

# Genomic diversity of *Escherichia coli* from healthy children in rural Gambia

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Little is known about the genomic diversity of *Escherichia coli* in healthy children from sub-Saharan Africa, even though this is pertinent to understanding bacterial evolution and ecology and their role in infection. We isolated and whole-genome sequenced up to five colonies of faecal *E. coli* from 66 asymptomatic children aged three-to-five years in rural Gambia (n=88 isolates from 21 positive stools). We identified 56 genotypes, with an average of 2.7 genotypes per host. These were spread over 37 seven-allele sequence types and the *E. coli* phylogroups A, B1, B2, C, D, E, F and *Escherichia* cryptic clade I. Immigration events accounted for three-quarters of the diversity within our study population, while one-quarter of variants appeared to have arisen from within-host evolution. Several study strains were closely related to isolates that caused disease in humans or originated from livestock. Our results suggest that within-host evolution plays a minor role in the generation of diversity compared to independent immigration and the establishment of strains among our study population. Also, this study adds significantly to the number of commensal *E. coli* genomes, a group that has been traditionally underrepresented in the sequencing of this species.

1 **Genomic diversity of *Escherichia coli* isolates from healthy children in rural Gambia**

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17

18 **Abstract**

19 Little is known about the genomic diversity of *Escherichia coli* in healthy children from sub-  
20 Saharan Africa, even though this is pertinent to understanding bacterial evolution and ecology  
21 and their role in infection. We isolated and whole-genome sequenced up to five colonies  
22 of faecal *E. coli* from 66 asymptomatic children aged three-to-five years in rural Gambia (n=88  
23 isolates from 21 positive stools). We identified 56 genotypes, with an average of 2.7 genotypes  
24 per host. These were spread over 37 seven-allele sequence types and the *E. coli* phylogroups A,  
25 B1, B2, C, D, E, F and *Escherichia* cryptic clade I. Immigration events accounted for three-  
26 quarters of the diversity within our study population, while one-quarter of variants appeared to  
27 have arisen from within-host evolution. Several study strains were closely related to isolates that  
28 caused disease in humans or originated from livestock. Our results suggest that within-host  
29 evolution plays a minor role in the generation of diversity compared to independent immigration  
30 and the establishment of strains among our study population. Also, this study adds significantly  
31 to the number of commensal *E. coli* genomes, a group that has been traditionally  
32 underrepresented in the sequencing of this species.

33

34 **Keywords:** *Escherichia coli*, genomic diversity, within-host evolution.

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36

## 37 **Introduction**

38 Ease of culture and genetic tractability account for the unparalleled status of *Escherichia coli* as  
39 “the biological rock star”, driving advances in biotechnology (1), while also providing critical  
40 insights into biology and evolution (2). However, *E. coli* is also a widespread commensal, as  
41 well as a versatile pathogen, linked to diarrhoea (particularly in the under-fives), urinary tract  
42 infection, neonatal sepsis, bacteraemia and multi-drug resistant infection in hospitals (3-5). Yet,  
43 most of what we know about *E. coli* stems from the investigation of laboratory strains, which fail  
44 to capture the ecology and evolution of this key organism “in the wild” (6). What is more, most  
45 studies of non-lab strains have focused on pathogenic strains or have been hampered by low-  
46 resolution PCR methods, so we have relatively few genomic sequences from commensal isolates,  
47 particularly from low- to middle-income countries (7-13).

48 We have a broad understanding of the population structure of *E. coli*, with eight significant  
49 phylogroups loosely linked to ecological niche and pathogenic potential (B2, D and F linked to  
50 extraintestinal infection; A and B1 linked to severe intestinal infections such as haemolytic-  
51 uraemic syndrome) (14-17). All phylogroups can colonise the human gut, but it remains unclear  
52 how far commensals and pathogenic strains compete or collaborate—or engage in horizontal  
53 gene transfer—within this important niche (18, 19).

54 Although clinical microbiology typically relies on single-colony picks (which has the  
55 potential to underestimate species diversity and transmission events), within-host diversity of *E.*  
56 *coli* in the gut is crucial to our understanding of inter-strain competition and co-operation and  
57 also for accurate diagnosis and epidemiological analyses. Pioneering efforts using serotyping and  
58 molecular typing have shown that normal individuals typically harbour more than one strain of  
59 *E. coli* (20-22), with one individual carrying 24 distinct clones (22-24). More recently, whole-

60 genome sequencing has illuminated molecular epidemiological investigations (9), adaptation  
61 during and after infection (25, 26), as well as the intra-clonal diversity in healthy hosts (27).

62 There are two plausible sources of within-host genomic diversity. Although a predominant  
63 strain usually colonises the host for extended periods (28), successful immigration events mean  
64 that incoming strains can replace the dominant strain or co-exist alongside it as minority  
65 populations (29). Strains originating from serial immigration events are likely to differ by  
66 hundreds or thousands of single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs). Alternatively, within-host  
67 evolution can generate clouds of intra-clonal diversity, where genotypes differ by just a handful  
68 of SNPs (20).

69 Most relevant studies have been limited to Western countries, except for a recent report from  
70 Tanzania (21), so little is known about the genomic diversity of *E. coli* in sub-Saharan Africa.  
71 The Global Enteric Multicenter Study (GEMS) (30, 31) has documented a high burden of  
72 diarrhoea attributable to *E. coli* (including *Shigella*) among children from the Gambia, probably  
73 as a result of increased exposure to this organism through poor hygiene and frequent contact with  
74 animals and the environment. In also facilitating access to stool samples from healthy Gambian  
75 children, the GEMS study has given us a unique opportunity to study within-host genomic  
76 diversity of commensal *E. coli* in this setting.

77

## 78 **Methods**

### 79 **Study population**

80 We initially selected 76 faecal samples from three- to five-year-old asymptomatic Gambian  
81 children, who had been recruited from Basse, Upper River Region, the Gambia, into the GEMS  
82 study (30) as healthy controls from December 1, 2007, to March 3, 2011. Samples had been

83 collected according to a previously described sampling protocol (32). Archived stool samples  
84 were retrieved from -80°C storage and allowed to thaw on ice. A 100-200 mg aliquot from each  
85 sample was transferred aseptically into 1.8ml Nunc tubes for microbiological processing below  
86 (Figure 1). Ten of the original 76 samples proved unavailable for processing in this study.

87

### 88 **Bacterial growth and isolation**

89 1 ml of physiological saline (0.85%) was added to each sample tube and vigorously vortexed at  
90 4200 rpm for at least 2 minutes. Next, the homogenised sample suspensions were taken through  
91 four ten-fold dilution series. A 100 µl aliquot from each dilution was then spread evenly on a  
92 plate of tryptone-bile-X-glucuronide differential and selective agar. The inoculated plates were  
93 incubated overnight at 37°C under aerobic conditions. Colony counts were performed on the  
94 overnight cultures for each serial dilution for translucent colonies with entire margins and blue-  
95 green pigmentation indicative of *E. coli*. Up to five representative colonies were selected from  
96 each sample and sub-cultured on MacConkey agar overnight at 37°C before storing in 20%  
97 glycerol broth at -80°C. Individual isolates were assigned a designation comprised of the subject  
98 ID followed by the colony number (“1-5”).

99

### 100 **Genomic DNA extraction and genome sequencing**

101 Broth cultures were prepared from pure, fresh cultures of each colony-pick in 1 ml Luria-Bertani  
102 broth and incubated overnight to attain between  $10^9$  –  $10^{10}$  cfu per ml. Genomic DNA was then  
103 extracted from the overnight broth cultures using the lysate method described in (33). The eluted  
104 DNA was quantified by the Qubit high sensitivity DNA assay kit (Invitrogen, MA, USA) and

105 sequenced on the Illumina NextSeq 500 instrument (Illumina, San Diego, CA) as described  
106 previously (34).

107 Following Dixit et al. (20), we sequenced a random selection of isolates twice, using DNA  
108 obtained from independent cultures, to help in the determination of clones and the analysis of  
109 within-host variants (Supplementary File 5). Bioinformatic analyses of the genome sequences  
110 were carried out on the Cloud Infrastructure for Microbial Bioinformatics (CLIMB) platform  
111 (35).

112

### 113 **Phylogenetic analysis**

114 The paired 150bp reads were quality checked and assembled, as previously described (34).

115 Snippy v4.3.2 (<https://github.com/tseemann/snippy>) was used for variant calling, using the

116 complete genome sequence of commensal *E. coli* str. K12 substr. MG1655 as a reference strain

117 (NCBI accession: NC\_000913.3) and to generate a core-genome alignment, from which a

118 maximum-likelihood phylogeny with 1000 bootstrap replicates was reconstructed using RAxML

119 v8.2.4 (36), based on a general time-reversible nucleotide substitution model. The phylogenetic

120 tree was rooted using the genomic sequence of *E. fergusonii* as an outgroup (NCBI accession:

121 GCA\_000026225.1). The phylogenetic tree was visualised in FigTree v1.4.3

122 (<https://github.com/rambaut/figtree/>) and annotated in RStudio v3.5.1 and Adobe Illustrator v

123 23.0.3 (Adobe Inc., San Jose, California). For visualisation, a single colony was chosen to

124 represent replicate colonies of the same strain (ST) with identical virulence, plasmid and

125 antimicrobial resistance profiles and a de-replicated phylogenetic tree reconstructed using the

126 representative isolates.

127

## 128 **Multi-locus sequence typing, Clermont typing and SNPs**

129 The merged reads were uploaded to EnteroBase (37), where *de novo* assembly and genome  
130 annotation were carried out, and *in-silico* multi-locus sequence types (STs) assigned based on the  
131 Achtman scheme, allocating new sequence types (ST) if necessary. EnteroBase assigns  
132 phylogroups using ClermontTyper and EzClermont (38, 39) and unique core-genome MLST  
133 types based on 2, 513 core loci in *E. coli*. Publicly available *E. coli* sequences in EnteroBase  
134 (<http://enterobase.warwick.ac.uk/species/index/ecoli>) (37) were included for comparative  
135 analysis, including 23 previously sequenced isolates obtained from diarrhoeal cases recruited in  
136 the GEMS study in the Gambia (Supplementary File 1).

137 We computed pairwise single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) distances between genomes  
138 from the core-genome alignment using snp-dists v0.6 (<https://github.com/tseemann/snp-dists>).  
139 For the duplicate sequence reads of the same strains, we used SPAdes v3.13.2 (40) to assemble  
140 each set of reads and map the raw sequences from one sequencing run to the assembly of the  
141 other run and vice versa, as described previously (20). SNPs were detected using the  
142 CSIPhylogeny tool (<https://cge.cbs.dtu.dk/services/CSIPhylogeny/>) and compared between the  
143 two steps, counting only those SNPs that were detected in both sets of reads as accurate.

144

## 145 **Accessory gene content**

146 We used ABRicate v0.9.8 (<https://github.com/tseemann/abricate>) to predict virulence factors,  
147 acquired antimicrobial resistance (AMR) genes and plasmid replicons by scanning the contigs  
148 against the VFDB, ResFinder and PlasmidFinder databases respectively, using an identity  
149 threshold of  $\geq 90\%$  and a coverage of  $\geq 70\%$ . Virulence factors and AMR genes were plotted  
150 next to the phylogenetic tree using the ggtree, ggplot2 and phangorn packages in RStudio v3.5.1.

151 We calculated co-occurrence of AMR genes among study isolates and visualised this as a heat  
152 map using RStudio v 3.5.1.

153

#### 154 **Population structure and comparison of commensal and pathogenic strains**

155 We assessed the population structure using the hierarchical clustering algorithm in EnteroBase.  
156 Briefly, the isolates were assigned stable population clusters at eleven levels (from HC0 to HC  
157 2350) based on pairwise cgMLST allelic differences. Hierarchical clustering at 1100 alleles  
158 differences (HC1100) resolves populations into cgST complexes, the equivalent of clonal  
159 complexes achieved with the legacy MLST clustering approaches (37). We reconstructed  
160 neighbour-joining phylogenetic trees using NINJA (41), based on clustering at HC1100 to  
161 display the population sub-clusters at this level as an indicator of the genomic diversity within  
162 our study population and to infer the evolutionary relationship among our strains and others in  
163 the public domain.

164 Next, we interrogated the HC1100 clusters that included both pathogenic and commensal *E.*  
165 *coli* strains recovered from the GEMS study. For the clusters that encompassed commensal and  
166 pathogenic strains belonging to the same ST, we reconstructed both neighbour-joining and SNP  
167 phylogenetic trees to display the genetic relationships among these strains. We visualised the  
168 accessory genomes for the overlapping STs mentioned above to determine genes associated with  
169 phages, virulence factors and AMR. The resulting phylogenetic trees were annotated in Adobe  
170 Illustrator v 23.0.3 (Adobe Inc., San Jose, California).

171

#### 172 **Ethical statement**

173 The parent study was approved by the joint Medical Research Council Unit The Gambia-  
174 Gambian Government ethical review board (SCC 1331). Written informed consents were  
175 obtained from all the study participants as previously reported in (30). The joint Medical  
176 Research Council Unit The Gambia-Gambian Government ethical review board gave approval  
177 for the use of the stool samples analysed in this study.

178

## 179 **Results**

### 180 **Population structure**

181 The study population included 27 females and 39 males (Table 1). All but one reported the  
182 presence of a domestic animal within the household. Twenty-one samples proved positive for the  
183 growth of *E. coli*, yielding 88 isolates. We detected 37 seven-allele sequence types (STs) among  
184 the isolates, with a fairly even distribution (Figure 2). Five STs were completely novel (ST9274,  
185 ST9277, ST9278, ST9279 and ST9281). These study strains were scattered over all the eight  
186 main phylogroups of *E. coli* (Table 2). Hierarchical clustering of core genomic STs revealed  
187 twenty-seven cgST clonal complexes (Supplementary File 2).

188

### 189 **Within-host diversity**

190 Just a single ST colonised nine individuals, six carried two STs, four carried four STs, and two  
191 carried six STs. We found 56 distinct genotypes, which equates to an average of 2.7 genotypes  
192 per host. Two individuals (H-18 and H-2) shared an identical strain belonging to ST9274 (zero  
193 SNP difference) (Supplementary File 4, yellow highlight), suggesting recent transfer from one  
194 child to another or recent acquisition from a common source.

195 We observed thirteen cases where a single host harboured two or more variants within the  
196 same SNP cloud (Table 2). Such within-host evolution accounted for around a quarter of the  
197 observed variation, with immigration explaining the remaining three quarters. 22% of within-  
198 host mutations represented synonymous changes. 43% were non-synonymous mutations, while  
199 31% occurred in non-coding regions, and 4% represented stop-gained mutations (Supplementary  
200 File 6). The average number of SNPs among variants within such SNP clouds was 5 (range 0-18)  
201 (Table 3). However, in two subjects (H36 and H37), pairwise distances between genomes from  
202 the same ST (ST59 and ST5148) were as large as 14 and 18 SNPs respectively (Supplementary  
203 File 4, grey highlight).

204

#### 205 **Accessory gene content and relationships with other strains**

206 A quarter of our isolates were most closely related to commensal strains from humans, with  
207 smaller numbers most closely related to human pathogenic strains or strains from livestock,  
208 poultry or the environment (Table 4). One isolate was most closely related to a canine isolate  
209 from the UK. Three STs (ST38, ST10 and ST58) were shared by our study isolates and  
210 diarrhoeal isolate from the GEMS study (Supplementary Figure 2), with just eight alleles  
211 separating our commensal ST38 strain from a diarrhoeal isolate from the GEMS study (Figure  
212 5).

213 We detected 130 genes encoding putative virulence factors across the 88 study isolates  
214 (Figure 2; Supplementary File 3). More than half of the isolates encoded resistance to three or  
215 more clinically relevant classes of antibiotics (Figure 3; Supplementary Figure 1). The most  
216 common resistance gene network was *-aph(6)-Id\_1-sul2* (41% of the isolates), followed by  
217 *aph(3'')-Ib\_5-sul2* (27%) and *bla-TEM-aph(3'')-Ib\_5* (24%). Most isolates (67%) harboured two

218 or more plasmid types (Figure 4). Of the 24 plasmid types detected, IncFIB was the most  
219 common (41%), followed by col156 (19%) and IncI\_1-Alpha (15%). Nearly three-quarters of the  
220 multi-drug resistant isolates carried IncFIB (AP001918) plasmids, suggesting that these large  
221 plasmids disseminate resistance genes within our study population.

222

## 223 **Discussion**

224 This study provides an overview of the within-host genomic diversity of *E. coli* in healthy  
225 children from a rural setting in the Gambia, West Africa. Surprisingly, we recovered a low rate  
226 of colonisation than reported elsewhere among children of similar age groups (42), with only a  
227 third of our study samples yielding growth of *E. coli*. This may reflect geographical variation but  
228 might also be some hard-to-identify effect of the way the samples were handled, even though  
229 they were kept frozen and thawed only just before culture.

230 Several studies have shown that sampling a single colony is insufficient to capture *E. coli*  
231 strain diversity in stools (20, 21, 23). Lidin-Janson *et al.* (43) claim that sampling five colonies  
232 provides a >99% chance of recovering dominant genotypes from single stool specimens, while  
233 Schlager *et al.* (24) calculate that sampling twenty-eight colonies provides a >90% chance of  
234 recovering minor genotypes. Our results confirm the importance of multiple-colony picks in  
235 faecal surveillance studies, as over half (57%) of our strains would have been missed by picking  
236 a single colony.

237 Although our strains encompassed all eight major phylotypes of *E. coli*, the majority fell into  
238 the A and B1 phylogenetic groups, in line with previous reports that these phylogroups dominate  
239 in stools from people in low- and middle-income countries (44, 45). The prevalence of putative  
240 virulence genes in most of our isolates highlights the pathogenic potential of commensal

241 intestinal strains—regardless of their phylogroup—should they gain access to the appropriate  
242 tissues, for example, the urinary tract. Our results complement previous studies reporting  
243 genomic similarities between faecal *E. coli* isolates and those recovered from urinary tract  
244 infection (25, 46).

245 We found that within-host evolution plays a minor role in the generation of diversity, in line  
246 with Dixit et al. (20), who reported that 83% of diversity originates from immigration events, and  
247 with epidemiological data suggesting that the recurrent immigration events account for the high  
248 faecal diversity of *E. coli* in the tropics (47). Co-colonising variants belonging to the same ST  
249 tended to share an identical virulence, AMR and plasmid profile, signalling similarities in their  
250 accessory gene content. The estimated mutation rate for *E. coli* lineages is around one SNP per  
251 genome per year (48), so that two genomes with a most recent common ancestor in the last five  
252 years would be expected to be around ten SNPs apart. However, in two subjects, pairwise  
253 distances between genomes from the same ST (ST59 and ST5148) were large enough (14 and 18  
254 respectively) to suggest that they might have arisen from independent immigration events, as  
255 insufficient time had elapsed in the child's life for such divergence to occur within the host.  
256 However, it remains possible that the mutation rate was higher than expected in these lineages,  
257 although we found no evidence of damage to DNA repair genes. More than half of our isolates  
258 encode resistance to three or more classes of antimicrobials echoing the high rate of MDR (65%;  
259 confirmed by phenotypic testing) in the GEMS study. IncFIB (AP001918) was the most common  
260 plasmid Inc type from our study, in line with the observation that IncF plasmids are frequently  
261 associated with the dissemination of resistance (49). However, a limitation of our study is that  
262 we did not perform phenotypic antimicrobial resistance testing, although Doyle et al. (50)

263 reported that only a small proportion of genotypic AMR predictions are discordant with  
264 phenotypic results.

265 Comparative analyses confirm the heterogeneous origins of the strains reported here,  
266 documenting links to other human commensal strains or isolates sourced from livestock or the  
267 environment. This is not surprising, as almost all study participants reported that animals are kept  
268 in their homes and children in rural Gambia are often left to play on the ground, close to  
269 domestic animals such as pets and poultry (51).

270

## 271 **Conclusions**

272 Our results show that the commensal *E. coli* population in the gut of healthy children in rural  
273 Gambia is richly diverse, with the independent immigration and establishment of strains  
274 contributing to the bulk of the observed diversity. Besides, this work has added significantly to  
275 the number of commensal *E. coli* genomes, which are underrepresented in public repositories.  
276 Although solely observational, our study paves the way for future studies aimed at a mechanistic  
277 understanding of the factors driving the diversification of *E. coli* in the human gut and what it  
278 takes to make a strain of *E. coli* successful in this habitat.

279

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282 the laboratory staff of the Medical Research Council Unit The Gambia at London School of  
283 Hygiene and Tropical Medicine involved in the collection and storage of stools in the GEMS  
284 study in Basse Field Station and Fajara.

285

286 **Author contributions**

287 Conceptualization: MA, MP; data curation, MP, NFA; formal analysis: EFN; analytical support:  
288 MD; funding: MA and MP; sample collection and storage: MJH, UNI, PET, CO; data  
289 management: SG; laboratory experiments, EFN, supervision, NFA, MP, JO, MA; manuscript  
290 preparation – original draft, EFN; review and editing, NFA, MP; review of the final manuscript,  
291 all authors.

292

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442

**Table 1** (on next page)

Characteristics of the study population.

1  
2 *Table 1: Characteristics of the study population*

<i>Sample ID</i>	<i>Lab ID</i>	<i>Age (months)</i>	<i>Gender</i>	<i>Bristol stool index</i>	<i>Domestic animal within household</i>	<i>Enrolment date</i>
102135	H1	43	Female	Thick liquid	Goat, sheep	18-Feb-09
102650	H2	45	Female	Soft	Goat, sheep, donkey	27-Jul-09
103296	H3	44	Male	Soft	Goat, horse, donkey, rodent	27-Apr-10
103298	H4	44	Male	Formed	Sheep, fowl, horse, donkey, rodent	27-Apr-10
103621	H5	37	Female	Soft	Sheep, fowl, rodent	01-Sep-10
103650	H6	48	Female	Soft	Fowl, donkey, rodent	29-Sep-10
103649	H7	45	Female	Soft	Goat, sheep, fowl, horse, rodent	29-Sep-10
103071	H8	53	Male	Formed	Goat, sheep, fowl	15-Jan-10
103622	H9	39	Female	Soft	Goat, sheep	01-Sep-10
100167	H10	40	Female	Soft	Goat, sheep, fowl	01-Feb-08
100217	H11	57	Male	Formed	Cat, fowl, horse, rodent	21-Feb-08
100230	H12	51	Male	Soft	Goat, sheep, cat, fowl, rodent	28-Feb-08
100612	H13	55	Female	Formed	Goat, sheep, dog, fowl, horse, donkey, rodent	16-Aug-08
100162	H14	47	Female	Thick liquid	Sheep, horse, donkey, rodent	30-Jan-08
102255	H15	42	Male	Formed	Goat, sheep, fowl, horse, donkey, rodent	26-Mar-09
102250	H16	39	Male	Formed	Fowl	25-Mar-09
102114	H17	54	Male	Formed	Rodent	12-Feb-09
102123	H18	37	Female	Soft	Goat, sheep, fowl, rodent	14-Feb-09
103282	H19	43	Male	Formed	Goat, sheep, dog, cat, cow, fowl,	22-Apr-10
100817	H20	44	Male	Soft	Dog, fowl	03-Dec-08
100816	H21	40	Male	Soft	Goat, sheep, cow, fowl, horse, donkey, rodent	03-Dec-08
102836	H22	47	Male	Thick liquid	Fowl, rodent	12-Oct-09
102837	H23	41	Male	Thick liquid	Sheep, fowl, rodent	12-Oct-09
102843	H24	44	Male	Soft	Fowl, rodent	13-Oct-09
102907	H25	36	Male	Soft	Goat, sheep, fowl	05-Nov-09
102905	H26	37	Male	Soft	Goat, sheep, fowl	05-Nov-09
102262	H27	38	Male	Formed	Goat, sheep, rodent	01-Apr-09
102728	H28	41	Male	Soft	Goat, fowl	24-Aug-09
102729	H29	41	Male	Soft	Goat, dog, cat, fowl, donkey	24-Aug-09
100806	H30	55	Male	Soft	Goat, sheep, dog, fowl	21-Nov-08
102053	H31	37	Female	Formed	Cow, fowl, donkey, rodent	29-Jan-09
102052	H32	38	Female	Formed	Goat, sheep, cow, fowl, donkey, rodent	29-Jan-09
102511	H33	37	Male	Soft	Fowl, horse, donkey, rodent	19-Jun-09
102649	H34	37	Male	Soft	Fowl, horse, donkey, rodent	27-Jul-09

102454	H35	52	Male	Soft	Sheep, fowl, donkey, rodent	02-Jun-09
102459	H36	51	Male	Formed	Goat, sheep, dog, cat, cow, horse, donkey, rodent	04-Jun-09
100303	H37	58	Male	Formed	Sheep, fowl	08-Apr-08
100320	H38	42	Female	Formed	Sheep, fowl, rodent	19-Apr-08
100319	H39	45	Female	Formed	Goat, sheep, fowl, rodent	17-Apr-08
103081	H40	39	Female	Thick liquid	Goat, sheep, fowl, horse, donkey, rodent	20-Jan-10
103082	H41	39	Female	Thick liquid	Goat, sheep, fowl, horse, donkey, rodent	20-Jan-10
100663	H42	36	Male	Thick liquid	Goat, sheep, fowl, donkey	10-Sep-08
100072	H43	51	Female	Formed	Goat, cow, fowl, rodent	03-Jan-08
103171	H44	36	Female	Soft	Goat, sheep, rodent, fowl, rodent	18-Feb-10
103172	H45	36	Female	Soft	Goat, sheep, fowl, rodent	18-Feb-10
103292	H46	39	Male	Soft	Goat, sheep, fowl	23-Apr-10
102952	H47	36	Male	Soft	Goat, sheep, fowl, rodent	20-Nov-09
102953	H48	37	Male	Soft	Goat, sheep, fowl, rodent	20-Nov-09
102964	H49	40	Female	Formed	Goat, fowl, rodent	26-Nov-09
102966	H50	37	Female	Formed	Goat, sheep, fowl, horse, donkey, rodent	22-Apr-10
103281	H51	44	Male	Formed	Goat, sheep, dog, cat, fowl	22-Apr-10
100540	H52	43	Male	Soft	Goat, sheep, fowl, rodent	22-Jul-08
103123	H53	38	Male	Soft	Sheep	03-Feb-10
103124	H54	36	Male	Soft	Fowl	03-Feb-10
102089	H55	38	Female	Soft	Goat, cow, fowl, horse, donkey, rodent	05-Feb-09
103297	H56	38	Male	Soft	Goat, sheep, fowl, horse, donkey, rodent	27-Apr-10
102251	H57	39	Male	Formed	Fowl	25-Mar-09
103602	H58	38	Female	Formed	Goat, sheep, cow, fowl	26-Aug-10
103600	H59	39	Female	Formed	Goat, sheep, fowl	26-Aug-10
100026	H60	49	Female	Soft	Goat, sheep, cow, fowl	14-Dec-07
102102	H61	47	Female	Opaque watery	None	11-Feb-09
102263	H62	38	Male	Formed	Horse, donkey, rodent	01-Apr-09
103070	H63	58	Male	Soft	Goat, sheep, fowl	15-Jan-10
103130	H64	40	Male	Soft	Sheep, fowl	03-Feb-10
102051	H65	36	Female	Formed	Goat, sheep, dog, cat, cow, fowl, donkey, rodent	29-Jan-09
102524	H66	36	Male	Soft	Goat, sheep, fowl, horse, donkey, rodent	24-Jun-09

**Table 2** (on next page)

Phylogroup and sequence types of the distinct clones isolated in each patient.

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Table 2: Phylogroup and sequence types of the distinct clones isolated in each patient

<i>Host</i>	Genotype number					Number of distinct genotypes (clones)	Migration events	Within-host evolution events
	1	2	3	4	5			
<i>H-2</i>	A (9274)	A (9274)	A (9274)	A (9274)	A (9274)	1	1	0
<i>H-9</i>	A (2705)	A (2705)	A (2705)	D (2914)	B1 (29)	3	3	0
<i>H-15</i>	B2 (9277)	B2 (9277)	B2 (9277)	Clade I (747)	Clade I (747)	3	2	1
<i>H-18</i>	D (38)	D (38)	B1 (9281)	A (9274)		4	3	1
<i>H-21</i>	B1 (58)	B1 (58)	B1 (223)	A (540)	D (1204)	4	4	0
<i>H-22</i>	B1 (316)	B1 (316)	B1 (316)	B1 (316)		2	1	1
<i>H-25</i>	A (181)	A (181)	A (181)	A (181)	B1 (337)	4	2	2
<i>H-26</i>	B1 (641)	B1 (2741)	A (10)	A (398)		4	4	0
<i>H-28</i>	B1 (469)	B1 (469)	B1 (469)	B1 (469)		2	1	1
<i>H-32</i>	B1 (101)	B1 (101)	B1 (101)	B1 (2175)	A (10)	3	3	0
<i>H-34</i>	B1 (603)	B1 (603)	B1 (603)	B1 (1727)	A (10)	4	3	1
<i>H-35</i>	A (226)					1	1	0
<i>H-36</i>	F (59)	F (59)	F (59)	F (59)	E (9278)	3	2	1
<i>H-37</i>	D (5148)	D (5148)	D (5148)	D (5148)	D (5148)	3	1	2
<i>H-38</i>	D (394)	D (394)	D (394)	D (394)	B1 (58)	4	2	2
<i>H-39</i>	B2 (452)	B2 (452)	B2 (452)	B2 (452)	B2 (452)	2	1	1
<i>H-40</i>	B1 (155)					1	1	0
<i>H-41</i>	A (43)	A (43)	A (43)	A (43)	B1 (9283)	2	2	0
<i>H-48</i>	Clade I (485)	Clade I (485)	Clade I (485)	Clade I (485)		1	1	0
<i>H-50</i>	C (410)	C (410)	C (410)	C (410)	B1 (515)	2	2	0
<i>H-55</i>	A (9279)					1	1	0

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**Table 3** (on next page)

Pairwise SNP distances between variants arising from within-host evolution.

1 *Table 3: Pairwise SNP distances between variants arising from within-host evolution*

<i>Host</i>	Sequence type (ST)	Colonies per ST	Pairwise SNP distances between multiple colonies of the same ST
<i>H2</i>	9274	5	0-9
<i>H9</i>	2705	3	0-1
<i>H15</i>	9277	3	0-1
<i>H15</i>	747	2	3
<i>H18</i>	38	2	3
<i>H21</i>	58	2	0
<i>H22</i>	316	4	0-3
<i>H25</i>	181	4	1-5
<i>H28</i>	469	4	0-3
<i>H32</i>	101	3	1-9
<i>H34</i>	603	3	2-8
<i>H36</i>	59	4	0-14
<i>H37</i>	5148	5	2-18
<i>H38</i>	394	4	1-3
<i>H39</i>	452	5	0-2
<i>H41</i>	43	4	0-1
<i>H48</i>	485	4	1-9
<i>H50</i>	410	4	0

2

**Table 4** (on next page)

Closest relatives to the study isolates.

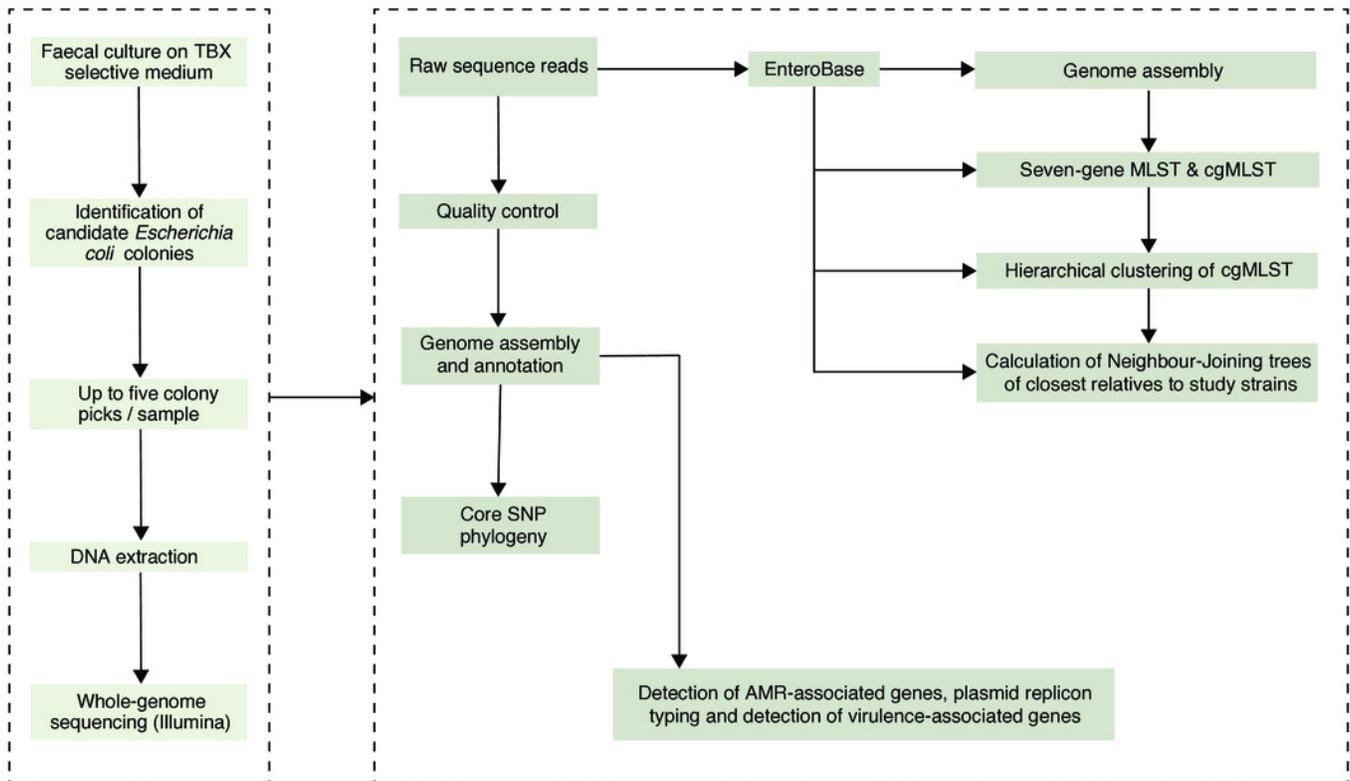
1 Table 4: Closest relatives to the study isolates

<i>Sample ID</i>	7-gene ST	Neighbour host	Neighbour status	Neighbour's country of isolation	Allelic distance
<i>H-32_5</i>	10	Human	Unknown	UK	18
<i>H-36_1</i>	59	Human	Unknown	UK	18
<i>H-39_1</i>	452	Human	Commensal	UK	26
<i>H-9_1</i>	2705	Livestock		China	29
<i>H-18_3</i>	9274	Human	Commensal	Unknown	34
<i>H-2_1</i>	9274	Human	Commensal	Unknown	34
<i>H-22_1</i>	316	Human	Commensal	UK	35
<i>H-38_1</i>	394	Human	Pathogen (cystitis)	US	39
<i>H-25_4</i>	337	Human	Unknown	Mali	43
<i>H-37_1</i>	5148	Human	Pathogen (diarrhoea)	Ecuador	43
<i>H-26_1</i>	641	Livestock		US	46
<i>H-26_5</i>	398	Poultry		Kenya	47
<i>H-48_2</i>	485	Human	Commensal	Tanzania	57
<i>H-15_1</i>	9277	Human	Commensal	Zambia	68
<i>H-15_2</i>	747	Human	Commensal	Egypt	72
<i>H-28_1</i>	469	Human	Commensal	Kenya	77
<i>H-21_2</i>	1204	Avian		Kenya	81
<i>H-34_2</i>	10	Livestock		UK	83
<i>H-38_2</i>	58	Human	Pathogen (bloodstream infection)	Australia	87
<i>H-34_4</i>	1727	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown	89
<i>H-35_1</i>	226	Human	Commensal	China	93
<i>H-21_1</i>	58	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown	98
<i>H-21_4</i>	540	Human	Unknown	Belgium	100
<i>H-32_2</i>	2175	Livestock		UK	100
<i>H-26_2</i>	10	Livestock		US	111
<i>H-32_1</i>	101	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown	111
<i>H-50_2</i>	515	Environment		Canada	117
<i>H-41_1</i>	43	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown	120
<i>H-26_4</i>	2741	Human	Commensal	Germany	126
<i>H-50_1</i>	410	Livestock		US	140
<i>H-18_1</i>	38	Poultry		US	144
<i>H-21_5</i>	223	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown	145
<i>H-40_1</i>	155	Unknown	Unknown	US	146
<i>H-41_2</i>	9283	Environment	Commensal	US	191
<i>H-36_4</i>	9278	Avian		Kenya	208
<i>H-9_3</i>	2914	Canine		UK	272
<i>H-9_5</i>	29	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown	288
<i>H-34_1</i>	603	Laboratory		UK	325
<i>H-55_1</i>	9279	Environment		Unknown	333
<i>H-18_2</i>	9281	Unknown	Unknown	France	430
<i>H-25_1</i>	181	Human	Commensal	Tanzania	607

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# Figure 1

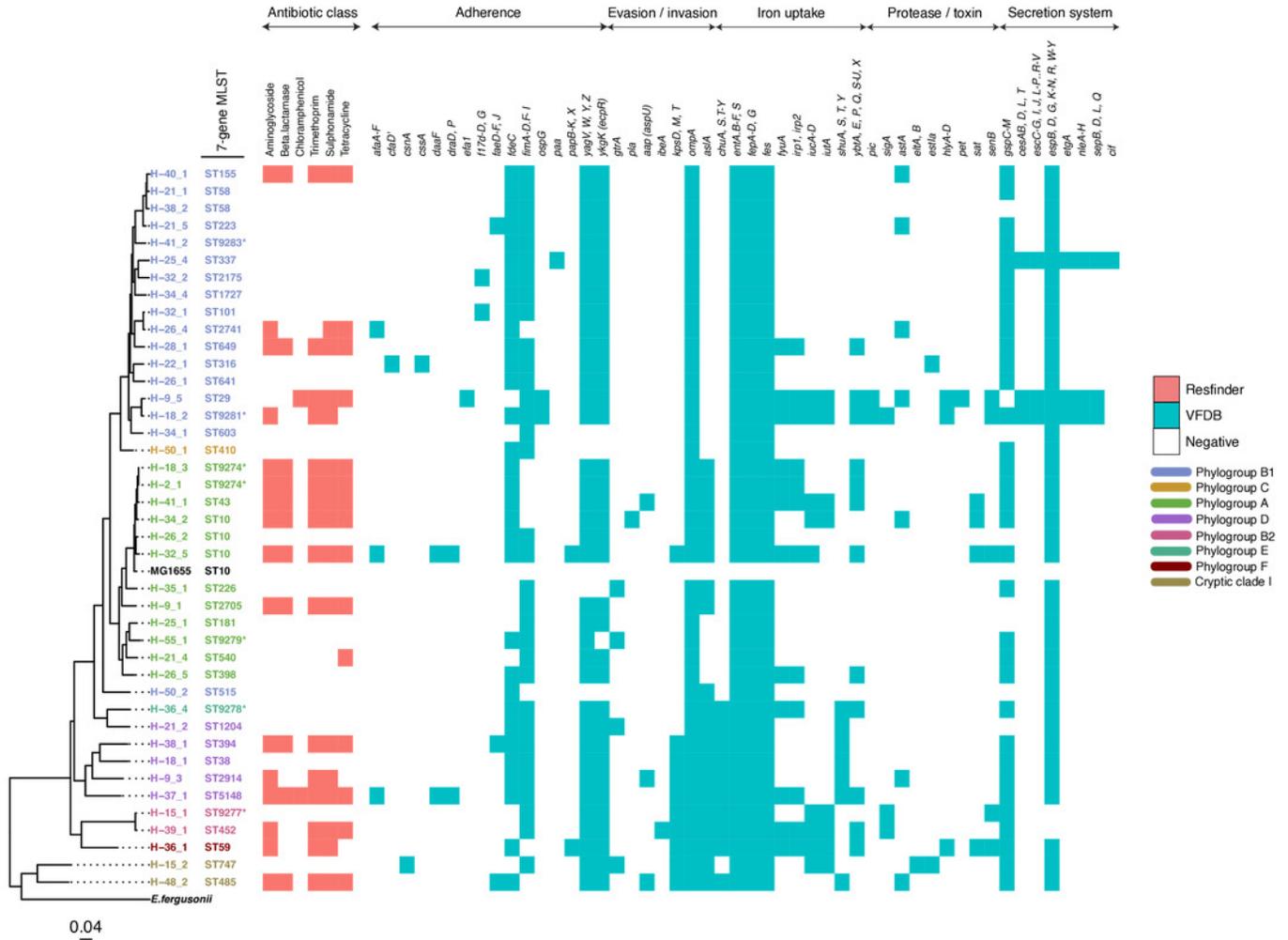
The study sample-processing flow diagram.



## Figure 2

A maximum-likelihood tree depicting the phylogenetic relationships among the study isolates.

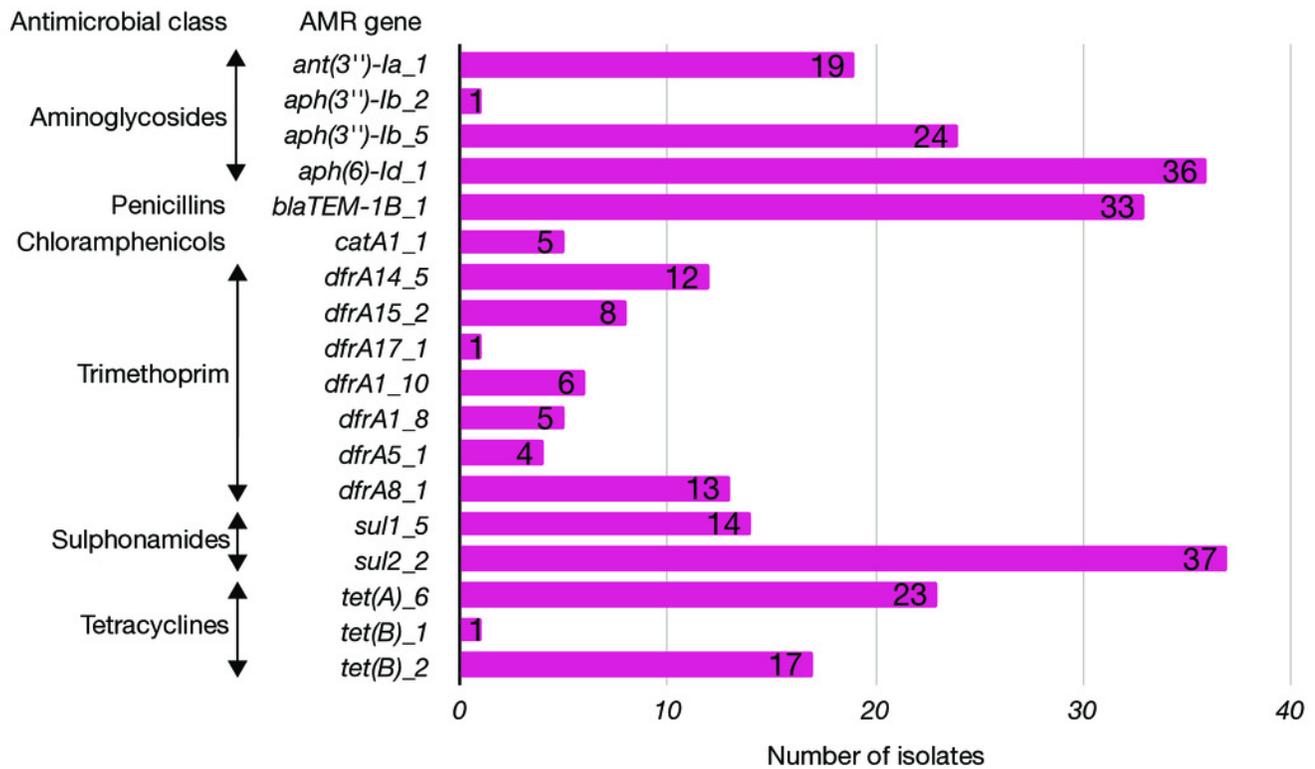
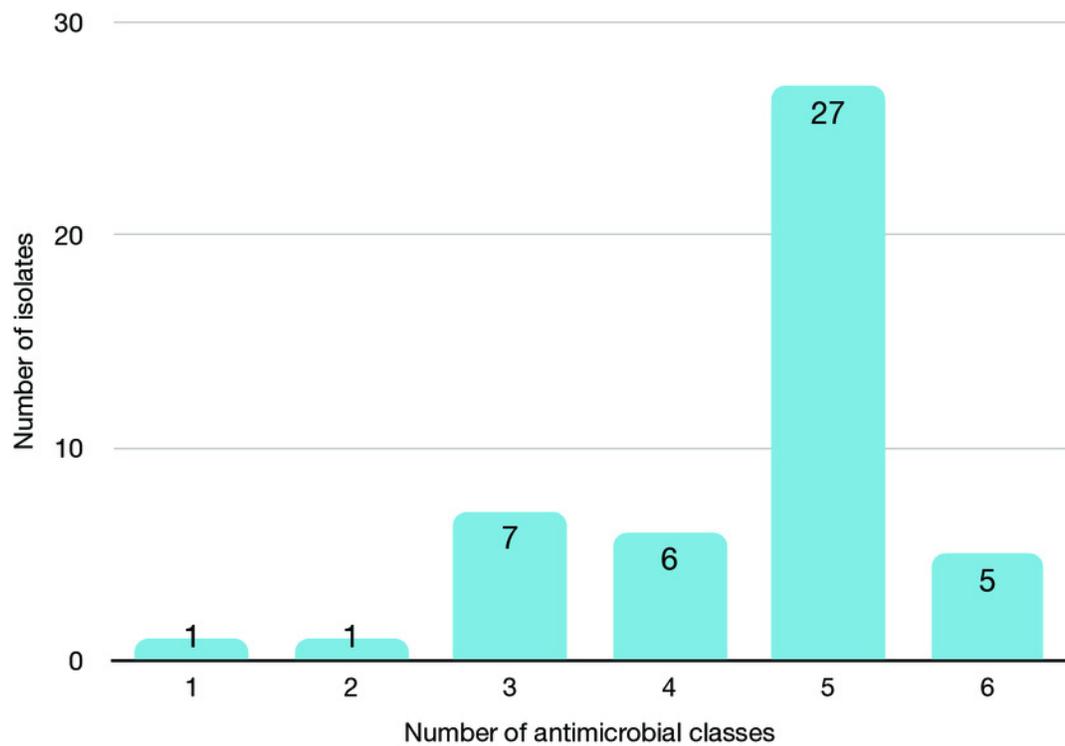
The tree was reconstructed with RAxML, using a general time-reversible nucleotide substitution model and 1,000 bootstrap replicates. The genome assembly of *E. coli* str. K12 substr. MG1655 was used as the reference, and the tree rooted using the genomic assembly of *E. fergusonii* as an outgroup. The sample names are indicated at the tip, with the respective Achtman sequence types (ST) indicated beside the sample names. The respective phylogroups the isolates belong to are indicated with colour codes as displayed in the legend. *E. coli* reference genome is denoted in black. Asterisks (\*) are used to indicate novel STs. The predicted antimicrobial resistance genes and putative virulence factors for each isolate are displayed next to the tree, with the virulence genes clustered according to their function. Multiple copies of the same strain (ST) isolated from a single host are not shown. Instead, we have shown only one representative isolate from each strain. Virulence and resistance factors were not detected in the reference strain either. A summary of the identified virulence factors and their known functions are provided in Supplementary File 3.



## Figure 3

The prevalence of antimicrobial-associated genes detected in the isolates.

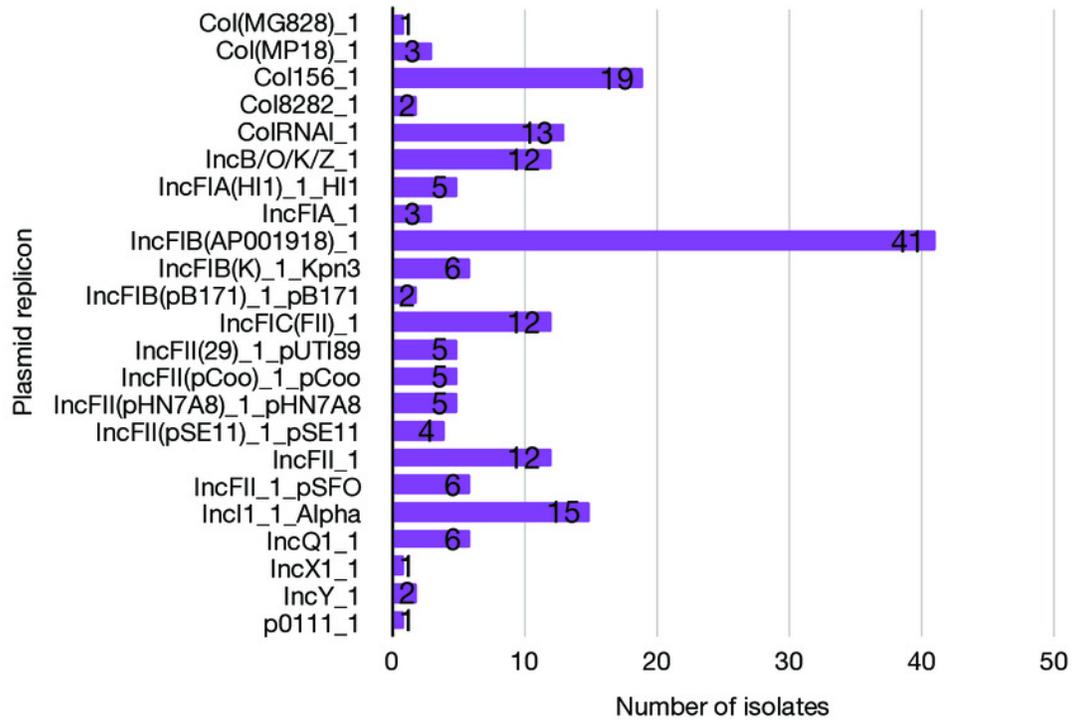
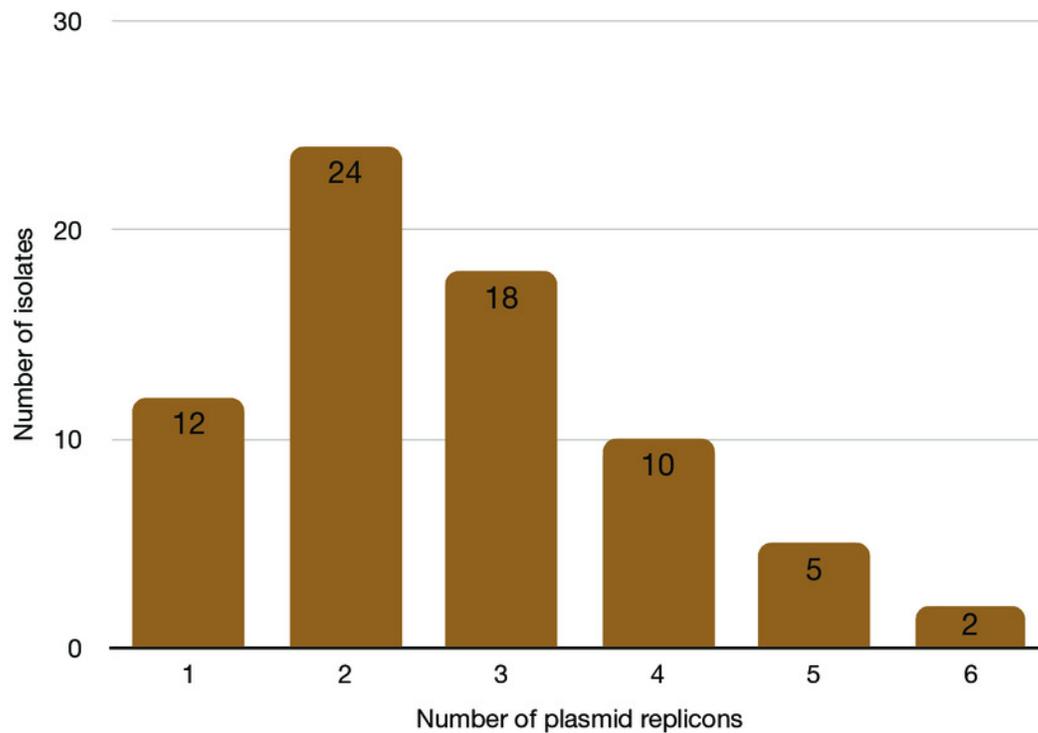
(A) The y-axis shows the prevalence of the detected AMR-associated genes in the study isolates, grouped by antimicrobial class. (B) A histogram depicting the number of antimicrobial classes to which resistance genes were detected in the corresponding strains.

**A****B**

## Figure 4

Prevalence of plasmid replicons among the study isolates.

(A) Plasmid replicons detected in the study isolates. (B) A histogram depicting the number of plasmids co-harboured in a single strain.

**A****B**

## Figure 5

The population structure of ST38.

(A) A NINJA neighbour-joining tree showing the population structure of *E. coli* ST38, drawn using the genomes found in the core-genome MLST hierarchical cluster at HC1100, which corresponds to ST38 clonal complex. (B) The closest neighbour to a pathogenic strain reported in the GEMS study is shown to be a commensal isolate recovered from a healthy individual. (C) The closest relative to the commensal ST38 strain recovered from this study is shown (red highlights), with the number of core-genome MLST alleles separating the two genomes displayed. (D) A maximum-likelihood phylogenetic tree reconstructed using the genomes found in the cluster in (C) above, comprising both pathogenic and commensal ST38 strains is presented, depicting the genetic relationship between strain 100415 (pathogenic) and 103709 (commensal) (red highlights). The nodes are coloured to depict the status of the strains as pathogenic (red) or commensal (blue). The geographical locations where isolates were recovered are displayed in Figures 4A-C; the genome counts shown in square brackets.

