A multidrug-resistant *Salmonella enterica* Typhimurium DT104 complex lineage

circulating among humans and cattle in the United States lost the ability to produce

pertussis-like toxin ArtAB

Laura M. Carroll[1,2,3,4], Nicolo Piacenza[5], Rachel A. Cheng[6], Martin Wiedmann[7], Claudia

Guldimann[5,#]

[1]Department of Clinical Microbiology, SciLifeLab, Umeå University, Umeå, Sweden

[2]Laboratory for Molecular Infection Medicine Sweden (MIMS), Umeå University, Umeå,
Sweden

[3]Umeå Centre for Microbial Research, Umeå University, Umeå, Sweden
10
11   [4]Integrated Science Lab, Umeå University, Umeå, Sweden
12
13   [5]Chair for Food Safety and Analytics, Ludwig-Maximillians-University Munich, Munich,
14   Germany
15
16   [6]Department of Food Science and Technology, Virginia Tech, Blacksburg, Virginia, USA

17   [7]Department of Food Science, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York, USA

18
19   [#]Corresponding author: Claudia Guldimann, c.guldimann@lmu.de
20
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22   **Keywords:** *Salmonella* Typhimurium, DT104, ArtAB, GogB, Gifsy-1, prophage
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25   **Repositories:** Not applicable
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Abstract

Salmonella enterica subspecies *enterica* serotype Typhimurium definitive type 104 (DT104) can

infect both humans and animals and is often multidrug-resistant (MDR). Previous studies have

indicated that, unlike most *S.* Typhimurium, the overwhelming majority of DT104 strains

produce pertussis-like toxin ArtAB via prophage-encoded genes *artAB*. However, DT104 that

lack *artAB* have been described on occasion. Here, we identify a MDR DT104 complex lineage

circulating among humans and cattle in the United States, which lacks *artAB* (i.e., the "U.S.

artAB-negative major clade"; $n = 42$ genomes). Unlike most other bovine- and human-associated

DT104 complex strains from the U.S. ($n = 230$ total genomes), which harbor *artAB* on prophage

Gifsy-1 ($n = 177$), members of the U.S. *artAB*-negative major clade lack Gifsy-1, as well as anti-

inflammatory effector *gogB*. The U.S. *artAB*-negative major clade encompasses human- and

cattle-associated strains isolated from ≥11 U.S. states over a twenty-year period. The clade was

predicted to have lost *artAB*, Gifsy-1, and *gogB* circa 1985-1987 (95% highest posterior density

interval 1979.0-1992.1). When compared to DT104 genomes from other world regions ($n = 752$

total genomes), several additional, sporadic *artAB*, Gifsy-1, and/or *gogB* loss events among

clades encompassing ≤5 genomes were observed. Using phenotypic assays that simulate

conditions encountered during human and/or bovine digestion, members of the U.S. *artAB*-

negative major clade did not differ from closely related Gifsy-1/*artAB*/*gogB*-harboring U.S.

DT104 complex strains (ANOVA raw P-value > 0.05); thus, future research is needed to

elucidate the roles that *artAB*, *gogB*, and Gifsy-1 play in DT104 virulence in humans and

animals.

Impact Statement

Multi-drug resistant (MDR) *Salmonella enterica* serotype Typhimurium definitive type 104 (DT104) was responsible for a global epidemic among humans and animals throughout the 1990s and continues to circulate worldwide. Previous studies have indicated that the vast majority of DT104 produce pertussis-like toxin ArtAB via prophage-encoded *artAB*. Here, we identify a DT104 complex lineage that has been circulating among cattle and humans across ≥11 U.S. states for over twenty years, which lacks the ability to produce ArtAB (i.e., the "U.S. *artAB*-negative major clade"). The common ancestor of all U.S. *artAB*-negative major clade members lost the ability to produce ArtAB in the 1980s; however, the reason for this loss-of-function event within this well-established pathogen remains unclear. The role that ArtAB plays in DT104 virulence remains elusive, and phenotypic assays conducted here indicate that members of the U.S. *artAB*-negative major clade do not have a significant advantage or disadvantage relative to closely related, Gifsy-1/*artAB*/*gogB*-harboring U.S. DT104 complex strains when exposed to stressors encountered during human and/or bovine digestion *in vitro*. However, ArtAB heterogeneity within the DT104 complex suggests clade-specific selection for or against maintenance of ArtAB. Thus, future studies querying the virulence characteristics of the U.S. *artAB*-negative major clade are needed.

Data Summary. Supplementary Data is available under DOI 10.5281/zenodo.7688792, with URL https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7688792.

INTRODUCTION

Prophages, which are viruses located within the genomes of bacteria, play important roles

in the evolution of their microbial hosts [1-4]. In addition to possessing machinery that is

antagonistic to host cell survival (e.g., virion production, lysis of host cells), many prophages

encode accessory genes, which may provide the host with a selective advantage [1, 3, 5],

including stress tolerance, resistance to antimicrobials and phage, biofilm formation, increased

virulence, and evasion of the host immune system [1, 2, 4-8]. While they may persist within a

lineage through vertical transmission [5, 6, 9], prophages can undergo gain and loss events

within a population over time [1, 3]. Furthermore, integrated prophages can be hotspots for

horizontal gene transfer (HGT) and genomic recombination, allowing their bacterial hosts to

gain, lose, and exchange genetic information [4]. Thus, prophage-mediated HGT may confer

novel functions, which allow the bacterial host to survive and compete in its environment,

potentially contributing to the emergence of novel epidemic lineages [4, 10].

Salmonella enterica subsp. *enterica* serotype Typhimurium (*S.* Typhimurium) is among

the *Salmonella* serotypes most commonly isolated from human and animal salmonellosis cases

worldwide [11, 12] and is known to host a range of prophages within its chromosome [10]. Of

particular concern is *S.* Typhimurium definitive type 104 (DT104), a lineage within *S.*

Typhimurium that is known for its typical ampicillin-, chloramphenicol-, streptomycin-,

sulfonamide-, and tetracycline-resistant (ACSSuT) phenotype, although its antimicrobial

resistance (AMR) profile may vary [13]. Multidrug-resistant (MDR) DT104 is predicted to have

emerged circa 1972 [13] and rapidly disseminated around the world in the following decades

[13-15], culminating in a global epidemic among animals and humans in the 1990s [13-15].

However, despite its rapid global dissemination, DT104 does not appear to be more virulent than

non-DT104 *S.* Typhimurium in a classical mouse model [16].

In addition to its characteristic MDR phenotype, DT104 is notable for its ability to

produce ArtAB, a pertussis-like toxin that catalyzes ADP-ribosylation of host G proteins [17-19].

Treatment of various cell lines with purified ArtAB from DT104 recapitulates some of the

phenotypes established for pertussis toxin cytotoxicity [20-22], such as the characteristic "cell

clustering" phenotype in CHO-K1 cells [23], increased levels of intracellular cAMP in RAW

264.7 macrophage-like cells [18], and increased serum insulin levels (e.g., insulinemia); further,

intraperitoneal injection of purified toxin in neonatal mice was fatal [18].

artAB, which encodes ArtAB, has been detected in representative strains of at least 88

Salmonella serotypes [24], and previous studies have found that *artAB* can be encoded by

prophages (e.g., Gifsy-1, PhInv-1b) [17-19, 25-27]. Within *S.* Typhimurium specifically, *artAB*

shares a strong association with DT104 relative to other *S.* Typhimurium lineages: while

typically absent in most non-DT104 *S.* Typhimurium strains, the overwhelming majority of

DT104 possess *artAB* [18]. In DT104 specifically, *artAB* has been identified within prophage

Gifsy-1 (Figure 1A and Supplementary Figure S1) [10, 19, 25]. Gifsy-1 has been detected in

numerous *Salmonella* serotypes [28] and has been shown to harbor virulence factors [29] such as

gogB, *gipA*, and *gtgA* [29-31]; however, *artAB*-harboring Gifsy-1 has been proposed to be a

characteristic feature of DT104 (Figure 1A and Supplementary Figure S1) [10].

Despite their strong association, DT104 strains that lack *artAB* and, thus, the ability to

produce ArtAB toxin, have been described on occasion (referred to hereafter as "*artAB*-

negative" strains) [18, 32]. We identified three *artAB*-negative DT104 complex strains in a

previous study of *S.* Typhimurium from cattle and humans in New York State (United States,

U.S.) [32]. Because *artAB* tends to be prophage-encoded [17-19, 25, 26], we hypothesized that it

may be possible for *artAB* to be gained or lost as an *artAB*-harboring prophage integrates or

excises from a genome, or via HGT within an integrated prophage. However, the extent to which

any of these scenarios occur is unknown. Using (i) 230 human- and bovine-associated DT104

complex genomes collected across the U.S., plus (ii) 752 DT104 complex genomes collected

from a range of sources worldwide, we provide large-scale insight into the dynamics of *artAB*

acquisition and loss within the DT104 complex.

METHODS

Acquisition of U.S. human- and bovine-associated DT104 complex genomic data and

metadata. In a previous study of human- and bovine-associated *S.* Typhimurium from New

York State, we identified three closely related, *artAB*-negative DT104 complex genomes from

both humans and cattle (out of 14 total DT104 complex genomes from humans and cattle in New

York State) [32]. Thus, as a first evaluation of *artAB* presence and absence in the DT104

complex, we compiled a set of DT104 complex genomes from humans and cattle across the U.S.

(referred to hereafter as "Dataset 1 [U.S. bovine and human data]"; Figure 1B and

Supplementary Figures S2 and S3).

To construct Dataset 1 (U.S. bovine and human data), we first collected genomic data

derived from 14 human- and bovine-associated DT104 complex isolates from New York State,

which we had sequenced in a previous study (members of the *S.* Typhimurium Lineage III

cluster described in Supplementary Figures S2 and S5 of Carroll, et al.) [32]. We then aggregated

these 14 New York State genomes with 223 human- and bovine-associated DT104 complex

genomes from across the U.S., as described previously [32]. Briefly, paired-end Illumina short

reads associated with 223 *S.* Typhimurium genomes meeting the following criteria were

downloaded from the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) Sequence Read

Archive (SRA; https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/sra, accessed November 29, 2018), using

accession numbers provided by Enterobase and the SRA Toolkit version 2.9.3 [33-36]: (i)

genomes were serotyped as *S.* Typhimurium *in silico* using the implementation of SISTR [37] in

Enterobase; (ii) the country of isolation was the United States; (iii) the isolation source was

reported as either "Human" or "Bovine" in the "Source Niche" and "Source Type" fields in

Enterobase, respectively; (iv) genomes had an isolation year reported in Enterobase; (v) using

RhierBAPS [38], genomes were assigned to the DT104 complex, a well-supported cluster within

the larger bovine- and human-associated U.S. *S.* Typhimurium phylogeny, which clustered

among known DT104 genomes from other countries (see Supplementary Figures S2 and S5 of

Carroll, et al.) [32].

Trimmomatic version 0.36 [39] was used to trim low quality bases and Illumina adapters

from all read sets using the default settings for paired-end reads, and SPAdes version 3.13.0 [40]

was used to assemble all genomes using default settings plus the "careful" option. FastQC

version 0.11.5 [41] and QUAST version 4.0 [42] were used to assess the quality of each read pair

set and assembly, respectively, and MultiQC version 1.6 [43] was used to aggregate all FastQC

and QUAST results. Trimmed paired-end read sets/assemblies that were flagged by MultiQC as

meeting any of the following conditions were excluded: (i) Illumina adapters present after

trimming ($n = 2$), (ii) an abnormal per sequence GC content distribution ($n = 3$), (iii) an assembly

with over 200 contigs ($n = 11$), and (iv) a sequence quality histogram flagged as poor quality (n

$= 2$). After excluding genomes that met these conditions, a set of 219 DT104 complex genomes

was produced (Figure 1B, Supplementary Figures S2 and S3).

Finally, the 219 U.S. human- and bovine-associated DT104 complex genomes identified

here were supplemented with 11 U.S. bovine- and human-associated DT104 genomes from a

previous study [13], which did not have metadata available in Enterobase at the time and were

thus not included in the initial set of 219 bovine- and human-associated U.S. DT104 complex

genomes. Overall, the search conducted here produced a set of 230 bovine- and human-

associated U.S. DT104 complex genomes, which were used in subsequent steps (i.e., Dataset 1

[U.S. bovine and human data]; Figures 1B and 2A, Supplementary Figures S2 and S3, and

Supplementary Tables S1 and S2).

***In silico* detection of prophage, antimicrobial resistance genes, plasmid replicons, and**

virulence factors. To identify putative prophage regions in all 230 genomes in Dataset 1 (U.S.

bovine and human data), each assembly was submitted to the PHASTER web server

(https://phaster.ca/) via the URL API [44, 45], with the "contigs" option set to "1"

(Supplementary Table S3). To compare prophage regions identified in Dataset 1 (U.S. bovine

and human data) genomes to previously described prophage in well-characterized *S.*

Typhimurium strains, prophage in the following *S.* Typhimurium strains were obtained from the

PHASTER prophage database (accessed September 18, 2020): (i) LT2 (NCBI Nucleotide

accession NC_003197.2), (ii) DT104 (NCBI Nucleotide accession NC_022569.1), (iii) D23580

(NCBI Nucleotide accession FN424405.1), and (iv) SL1344 (NCBI Nucleotide accession

NC_016810.1; Figure 1A and Supplementary Figure S1). All prophage regions were annotated

using Prokka version 1.14.6 [46], using default settings and the "Viruses" kingdom database.

The resulting GFF and FNA files produced by Prokka were supplied to clinker version 0.0.26

[47], which was used to perform pairwise alignments of all genes within prophage regions using

default settings.

ABRicate version 0.8 [48] was used to detect antimicrobial resistance (AMR) genes,

plasmid replicons, and virulence factors in each assembled DT104 complex genome using

NCBI's National Database of Antibiotic Resistant Organisms (NDARO) [49], the PlasmidFinder

database [50], and the Virulence Factor Database (VFDB) [51], respectively, using minimum

nucleotide identity and coverage thresholds of 75 and 50%, respectively (all databases accessed

December 10, 2020; Supplementary Table S3). The aforementioned ABRicate analyses were

repeated, using a minimum coverage threshold of 0% (e.g., to confirm that virulence factors

discussed in the manuscript were absent from genomes in which they were not initially detected).

Each assembled genome was additionally queried for the presence of selected virulence

factors, which have previously been associated with prophage in *Salmonella* [29]: (i) *artAB*

(NCBI Nucleotide accession AB104436.1), (ii) *gogA* (European Nucleotide Archive [ENA]

accession EAA7850902.1), (iii) *gtgA* (ENA accession PVI70081.1), and (iv) *gipA* (ENA

accession CAI93790.1). Assembled genomes were queried for selected virulence factors using

the command-line implementation of nucleotide BLAST (blastn) version 2.11.0 [52], using

default settings plus a minimum coverage threshold of 40% (Supplementary Table S3). To

confirm that the aforementioned genes were absent from genomes in which they were not

initially detected, all genomes were queried again (i) as described above, with the coverage

threshold lowered to 0%; and (ii) using translated nucleotide BLAST (tblastx; Supplementary

Tables S4 and S5). ARIBA version 2.14.6 [53] was used to further confirm *artAB* and *gogB*

presence/absence in all genomes with associated paired-end Illumina reads (Supplementary

Table S6 and Supplementary Text).

Variant calling and maximum likelihood phylogeny construction within Dataset 1 (U.S.

bovine and human data). Core single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) were identified among

all 230 genomes within Dataset 1 (U.S. bovine and human data), using the default pipeline

implemented in Snippy version 4.6.0 (https://github.com/tseemann/snippy; Supplementary

Tables S1 and S2 and Supplementary Text) [54-67]. The closed DT104 chromosome (NCBI

Nucleotide accession NC_022569.1) was used as a reference, and core SNPs identified in

regions of the DT104 chromosome predicted to belong to phage were masked (Supplementary

Text). Gubbins version 2.4.1 [68] was used to identify and remove recombination events in all

genomes using default settings, and snp-sites was used to query the resulting recombination-free

alignment for core SNPs (i.e., using the "-c" option).

A maximum likelihood (ML) phylogeny was constructed with IQ-TREE version 1.5.4

[69], using (i) the resulting core SNPs as input, (ii) the optimal nucleotide substitution model

selected using ModelFinder [70, 71], (iii) an ascertainment bias correction to account for the use

of solely variant sites, and (iv) 1,000 replicates of the ultrafast bootstrap approximation

(Supplementary Text) [72, 73]. TempEst version 1.5.3 [74] was used to assess the temporal

structure of the resulting unrooted ML phylogeny, using the best-fitting root and the R^2 function

(R^2 = 0.33, slope = 3.05×10^{-7} substitutions/site/year, X-intercept = 1988.1). The unrooted ML

phylogeny was additionally rooted and time scaled using LSD2 version 1.4.2.2 [75], using tip

dates corresponding to the year of isolation reported for each genome (Supplementary Text). The

resulting rooted, time-scaled ML phylogeny was viewed using FigTree version 1.4.4 [76]

(Supplementary Data).

Dataset 1 (U.S. bovine and human data) Bayesian time-scaled phylogeny construction. In

addition to constructing a time-scaled ML phylogeny (see section "Variant calling and maximum

likelihood phylogeny construction within Dataset 1 [U.S. bovine and human data]" above), a

Bayesian approach was additionally employed to construct a time-scaled phylogeny, using a

subset of 146 Dataset 1 (U.S. bovine and human data) genomes (Supplementary Figure S4 and

Supplementary Text). All aforementioned SNP calling and ML phylogeny construction steps

were repeated within the 146-genome Dataset 1 (U.S. bovine and human data) subset, and the

resulting ML phylogeny was time-scaled using TempEst and LSD2 as described above (see

section "Variant calling and maximum likelihood phylogeny construction within Dataset 1 [U.S.

bovine and human data]" above; Supplementary Table S7, Supplementary Data, and

Supplementary Text).

BEAST2 version 2.5.1 [77, 78] was used to construct a tip-dated phylogeny, using core

SNPs detected among the 146-genome Dataset 1 (U.S. bovine and human data) subset as input

(Supplementary Text). An initial clock rate of 2.79×10^{-7} substitutions/site/year [13] was used,

along with an ascertainment bias correction to account for the use of solely variant sites [79].

bmodeltest [80] was used to infer a substitution model using Bayesian model averaging, with

transitions and transversions split. A relaxed lognormal molecular clock [81] and a coalescent

Bayesian skyline population model [82] were used, as these models have been selected as the

optimal clock/population model combination for DT104 previously [13] (Supplementary Text).

Five independent BEAST2 runs (i.e., BEAST2 runs with different random seeds) were

performed, using chain lengths of at least 100 million generations, sampling every 10 thousand

generations. LogCombiner-2 was used to aggregate the resulting log and tree files with 10% of

the states treated as burn-in, and TreeAnnotator-2 was used to produce a maximum clade

credibility (MCC) tree using Common Ancestor node heights (Supplementary Figure S5,

Supplementary Table S8, and Supplementary Data). The resulting phylogenies were displayed

and annotated using R version 4.1.2 (Figures 3 and 4, Supplementary Figures S6-S9, and

Supplementary Text) [83-88].

artAB **ancestral state reconstruction for Dataset 1 (U.S. bovine and human data).** To

estimate ancestral character states of internal nodes in the Dataset 1 (U.S. bovine and human

data) phylogeny as they related to *artAB* presence/absence (i.e., whether a node in the tree

represented an ancestor that was more likely to be *artAB*-positive or *artAB*-negative), the

presence or absence of *artAB* within each genome was treated as a binary state (see section "*In*

silico detection of prophage, antimicrobial resistance genes, plasmid replicons, and virulence

factors" above). *artAB* ancestral state reconstruction runs were performed using the BEAST2

time-scaled Bayesian Dataset 1 (U.S. bovine and human data) phylogeny as input ($n = 146$

genomes; see section "Dataset 1 [U.S. bovine and human data] Bayesian time-scaled phylogeny

construction" above; Supplementary Data and Supplementary Text). Stochastic character maps

were simulated on the phylogeny using the make.simmap function in the phytools version 1.0-1

R package [89] and the all-rates-different (ARD) model in the ape version 5.6-1 package [90,

91]; two root node priors were tested (Supplementary Text). The resulting phylogenies (one for

each root node prior) were plotted using the densityMap function in the phytools R package

(Supplementary Figures S10-S12, Supplementary Data).

Pan-genome characterization of Dataset 1 (U.S. bovine and human data). Prokka version

1.13.3 [46] was used to annotate all 230 genomes within Dataset 1 (U.S. bovine and human

data), using the "Bacteria" database and default settings (Supplementary Tables S1 and S2). GFF

files produced by Prokka were supplied as input to Panaroo version 1.2.7 [92], which was used

to identify core- and pan-genome orthologous gene clusters among the 230 Dataset 1 (U.S.

bovine and human data) genomes (Supplementary Text) [93, 94]. The LSD2 time-scaled ML

phylogeny for Dataset 1 (U.S. bovine and human data) (see section "Variant calling and

maximum likelihood phylogeny construction within Dataset 1 [U.S. bovine and human data]"

above) was supplied as input to Panaroo's "panaroo-img" and "panaroo-fmg" commands, which

were used to estimate the pan-genome size under the Infinitely Many Genes (IMG) [95, 96] and

Finite Many Genes (FMG) models (with 100 bootstrap replicates) [97], respectively

(Supplementary Figure S13).

Reference pan-genome coding sequences (CDS) identified by Panaroo underwent

functional annotation using the eggNOG-mapper version 2 webserver (http://eggnog-

mapper.embl.de/; accessed July 24, 2022) using default settings [98, 99]. The "table" function in

R was used to identify genes associated with (i) prophage Gifsy-1 presence/absence

(Supplementary Table S9) and (ii) clade membership (Supplementary Table S10); the

"fisher.test" function in R's stats package was used to conduct two-sided Fisher's exact tests, and

the "p.adjust" function was used to control the false discovery rate (FDR; i.e., p.adjust method =

"fdr") [100].

Genome-wide identification of host-associated orthologous gene clusters for Dataset 1 (U.S.

bovine and human data). The treeWAS version 1.0 R package [101] was used to identify

potential orthologous gene cluster-host associations among the 230 human- and bovine-

associated U.S. DT104 complex genomes in Dataset 1 (U.S. bovine and human data) (i.e.,

whether an orthologous gene cluster identified with Panaroo was human- or bovine-associated

while accounting for population structure; Supplementary Text). No orthologous gene clusters

were found to be significantly associated with isolation source via any of the treeWAS

association tests (FDR-corrected P-value > 0.10).

Acquisition of global DT104 complex genomic data and metadata. To compare the 230 U.S.

human- and bovine-associated DT104 complex genomes in Dataset 1 (U.S. bovine and human

data) to a larger set of DT104 complex genomes from numerous sources worldwide, genomic

data associated with the following studies were downloaded via Enterobase: (i) 243 bovine- and

human-associated DT104 isolates from a study of between-host transmission within Scotland

[102] (referred to hereafter as "Dataset 2 [Scottish bovine and human data]"; Supplementary

Text); (ii) 290 DT104 isolates from a variety of sources and countries from a study describing

the global spread of DT104 [13] (referred to hereafter as "Dataset 3 [multi-source data]"; eleven

of the 290 genomes were isolated from cattle and humans in the U.S. and thus had also been

included in Dataset 1 [U.S. bovine and human data], Figure 1B, Supplementary Figures S2 and

S3, Supplementary Table S1, and Supplementary Text).

The following datasets were aggregated to create a final set of 752 DT104 complex

genomes derived from numerous countries and isolation sources, which was used in subsequent

steps (referred to hereafter as "Dataset 4 [combined global dataset]"; Figure 1B, Supplementary

Figures S2 and S3, and Supplementary Tables S1 and S2): (i) Dataset 1 (U.S. bovine and human

data) (n = 230 DT104 complex genomes), (ii) Dataset 2 (Scottish bovine and human data) (n =

243 DT104 genomes), and (iii) Dataset 3 (multi-source data) (n = 290 DT104 genomes,

including 11 genomes that were part of Dataset 1 [U.S. bovine and human data]). QUAST

version 4.5 was used to assess the quality of all 752 genomes in Dataset 4 (combined global

dataset) (Supplementary Tables S1 and S2). Prophage, AMR genes, plasmid replicons, and

virulence factors were detected in all 752 Dataset 4 (combined global dataset) genomes as

described above (see section "*In silico* detection of prophage, antimicrobial resistance genes,

plasmid replicons, and virulence factors" above; Supplementary Tables S3-S5).

Variant calling and maximum likelihood phylogeny construction within Dataset 4

(combined global dataset). To identify core SNPs present in all 752 DT104 complex genomes

within Dataset 4 (combined global dataset), Parsnp and HarvestTools version 1.2 [103] were

used, as Parsnp easily scales to large data sets (Supplementary Tables S1 and S2) [103].

Assembled genomes were used as input for Parsnp, along with the closed DT104 chromosome as

a reference (NCBI Nucleotide accession NC_022569.1) and Parsnp's implementation of PhiPack

[104] to filter recombination.

Core SNPs detected among all 752 assembled genomes within Dataset 4 (combined

global dataset) were supplied as input to IQ-TREE version 1.5.4, which was used to construct a

ML phylogeny as described above; the resulting ML phylogeny was rooted and time-scaled

using LSD2 as described above (see section "Variant calling and maximum likelihood phylogeny

construction within Dataset 1 [U.S. bovine and human data]" above; Supplementary Data and

Supplementary Text). The resulting LSD2 time-scaled ML phylogeny was annotated using the

Interactive Tree of Life (iTOL) version 6 webserver (https://itol.embl.de/, accessed March 7,

2022; Figure 5, Supplementary Figure S14, and Supplementary Data) [105]. The LSD2 time-

scaled ML phylogeny for Dataset 4 (combined global dataset) was further used for *artAB*

presence/absence ancestral state reconstruction as described above (see section "*artAB* ancestral

state reconstruction for Dataset 1 [U.S. bovine and human data]" above; Supplementary Figure

S15).

Pan-genome characterization of Dataset 4 (combined global dataset). Pan-genome analyses

were carried out for Dataset 4 (combined global dataset) as described above (see section "Pan-

genome characterization of Dataset 1 [U.S. bovine and human data]" above; Supplementary

Tables S1 and S2 and Supplementary Text). The pan-genome size for Dataset 4 (combined

global dataset) was estimated using Panaroo's "panaroo-img" and "panaroo-fmg" commands,

using the LSD2 time-scaled ML phylogeny for Dataset 4 (combined global dataset) as input (see

section "Variant calling and maximum likelihood phylogeny construction within Dataset 4

[combined global dataset]" above; Supplementary Figure S13).

Strain selection for phenotypic stress assays. Phenotypic stress assays (discussed in detail in

the sections below) were used to compare (i) bovine- and human-associated, Gifsy-

1/*artAB*/*gogB*-positive U.S. DT104 complex strains to (ii) bovine- and human-associated, Gifsy-

1/*artAB*/*gogB*-negative U.S. DT104 complex strains. Thus, additional analyses were performed

to identify the most closely related, Gifsy-1/*artAB*/*gogB*-positive and -negative strains available

in the Cornell University Food Safety Laboratory (CUFSL) culture collection for phenotypic

testing (Supplementary Figures S2 and S3, Supplementary Table S2, and Supplementary Text)

[106-108]. Overall, the CUFSL DT104 complex genomes differed little in terms of their core and

pan-genome compositions (Supplementary Figure S16 and Supplementary Text).

Considering both (i) core- and pan-genome similarities between all 13 available CUFSL

DT104 complex genomes (Supplementary Figure S16 and Supplementary Table S2), as well as

(ii) Gifsy-1/*artAB*/*gogB* presence and absence, we selected six closely related, CUFSL DT104

complex strains to undergo phenotypic characterization: three Gifsy-1/*artAB*/*gogB*-positive

strains, and three Gifsy-1/*artAB*/*gogB*-negative strains (Figure 5, Supplementary Figure S16,

Supplementary Table S11, and Supplementary Text). All three Gifsy-1/*artAB*/*gogB*-negative

strains were members of the U.S. *artAB*-negative major clade (discussed in detail in the

"Results" section below; Figure 5 and Supplementary Table S11). All six selected strains had

been isolated from humans or cattle in New York State (U.S.) and were part of Dataset 1 (U.S.

bovine and human data) (Supplementary Figures S2 and S3 and Supplementary Tables S2 and

S11).

Phenotypic assays. Six carefully selected, human- and bovine-associated DT104 complex

strains from New York State (U.S.), which were available to us in the CUFSL culture collection,

were characterized using phenotypic assays (see section "Strain selection for phenotypic stress

assays" above; Supplementary Table S11). All strain stocks were maintained in CRYOBANK®

tubes (Mast Ltd., Reinfeld, Germany) at -80°C. Strains were streaked out from stocks on tryptic

soy agar (TSA; Merck KGaA, Darmstadt, Germany) and incubated overnight at 37°C. Single

colonies from those plates were inoculated in 5 mL of tryptic soy broth (TSB; Merck KGaA,

Darmstadt, Germany) and incubated for 16 - 18 h at 37°C with shaking at 200 rpm. The resulting

overnight cultures were diluted 1/100 into 5 mL of fresh, pre-warmed TSB, followed by

incubation at 37°C with shaking at 200 rpm to allow cultures to reach mid log phase (defined as

OD_{600} of 0.4; 1-2 x10^8 CFU/mL). These cultures were used as input into three different

phenotypic assays (exposure to ruminal fluid, acid stress, and bile stress; discussed in detail

below). Bacterial enumeration before and after stress exposure was performed by direct colony

counts of tilt plates according to Kühbacher et al. [109].

To evaluate exposure to ruminal fluid (RF), approximately 2 L of RF was acquired from

a Jersey cow with a ruminal fistula on each experimental day prior to the experiments (same

collection time was used for each experiment). The RF was immediately filtered through a

cellulose filter (Labsolute® Type 80, Th. Geyer GmbH& Co. KG., Renningen, Germany) to

remove any large debris, and the pH was measured, ranging from 7.20 to 7.62. Mid-log phase

cultures were prepared and inoculated into the RF at two different concentrations. One hundred

μl of culture suspensions were inoculated into 5mL of the RF at final concentrations of 10^8

(high) and 10^5 (low) CFU/mL and incubated for 1 h at 37°C without shaking with enumeration

by direct colony counting on XLT-4 agar (Oxoid Ltd., Basingstoke, UK) prior and after RF

exposure (Supplementary Table S12). The absence of *Salmonella* in the RF at the start of the

experiments was confirmed by plating on XLT-4 agar.

Acid stress resistance of the different strains at pH 3.5 with and without prior adaption

was tested using an adopted protocol from Horlbog et al. [110]. To carry out the acid stress

assay, the pH of the TSB was adjusted with hydrochloric acid solution (1M and 6 M HCL;

Merck KGaA, Darmstadt, Germany) immediately prior to the experiment. 1 mL aliquots of mid

log phase cultures were transferred to reaction tubes and centrifuged at 14,000 x g for 10 min.

For the non-adapted acid stress experiments, the pellets were resuspended in 1mL TSB pH 3.5

and incubated for 1 h at 37°C without shaking. For acid adaption, 1 mL of the same cultures

were pelleted, resuspended in 1 mL TSB adjusted to pH 5.5 and incubated for 1h at 37°C

(without shaking). Afterwards, the cultures were centrifuged again, resuspended in 1mL TSB pH

3.5, and incubated for 1 h at 37°C without shaking. Bacteria enumeration was performed before

and after the one-hour incubation at pH 3.5 (Supplementary Table S13).

Susceptibility to bile salts (cholic acid and deoxycholic acid in a mixture of 1:1, Bile

Salts No.3, Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., Waltham, USA) was tested in two different

concentrations: 14.5 mmol/L corresponding to 0.6% [111] and 26.0 mmol/L corresponding to

1.1% [112] were chosen to represent reasonable physiological states in the duodenum. Bile salts

were added, and the pH of the TSB was adjusted to 5.5 (TSB-bile) immediately prior to the

experiment. Mid log phase cultures were centrifuged, resuspended in TSB-bile, incubated for 1h

37°C without shaking, and enumerated by direct colony counting prior and after bile exposure

(Supplementary Table S14).

For each stress assay, base-ten logarithmic fold change (FC) values were calculated as

follows: FC = log CFU/g at the start of the experiments – log CFU/g after the stress assay.

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for the interpretation of the phenotypic assays were conducted

using the "aov" function in R's "stats" package, with the FC values for the respective assay

treated as a response. Figures were designed using the ggplot2 package.

Data availability. Strain metadata, genome quality metrics, and Enterobase accession numbers

for all publicly available genomes queried in this study are available in Supplementary Table S1.

Strain metadata, genome quality metrics, CUFSL IDs [106], and NCBI BioSample accession

numbers [113] for the 13 New York State CUFSL DT104 complex strains queried in this study

(including those queried via phenotypic assays) are available in Supplementary Table S2. LSD2

results (for Dataset 1 [U.S. bovine and human data] and Dataset 4 [combined global dataset]) and

BEAST2 results (for subsets of Dataset 1 [U.S. bovine and human data]) are available as

Supplementary Data.

RESULTS

Human- and bovine-associated DT104 complex strains from the U.S. harbor *artAB* on

prophage Gifsy-1. Within the set of 230 human- and bovine-associated U.S. DT104 complex

genomes (i.e., Dataset 1 [U.S. bovine and human data]; Figure 2A) [32], *artAB* was present in

over 75% of genomes (177 of 230, 77.0%; Figure 3, Table 1, and Supplementary Figures S6-S8).

artAB presence and absence was strongly associated with the presence and absence of anti-

inflammatory effector *gogB* (two-sided Fisher's Exact Test [FET] raw P-value $< 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$,

infinite odds ratio [OR]), as co-occurrence was observed in all 177 *artAB*-harboring Dataset 1

(U.S. bovine and human data) genomes (100.0%; Figure 3, Table 1, and Supplementary Figures

S6-S8). Additionally, within Dataset 1 (U.S. bovine and human data), *artAB* and *gogB* presence

was strongly associated with the presence of prophage Gifsy-1 (NCBI Nucleotide accession

NC_010392.1; two-sided FET raw *P*-value $< 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$, infinite OR; Figure 3, Table 1, and

Supplementary Figures S6-S8).

Subsequent investigation confirmed that, for all 177 *artAB*-harboring Dataset 1 (U.S.

bovine and human data) genomes, *artAB* was located within Gifsy-1 prophage regions classified

as "intact" via PHASTER (Table 2, Supplementary Figures S17 and S18, and Supplementary

Table S5). *gogB* was largely harbored within regions annotated via PHASTER as Gifsy-1 (126

of 180 *gogB*-harboring Dataset 1 [U.S. bovine and human data] genomes, 70.0%), although only

51 of these Gifsy-1 regions were annotated as intact prophage via PHASTER (28.3% of *gogB*-

harboring Dataset 1 [U.S. bovine and human data] genomes; Table 2, Supplementary Figure S19,

and Supplementary Table S5). Occasionally, among Dataset 1 (U.S. bovine and human data)

genomes, *gogB* was detected elsewhere in the genome: three genomes harbored *gogB* within

regions annotated as prophage Gifsy-2 (3 of 180 *gogB*-harboring Dataset 1 [U.S. bovine and

human data] genomes, 1.7%; Table 2 and Supplementary Table S5), while *gogB* was detected

outside of annotated prophage regions within the remaining 51 *gogB*-harboring genomes (via

PHASTER, 28.3% of *gogB*-harboring Dataset 1 [U.S. bovine and human data] genomes; Table 2

and Supplementary Table S5).

Only three genomes within Dataset 1 (U.S. bovine and human data) possessed an intact

Gifsy-1 prophage via PHASTER but did not possess *artAB* (i.e., bovine-associated

BOV_TYPH_Washington_2007_SRR1519881, BOV_TYPH_Minnesota_2010_SRR1089590,

and BOV_TYPH_Minnesota_2008_SRR1177378, 1.7% of Dataset 1 [U.S. bovine and human

data] genomes in which an intact Gifsy-1 was detected; Supplementary Figure S20 and

Supplementary Tables S3 and S4). Interestingly, all three genomes possessed *gogB*

(Supplementary Table S4). *gogB* was detected within an incomplete Gifsy-1 prophage region in

the two genomes from Minnesota, while the genome from Washington did not harbor *gogB*

within an annotated prophage region (via PHASTER; Tables 1 and 2, Supplementary Figure

S20, and Supplementary Table S5).

Of the 168 bovine-associated Dataset 1 (U.S. bovine and human data) genomes, 150

(89.3%) possessed *artAB, gogB*, and Gifsy-1, while 153 (91.1%) possessed *gogB* and Gifsy-1

(Figure 3, Table 1, and Supplementary Figures S6-S8). Interestingly, of 62 human-associated

Dataset 1 (U.S. bovine and human data) genomes, only 27 (43.5%) possessed *artAB, gogB,* and

Gifsy-1 (Figure 3, Table 1, and Supplementary Figures S6-S8), indicating that Gifsy-

1/*artAB*/*gogB* have a negative association with human-associated DT104 complex strains from

the U.S. (two-sided FET raw P-value $< 4.1{\times}10^{-12}$, OR = 0.094; Table 1). However, no

orthologous gene clusters within the Dataset 1 (U.S. bovine and human data) pan-genome shared

a significant association with bovine or human host when accounting for population structure

(treeWAS FDR-corrected P-value > 0.10).

Overall, 90 orthologous gene clusters within the Dataset 1 (U.S. bovine and human data)

pan-genome were associated with Gifsy-1 presence or absence (via PHASTER; two-sided FET

FDR-corrected P-value < 0.05, Supplementary Figure S13 and Supplementary Table S9). The

presence and absence of 30 orthologous gene clusters shared a perfect association with Gifsy-1

presence and absence (via PHASTER; Supplementary Table S9). These genes were absent from

all Dataset 1 (U.S. bovine and human data) genomes that did not possess Gifsy-1 and were

present in all Dataset 1 (U.S. bovine and human data) genomes that did possess Gifsy-1 (FDR-

corrected P-value < 0.05 and OR of infinity); in addition to *gogB*, these genes included

numerous phage-associated proteins (Supplementary Table S9). Interestingly, genomes in which

PHASTER did not detect an intact Gifsy-1 prophage region tended to possess a ColRNAI

plasmid replicon (two-sided FET raw *P*-value < 1.0×10^{-27}; Supplementary Figures S6-S8 and

Supplementary Table S3).

A MDR DT104 complex lineage circulating among cattle and humans across the U.S. lost

***artAB*- and *gogB*-harboring prophage Gifsy-1 in the 1980s.** To gain insight into the

evolutionary relationships of *artAB*-negative U.S. DT104 complex strains, a time-scaled

phylogeny was constructed using human- and bovine-associated U.S. DT104 complex genomes

(i.e., genomes within Dataset 1 [U.S. bovine and human data]; Figure 3 and Supplementary

Figures S6-S8). The common ancestor of the MDR U.S. bovine- and human-associated DT104

complex genomes included in this study was predicted to have existed circa 1975 (estimated

node age 1974.9, node height 95% highest posterior density [HPD] interval [1958.1, 1986.4];

Figure 3 and Supplementary Figures S6-S8); this is consistent with observations made in

previous studies [13, 114], in which DT104 was predicted to have acquired its MDR phenotype

in the 1970s. The mean evolutionary rate estimated for the Dataset 1 (U.S. bovine and human

data) genomes queried here was 1.75×10^{-7} substitutions/site/year (95% HPD interval [1.38×10^{-7},

2.11×10^{-7}]), which is similar to evolutionary rates estimated in previous studies of DT104

isolates from other world regions [13, 102] (Supplementary Figure S5, Supplementary Table S8,

and Supplementary Data).

Notably, over 75% of all Dataset 1 (U.S. bovine and human data) *artAB*-negative

genomes (42 of 53 Dataset 1 [U.S. bovine and human data] *artAB*-negative genomes, 79.2%)

were members of a single, well-supported clade (posterior probability = 1.0, referred to hereafter

as the "U.S. *artAB*-negative major clade"; Figure 3, Supplementary Figures S6-S8, and

Supplementary Table S15). In addition to lacking *artAB*, all members of the U.S. *artAB*-negative

major clade lacked Gifsy-1 and 50 additional genes, which were present in over half of all

Dataset 1 (U.S. bovine and human data) genomes not included in the U.S. *artAB*-negative major

clade, including *gogB*, a chitinase, and many phage-associated proteins (Figure 3, Supplementary

Figures S6-S8, and Supplementary Table S10).

Strains within the U.S. *artAB*-negative major clade were reportedly isolated between

1997 and 2018 (the most recent year included in this study) from at least 11 different states

across the U.S. (for two isolates, the U.S. state in which the strain was isolated was unknown;

Figures 2B and 3, Supplementary Figures S6-S8, and Supplementary Table S15). Interestingly,

most strains within the U.S. *artAB*-negative major clade were isolated from humans (n = 30 of 42

U.S. *artAB*-negative major clade strains, 71.4%), and nearly half of all Dataset 1 (U.S. bovine

and human data) genomes from human sources were members of this clade (n = 30 of 62 Dataset

1 [U.S. bovine and human data] genomes from human sources, 48.4%; Supplementary Tables S1

and S15). Human-associated U.S. *artAB*-negative major clade strains were reportedly isolated

from six U.S. states between 1997 and 2014 (Supplementary Table S15). The majority of

human-associated strains were isolated in Pennsylvania (n = 22 of 30 human-associated U.S.

artAB-negative major clade strains, 73.3%; Figure 2B and Supplementary Table S15); however,

Pennsylvania strains were reportedly isolated over a five-year period (i.e., from 2009 to 2014;

Supplementary Table S15) and showcased considerable genomic diversity (Figure 3), indicating

that it is highly unlikely that all human cases have an epidemiological link (i.e., they were not

sequenced as part of a single, point-source outbreak). Bovine strains within the U.S. *artAB*-

negative major clade were isolated from cattle or beef products (n = 12 of 42 U.S. *artAB*-

negative major clade genomes, 28.6%; Figure 2B and Supplementary Table S15). Much like

their human-associated counterparts, bovine-associated members of the U.S. *artAB*-negative

major clade were interspersed throughout the clade's phylogeny and varied in terms of isolation

date (i.e., 2004 to 2018) and geographic origin (i.e., six U.S. states; Figure 2B and

Supplementary Table S15).

Based on results of ancestral state reconstruction using *artAB* presence/absence, the loss

of Gifsy-1, *artAB*, *gogB*, and other Gifsy-1-associated genes among members of the U.S. *artAB*-

negative major clade was estimated to have occurred between 1985 and 1987 (estimated node

ages 1985.0 and 1987.2, node height 95% HPD intervals [1979.0, 1990.2] and [1981.7, 1992.1],

respectively; Figure 3 and Supplementary Figures S10-S12). This predicted loss event occurred

circa a predicted rapid increase in the U.S. DT104 complex effective population size in the mid-

to-late 1980s (Figure 4 and Supplementary Figure S9). Following this predicted rapid increase in

the 1980s, the U.S. DT104 complex effective population size was predicted to have increased

again in the mid-to-late 1990s, peaking circa 2000 (Figure 4 and Supplementary Figure S9).

Loss of *artAB* and *gogB* within the global DT104 complex population occurs sporadically.

The absence of Gifsy-1, *artAB*, and/or *gogB* among DT104 complex strains was not strictly a

U.S. phenomenon: Gifsy-1, *artAB*, and *gogB* were not detected in three and 19 genomes out of

(i) 243 DT104 strains isolated from cattle and humans in Scotland (referred to here as "Dataset 2

[Scottish bovine and human data]") [102], and (ii) 290 DT104 strains collected from numerous

sources around the world (referred to here as "Dataset 3 [multi-source data]") [13], respectively

(representing 1.2% and 6.6% of genomes in Dataset 2 [Scottish bovine and human data] and

Dataset 3 [multi-source data], respectively; Figure 5, Table 1, Supplementary Figures S14 and

S15, and Supplementary Tables S3-S5). Overall, out of 752 total DT104 complex genomes

queried in this study (i.e., the union of Dataset 1 [U.S. bovine and human data], Dataset 2

[Scottish bovine and human data], and Dataset 3 [multi-source data], referred to here as "Dataset

4 [combined global dataset]"), *artAB* could not be detected in 74 genomes (9.8% of 752 Dataset

4 [combined global dataset] genomes; Table 1 and Supplementary Tables S15 and S16).

The Gifsy-1/*artAB*/*gogB* loss event associated with the U.S. *artAB*-negative major clade

represented the single largest *artAB* loss event observed in this study (*n* = 42 of 752 total Dataset

4 [combined global dataset] genomes; Figure 5 and Supplementary Figures S14 and S15).

However, several additional, sporadic *artAB* loss events among clades encompassing ≤5

genomes were observed (Figure 5, Supplementary Figures S14 and S15, and Supplementary

Table S16). Overall, the 32 *artAB*-negative genomes that did not belong to the U.S. *artAB*-

negative major clade were isolated from (i) a variety of sources (i.e., humans, cattle, pigs, and

poultry), (ii) on four continents (i.e., North America, Europe, Asia, and Oceania), (iii) between

1992 and 2015 (Supplementary Table S16).

Among all 752 Dataset 4 (combined global dataset) genomes, the presence and absence

of *artAB* and *gogB* was correlated with that of Gifsy-1 (two-sided FET raw *P*-value $< 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$

for each, ORs of 2069.8 and infinity, respectively), as well as each other (two-sided FET raw *P*-

value $< 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$, infinite OR; Figure 5, Table 1, and Supplementary Figure S14). However,

unlike the 177 *artAB*-harboring Dataset 1 (U.S. bovine and human data) genomes queried here,

artAB was not always detected within prophage regions annotated as Gifsy-1 in other datasets

(i.e., genomes in Dataset 2 [Scottish bovine and human data] and Dataset 3 [multi-source data];

Table 2, Supplementary Figure S21, and Supplementary Table S5). Two genomes from Dataset 3

(multi-source data) harbored *artAB* within regions annotated as *Salmonella* phage 118970_sal3

(using PHASTER's nomenclature, "PHAGE_Salmon_118970_sal3_NC_031940"; Table 2 and

Supplementary Table S5). However, despite not being annotated by PHASTER as "Gifsy-1",

these prophage regions shared a high degree of sequence homology with the DT104 Gifsy-1

prophage (Supplementary Figure S21).

Notably, for over 90% of *artAB*-harboring genomes in Dataset 2 (Scottish bovine and

human data), *artAB* was identified outside of prophage regions annotated by PHASTER ($n = 219$

of 240 *artAB*-harboring genomes in Dataset 2 [Scottish bovine and human data]; Table 2 and

Supplementary Table S5). However, when 3 Kbp regions on either side of PHASTER prophage

regions were considered, 234 Dataset 2 (Scottish bovine and human data) genomes harbored

artAB within 3 Kbp of Gifsy-1 (97.5% of 240 *artAB*-harboring genomes in Dataset 2 [Scottish

bovine and human data]). Two and one genome harbored *artAB* within 3 Kb of other PHASTER

prophage regions (annotated by PHASTER as Edward_GF_2_NC_026611 and

PHAGE_Entero_HK630_NC_019723, respectively). For Dataset 3 (multi-source data), six

artAB-positive genomes did not harbor *artAB* within PHASTER prophage regions (Table 2 and

Supplementary Table S5). For one of these genomes (DK_7322994_6_swine_08-08-01), *artA*

and *artB* were detected on separate contigs, with *artB* present within 3 Kbp of a PHASTER

prophage region annotated as intact Gifsy-1; for the remaining five genomes, *artAB* was not

located within a 5 Kb region upstream or downstream of any PHASTER prophages (Table 2 and

Supplementary Table S5).

***In vitro* response of U.S. DT104 complex strains to human- and bovine-associated**

gastrointestinal stress factors is not correlated with the presence of *artAB*- and *gogB*-

harboring Gifsy-1. The (i) loss of Gifsy-1/*artAB*/*gogB* associated with the U.S. *artAB*-negative

major clade circa a predicted rapid increase in the U.S. DT104 complex effective population

size, plus (ii) the over-representation of human strains in the U.S. *artAB*-negative major clade led

us to hypothesize that ArtAB and/or GogB production (or some other genomic element harbored

on Gifsy-1) may influence the dynamics of DT104 complex strains in the digestive tracts of

human and bovine hosts. Thus, we used phenotypic assays that simulated human and/or bovine

digestion-associated stress conditions to compare the phenotypes of Gifsy-1/*artAB*/*gogB*-

negative members of the U.S. *artAB*-negative major clade to those of the most closely related,

Gifsy-1/*artAB*/*gogB*-positive U.S. DT104 complex strains available (Supplementary Table S11).

As the first three compartments of the bovine digestive tract differ massively from that of

the human gut, the phenotype of Gifsy-1/*artAB*/*gogB*-positive and -negative strains was

investigated in fresh bovine ruminal fluid (RF) obtained from a donor cow (Supplementary Table

S12). DT104 complex concentrations were reduced by 3.4 log CFU (SD=0.2) when inoculated

into RF at a final concentration of 10^5 CFU/mL, whereas DT104 complex numbers were reduced

by 1.3 log CFU (SD = 0.2) when inoculated at a final concentration of 10^8 CFU/mL (Figure 6).

While the inoculation density did significantly affect survival (ANOVA raw *P*-value < 0.001),

the phenotype in RF was not associated with the presence or absence of Gifsy-1/*artAB*/*gogB*

(ANOVA raw *P*-value > 0.05; Figure 6).

The presence of Gifsy-1/*artAB*/*gogB* also did not significantly influence acid stress

survival at pH 3.5 (ANOVA raw *P*-value > 0.05; Figure 6 and Supplementary Table S13). While

prior adaptation at an intermediate pH 5.5 significantly increased survival at pH 3.5 as expected

(ANOVA raw *P*-value < 0.01), there was no significant difference in acid adaptation between

Gifsy-1/*artAB*/*gogB*-positive and -negative strains (ANOVA raw *P*-value > 0.05; Figure 6). Both

groups showed a concentration-dependent reduction in growth/survival at the two tested bile

concentrations of 0.6% and 1.1% (ANOVA raw *P* = 0.01 for the difference in fold change at the

two concentrations), but there was no Gifsy-1/*artAB*/*gogB*-dependent phenotype in the response

of DT104 complex strains to bile stress (ANOVA raw *P*-value > 0.05; Figure 6 and

Supplementary Table S14).

DISCUSSION

Members of the DT104 complex largely harbor *artAB* on Gifsy-1-like prophage. Bacterial

ADP-ribosylating toxins play important roles in the virulence of numerous pathogens [19, 115].

While the illness caused by *Salmonella enterica* is not considered to be a toxin-mediated disease

in the classical sense (e.g., as is the case for *Clostridium botulinum* or *Vibrio cholerae*) [19],

some *Salmonella* lineages are capable of producing ADP-ribosylating toxins, allowing them to

alter host immune responses and promote pathogenesis [17, 19, 116-118]. ArtAB is one such

toxin with a variable presence among *Salmonella* lineages: genes encoding ArtAB have been

detected in at least 88 different serotypes and are correlated with the presence of typhoid toxin

genes [24], although in DT104 this is not the case [17, 25]. Additionally, in the majority of these

serotypes, *artA* is predicted to be a pseudogene and the selective advantage of maintaining *artB*

appears to be related to its use as an alternative binding subunit for the typhoid toxin [19, 119].

A previous study of ArtAB-producing DT104 strains [18] found that ArtAB production

among DT104 appears to be the norm rather than the exception, as 237 of 243 strains (97.5%) in

the study were *artAB*-positive [18]. We observed similar findings here, as *artAB* was detected in

678 of 752 DT104 complex genomes (90.2%; Table 1 and Supplementary Table S4). Among

U.S. human- and bovine-associated DT104 complex genomes (i.e., Dataset 1 [U.S. bovine and

human data]), *artAB* was exclusively harbored on prophage regions identified by PHASTER as

intact Gifsy-1 (177 of 177 *artAB*-harboring Dataset 1 [U.S. bovine and human data] genomes,

100%; Table 2). It's important to note that Gifsy-1 prophage regions—as defined via

PHASTER—can display a significant degree of genetic heterogeneity [28]. Furthermore, Gifsy-1

has been shown to share homology with Gifsy-2 [120, 121], a result observed here (Figure 1A

and Supplementary Figures S1 and S17-S20). Thus, defining a "ground-truth" Gifsy-1 prophage

in the genomic era may not necessarily be straightforward, as both Gifsy-1 and Gifsy-2 were

originally identified in 1997 using Southern blotting [120]. Considering PHASTER results

(Table 2 and Supplementary Table S5), our own sequence homology observations

(Supplementary Figures S17-S20), and the fact that previous studies of DT104 have reportedly

identified *artAB* within Gifsy-1 [10, 19], we are confident that the *artAB*-harboring prophage

identified in Dataset 1 (U.S. bovine and human data) can be safely referred to as Gifsy-1.

Among genomes from other sources and/or world regions (i.e., Dataset 2 [Scottish bovine

and human data] and Dataset 3 [multi-source data]), *artAB* was not always detected within the

bounds of prophage regions annotated as Gifsy-1 (Table 2). Two *artAB*-harboring prophages that

were not annotated as "Gifsy-1" by PHASTER, for example, shared a high degree of sequence

homology with DT104 Gifsy-1 (Supplementary Figure S21), further highlighting the challenges

associated with genomic differentiation of homology-sharing prophages defined in the pre-

genomics era. However, most notably, *artAB* was frequently detected outside of annotated

prophage regions in Dataset 2 (Scottish bovine and human data; Table 2). When 3 Kbp regions

upstream and downstream of PHASTER prophage regions were considered, nearly all *artAB*-

harboring Dataset 2 (Scottish bovine and human data) genomes possessed *artAB* within 3 Kbp of

Gifsy-1. While it's possible that *artAB* is indeed harbored outside of Gifsy-1 in these genomes,

we suspect this is an artifact of prophage boundary prediction. Precise prediction of prophage

boundaries is challenging [122], and additional factors (e.g., assembly fragmentation in prophage

regions) can further affect boundary accuracy [45]. We thus encourage readers to interpret these

results with caution. Future long-read sequencing efforts will thus likely provide much-needed

insight into the prophage repertoire of the DT104 complex.

A DT104 complex lineage isolated across multiple U.S. states for over twenty years lost its

ability to produce the ArtAB toxin and anti-inflammatory effector GogB. Here, we observed

that *artAB* loss events appear sporadically throughout the DT104 complex phylogeny (Figures 3

and 5). Among U.S. human- and bovine-associated DT104 complex genomes (i.e., Dataset 1

[U.S. bovine and human data]), these loss events usually coincided with Gifsy-1 loss, although

not exclusively (i.e., three strains did not possess *artAB*, but possessed Gifsy-1; Figure 3 and

Supplementary Figure S20). As mentioned above, *in silico* prophage detection and

differentiation is challenging, and it is possible that HGT within a Gifsy-1-like prophage led to

the loss of *artAB*, rather than the complete excision of Gifsy-1 in its entirety. In this scenario, it

is plausible that partial Gifsy-1 remnants within these genomes would not be classified as Gifsy-

1 prophage elements, or they would not be detected by *in silico* prophage detection methods.

Regardless, we have identified 30 prophage-associated genes, which were detected in all Gifsy-

1-harboring genomes and absent from all Gifsy-1-negative genomes in Dataset 1 (U.S. bovine

and human data), indicating that numerous prophage-associated genes were lost along with

artAB and *gogB* (Supplementary Table S9).

Most notably, we observed a MDR DT104 complex clade circulating among cattle and

humans across 11 U.S. states, which lost Gifsy-1, concomitant with the ability to produce ArtAB

and GogB (i.e., the U.S. *artAB*-negative major clade; Figure 3). Considering (i) genomic

diversity observed within the U.S. *artAB*-negative major clade, along with the fact that (ii) U.S.

artAB-negative major clade members have been isolated from multiple states and sources for

over twenty years, it is nearly impossible that U.S. *artAB*-negative major clade genomes are the

result of repeated sequencing of identical or nearly identical strains (e.g., as would be the case in

a point-source outbreak scenario; Supplementary Table S15). When U.S. *artAB*-negative major

clade genomes were compared to DT104 complex genomes collected from a variety of isolation

sources around the world (Figure 5), we did not identify genomes from any country other than

the U.S. within this clade, nor did we identify genomes from any isolation source other than

cattle and humans (Figure 5 and Supplementary Table S15). Furthermore, we observed a high

proportion of human-associated strains within the U.S. *artAB*-negative major clade relative to

bovine-associated strains (Figure 3 and Supplementary Table S15). The (i) limited host range,

(ii) limited geographic range, and (iii) high human-to-bovine ratio observed for the U.S. *artAB*-

negative major clade in this study is likely an artifact of sampling and/or sequencing (e.g., due to

the large number of bovine-associated genomes included in this study relative to other animal

hosts, due to this study's focus on the DT104 complex in the U.S., due to geographic and/or host

biases in allocation of *Salmonella* sequencing resources). Future studies querying more DT104

complex strains from (i) non-human and non-bovine sources (e.g., other animal hosts, foods,

environmental sources) and (ii) countries other than the U.S. and the United Kingdom will likely

reveal a greater isolation source and geographic range for this clade, respectively.

However, it's important to note that the U.S. *artAB*-negative major clade contained

nearly half of all DT104 complex strains isolated from humans in the U.S. (n = 30 of 62 U.S.

DT104 complex genomes from human sources, 48.4%; Supplementary Tables S1 and S15). This

is notable, as our study included all human-associated U.S. DT104 complex genomes with

metadata available in Enterobase at the time. It is certainly likely that there were U.S. DT104

complex genomes from human sources, which were not included in our study (e.g., due to

missing publicly available metadata), and it is possible that there may be biases in terms of

metadata reporting (e.g., some laboratories may routinely provide detailed, publicly available

metadata for genomes that they sequence, while other laboratories may never or rarely provide

metadata). Thus, in order to gain further insight into potential U.S. *artAB*-negative major clade

host associations (or the lack thereof), it is essential that isolation source metadata are made

publicly available in addition to WGS data.

The U.S. *artAB*-negative major clade was predicted to have lost Gifsy-1/*artAB*/*gogB*

circa 1985-1987, circa a predicted rapid increase in the U.S. DT104 complex effective

population size, which occurred in the mid-to-late 1980s (Figure 4). Our results are consistent

with a previous study of DT104 from multiple world regions, which also identified periods of

dramatic population growth in the 1980s and 1990s [13]. This rapid increase in population size is

notable, as it coincides with the global MDR DT104 epidemic, which occurred among humans

and animals throughout the 1990s [13, 14, 102]. However, it is essential to note that our data do

not imply that *artAB*, *gogB*, or Gifsy-1 loss played a role in the emergence and subsequent global

spread of DT104; any potential association between the virulence and/or fitness of MDR DT104

and Gifsy-1/*artAB*/*gogB* loss among DT104 complex genomes is merely speculative at this

point. While previous studies of DT104 have shown that prophage excision and *artAB* loss occur

in response to DNA damage and other stressors [17, 19], future studies are needed to better

understand the roles that Gifsy-1, *artAB*, and *gogB* play in DT104 evolution.

Members of the U.S. *artAB*-negative major clade do not have a phenotypic advantage

relative to other U.S. DT104 complex strains when exposed to ruminal fluid-, acid-, and

bile-associated stressors *in vitro*. *Salmonella enterica* encounters numerous stressors within the

gastrointestinal tracts of humans and animals, including (but not limited to) low pH, low oxygen,

exposure to bile, and the host immune system [123-125]. Furthermore, the gastrointestinal

environment that *Salmonella enterica* encounters can differ between hosts; for example, the first

three compartments of the bovine digestive tract differ massively from those of the human gut, as

they essentially serve as massive microbial fermentation chambers [126]. Here, we evaluated the

survival of DT104 complex strains when exposed to three stressors encountered in the human

and/or bovine gastrointestinal tracts: (i) ruminal fluid (RF; bovine rumen), (ii) low pH (bovine

abomasum and human stomach), and (iii) exposure to bile (bovine and human duodenum); we

discuss each step in detail below.

In the bovine digestion process, the RF, including the complex community of ruminal

microbiota [127], presents an early line of defense against potential pathogens, like *Salmonella*

spp. In RF, the kill rate of DT104 complex strains was dependent on the inoculation density. The

high inoculation rate (10^8 CFU/mL) was chosen to test the ability of the ruminal microbiota to

efficiently kill or impede *Salmonella*. The lower inoculation rate of 10^5 CFU/mL was chosen for

its dynamic range to measure either growth or decrease of *Salmonella* concentration. An

interaction of the complex ruminal microbiota with the inoculated *Salmonella* is conceivable in

two ways: either the microbiota exhibit strategies to produce antimicrobial compounds against

Salmonella species [128, 129], or through competition for nutrients, e.g., iron [130]. The fact that

the ruminal microbiota was less effective at killing DT104 complex strains at the high

inoculation rate suggests that their defense mechanisms against DT104 complex strains are

limited and/or the system started to be overrun by the high numbers of the DT104 complex

strain.

Gastric acids in the stomach (or abomasum) are the next line of host defense, which

Salmonella must overcome during gastrointestinal passage [131]. A pH of 3.5 was selected based

on the following considerations: the human gastric pH varies from pH <2 in a fasted state to pH

>6 during meals, returning to a low pH within hours postprandially [132, 133]. Intracellular

pathogens like *Salmonella* spp. have adapted to survive low pH intracellularly in the phagosomes

of phagocytes (e.g. pH 4-6) [134, 135] and express adaptive acid tolerance that allows them to

tolerate pH values between 2-3 [136]. Therefore, the chosen pH 3.5 reflects a relevant

physiological state of the human stomach and represents a sublethal stress to *Salmonella* spp.

Our experiments confirmed that acid adaptation with HCl at pH 5.5 led to much higher survival

rates at pH 3.5. Well-known mechanisms such as decreased membrane conductivity for H^+,

increased proton extrusion, or changes in the cell envelope composition [136-138] could be

responsible for this.

Upon leaving the stomach, enteric pathogens are confronted with bile. Bile salts show

antimicrobial activity by dissolving membrane lipids, dissociating integral membrane proteins

[139], and lead to general cell damage by misfolding and denaturation of proteins [140, 141] and

DNA damage [142, 143]. *Salmonella enterica* is able to survive duodenal bile salt concentrations

through DNA repair mechanisms [143], multiple changes in gene expression [144], and

increased production of anti-oxidative enzymes [145]. Here, selected DT104 complex strains

were able to survive at both tested bile salt concentrations (14.5 mmol/L and 26.0 mmol/L);

however, no significant differences were observed between strains that harbored Gifsy-

1/*artAB*/*gogB* and those that did not (Figure 6).

In summary, the *in vitro* stress assays performed in this study aimed to mimic the

stressors that DT104 complex strains encounter in the gastrointestinal tracts of humans and

ruminants. Given the over-representation of human-associated Gifsy-1/*artAB*/*gogB*-negative

strains observed here, one may be tempted to speculate that Gifsy-1, *artAB*, and/or *gogB* absence

may confer members of the U.S. *artAB*-negative major clade with a competitive advantage in the

human host gastrointestinal tract; however, no Gifsy-1/*artAB*/*gogB*-dependent phenotype was

observed in DT104 complex strains under the tested conditions (Figure 6). Furthermore, as

mentioned above, the overrepresentation of human strains in this clade could merely be an

artifact of sampling/sequencing. Thus, it may be possible that Gifsy-1/*artAB*/*gogB* absence may

confer some advantage(s) to U.S. *artAB*-negative major clade strains in hosts underrepresented in

this study, or in environmental conditions, which were not tested in this study, including those

outside of the host (e.g., high osmotic pressure and competitive microbiota in manure or

wastewater, food safety measures like disinfectants, antimicrobials and food processing) [124].

However, at the present, this is merely speculation; future studies are needed to evaluate whether

Gifsy-1/*artAB*/*gogB* loss among members of the U.S. *artAB*-negative major clade is merely

coincidental or indicative of some evolutionarily advantageous phenotype.

Future research is needed to understand the roles that Gifsy-1, ArtAB, and GogB play in

DT104 virulence. The results presented here indicate that prophage-mediated ArtAB production

within the DT104 complex can undergo temporal changes. Most notably, we identified the U.S.

artAB-negative major clade, which lost the ability to produce ArtAB and GogB, likely due to a

Gifsy-1 loss event (Figure 3). However, the ecological and/or evolutionary significance of this

loss-of-function event remain unclear. Although phenotypic assessments have demonstrated a

role for DT104-encoded ArtAB in both cell culture and a mouse model [18], the true benefit of

this toxin in the context of human and bovine salmonellosis has not been investigated. It has

been previously shown that reactive oxygen species (ROS) induce production of ArtAB [23],

which may suggest that *artAB* is expressed in response to immune cell derived ROS.

Furthermore, as treatment with ArtA increases intracellular levels of cAMP in macrophage-like

cells [18], ArtAB may play a role in delaying *Salmonella* clearance by altering the activity of

host immune cells [19]. Hence, future studies, including in tissue culture and animal models, will

be needed to determine whether *artAB* presence or absence confers a selective advantage among

human- and animal-associated DT104.

AUTHOR STATEMENTS

Conflicts of interest. The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest.

Funding information. This material is based on work supported by the National Science

Foundation (NSF) Graduate Research Fellowship Program under grant no. DGE-1650441, with

additional funding provided by an NSF Graduate Research Opportunities Worldwide (GROW)

grant through a partnership with the Swiss National Science Foundation (SNF). This work was

additionally supported by the SciLifeLab & Wallenberg Data Driven Life Science Program

(grant: KAW 2020.0239).

Acknowledgments. Figure 2 was created with BioRender.com.

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TABLES

Table 1. Presence and absence of *artAB*, *gogB*, and Gifsy-1 among four DT104 complex genome datasets queried in this study.

Data Set(s)	Host(s)	Total # of Genomes	*artAB* Present (%)[a]	*gogB* Present (%)[a]	Gifsy-1 Present (%)[b]
Dataset 1 (U.S. bovine and human data) [c]					
	All	230	177 (77.0%)	180 (78.3%)	180 (78.3%)
	Bovine	168	150 (89.3%)	153 (91.1%)	153 (91.1%)
	Human	62	27 (43.5%)	27 (43.5%)	27 (43.5%)
Dataset 2 (Scottish bovine and human data) [d]					
	All	243	240 (98.8%)	240 (98.8%)	144 (59.3%)
	Bovine	82	82 (100.0%)	82 (100.0%)	48 (58.5%)
	Human	161	158 (98.1%)	158 (98.1%)	96 (59.6%)
Dataset 3 (multi-source data) [e]					
	All	290	271 (93.4%)	271 (93.4%)	265 (91.4%)
Dataset 4 (combined global dataset) [f]					
	All	752	678 (90.2%)	681 (90.6%)	579 (77.0%)

[a] Identified using nucleotide BLAST (blastn; default settings, with no minimum identity or coverage threshold employed).
[b] Identified using the PHASTER webserver; Gifsy-1 regions annotated as "intact", "incomplete" or "questionable" were considered to be "present" in a genome.
[c] Refers to the set of 230 U.S. human- and bovine-associated DT104 complex genomes identified and aggregated here.
[d] Refers to a set of 243 Scottish human- and bovine-associated DT104 genomes sequenced and characterized previously [102].
[e] Refers to a set of 290 DT104 genomes collected from various sources around the world, which were sequenced and characterized previously [13].
[f] Refers to the union of Dataset 1 (U.S. bovine and human data), Dataset 2 (Scottish bovine and human data), and Dataset 3 (multi-source data); eleven of the 290 genomes in Dataset 3 (multi-source data) were isolated from cattle and humans in the U.S. and thus were also included in Dataset 1 (U.S. bovine and human data).
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Table 2. Location of *artAB* and *gogB* in DT104 complex genomes within the four datasets queried in this study.

Genes[a]	Dataset (# of Genomes with Gene/ Total # of Genomes; %)	# of Genes Detected[a]						
		Within Gifsy-1[b]		Within Gifsy-2[b]		Within *Salmonella* phage 118970_sal3[b]		Outside of Annotated Prophage Regions (%)[b,c]
		Intact (%)[c]	Incomplete (%)[c]	Intact (%)[c]	Incomplete (%)[c]	Intact (%)[c]	Incomplete (%)[c]	
artAB								
	Dataset 1[d] (177/230; 77.0%)	177 (100.0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
	Dataset 2[e] (240/243; 98.8%)	21 (8.8)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	219 (91.3)[h]
	Dataset 3[f] (271/290; 93.4%)	263 (97.0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	2 (0.7)	0 (0)	6 (2.2)[i]
	Dataset 4[g] (678/752; 90.2%)	451 (66.5)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	2 (0.3)	0 (0)	225 (33.2)
gogB								
	Dataset 1[d] (180/230; 78.3%)	51 (28.3)	75 (41.7)	1 (0.6)	2 (1.1)	0 (0)	0 (0)	51 (28.3)
	Dataset 2[e] (240/243; 98.8%)	50 (20.8)	85 (35.4)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	105 (43.8)
	Dataset 3[f] (271/290; 93.4%)	11 (4.1)	67 (24.7)	2 (0.7)	1 (0.4)	0 (0)	0 (0)	190 (70.1)
	Dataset 4[g] (681/752; 90.6%)	112 (16.4)	223 (32.7)	3 (0.4)	3 (0.4)	0 (0)	0 (0)	340 (49.9)

[a] Identified using nucleotide BLAST (blastn; default settings, with no minimum identity or coverage threshold employed).

[b] Identified using the PHASTER webserver; "intact" refers to prophage classified by PHASTER as "intact", while "incomplete" encompasses prophage classified as "incomplete" or "questionable".

[c] Percentages in parentheses were calculated relative to the "# of genomes with gene" value in the "Dataset" column used as a denominator.

[d] Refers to the set of 230 U.S. human- and bovine-associated DT104 complex genomes identified and aggregated here.

[e] Refers to a set of 243 Scottish human- and bovine-associated DT104 genomes sequenced and characterized previously [102].

[f] Refers to a set of 290 DT104 genomes collected from various sources around the world, which were sequenced and characterized previously [13].

[g] Refers to the union of Dataset 1 (U.S. bovine and human data), Dataset 2 (Scottish bovine and human data), and Dataset 3 (multi-source data); eleven of the 290 genomes in Dataset 3 (multi-source data) were isolated from cattle and humans in the U.S. and thus were also included in Dataset 1 (U.S. bovine and human data).

[h] When 3 Kbp regions on either side of PHASTER prophage regions were considered, 234 Dataset 2 (Scottish bovine and human data) genomes harbored *artAB* within 3 Kbp of Gifsy-1 (97.5% of 240 *artAB*-harboring genomes in Dataset 2 [Scottish bovine and human data]); two and one genome harbored *artAB* within 3 Kb of other PHASTER prophage regions (annotated by PHASTER as Edward_GF_2_NC_026611 and PHAGE_Entero_HK630_NC_019723, respectively).

[i] One genome (DK_7322994_6_swine_08-08-01) had *artA* and *artB* on separate contigs, with *artB* detected within 3 Kbp of an intact Gifsy-1 prophage region.

FIGURES

Figure 1. (A) Selected prophages that share homology with prophage Gifsy-1, as described in *Salmonella* Typhimurium strains (i) LT2, (ii) DT104, and (iii) D23580. Prophage regions were acquired from the PHASTER database and annotated using Prokka. clinker was used to compare prophage regions using default settings. Arrows correspond to open reading frames (ORFs), with grayscale links denoting the percent (%) amino acid identity shared between corresponding ORFs. Selected Gifsy-1 and Gifsy-2 virulence factors [29] are annotated. To view a similar plot constructed using all PHASTER prophage regions in LT2, DT104, and D23580, see Supplementary Figure S1. (B) Venn diagram showcasing the relationship between DT104 complex datasets used in this study. Numbers denote the number of genomes within a given dataset or subset of a dataset. For an extended version of this figure, see Supplementary Figure S2. For a flow chart with detailed descriptions of the datasets used in this study, see Supplementary Figure S3.

Figure 2. Geographic and source origins (i.e., human or bovine) of (A) all 230 human- and bovine-associated United States (U.S.) DT104 complex genomes queried in this study (i.e., Dataset 1 [U.S. bovine and human data]), and (B) 42 Gifsy-1/*artAB*/*gogB*-negative genomes assigned to the U.S. *artAB*-negative major clade. U.S. states shown in gray did not contribute any genomes to the respective data set. The U.S. state that contributed the most genomes to its respective data set is labeled. The figure was created using BioRender (https://biorender.com/) and the "plot_usmap" function in the usmap version 0.6.0 R package [146].

Figure 3. Bayesian time-scaled phylogeny constructed using 146 human- and bovine-associated DT104 complex genomes collected in the United States (U.S.; i.e., a subset of genomes from Dataset 1 [U.S. bovine and human data]). Tip label colors denote the isolation source reported for each genome (human or bovine in pink and blue, respectively). The heatmap to the right of the phylogeny denotes the presence and absence of (i) selected virulence factors (dark and light pink, respectively) and (ii) prophage (dark and light green, respectively). The U.S. *artAB*-negative major clade is denoted by the bright purple bar; light purple shading around the node of the U.S. *artAB*-negative major clade denotes the 95% highest posterior density (HPD) interval, in which Gifsy-1/*artAB*/*gogB* were predicted to have been lost. The phylogeny was constructed and rooted using BEAST2. Time in years is plotted along the X-axis, while branch labels correspond to posterior probabilities of branch support (selected for readability). For extended versions of this figure, see Supplementary Figures S6-S8.

Figure 4. Coalescent Bayesian Skyline plot constructed using 146 U.S. bovine- and human-associated *S.* Typhimurium DT104 complex genomes (i.e., a subset of genomes from Dataset 1 [U.S. bovine and human data]). Effective population size and time in years are plotted along the Y- and X-axes, respectively. The median effective population size estimate is denoted by the solid black line, with upper and lower 95% highest posterior density (HPD) interval bounds denoted by gray shading. The interval shaded in light blue and bounded by dashed vertical lines denotes the time interval in which Gifsy-1/*artAB*/*gogB* were predicted to have been lost by the common ancestor of the U.S. *artAB*-negative major clade (corresponding to the years 1985.0 and 1987.2, denoted by turquoise and pink dashed lines, respectively). The dotted turquoise and pink vertical lines correspond to the 95% HPD interval lower and upper bounds for Gifsy-1/*artAB*/*gogB* loss

among members of the U.S. *artAB*-negative major clade (corresponding to the years 1979.0 and 1992.1, respectively).

Figure 5. Time-scaled maximum likelihood (ML) phylogeny constructed using 752 DT104 complex genomes (i.e., Dataset 4 [combined global dataset], the union of Dataset 1 [U.S. bovine and human data], Dataset 2 [Scottish bovine and human data], and Dataset 3 [multi-source data]). Tip label colors denote the dataset or dataset subset with which each genome is affiliated ("Dataset"; eleven genomes within the intersection of Dataset 1 [U.S. bovine and human data] and Dataset 3 [multi-source data] were colored as Dataset 1 [U.S. bovine and human data]). The heatmap encompassing the phylogeny denotes the presence and absence of selected virulence factors and intact prophage (identified via nucleotide BLAST [blastn; default settings, with no minimum identity or coverage threshold employed] and PHASTER, respectively). Bright green circles in the outermost ring surrounding the phylogeny denote genomes reportedly assigned to DT104 using phage typing ("DT104"). The ML phylogeny was constructed using IQ-TREE and rooted and time-scaled using LSD2. Branch lengths are reported in years. For an extended version of this figure, see Supplementary Figure S14.

Figure 6. Response of DT104 complex isolates ($n = 6$) to environmental stress factors within the context of Gifsy-1/*artAB*/*gogB* presence and absence. Base-ten logarithmic fold change (FC) was calculated as follows: FC = log CFU/g at the start of the experiments – log CFU/g after the stress assay. (A) Log FC of DT104 inoculated into ruminal fluid at high (10^8 CFU/mL; "High") or low (10^5 CFU/mL; "Low") bacterial numbers. (B) Log FC of DT104 isolates exposed to inorganic

acid stress (pH 3.5) with or without a prior adaption step with an intermediate pH (pH 5.5). (C)

Log FC of DT104 isolates after exposure to bile salt at two concentrations.

A. U.S. DT104 genomes
(full data set; *n* = 230)

Washington (*n* = 99)

Number of Genomes

75
50
25

n = 62

n = 168

B. U.S. *artAB*-negative major clade
(*n* = 42)

Pennsylvania
(*n* = 22)

Number of Genomes

20
15
10
5

n = 30

n = 12

DT104

- Assigned to DT104 via phage typing

artAB
- Absent
- Present

gogB
- Absent
- Present

Gifsy-1
- Absent
- Present

Gifsy-2
- Absent
- Present

Salmonella phage 118970_sal3
- Absent
- Present

Dataset (Tip labels)
- Dataset 1 (U.S. bovine and human data)
- Dataset 2 (Scottish bovine and human data)
- Dataset 3 (multi-source data)
- CUFSL NYS Isolates (Subset of Dataset 1)
- Isolates Selected for Phenotypic Assays (subset of CUFSL NYS Isolates)

Tree Scale

10 years

A. Ruminal Fluid

B. Acid Stress
Prior Adaptation

C. Bile Stress