al.* Estimating antimicrobial usage based on sales to beef
 937 and dairy farms from UK veterinary practices. *Vet Rec* 2021;189:e28. doi:10.1002/vetr.28

938 939 940	91	RUMA. Antibiotic Use In Cattle: Dairy Trend Data and Usage by Beef Farm Type 2015-2019. RUMA 2021. https://ruma.org.uk/wp-content/uploads/2022/07/Antibiotic-Use-in-936 Cattle- Report.pdf (accessed 11 Jul 2023).
941 942 943 944	92	Tarr PI, Freedman SB. Why antibiotics should not be used to treat Shiga toxin-producing Escherichia coli infections. <i>Curr Opin Gastroenterol</i> 2022; 38 :30. doi:10.1097/MOG.000000000000798

945

946 SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

947 Supplementary Material is provided as a .zip file.