Long-read-sequenced reference genomes of the seven major lineages

of enterotoxigenic *Escherichia coli* (ETEC) circulating in modern time

Astrid von Mentzer[1,2*#], Grace Blackwell[2,3], Derek Pickard[4], Christine J. Boinett[2],

Enrique Joffré[5], Andrew J Page[2,6], Ann-Mari Svennerholm[1], Gordon Dougan[4] and

Åsa Sjöling[5]

[1]Department of Microbiology and Immunology, Sahlgrenska Academy, University of

Gothenburg, Sweden

[2]Wellcome Sanger Institute, Hinxton, Cambridge, UK

[3]EMBL-EBI, Hinxton, Cambridge, UK

[4] University of Cambridge, Department of Medicine, Cambridge, UK

[5] Department of Microbiology, Tumor and Cell Biology, Karolinska Institutet

[6]Quadram Institute Bioscience, Norwich Research Park, Norwich, UK

*corresponding author: avm@sanger.ac.uk or mentzerv@chalmers.se

[#]Currently affiliated with Chalmers University of Technology, Gothenburg, Sweden

Abstract

Background: Enterotoxigenic *Escherichia coli* (ETEC) is an enteric pathogen

responsible for the majority of diarrheal cases worldwide. ETEC infections are

estimated to cause 80,000 fatalities per year, with the highest burden, ca 75 million

cases per year, amongst children under five years of age in resource poor countries. It

is also the leading cause of diarrhoea in travellers. Previous large-scale sequencing

studies have found seven major ETEC lineages currently in circulation world-wide.

Methods: Here we have used PacBio long read sequencing in combination with

Illumina sequencing to create high quality complete reference genomes for each of

these lineages with manually curated chromosomes and plasmids. The plasmids

carrying ETEC virulence genes were compared to other available long-read sequenced

ETEC strains using blastn.

Results: The ETEC reference strains harbour between two and five plasmids, including

virulence, antibiotic resistance and phage-plasmids. The virulence plasmids carrying

the colonization factors are highly conserved as shown by comparison with plasmids

with other ETEC strains and confirm that the plasmids and chromosomes of ETEC are

both crucial for ETEC virulence and superiority as pathogens.

Conclusion: We confirm that the major ETEC lineages all harbor conserved plasmids

that have been associated to their respective background genomes for decades. The in-

depth analysis of gene content and order and correct annotations of plasmids will help

to elucidate other plasmids with and without virulence factors in related bacterial

species. These reference genomes allow for rapid and accurate comparison between

different ETEC strains and these data will form the foundation of ETEC genomics

research for years to come.

Keywords: Reference genome, plasmid, enterotoxigenic *Escherichia coli*, ETEC,

diarrhoea

Background

Diarrheal pathogens are a leading cause of morbidity and mortality globally (WHO,

2017), with enterotoxigenic *Escherichia coli* (ETEC) accounting for a large proportion

of the diarrhoea cases in resource-poor countries [1]. An estimation of 220 million cases

each year are estimated to be attributed to ETEC (WHO PPC 2020). The most

vulnerable group are children under five years, but ETEC can also cause disease in

adults and is the major cause of diarrhoea in travellers. Resource-poor settings, where

access to clean water is limited, enables the spread of ETEC which is transmitted via

the faecal-oral route through ingestion of contaminated food or water [2]. The disease

severity may range from mild to cholera-like symptoms with profuse watery diarrhoea.

The infection is usually self-limiting, lasting three to four days and may be treated by

water and electrolyte rehydration to balance the loss of fluids and ions. There is strong

evidence to support that an ETEC vaccine is of key importance to prevent children and

adults from developing ETEC disease [3]. Several efforts are on-going to develop an

ETEC vaccine, with the majority focusing on including immunogenic antigens possibly

capable of inducing protection against a majority of the circulating ETEC clones [4–6].

ETEC bacteria adhere to the small intestine through fimbrial, fibrillar or afimbrial outer

membrane-structures called colonisation factors (CF). Upon colonisation, the bacteria

proliferate and secrete heat-labile toxin (LT) and/or heat-stable toxins, (STh or STp)

causing diarrhoea and often vomiting allowing further spread of the bacteria in the

environment [7].

The ability of an ETEC strain to infect correlates with its ability to adhere to cells of a

specific host. To this day 27 different CFs with human tropism have been described

and individual ETEC strains usually express 1-3 different CFs [8–14]. The

enterotoxins, LT and ST, can also be subdivided based on structure and function.

Human-associated ETEC strains express one of the 28 different LT-I variants (LTh-1

and LTh-2 are the most common variants) [15] alone or together with one of the

genetically different types of STa; STh and STp [16,17].

We have previously shown that ETEC strains causing human disease can be grouped

into a set of clonal lineages that encompass strains with specific virulence profiles.

Seven of the 21 identified lineages encompass ETEC strains that express the most

commonly found CFs and toxin profiles amongst isolated clinical ETEC strains [4,18].

There is currently one complete ETEC reference genome, H10407 [19], which has been

manually annotated. Several additional complete ETEC genomes are available [20,21],

some of which are annotated using automated annotation pipelines that often fail at

correctly annotating ETEC specific genes such as CFs. The rapid adaptation of next-

generation sequencing in public health, specifically within bacterial diseases [22,23]

and a number of large-scale sequencing studies [18,24–28] has led to a rapid increase

in the number of publicly available ETEC genomes. Most of these data were generated

with short-read technologies, such as Illumina. A limitation of short-read sequence data

is the inability to unambiguously resolve short repetitive regions of a genome, leading

to fragmented de novo assemblies of the underlying genome, missing regions and

genes, and disjointed synteny. ETEC is a highly diverse pathogen both in the core

genome (SNPs) and the accessory genome (mobile genetic elements). Clinically

important mobile genetic elements, such as virulence plasmids, vary within ETEC

strains. Hence, it is important to identify lineage-specific reference genomes that are

fully annotated and include both chromosome and plasmid(s). A number of fully

complete genomes have been generated using long-read sequencing alone [20,28], however circularising some chromosomes and plasmids may be difficult due to repeat regions. This can be resolved using a hybrid assembly approach combining long-read and short-read sequencing data. In this report we describe eight fully complete annotated genomes and plasmids from isolates representing the major ETEC lineages (L1-L7) that cause disease globally. They are sequenced using both short and long-read sequencing technologies to provide the highest accuracy currently available. These reference genomes will form the foundation of ETEC genomics research for years to come.

Methods

Selection of strains

Initially one to two ETEC strains with in each of the lineage (L1-L7)-specific CF profile were chosen from the University of Gothenburg large collection of ETEC strains [18] for PacBio sequencing. The strains were selected based on the location and year of isolation with the aim to select strains isolated from patients with diarrhoea from diverse geographical locations and at different time-points. After the genomes had been sequenced, assembled, circularised and annotated a second selection was made for manual curation of the genomes. This selection was made based on the quality of the genome assembly and the circularisation. The whole genomes of the ETEC reference strains was compared with one or two other long-read sequenced ETEC strains belonging to the same lineage by progressiveMAUVE and show that the strains are colinear (Figure S1). One representative ETEC genome from each lineage was annotated, with emphasis on the plasmids. The physical ETEC reference strains are available upon request.

Phenotypic toxin and CF analyses

ETEC isolates were identified by culture on MacConkey agar followed by analysis of LT and ST toxin expression using GM1 ELISAs [29]. The expression of the different CFs was confirmed by dot-blot analysis [29]. Isolates had been kept in glycerol stocks at −70 °C, and each strain has been passaged as few times as possible.

Antibiotic susceptibility testing

All ETEC isolates were tested against 14 antimicrobial agents and their minimum inhibitory concentration was determined by broth microdilution using EUCAST methodology [30]. The antimicrobial agents were: ampicillin, amoxicillin-clavulanic, oxacillin, ceftazidime, ceftriaxone, doxycycline, tetracycline, nalidixic acid, norfloxacin, azithromycin, erythromycin, chloramphenicol, nitrofurantoin and sulfamethoxazole-trimethoprim. All antibiotics were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. The *Escherichia coli* ATCC 25922 was used as quality control. The MIC was recorded visually as the lowest concentration of antibiotic that completely inhibits growth.

DNA extraction and sequencing

Strains from each lineage (L1-L7) were SMRT-sequenced on the PacBio RSII. A hybrid *de novo* assembly was performed combining the reads from both the SMRT-sequenced and Illumina sequenced strains.

For Single-Molecule Real Time (SMRT) sequencing (Pacific Bioscience) long intact strands of DNA are required. The genomic DNA extraction was performed as follows. Isolates were cultured in CFA broth overnight at 37°C followed by cell suspension in TE buffer (10 mM Tris and 1 mM EDTA pH 8.0) with 25% sucrose (Sigma) followed

by lysis using 10 mg/ml lysozyme (in 0.25 Tris pH 8.0) (Roche). Cell membranes were

digested with Proteinase K (Roche) and Sarkosyl NL-30 (Sigma) in the presence of

EDTA. RNase A (Roche) was added to remove RNA molecules. A phenol-chloroform

extraction was performed using a mixture of Phenol:Chloroform:Isoamyl Alcohol

(25:24:1) (Sigma) in phase lock tubes (5prime). To precipitate the DNA 2.5 volumes

99% ethanol and 0.1 volume 3 M NaAc pH 5.2 was used fol- lowed by re-hydration in

10 mM Tris pH 8.0. DNA concentration was measured using NanoDrop

spectrophotometer (NanoDrop). On average 10 μg for PacBio sequencing. Library

preparation for SMRT sequencing was prepared according to the manufacturers'

(Pacific Biosciences) protocol. The DNA was stored in E buffer and sequenced at the

Wellcome Sanger Institute. Isolates were sequenced with a single SMRTcell using the

P6-C4 chemistry, to a target coverage of 40–60X using the PacBio RSII sequencer.

Assembly

The resulting raw sequencing data from SMRT sequencing was manually *de novo*

assembled using the PacBio SMRT analysis pipeline

(https://github.com/PacificBiosciences/SMRT-Analysis) (version 2.3.0) utilizing the

Hierarchical Genome Assembly Process (HGAP) [31]. For all samples, the unfinished

assembly produced a single, non-circular, chromosome plus some small contigs, some

of which were plasmids or unresolved assembly variants. Using Circlator [32] (version

1.1.0), small self-contained contigs in the unfinished assembly were identified and

removed, with the remaining contigs circularized. Quiver [31] was then used to correct

errors in the circularized region by mapping corrected reads back to the circularized

assembly. As the strains had also been short read sequenced, and this data is of higher

base quality, the short reads from the Illumina sequencing was used in combination

with the long reads using Unicycler [33] to generate high quality assemblies (Table S1).

Fully circularised chromosomes and plasmids were achieved for the majority of the

strains. Cross validation of the assemblies was performed where two or three strains of

a lineage were sequenced (Figure S1). A single assembly from each lineage was chosen

to act as the representative reference genome, with priority given to assemblies with the

most complete and circularised chromosome and plasmids. In total, one chromosome

and 5 out of the 29 plasmids could not be circularized (independent on the two strains

that were sequenced initially) out of the 8 selected representative strains. These are

indicated with an asterix in Table 2 and Table S2. Between two and five plasmids were

identified in the eight strains. Shorter contigs that could not be assembled properly

contained phage genes and are included in the genomes and annotated as prophages

Table S5). Socru was used to validate the assembly of the chromosome, they all have

biologically valid orientation and order of rRNA operons with a type GS1.0, which is

seen in most *E.coli* in the public domain [34].

Gene prediction, annotation and comparative analysis

The final assembly was annotated using Prokka [35] (version 1.14.6). The annotations

of all plasmids generated by Prokka were manually checked using the genome viewer

Artemis [36] and Geneious 2018.11.1.5 (http://www.geneious.com) together with

blastp. Annotations of known ETEC virulence genes (colonisation factors and toxins)

and putative virulence genes were added after blast+ analysis against the ETEC

virulence database and their annotations updated accordingly. The LT and ST alleles

were determined according to Joffre *et al.,* [15,17]. Where required, PFAM domains

where searched using jackhammer to back up any identified using blastp

(https://www.ebi.ac.uk/Tools/hmmer/search/jackhmmer). Blastn and tblastx was used

for plasmid comparison, using both NCBI website or within BLAST Ring Image

Generator (BRIG) [37].

Incompatibility groups

Due to the discrepancy in databases two approaches was used to determine the Inc

groups of the 25 plasmids. PlasmidFinder was used with a threshold for minimum %

identity at 95% and a minimum coverage of 60%. The plasmids were further

characterised by pMLST [38], except for IncY which are a group of prophages that

replicate in a similar manner as autonomous plasmids. IncB/O/K/Z plasmids were

further typed by blastn comparison to the reference B/O (M93062), K (M93063) and Z

(M93064) replicons.

oriT prediction

The location of the *oriT* in the plasmids, if present, was predicted using oriTFinder [39]

with Blast E-value cut-off set to 0.01.

Genomic antibiotic resistance profiling

The identification of antibiotic resistance genes, located on both the chromosome and

plasmid(s) as well as the presence of efflux pumps and porins known to confer

resistance to antibiotics. The results were obtained by running ARIBA [40] using the

CARD database [41] with the default settings (minimum 90% sequence identity and no

length cut-off). ARIBA combines a mapping/alignment and targeted local assembly

approach to identify AMR genes and variants efficiently and accurately from paired

sequencing reads. The heatmaps were visualised using Phandango [42]. The presence

of chromosomal mutations in *gyrA* and *parC* was determined with ResFinder v3.2 from

the Center of Genomic Epidemiology [43].

Prophage prediction

The complete FASTA sequence of each ETEC reference genome was searched for

phage genes and prophages using PHASTER (phaster.ca) [44]. The identified intact

prophages are listed in Table S5. Additional questionable and not intact prophages were

identified but have not been included here. The prophages have been given a specific

identifier name and is also annotated as a mobile_element in the submitted chromosome

and or plasmid(s) of each strain.

Insertion sequences

Insertion sequences in the plasmids as well as surrounding the CS2 loci located on the

chromosome of E1649 were annotated using both Galileo AMR software [45] and the

ISFinder database [46]. Complete and partial IS elements were annotated (>95%

identity with hits in ISFinder) along with the present genes encoding transposases.

Three new insertion sequences were detected in this analysis and were submitted to

ISFinder as TnEc2, TnEc3 and TnEc4. Transposons and other mobile elements

(integrons and group II introns) were also identified using Galileo AMR and blastn

against public databases.

Results

Genome analysis of eight representative ETEC isolates

Eight ETEC strains representing the seven major ETEC lineages (L1-L7) comprising

isolates with the most prevalent virulence factor profiles were sequenced, assembled,

circularised and manually curated (Table 1). L3 includes two different representative

strains, one CS7 and one CFA/I positive strain. All chromosomes except one were

circularised (E1779). The average length of the chromosome was 4,927,521 bases

(4,721,269-5,151,162) with an average GC content of 50.7% (50.4% to 50.9%) and the

number of CDS ranging from 4,409 to 4,924 (Table S2). Each ETEC reference genome

contains between two and five plasmids encompassing plasmid-specific features,

virulence genes (both known and putative virulence factors) as well as antibiotic

resistance genes (Table 2).

Comparative genomics of the chromosome

The chromosomes of the reference strains were aligned and compared using MAUVE

and the overall structure was conserved across all eight chromosomes (Figure S2). In

total, 8,348 chromosomal genes were identified in the eight ETEC strains with 3,179

genes considered part of the core genome shared by all eight reference strains. The

majority of human commensal *Escherichia coli* strains belong to subgroup A [47,48].

ETEC strains however, fall into multiple phylogenetic groups (A, B1, B2, D and E with

the majority found in the phylogenetic groups A and B1 [18]. The phylogenetic group

of the eight ETEC reference strains have previously been determined using the triplex-

PCR scheme [49]. The ETEC references were re-analysed using ClermonTyping [50]

and it was determined that strain E1373 belongs to the phylogenetic group E while the

other reference isolates belong to groups A and B1 (Table 1).

Plasmids

The plasmids of each isolate were annotated using Prokka followed by manual curation

of the annotations including genes part of the conjugation machinery, and known

plasmid stability genes. Virulence factors (including CFs, toxins and putative virulence

factors), antibiotic resistance determinants with the Comprehensive Antibiotic

Resistance Database (CARD) [51]) as well as complete and partial insertion elements

and prophages were manually annotated. The plasmids were designated

pAvM_strainID_integer, e.g. pAvM_E925_4 (Additional file 1). The first plasmid

reported in this study starts at 4 as 3 previous plasmids E873p1-3 already have been

deposited to GenBank related to a different project [8].

Plasmids were typed by analysing the presence and variation of specific replication

genes to assign the plasmids to incompatibility (Inc) groups. The Inc groups of the

ETEC reference plasmids were first determined using PlasmidFinder and further

classified into subtypes using pMLST [38]. The replicons identified are IncFII,

IncFIIA, IncFIIS, IncFIB, IncFIC, IncI1 and IncY. Plasmids with replicon IncY,

IncFIIY or IncB/O/K/Z mainly harboured plasmid associated genes, such as stability

and transfer genes. Importantly, replicons FII, FIB and I1 were found to be strongly

associated with virulence genes as all CF locis, toxins as well as putative virulence

factors (e.g. *eatA* and *etpBAC*) were present on these plasmids. The majority of all

ETEC plasmids analysed here (17/29) belong to IncFII, whereof six of the IncFII

plasmids have an additional IncFIB replicon. In 6 of the ETEC reference strains two or

three IncFII replicons are present, for example, in strain E925, the plasmids

pAvM_E925_4 and 7 both belong to IncFII. However, the plasmids were further

subtyped to FII-111 and FII-15, respectively (Table 2) and is likely that their replicons

are different enough that they are compatible.

Virulence factors

The CFs expressed by the selected reference strains are CFA/I, CS1-CS3, CS5-CS7 and

CS21. Three of the strains (E925, E1649 and E1779) express both LT and ST, two

strains (E2980 and E1441) express LT and the strains E36 and E562 express STh, while

E1373 express STp (Table 1). Genes encoding virulence genes can be found on the

same plasmid, usually a CF locus and genes encoding one or two toxins. Interestingly,

genes encoding multiple CFs in the same strain are not commonly located on the same

plasmid, but instead found on individual plasmids (in the ETEC reference strains

described here). Exceptions for this is strain E1779 in which CS5 and CS6 loci are

located on the same plasmid (pAvM_E1779_19). In both E925 (L1) and E1649 (L2)

the genes encoding CS3 (*cst*), ST (*estA*) and LT (*eltAB)* are located on the same

plasmid, both with the FII replicon and of roughly the same size (Table 2). Blastn

comparison between the plasmids as well with additional plasmids, which harbour the

same virulence genes, shows that they are highly conserved (Figure 1a). The results

correspond with the close genetic relationship and common ancestry of lineage 1 (L1)

and lineage 2 (L2) [18].

Additional putative virulence factors, besides CFs and toxins, were identified in the

majority of the strains (Table 2), with *eatA* and *etpBAC* being the most commonly

found. EatA is an immunogenic mucinase which contributes to virulence by degrading

MUC2 which is the major protein in mucus of the small intestine [52,53]. The *etpABC*

genes encode an adhesin located on the tip of the flagella and mediates adherence to

host cells [54,55]. Four of the reference strains (E925, E1649, E36 and E562) harbour

both *eatA* and *etpBAC.* In three strains the *eatA* and/or *etpBAC* are located on the same

plasmid with an FII or FII+FIB replicon along with additional ETEC virulence genes,

except in E562 and E1373, where *eatA* and *etpBA*C are located on an I1+FII

(pAvM_E562_23) and I1 (pAvM_E1373_16) plasmid, respectively, which mainly

contains plasmid associated genes as well as genes encoding the *pil* operon and *tra-*

operon (pAvM_E562_23). Furthermore, a less explored putative virulence factor is

CexE, which is an extracytoplasmic protein dependent on the expression of *cfaD,* the

CFA/I regulator [56], and was first identified in H10407 [57]. Corroborating earlier

findings, the CFA/I positive E36 (L3) and E562 (L6) isolates harbour *cexE*

(pAvM_E36_12 and pAvM_E562_25). In addition, *cexE* is present in pAvM_E925_6,

pAvM_E1779_19 and pAVM_E2980_14, pAvM_E1441_18 and pAvM_E1373_28.

CexE has previously also been identified in several CS5+CS6 positive ETEC and

shown to be upregulated in the presence of bile and sodium glycocholate-hydrate [58],

bile is known to be involved in the regulation of several ETEC CFs [29,59]. The

location of *cexE* seems to be conserved across specific strains. In pAvM_E36_12,

pAvM_E1441_18, pAvM_E1779_19 and pAvM_E562_25 *cexE* is located upstream of

the *aatPABC* locus, whereas in pAvM_E925_6 and pAvM_E2980_14 *cexE* is located

downstream of *rob* (an AraC family transcriptional regulator) in the opposite direction.

pAvM_E925_4 harbours the aatPABC locus and hence the *cexE* is located on a

different plasmid in this strain.

Comparison of plasmids with the same virulence profile

ETEC isolates within a lineage share the same virulence profile, more specifically the

same CF profile. Blastn of each of the CF positive plasmids were performed and the

best hit(s) were used for subsequent analysis (Figure 1). Most of the plasmids identified

as related to the ETEC reference plasmids were not annotated, hence, when needed

these were annotated using the corresponding ETEC reference plasmids annotation as

a high priority when running Prokka. We show that plasmids with the same virulence

profile are rather conserved (Figure 1). For example, the two plasmids encoding CS3

(pAvM_E925_4 and pAvM_E1649_8) are highly similar to several CS3 harbouring

plasmids from O6:H16 strains collected from various geographical locations between

1975 and 2014, including *Escherichia coli* O6:H16 strain M9682-C1 plasmid

unnamed2 (CP024277.1) and *Escherichia coli* strain O6:H16 F5656C1 plasmid

unnamed2 (CP024262.1) PacBio sequenced by Smith et al. [20] (Figure 1a).

Furthermore, high coverage and similarity were found between the plasmids of isolates

E1441 (L4) and PacBio sequenced plasmids of ETEC isolates ATCC 43886/E2539C1

and 2014EL-1346-6 [20]. These isolates were collected in the 70-ties [60] and 2014

(from a CDC collection), respectively, and assigned as O25: H16 which is the O group

determined for E1441 *in silico* (Figure 1e). Plasmids of E2980 (LT+ CS7, L3) were

validated by PacBio sequenced plasmids of the ETEC isolate E2264, and E1779 (LT,

STh+CS5+CS6, L5) were largely corroborated by two plasmids of E2265 (LT,

STh+CS5+CS6 [28,58], although four plasmids were found in E1779. Several

additional L5 ETEC genomes have been sequenced within the GEMS study [61] and

high plasmid similarity and conservation in CS5+CS6 positive L5 isolates was evident

(Figure 1).

Overall the results show that ETEC plasmids are specific to lineages circulating world-

wide and conserved over time. Thus, the plasmids of major ETEC lineages must confer

evolutionary advantages to their host genomes (Figure 1).

Antibiotic resistance

Escherichia coli can become resistant to antibiotics, both via the presence of antibiotic

resistance genes as well as the acquisition of adaptive and mutational changes in genes

encoding efflux pumps and porins which allows the bacterium to effectively pump out

the antibiotic molecules.

Antibiotic resistance genomic marker(s), both chromosomally located and on plasmids,

were identified using the CARD database [51] (Table 2, Figures S4 and Figure S5 and

Additional file 1). Similar to other studies IncFII and B/O/K/Z plasmids were found to

harbour genes conferring antibiotic resistance [62]. Furthermore, the phenotypic

antibiotic resistance profile was determined with clinical MIC breakpoints based on

EUCAST (The European Committee on Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing) [30]

(Table S4). Phenotypic antibiotic resistance profiles (Table S4) were largely supported

by the findings of antibiotic resistance genes, efflux pumps and porins (Figures S4-S5

and Table S3), although some differences were found. All of the ETEC reference strains

are phenotypically resistant to at least two antibiotics of the 14 tested (Table S4).

Resistance against penicillin's, norfloxacin (Nor) and chloramphenicol (Cm) is most

common among these strains. Two of the strains, E1441 and E2980, harbour more than

four antibiotic resistance genes as well as multiple efflux systems and porins (Figure

S5 and Table S3). The plasmid pAvM_E1441_17 carries *aadA1-like*, *dfrA15*, *sul1* and

tetA(A) resistance genes (Table 2)*, where the first three genes are in a Class 1 integron

which confers resistance to streptomycin, trimethoprim, and sulphonamide

(sulphamethoxazole). The gene *tetA*(A) is part of the truncated Tn*1721* transposon [63].

The E1441 strain was verified as resistant to tetracycline (Tet) and sulphamethoxazole-

trimethoprim (Sxt) while streptomycin was not tested. A *mer* operon derived from Tn*21*

is also present the resistance region of pAvM_E1441_17, indicating that the plasmid

would also likely confer tolerance to mercury, although, this was not confirmed (Table

2). Interestingly, this multi-replicon (FII and FIB) plasmid also harbours the *lng* locus

encoding CS21, one of the most prevalent ETEC CFs. In isolate E2980 virulence

plasmid pAvM_E2980_15 harboured multiple resistance genes in the same region

(*bla*TEM-1b, *strA*, *strB* and *sul2)* which confer resistance to ampicillin, streptomycin and

sulphonamides. E2980 was found to be resistant to ampicillin (Amp) and oxacillin

(Oxa), which can be broken down by the beta-lactamase BlaTEM-1b, (Table 2, Table S3

and Table S4). E562 harbours three antibiotic resistance genes, *ampC* located in the

chromosome and the *tet(A)* and *bla*TEM-1b genes on a FII plasmid (pAvM_E562_27).

The *mer* operon derived from Tn*21* is also present in the region (Table 2 and Table S3).

The phenotypic resistance profile of E562 matches the genomic profile with resistance

to tetracycline (Tet), ampicillin (Amp), amoxicillin-clavulanic acid (Amc) and oxacillin

(Oxa) (Table S4). The plasmid pAvM_E36_13 contains a complete copy of Tn*10*,

which encode for the *tet(B)*, tetracycline resistance module. Although the

AvM_E1373_29 phage-like plasmid is cryptic, related plasmids such as the pHMC2-

family of phage-like plasmids [64] (described below), can harbour resistance genes

such as CTX-M-14 [65] and CTX-M-15 [66,67].

Phenotypic intermediate resistance to ampicillin was found in E36 and E1779 encoded

by chromosomal *ampC*. Higher MIC values against ampicillin are found in E2980 and

E562 strains carrying *bla*TEM genes. Phenotypic resistance to ceftazidime (Caz) and

ceftriaxone (Cro) was not found in the isolates which was consistent with the absence

of extended spectrum beta lactamase (ESBL) resistance genes in the sequence data.

Phenotypic resistance to norfloxacin (Nor) and chloramphenicol (Cm) was found in 6

and 5 isolates, respectively, but none of the resistant isolates contained known

resistance genes suggesting that chromosomal mutations or presence of efflux pumps

may account for this reduced susceptibility.

The presence of efflux systems and porins that can confer resistance to antibiotics and

was hence analysed using whole genome sequencing. The ETEC reference strains

contain several efflux systems which could explain why the genotypic and phenotypic

antibiotic resistance profile did not match for all antibiotics. All of the isolates harbour

multiple efflux pumps located on the chromosome and plasmids (Table S3 and Figure

S5) and could explain the reduced susceptibility to fluoroquinolones seen in the

majority of the reference strains. In E925, a non-synonymous mutation in *acrF* was

identified (G1979A) resulting in a substitution from arginine to glutamine (A360Q).

The effect on the expression and/or function of the AcrEF efflux pump was not verified.

In addition, the isolates were analysed for chromosomal mutations likely to confer

quinolone resistance, using ResFinder mutations in *gyrA* was only found in one strain,

E2980, at position S83A which may confer resistance to nalidixic acid and

ciprofloxacin). However, E2980 was sensitive to Nalidixic acid. Both mutation(s) that

alter the target (*gyrA* and *parC*) as well as the presence of efflux pumps can confer

resistance to fluoroquinolones. The majority of the isolates are moderately resistant to

Norfloxacin (and Nalidixic acid), both quinolones, which is most likely due to the

presence of two efflux pumps, AcrAB-R and AcrEF-R, as only one mutation was

identified in *gyrA* of isolate E2980 where usually at least two or more mutations are

needed to confer augmented resistance [68].

Identification of phage-like plasmids in ETEC

Two of the ETEC reference strains (E1649 and E1373) harboured phage-like plasmids

(pAvM_E1649_9 and pAvM_E1373_29) which encode for DNA metabolism, DNA

biosynthesis as well as structural bacteriophage genes (capsid, tail etc.). Both

pAvM_E1649_9 and pAvM_E1373_29 contain genes associated with plasmid

replication, division and maintenance (*i.e. repA* and *parAB*). Phage-like plasmids are

found in various bacterial species, such as *Escherichia coli*, *Klebsiella pneumoniae*,

Yersinia pestis, *Salmonella enterica* serovar Typhi, *Salmonella enterica* serovar

Typhimurium, *Salmonella enterica* serovar Derby and *Acinetobacter baumanii* [69].

The plasmid pAvM_E1649_9 belong to the P1 phage-like plasmid family (Figure 2a

and Figure S3a) while pAvM_E1373_29 belongs to the pHCM2-family (Figure 2b and

Figure S3b) that can be traced back to a likely phage origin similar to the Salmonella

phage, SSU5 [64]. Both phage-plasmids thus contain replication and/or partition genes

of plasmid origin and a complete set of genes that are phage related in function and

properties (Figure 2 and Figure S3). It is significant that phage-like plasmid

pAvM_E1373_29 falls more within the *Escherichia coli* lineage of pHCM2 phage-like

plasmid rather than those found in *Salmonella* species. This indicates that phage-like

plasmids have diversified within the context of the bacterial species in which they have

been isolated.

Blast searches confirmed high similarity of pAvM_E1373_29 to several phage-like

plasmids found in *Escherichia coli* including ETEC O169:H41 isolate F8111-1SC3

[20,70], and a number of CTX-M-15 positive phage-like plasmids including pANCO1,

pANCO2 [67], PV234a and a plasmid found in *Escherichia coli* ST648 from waste

water and ST131 isolate SC367ECC [71]. The P1 phage-like plasmid pAvM_1649_9

is most similar to p1107-99K, pEC2_5 isolated from human urine and p2448-3 from an

UPEC ST131 isolate isolated from blood. The similarity is most pronounced at the

amino acid level. Conservation and synteny is evident when pAvM_1649_9 is

compared to P1 phage.

Prophages present and their cargo genes

Prophages may insert into chromosomes and bring along not only the genes required

for lysogeny and lytic cycles but also cargo genes that are often picked up when DNA

is compacted into the capsid. Cargo genes can have significant benefits to the host

bacterium by providing additional elements to defence against phage or immune

evasion and finally environmental survival. PHASTER analyses identified prophages

in the chromosomes of all ETEC reference isolates and in some of the plasmids (Table

S5). Putative tellurite resistance operons in isolates E925, E36, E2980 and E1373 were

all located in prohages. In addition, *eatA* (in E925, and E1649) and *estA* (STh) genes

(E36) were prophage cargo genes.

Many prophage cargo genes identified in this study have properties related to inhibition

of cell division. Among these are a variety of *kil* genes which can enhance host bacterial

survival in the presence of some antibiotics [72]. Some genes that are core entities

within many prophages, such as *zapA* (from E1779_Pph_6), *dicB* and *dicC* (found in

phage E1779_Pph_7), also have similar effects as they can inhibit cell division in the

presence of antibiotics which raise the broader question in terms of how they are

beneficial to the host bacterium.

A further gene of interest is the *yfdR* gene identified in E1779_Pph_7 (gene

E1779_04412). This curtails cellular division by inhibiting DNA replication under

stress conditions encountered by the bacterial cell. Similarly, the *iraM* gene located in

phage E1441_Pph_2 plays a role in RpoS stability.

OmpX homologs were found in numerous phages in this study. They are trans-

membrane located and play a role in virulence as well as antibiotic resistance [73]. PerC

is often associated with EPEC plasmids where it seems to have a regulatory role for the

attaching and effacing gene, *eaeA* [74]. Its presence as cargo within an ETEC strain

phage, E1779_Pph_7, is thus intriguing. Its ability to regulate other virulence genes is

yet to be determined. Within the same phage, a *gntR*-like regulatory gene was

identified. It play a role in gluconate utilization as well as induction of the genes of the

Entner-Doudoroff pathway [75].

Discussion

ETEC strains have previously been shown to fall into globally spread genetically

conserved lineages which encompass strains with highly specific virulence factor

profiles [18]. The currently widely used ETEC reference strains H10407 (CFA/I) and

E24377A (CS1+CS3) are highly divergent in relation to strains with the same virulence

profile sequenced more recently [18]. This highlights the need of relevant and

representative ETEC reference strains and genomes. The long-read sequenced isolates

presented here comprise complete reference genomes with separate chromosomal and

plasmid sequences that allow more detailed studies of ETEC as well as *Escherichia coli*

phylogeny.

Phylogenetic analysis has shown that *Escherichia coli* fall into distinct phylogroups.

Previously, four phylogenetic groups (A, B1, B2 and D) were considered the main

groups of *Escherichia coli* [49], however due to the increased number of *Escherichia*

coli genomes the phylogenetic groups have been redefined and now consist of seven

phylogenetic groups (A, B1, B2, C, D, E, F and G as well as a number of cryptic clades

[49,76,77] .The most recognized member of group E is enterohemorrhagic *Escherichia*

coli (EHEC) including the O157:H7 *Escherichia coli* [78]. The fact that ETEC can

belong to group E contradicts the notion that a chromosomal backbone of A, B1 and C

groups is necessary for the arrival and maintenance of the genes encoding the two toxins

[79] and highlights the fact that ETEC is a highly diverse pathogen.

Previous studies confirmed that ETEC belong to lineages that have spread globally.

These analyses were largely dependent of on the shared core genome of chromosomal

genes while conservation of plasmids was indicated by the association between

plasmid-borne toxin and CFs and lineage [18]. Analysis of the plasmids sequenced in

the present study showed that the conservation within ETEC lineages also include

plasmids.

Blast analyses confirm that the plasmids identified in this study are often highly

homologous to other plasmids identified by either long-read or Illumina sequencing

present in GenBank. For instance, the 94.5 kb plasmid pAvM_1441_18 was 98%

identical to two 96 kb and 82 kb plasmids belonging to ETEC O25: H16 isolates ATCC

43886/E2539C1 and 2014EL-1346-6 sequenced by PacBio by Smith *et al.,* [20] (Figure

1e). Plasmid pAvM_E1441_18 is the major virulence plasmid of this lineage carrying

genes encoding LT and CS6.

The larger plasmid in E1441 (pAvM_E1441_p17) carries both the genes for ETEC CF

CS21 and antibiotic resistance determinants. Furthermore, a complete conjugation

machinery was present suggesting that this is most likely a mobile plasmid. Movement

of such a plasmid results in not only the spread of ETEC virulence genes but also the

spread of AMR determinants.

Interestingly, Wachsmuth *et al*., [60] analysed transfer frequencies in ETEC O25:H16

isolates and found evidence that resistance to tetracycline and sulfathiazole was

transferred but not the genes encoding LT [60]. The same study found evidence of two

large plasmid of similar size [60] corroborating the finding of two plasmids of similar

size in E1441, one with *eltAB* and *cssABCD* without the *tra*-operon and the other with

e.g. *sul1* and *tetA* genes on a putative mobile plasmid. Since ATCC 43886/E2539C1,

E1441 and 2014EL-1346-6, have been isolated in the 1970's, 1997, and 2014,

respectively, this study confirms our findings and indicate that E1441 represent an

ETEC lineage with stable plasmid content and putative ability to transfer antibiotic

resistance and the CS21 operon by mobilization of one of the plasmids. If this plasmid

type is found in other *Escherichia coli* remains to be investigated but the finding that

the L4 lineage retains both plasmids in isolates collected over time and world-wide

indicate a strong selective force to keep the extrachromosomal contents of both

plasmids.

The ETEC O169:H41 isolate F8111-1SC3 plasmid unnamed 2 [20,70] is highly similar

to pAvM_E1373_28 (Figure 1h). The F8111-ISC3 isolate is part of a CDC collection

of ETEC isolates from cruise ship outbreaks and diarrheal cases in US 1996-2003. The

antibiotic resistance profiles of these isolates were determined [70] and most isolates

of O group 169 were tetracycline resistant corroborating the findings of the *tet* gene in

E1373 isolated in Indonesia 1996. ETEC diarrhoea caused by isolates determined to be

O169:H41 and STp CS6 positive are repeatedly reported to cause diarrhoea,

particularly in Latin America [61,80–82]. Among the cruise ship isolates is the

sequenced and characterised virulence plasmid pEntYN10 encoding STp and CS6, that

has been described to be unstable and easily lost *in vitro* [80,83]. The E1373 plasmid;

AvM_E1373_28 is highly homologous to pEntYN10 (Figure 1h) and the virulence

profile of ETEC O169: H41 is conserved in isolates collected globally. Hence, the

instability of the plasmid is not biologically valid and current data indicate that plasmids

are stable within this linage and serotype.

An examination of the cargo carried on prophage and cryptic prophage of our

sequenced isolates indicate a number of broad types of proteins present (Table S5).

Many have been shown previously to have roles in inhibiting cell division and have a

phenotypic signature of antibiotic resistance [72]. It is possible that arresting cell

division in the presence of antibiotics preserves the integrity of the bacterial cell until

the antibiotic is diluted out over time or degraded.

Some, such as *yfdR,* do so by competitive binding to DnaA, a protein involved in

chromosomal replication. We found many copies of the *ompX/ail* gene in the

prophages. Its role is as an outer membrane protein with a role in adhesion to eukaryotic

cells and antibiotic resistance make it a desirable gene for phage cargo.

Two distinctive extra-chromosomal elements which are highly similar to P1 and SSU5

phage were identified among the 8 ETEC reference strains sequenced (Figure 2, Figure

S3 and Table S5). The SSU5-like element carries a number of genes that allow it to be

functional as a plasmid and in fact belongs to the pHCM2-like family of Phage-

Plasmids (Figure 2b) [64]. These plasmids are devoid of virulence factors, transposons

and antibiotic markers but, they do contain a significant number of DNA metabolism

and biosynthesis genes that could be advantageous to the host cell and they may contain

bacteriophage inhibitory genes that have not yet been identified. Interestingly, several

SSU5 phage-like plasmids have been shown to carry the ESBL gene *bla*CTX-M15 in

a number of extra-intestinal pathogenic *Escherichia coli* isolates [66]. ESBL resistance

seems to be absent or low in ETEC and the SSU5 phage-like plasmid pAvM_E1373_29

does not contain antibiotic resistance genes.

Classification of the plasmids was made using two approaches, the PlasmidFinder and

pMLST. For some of the plasmids a single replicon was found and for others multiple

replicons were identified. Further analyses of the multi-replicon plasmids were

undertaken combining the classification results with manual curation. For plasmids

with different replicons it is evident that these indeed are multi-replicon plasmids

(Table 2). Multi-replicon plasmids have been described as a way to broaden their host

range, *i.e.* possibility to be transferred between bacteria of different phylogenetic

groups. However, plasmids with two replicons of the same Inc group is an indication

that these are rather co-integrates or hybrid plasmids. Co-integrated plasmids are a

result of a fusion of two plasmids with different or same replicon through

recombination [84]. The co-integrated plasmid can separate when needed by the

bacteria. The latter indicating that there may be plasmids which are co-integrates

similar to the pCoo (CS1 containing plasmid). The pCoo was found to have two

replicons, IncFII and IncI1, which likely was formed by recombination of two

independent replicons [84]. The plasmids pAvM_E925_6 and pAvM_E925_7 are IncI1

and IncFII plasmids, respectively. A blastn comparison with pCoo show that these may

be co-integrates (Figure S6). There is a region that has been duplicated in

pAvM_E925_6 which is absent in pCoo (Figure S6).

Conclusion

We provide fully assembled, manually cured and annotated chromosomes and plasmids

that will serve as new ETEC reference genomes. The in-depth analysis of gene content

and order and correct annotations of plasmids will also help to elucidate other plasmids

with and without virulence factors in related bacterial species. Our genomes were

compared to other long-read sequenced ETEC genomes and we can confirm that the

major ETEC lineages all harbor conserved plasmids that have been associated to their

respective background genomes for decades. This confirms that the plasmids and

chromosomes of ETEC are both crucial for ETEC virulence and superiority as

pathogens.

Supplementary information

Figure S1-S6

Tables S1-S5

Additional file 1: Detailed description of ETEC reference plasmids

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Authors' contributions

AvM conceived and designed the experiments, performed the experiments, analysed

the data, contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools, prepared figures and/or tables,

authored the paper and approved the final draft.

GB and AvM annotated all IS elements, transposons as well as other mobile elements,

contributed to the paper and approved the final draft.

DP and AvM annotated the identified prophages, contributed to the paper and approved

the final draft.

CB performed the *in silico* analysis of the genomic antibiotic resistance profiling,

contributed to the paper and approved the final draft.

EJ performed the antibiotic resistance profiling, contributed to the paper and approved

the final draft.

AJP assembled the genomes, contributed to the paper and approved the final draft.

AMS conceived and designed the experiments contributed to the paper and approved

the final draft.

GD conceived and designed the experiments and approved the final draft.

ÅS conceived and designed the experiments, analysed data, authored the paper and

approved the final draft.

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Availability of data and materials

The datasets supporting the conclusions of this article is included within the articles

and its Supplementary information. The sequencing data generated in this study has

been submitted to EMBL, accessions pending. The physical ETEC reference strains

can be requested by contacting the corresponding author Astrid von Mentzer

(avm@sanger.ac.uk or mentzerv@chalmers.se).

Ethics approval and consent to participate

Not applicable.

Consent for publication

Not applicable.

Competing interests

The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest.

Author details

[1]Department of Microbiology and Immunology, Sahlgrenska Academy, University of

Gothenburg, Medicinaregatan 7, 413 90 Gothenburg, Sweden

[2]Wellcome Sanger Institute, Hinxton, CB10 1SA, Cambridge, UK

[3]EMBL-EBI, Hinxton, CB10 1SA, Cambridge, UK

[4] University of Cambridge Department of Medicine, Addenbrookes Hospital

Box 157, Hills Rd, CB2 0QQ, Cambridge, UK

[5] Department of Microbiology, Tumor and Cell Biology, Biomedicum, Karolinska

Institutet, Solnavägen 9, 171 65 Solna, Stockholm, Sweden

[6]Quadram Institute Bioscience, Norwich Research Park, NR4 7UQ Norwich, UK

[#]Currently affiliated with Chalmers University of Technology, Chalmers Tvärgata 3,

413 58 Gothenburg, Sweden

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Figure 1: Comparison between the ETEC reference plasmids harbouring colonisation factors and other PacBio-sequenced ETEC plasmids using blastn. **a)** pAvM_E1649_8 (CS3) as reference and pAvM_925_4 (CS3) compared to the following ETEC plasmids: M9682-C1 plasmid 2 (1975, USA; CP024277.1), 2011EL-1370-2 plasmid 2 (2011, USA; CP022914.1), 99-3165 plasmid 2 (USA; CP029980.1), 2014-EL-1346-6 plasmid 5 (2014, USA; CP024237.1) and F5656-C1 plasmid 2 (USA, CP024262.1). **b)** pAvM_E925_6 (CS1) compared to ETEC plasmids pFORC31.3 (2004, Korea; CP013193.1) and 1392/75 p746 (1973; FN822748.1). **c)** pAvM_E36_12 (CFA/I) compared to plasmids 1-3 (p1: CP024294.1; p2 CP024295.1; p3: CP024296.1) from ETEC strain 00-3279 (USA). **d)** pAvM_E2980_14 (CS7) compared to E2264 plasmid 1 (2006, Bangladesh; CP023350.1), 90-9276 plasmid 2 (1988, Bangladesh; CP024298.1) and 90-9280 plasmid 1 (1988, Bangladesh; CP024241.1). **e)** pAvM_E1441_18 (CS6) compared to ATCC 43886 plasmid 2 (CP024255.1) and F5505-C1 plasmid 2 (2013, Sweden; CP023259.1). **f)** pAvM_E1779_19 (CS5+CS6) compared to F5176-C6 plasmid 1 (1997; CP024668.1), 602354 p148 (2009, Bangladesh; CP025848.1), 504237 p142 (2010, India; CP025863.1), E2265 plasmid 1 (2006, Bangladesh; CP023347.1), 120899 p146 (2012, Gambia; CP025917.1), and 204576 p146 (2010, Mali; CP025908.1). **g)** pAvM_E562_25 (CFA/I) compared to p504239_101 (2010, India; CP025860.1). **h)** pAvM_E1373_28 (CS6) compared to F6326-C1 plasmid 2 (1998, USA; CP024265.1), F9792 plasmid (USA; CP023274.1), F8111-1SC3 plasmid 3 (USA; CP024272.1), 2014EL-1345-2 plasmid 4 (2014, USA; CP024227.1) and pEntYN10 (1991, Japan; AP014654.2). The thresholds chosen for the blastn are shown in the key to the right of each plasmid comparison. The colour code for the annotations are listed at the bottom of the figure.

Figure 2: Comparisons between the identified ETEC phage-plasmids and other similar phage-plasmids using blastn. **a)** pAvM_E1649_9 is a P1-like phage-plasmid here compared to Enterobacteria phage P1 (Escherichia virus P1; NC_005856.1) and pEC2_5 (*Escherichia coli* strain EC2_5; CP041960.1). **b)** pAvM_E2980_29, a phage-plasmid similar to the pHCM2 (Salmonella typhi strain CT18; AL513384.1) and SSU5 (Salmonella phage; JQ965645.1) in Salmonella typhi. Blastn comparisons were made using BRIGS with the thresholds indicated to the right of each plasmid comparison. Selected phage and plasmid annotations are shown in the outer ring.

Table 1: Characteristics of the reference ETEC strains.

Strain	Lineage	Phylo-group	MLST	O antigen	CF	Toxin profile	YoI[a]	Location	Subject	Age of subject	D/AS[b]
E925	L1	A	2353	O6	CS1+CS3+CS21	LT+STh	2003	Guatemala	Indigenous	Child <5 yrs	D
E1649	L2	A	4	O6	CS2+CS3+CS21	LT+STh	1997	Indonesia	Traveller	Adult	D
E36	L3	B1	173	O78	CFA/I+CS21	LT+STh	1980	Bangladesh	Indigenous	Adult/child	D
E2980	L3	B1	5305	O114	CS7	LT	2010	Bangladesh	Indigenous	Child <5 yrs	D
E1441	L4	A	1312	O25	CS6+CS21	LT	1997	Kenya	Traveller	Adult	D
E1779	L5	B1	443	O115	CS5+CS6	LT+STh	2005	Bangladesh	Indigenous	Adult	D
E562	L6	A	2332	ON3	CFA/I+CS21	STh	2000	Mexico	Traveller	Adult	D/AS
E1373	L7	E	182	O169	CS6	STp	1996	Indonesia	Traveller	Adult	D

[a] YoI: Year of isolation
[b] D/AS: Diarrhea or Asymptomatic

Table 2: Description of the plasmids present in the 8 ETEC reference strains.

Strain	Plasmid	Length (bp)	GC (%)	Inc[a]	Plasmid features (no of copies)	Virulence genes	Putative virulence genes	Antibiotic resistance profile (genomic)	Acc. no[b]
L1 E925 CS1+CS3+CS21 LTh+STh	pAvM_E925_4	116 803	48.4	FII	ccdAB, hok-sok (antisense RNA-regulated system), psiAB, repAB, stbAB, tra genes	cstA-G' (CS3), eltAB1 (LTh), estA3/4 (STh)	eppBAC	-	
	pAvM_E925_5	82 909	48.6	FII + FIB	psiAB, repA (2), repB, repE, parB, sopAB, tra genes	lngXI, R, S, T, X2, A-J, P (CS21)	-	-	
	pAvM_E925_6	82 314	47.8	I1	iib (colicin 1b), repA, stbAB, tra genes, pil locus, vapBC	cooB, A, C, D (CS1)	cexE	tetA, B, C, R mdf(A)-like	
	pAvM_E925_7	51 418	45.4	FII	ccdAB, psiA, repAB, stbAB, tra genes	-	eatA 1-5 (two disrupted eatA copies)	-	
L2 E1649 CS2*+CS3+CS21 LTh+STh	pAvM_E1649_8	120 141	47.2	FII	ccdAB (duplicated), hok-sok (antisense RNA-regulated system), psiAB, repAB, stbAB, tra genes	cstA-G (CS3), eltAB1 (LTh), estA3/4 (STh)	eatA, eppBAC	-	
	pAvM_E1649_9*	102 017	47.6	Y	P1 addiction system (phage related), repA, sopAB	-	-	-	
	pAvM_E1649_10	86 517	45.0	FII+FIB	hok-sok (antisense RNA-regulated system), psiAB, repA(2), repB, sopAB, tra genes	lngXI, R, S, T, X2, A-J, P (CS21)	-	-	
	pAvM_E1649_11*	8 834	42.9	No hits	ND	-	-	-	
L3 E36 CFA/I+CS21 LTh+STh	pAvM_E36_12*	381 858	49.7	FII + FIB	stbAB (4), psiAB (6), tra genes, repA (3), repB (3), sopAB (2), hok-sok (antisense RNA-regulated system), relE	cfaA, B, C, D (CFA/I), eltAB15 (LTh), lngXI, R, S, T, X2, A-J, P (CS21), estA2 (STh)	eatA, eppBAC	-	
	pAvM_E36_13	99 448	51.6	B/O/K/Z	stbAB, relE, repA4, pil genes, psiAB	-	-	-	
L3 E2980 CS7 LTh	pAvM_E2980_14	112 056	48.1	I1	parA, pil genes, relE, repA, stbAB	csvA, B, C, D (CS7), eltAB (LTh)	cexE	-	
	pAvM_E2980_15	72 255	52.4	FII	psiAB, relE, repAB, stbAB, tra genes	-	-	str A, strB, sul2, blaTEM-1B	
	pAvM_E2980_16	48 305	50.3	I1-like	stbAB, repA, vapBC (TA-system)	-	eatA, eppBAC	-	
L4 E1441	pAvM_E1441_17	130 302	51.3	FII + FIB	pemI/K (TA-system), repA (2), repB, sopAB, srnAC	lngXI, R, S, T, X2, A-J, P (CS21)	-	aadA1, tetR, tetA, sul1, dfrh1	

Group	Plasmid[b]	Size (bp)	GC (%)	Inc group[a]	Maintenance/transfer genes	Colonization/CF genes	Toxin genes	Resistance genes
CS6+CS21 LTh (LT17)	pAvM_E1441_18	94 840	47.1	FII	parB, psiAB, repAB, stbAB (antisense RNA-regulated system), stbAB, tra genes	css4, B, C, D (CS6), eltAB17 (LTh)	eat4_1, eat4_2, cexE	-
L5 E1779 CS5+CS6 LTh+STh	pAvM_E1779_19	142 377	47.6	FII	ccdAB (TA-system), cea/cia (Colicin E), psiAB, repAB, stbAB (2 copies), tra genes, vapBC (TA-system)	csf4, B, C, E, F, D (CS5), css4, B, C, D (CS6), estA3/4 (STh)	-	-
	pAvM_E1779_20	88 759	51.8	FII	hok-sok (antisense RNA-regulated system), psiAB, tra genes, repAB, stbAB	eltAB15 (LTh)	-	-
	pAvM_E1779_21	82 464	51.0	FIIY	repA (2), repB, tra genes, psiAB, parB, sopAB	-	-	-
	pAvM_E1779_22	61 528	50.5	FII	repAB, tra genes	-	-	-
L6 E562 CFA/I+CS21 STh	pAvM_E562_23	109 853	50.5	I1 (+FII)	parB, psiAB, stbAB, pil genes, tra genes	-	eatA, erpBAC	-
	pAvM_E562_24	86 655	48.6	FII + FIB	psiAB, repA (2), repB, stbAB, tra genes	lngX1, R, S, T, X2, A-J, P (CS21)	-	-
	pAvM_E562_25*	95 616	46.7	FII	psiAB (truncated psiA) relE/B (toxin-antitoxin system), repAB, stbAB, sopAB	cfaA, B, C, D (CFA/I), estA2 (STh)	-	-
	pAvM_E562_26	88 318	52.9	B/O/K/Z	pil genes, pndAC (antisense RNA-regulated system), psiAB, relE, repA, tra genes	-	-	-
	pAvM_E562_27*	83 375	40.0	FII	hok-sok (antisense RNA-regulated system), peml/pemK (TA system), psiAB, parB, repAB, tra genes	-	-	blaTEM-1b, tetAR, merRTPCADE (Tn21)
L7 E1373 CS6 STp	pAvM_E1373_28	146 433	46.1	FII + FIB	parB, psiAB, relE, repA (2), repB	css4, B, C, D (CS6), estA5 (STp), CS8-like gene cluster, fae-related genes	-	-
	pAvM_E1373_29	109 318	46.4	FIB	parB, parB-like, repA	-	-	-

[a] Incompatibility groups were determined by PlasmidFinder [35] and pMLST [35] for subtyping.
[b] GCA_000000000 (submitted to EMBL, accessions pending)
*Plasmids not circularised