1 # Genomic epidemiology and multilevel genome typing of
2 # Australian *Salmonella enterica* serovar Enteritidis

Lijuan Luo[1], Michael Payne[1], Qinning Wang[2], Sandeep Kaur[1], Irani U. Rathnayake[3], Rikki Graham[3], Mailie Gall[2], Jenny Draper[2], Elena Martinez[2], Sophie Octavia[1], Mark M. Tanaka[1], Amy V. Jennison[3], Vitali Sintchenko[2,4], and Ruiting Lan[1,*]

[1]School of Biotechnology and Biomolecular Sciences, University of New South Wales, Sydney, New South Wales, Australia

[2]Centre for Infectious Diseases and Microbiology–Public Health, Institute of Clinical Pathology and Medical Research – NSW Health Pathology, Westmead Hospital, New South Wales, Australia

[3]Public Health Microbiology, Forensic and Scientific Services, Queensland Department of Health, Coopers Plains, Queensland, Australia

[4]Sydney Institute for Infectious Diseases, Sydney Medical School, University of Sydney, New South Wales, Australia

*Corresponding Author

Email: r.lan@unsw.edu.au

Phone: 61-2-9385 2095

Fax: 61-2-9385 1483

Keywords: *Salmonella* Enteritidis, Genomic epidemiology, Foodborne outbreak,
Multilevel genome typing, Standardised genomic typing, Genomic typing database

Repositories: All newly sequenced data in this work were deposited in the National
Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) under the BioProject of PRJNA489746
and PRJNA848119. The detailed metadata is available in MGTdb -
https://mgtdb.unsw.edu.au/enteritidis/.

Abstract

Salmonella enterica serovar Enteritidis is one of the leading causes of salmonellosis

in Australia. However, the majority of *S.* Enteritidis cases in Australia are travel-

related with a small proportion being locally acquired. This study aimed to

characterise the genomic features of Australian *S.* Enteritidis and compare them with

international strains using multilevel genome typing (MGT). A total of 568 *S.*

Enteritidis isolates from two Australian states across two consecutive years were

analysed using the *S.* Enteritidis MGT scheme and database (MGTdb) - which

contained 40,390 publicly available genomes from 99 countries. The Australian *S.*

Enteritidis strains were divided into three phylogenetic clades (A, B and C). Clades A

and C represented 16.4% and 3.5% of the total isolates, respectively, and were of

local origin. Clade B accounted for 80.1% of the isolates which belonged to seven

previously defined lineages but was dominated by the global epidemic lineage

(MGT4-CC1). At MGT5 level, three out of five top sequence types (STs) in Australia

were also top STs in Asia, suggesting that a fair proportion of Australian *S.* Enteritidis

cases may be epidemiologically linked with Asian strains. In 2018, a large egg-

associated local outbreak was caused by a recently defined clade B lineage prevalent

in Europe and was closely related, but not directly linked, to three isolates from

Europe. Additionally, antimicrobial-resistance genes were only found in Australian

clade B isolates, with a predicted multidrug resistance (MDR) rate of 11.7%. Over

half (54.8%) of the MDR isolates belonged to 10 MDR-associated MGT-STs, which

were also frequent in Asian *S.* Enteritidis. IncX1 plasmids were frequently present in

the Australian MDR isolates. Overall, this study investigated the genomic

epidemiology of *S.* Enteritidis in Australia, including the first large local outbreak,

using MGT. The open MGT platform enables a standardised and sharable

nomenclature that can be effectively applied to public health for unified surveillance

of *S.* Enteritidis nationally and globally.

Importance

Salmonella enterica serovar Enteritidis is a leading cause of foodborne infections. We

previously developed a genomic typing database – MGTdb for *S.* Enteritidis to

facilitate global surveillance of this pathogen. In this study we examined the genomic

features of Australian *S.* Enteritidis using the MGTdb and found that Australian *S.*

Enteritidis is mainly epidemiologically linked with Asian strains (especially strains

carrying antimicrobial resistance genes) followed by European strains. The first large-
scale egg-associated local outbreak in Australia was caused by a recently defined
lineage prevalent in Europe, and three European isolates in the MGTdb were closely
related but not directly linked to this outbreak. In summary, the *S*. Enteritidis MGTdb
open platform is shown to be a potential powerful tool for national and global public
health surveillance of this pathogen.

Abbreviation

MGT, multilevel genome typing; MGTdb, MGT database; iNTS, non-typhoidal
invasive infections; QLD, Queensland; NSW, New South Wales; MDR, multidrug
resistance; AMR, Antimicrobial resistance; WGS, whole genome sequencing; MLST,
multilocus sequence typing; cgMLST, core genome multilocus sequence typing;
ODCs, outbreak detection clusters; GCs, genomic cluster; STs, sequence types; CCs,
clonal complexes; ESS, effective sample size; MRCA, most recent common ancestor;
CI, confidential interval; MLVA, multilocus variable-number tandem repeat analysis;
PT, phage type; CDGN, communicable disease genomics network.

Introduction

Salmonella enterica serovar Enteritidis is one of the most prevalent *Salmonella*
serovars causing foodborne infections [1]. *S*. Enteritidis mainly causes gastroenteritis
but can also lead to non-typhoidal invasive infections (iNTS) in humans [2]. *S*.
Enteritidis is widely distributed across different zoonotic niches and is especially
common in poultry and poultry products like eggs [3]. The prevalence of *S*. Enteritidis
increased substantially in the late 20th century in Europe and North America [4]. In
many countries (e.g. USA, UK, Uruguay, Lebanon), *S*. Enteritidis is ranked as the
most common serovar responsible for human infections [5-8]. In the past few years,
large-scale multinational outbreaks of *S*. Enteritidis were reported [9-13]. From 2017
to 2020, a multi-state outbreak of *S*. Enteritidis in Europe resulted in 656 confirmed
cases [14].

Based on genome-wide comparisons, *S*. Enteritidis has been divided into three clades,
clade A, B and C by Graham *et al.* [15], and five HierCC clusters by Achtman *et al*
[16]. Clade B is the predominant clade which was further divided into 10 lineages in
our previous study [17]. These clades and lineages have different geographical

distributions [17]. Clade A and C were prevalent in Oceania but were relatively rare in

other continents [17]. Within clade B, two dominant lineages represented more than

85% of clade B genomes and had different geographic distribution, outbreak

propensity and evolutionary characteristics [17]. In addition to these two dominant

lineages, two African lineages within clade B were associated with iNTS (mainly in

sub-Saharan Africa low-income countries) and multidrug resistance (MDR) [2].

In Australia, *S*. Enteritidis is the second most prevalent serovar [18-20]. Clade A and

clade C *S*. Enteritidis were previously documented in the state of Queensland (QLD)

[15], while their distribution in other Australian states remained unknown. Clade B

isolates in Australia were considered to be imported from other countries by travellers

[15] and were rarely linked to local outbreaks [15, 21, 22]. However, a local egg-

associated outbreak of clade B *S*. Enteritidis (from 2018 to 2019) caused more than

200 cases [23, 24]. In addition, antimicrobial resistance (AMR) genes were rarely

present in the local clades A and C strains but were of high frequency in clade B

genomes [15]. As *S*. Enteritidis has become of increasing threat in Australia,

comparing the genomic features of Australian *S*. Enteritidis with international strains

would help in understanding the source of Australian *S*. Enteritidis.

A unified global genomic surveillance system would contribute to tracking and

controlling the spread of outbreak clusters and MDR clones in Australia. Multilevel

genome typing (MGT) for *S*. Enteritidis [17] is a recently defined and publicly

accessible whole genome sequencing (WGS) typing scheme

(https://mgtdb.unsw.edu.au/enteritidis/). The key benefit of MGT is the provision of

multiple resolution typing levels with sequence types (STs) assigned at each level [25].

The exact comparison based STs can avoid the drawbacks of clusters merging using

the single linkage clustering algorithm, which enhances the stability of the ST

assignments [25]. The STs from different resolution levels have been found useful in

investigating the epidemiological distribution of *S*. Enteritidis and tracking MDR

clones [17]. Moreover, the core genome multilocus sequence typing (cgMLST) level

MGT9, which includes the serovar core genes and core intergenic regions, offered the

highest resolution of typing for outbreak investigations [17, 26]. Outbreak detection

clusters (ODCs) are single-linkage clusters calculated based on MGT9 allowing a

different number of allele differences [25]. ODC1 (or MGT9 CC), ODC2, ODC5 and

ODC10 refer to single linkage clustering with 1, 2, 5 and 10 allele differences [25].
These clustering schemes with different thresholds are built into the *S.* Enteritidis
MGT database (MGTdb) and, together with metadata, allow the selection of
appropriate cutoffs for optimal outbreak detection [17].

The global *S.* Enteritidis MGTdb [17] processes new publicly available genomes and
metadata regularly making it useful for national and international surveillance of *S.*
Enteritidis. In this study, 568 newly sequenced genomes from two states of Australia,
Queensland (QLD) and New South Wales (NSW) were investigated using *S.*
Enteritidis MGT. The genomic characteristics of *S.* Enteritidis from Australia and
other countries were compared to assess potential Australian *S.* Enteritidis outbreak
clusters and to examine the application of MGT in the national surveillance of *S.*
Enteritidis using the MGTdb.

Materials and methods

Source of isolates

A total of 613 clinical *S.* Enteritidis isolates from QLD and NSW were collected and
sequenced from 2017 to 2018 as part of routine public health laboratory surveillance.
Raw reads were processed using the same methods as in our previous study [17],
including contamination detection (Kraken v0.10.5) [27], quality filtering (Quast
v5.0.2) [28, 29], assembling (SKESA v2.3) [30], serotyping (SISTR v1.0.2) [30],
multilocus sequence typing (MLST) [1], MGT loci extraction and MGT calling [25].
A total of 568 newly sequenced *S.* Enteritidis genomes passed quality filters and were
successfully processed by MGT. There were 36 (6.3%) poor quality genomes and four
non-*S.* Enteritidis genomes. Isolates from the updated global MGTdb for *S.* Enteritidis
included 40,390 genomes that were released to be publicly available by April 2021
(including 40,062 non-Australian and 328 Australian *S.* Enteritidis genomes excluding
duplicates).

Population structure elucidation of the Australian *S.* Enteritidis isolates.

Our previous study described clades and lineages for *S.* Enteritidis using MGT STs
and clonal complexes (CCs, single-linkage clustering STs with one allele difference)
at different MGT levels [17]. The clades and lineages were assigned to the Australian

S. Enteritidis genomes (896 in total) using these predefined clades/lineages markers

(MGT1 to MGT5 STs/CCs) using custom Python scripts

(https://github.com/Adalijuanluo/MGTSEnT).

Identification and visualisation of clusters of closely related isolates

Closely related isolates were grouped into genomic clusters (GCs) at multiple cutoffs

(i.e. 1, 2, 5 and 10 allele differences) based on the highest resolution level, MGT9.

Note that GCs are equivalent to our previously defined ODCs [25]. In this study we

used GCs to avoid confusion with clusters of epidemiologically confirmed outbreaks.

The average number of isolates in each cluster increased as the allowed allele

differences were increased from 1 to 10 (for GC1 to GC10).

From MGT9 STs to GC10 clusters, any ST or GCs with two or more isolates were

identified using custom scripts. The characteristics of these clusters across the country,

state and periods were depicted using Tableau v2019.2 [31]. Singletons referred to

cluster types with only one isolate each in the sample. A cluster that could be

potentially linked to an outbreak was defined as a non-singleton cluster with at least

two isolates recovered from samples collected within a 4-week window.

Microreact [32] was used to visualise clusters at different GC levels. A dendrogram of

all isolates of a GC10 cluster was constructed to visualise the division of clusters by

sequentially lower GC levels. For a single GC10 cluster of interest (a GC10 cluster

includes potential outbreak clusters), clusters at GC1 to 9 were recalled within the

GC10 cluster. Note that the MGTdb only includes GC1 (MGT9 CC), GC2, 5 and 10.

Here we also included GC3, 4, 6, 7, 8 and 9, to increase the flexibility of outbreak

clusters selection. A dendrogram was produced based on the recalled cluster types

from GC1 to GC10, as well as MGT9 STs. The root was the GC10 cluster, each leaf

was an MGT9 ST and each internal node represented a GC cluster between GC1 and

GC9. Therefore, the dendrogram is a GC typing tree rather than a phylogenetic tree.

The dendrogram and the metadata were visualised in Microreact [32]. Isolates with

invasive infections can be highlighted in Microreact [32]. The geographic distribution

and isolation timeline of different subclusters can be visualised and compared in

Microreact [32].

Bayesian evolutionary analysis of the Australian outbreak lineage

Bayesian evolutionary analysis was performed to investigate the evolutionary history of the isolates associated with the Australian outbreak. For the isolates belonging to the European common lineage, 144 isolates have unique MGT8 STs which were sampled for phylogenetic tree construction using quicktree.pl (which is a pipeline included in SaRTree v1.2.2) with P125109 as reference [33]. Ten sampled Australian outbreak isolates were phylogenetically close to 18 international isolates and one non-outbreak Australian isolate, which belonged to the same branch. These 29 isolates were selected to estimate the evolutionary history of the large-scale egg-associated outbreak in Australia, Bayesian evolutionary analysis was performed using BEAUti v1.10.4 and BEAST v1.10.4 [34]. Eight models were evaluated with GTR gamma model, MCMC chain length of 100,000,000, and the phylogenetic expansion effective sample size (ESS) of > 200 [34]. The population expansion was estimated using Tracer.v1.7.1 with 10% burnin [35]. SNP alignments were produced from the MGT9 allele profile. RecDetect v1.2.2 [33] was used to remove the recombination sites on the SNP alignments. A maximum-likelihood tree (GTR, gamma model) was constructed using MEGA X [36] with a bootstrap number of 1000. The log file of the Bayesian skyline model was mapped onto the maximum likelihood tree using BEAST tree annotator v1.10.4 and visualized using Figtree v1.4.4 [34, 37].

AMR prediction and plasmid replicon genes analysis

AMR associated genes and mutations were screened using the AMRFinderPlus v3.10.18 database using the default settings [38, 39]. Our previous study [17] estimated the presence of AMR genes in all publicly available genomes of *S. Enteritidis* and identified MGT-STs that were associated with MDR using custom python scripts. These MDR associated STs were identified among the Australian *S. Enteritidis* genomes. In addition, plasmid replicon genes were screened against the PlasmidFinder v2.1 database [40] through Abricate v1.0.1 (https://github.com/tseemann/abricate). Plasmid replicon genes with identity and coverage >= 90% were regarded as positive.

Results

Epidemiological characteristics of the sampled isolates

A total of 896 Australian *S*. Enteritidis isolates were analysed, of which 568 were newly sequenced genomes from two Australian states, QLD (257) and NSW (311), and the remainder (328) were publicly available genomes (**Table 1**). The newly sequenced isolates were collected between June 2017 to November 2018 (**Figure 1**), except for one isolate which was collected in July 2019. The collection period of all Australian isolates (including publicly available ones) was from 2001 to July 2019.

The newly sequenced Australian *S*. Enteritidis genomes were compared to the updated *S*. Enteritidis MGTdb with 40,390 publicly available genomes which were collected from 99 different countries from 1917 to 2021. The detailed information of these genomes is described in the **supplementary text, Figure S1** and **Table S1**.

MGT typing of newly sequenced isolates

The 568 newly sequenced Australian *S*. Enteritidis genomes were processed through the *S*. Enteritidis MGTdb and held as private data. STs were called from MGT2 to MGT9. MGT1 refers to the classic seven-gene MLST [1], which typed 99.7% of the 568 genomes into five STs. ST11 (78.9%) was the predominant type, followed by ST3304 (9.5%), ST1925 (7.0%), ST180 (5.3%) and ST1972 (1.9%). With the increasing resolution of typing from MGT2 to MGT9, there was an increasing number of STs called from 23 STs at MGT2 to 482 at MGT9 (**Figure 2a**). Note that four genomes (0.7%, 4/568) failed to be called at the MGT9 level due to 2.2% to 2.6% of missing alleles.

From MGT2 to MGT9, STs were grouped into CCs using the single linkage clustering algorithm with one allele difference as cutoff (**Figure 2b**), using the same approach and definition as classic MLST [41]. MGT9 STs were further grouped using the single linkage clustering algorithm with more allele differences allowed (i.e. 2, 5 and 10 allele differences, which were used to generate GC2, GC5 and GC10, respectively) as described previously (**Figure 2b**) [17, 25].

Population structure of Australia *S*. Enteritidis isolates by clades and lineages

The population structure of *S*. Enteritidis was previously defined with three clades (A, B and C) and 10 lineages within clade B [15, 17]. Australian isolates fell into these clades and lineages. By clades, 16.4% (147), 80.1% (718) and 3.5% (31) of the 896 Australian *S*. Enteritidis genomes belonged to clade A, B and C, respectively (**Figure 3**). Within clade B, seven of the previously defined 10 lineages were observed in Australia, representing 97.5% (700/718) of the clade B genomes (**Figure 3**). The global lineage MGT4-CC1 was the predominant lineage (81.8%, 587/718), followed by the European lineage MGT4-CC30 (10.0%, 72/718) (**Figure 3**). MGT4-CC13, which is especially prevalent in North America and Europe [17], was relatively rare in Australia (4.6%, 33/718). Three isolates belonged to the Africa endemic iNTS associated lineages MGT3-CC10 (two MGT3-ST365 strains) and CC15 (one MGT3-ST15) and were cultured from blood, wound and ankle fluid samples, respectively. Only 18 clade B isolates (2.5%, 18/718) belonged to none of the 10 reported lineages.

Comparison of Australian isolates across states and with international isolates using MGT5

Our previous study found MGT5 was the optimal resolution level to depict the national genomic epidemiology of *S*. Enteritidis [17]. Hence, in the current study, the geographic and temporal genomic characteristics of the newly sequenced Australian *S*. Enteritidis genomes were analysed at the MGT5-level. We observed that there were 19 MGT5-STs with >= 5 isolates each, representing 55.6% of the genomes (**Figure 4**). For clade C, the 11 isolates were sporadically observed in seven months with no STs of more than five isolates each.

In clade A, there were four MGT5-STs with >= 5 isolates each, all of which were only observed in Australia. Three STs were observed in both QLD and NSW (MGT5-ST68, ST836, ST4181), and one ST (MGT5-ST863) was only observed in QLD (**Figure 4a**). Across the 18-month sampling window from June 2017 to October 2018, MGT5-ST68 was observed over 10 months, MGT5-ST836 and MGT5-ST863 were observed over seven and five months respectively, while other STs were observed over shorter periods (**Figure 4b**). The top three STs, MGT5-ST68, ST836 and ST863, were found in the publicly available genomes from Australia in the MGTdb, whereas ST4181 was

a newly identified type (**Table 2**). MGT5-ST68 ranked as the top ST and was first observed in 2005 in QLD while the other three STs were observed from 2016 onwards (**Table 2**).

In clade B, there were 15 MGT5-STs with >= 5 isolates, 86.7% (13/15) of the STs were found in both states (**Figure 4a**). The 473 newly sequenced Australian clade B genomes were collected over 18 months (**Figure 4b**). MGT5-ST1, ST62, ST425, ST838 and ST418 occurred almost every month. However, several STs were not continuously observed but instead appeared and persisted over several months. These STs included MGT5-ST810 emerged in May 2018, MGT5-ST2860 emerged in December 2017. Both STs were observed with 5 or more isolates in one month.

By comparing the 15 main MGT5-STs of clade B in Australia with the publicly available genomes in the MGTdb, 14 (93.3%, 14/15) STs were also observed in other countries (**Table 2**), the dominant country of which was either Australia or the UK. MGT5-ST1 is the most frequently ST observed in multiple continents, including Oceania, Asia, Europe, South America and the second most frequent ST in Africa. Despite limited sampling from Asia (693 genomes in total in the MGTdb), five Australian STs were found in Asia, with three STs being ranked as the top, second and fifth most common STs in Asian isolates (**Table 2**). In contrast, the majority of the clade B STs that were also found in Europe and North America were rarely ranked as the top STs in these places (except for MGT5-ST1). In terms of collection time, MGT5-ST810 and MGT5-ST1 were first sampled in 1981, whilst the other STs were first sampled in 2013. In addition, five Australian STs contained isolates that were collected from blood or cerebrospinal fluid (1.0% to 6.5% of the isolates for each ST) suggesting that these STs have caused invasive human infections.

Using a 4-week window to identify potential outbreak clusters by different resolution levels of GCs

MGT9, which included 4986 loci, offered the highest resolution to identify closely related isolates. We further used GCs which are single-linkage clusters based on the MGT9 alleles to examine closely related clusters of isolates that were found across states and countries. GC1 (i.e. MGT9 CC), GC2, GC5 and GC10 corresponded to allele difference cutoffs of 1, 2, 5 and 10 respectively for clustering MGT9 STs. Note

that GCs are purely an alternative method of grouping isolates at small genetic
distances. Using GCs solely without any other metadata cannot define outbreaks.
Using the MGTdb, we compared the GC clusters across countries and states (NSW
and QLD) as introduced in the **supplementary text** and **Figure S2 to S3**.

For *Salmonella* outbreak investigation in NSW using multilocus variable-number
tandem repeat analysis (MLVA), Sintchenko *et al*. defined a cluster of 5 cases with a
specific MLVA type within a 4-week window as a threshold signalling an outbreak
[42]. However, for WGS data, no threshold of genome differences or a minimum
number of cases has been defined. We used a 4-week window and a minimum of 2
cases as a putative cluster definition of relevance to public health surveillance in this
study. At different GC levels, the GC clusters that contained at least two isolates
within 4 weeks (i.e. the minimum pairwise collection date distance of isolates <= 4
weeks) were illustrated (**Figure 5**). While the clusters identified may also include
isolates more than 4 weeks apart. Clusters with no collection date information were
grouped as unknown. No epidemiological investigation metadata for the newly
sequenced genomes was available to confirm whether any isolates were outbreak-
related except for the large outbreak in NSW described below.

For newly sequenced clade A genomes (84 isolates), there were 9, 10, 11, 11 and 13
clusters including isolates collected within 4 weeks at MGT9-ST, GC1, 2, 5 and 10,
respectively (**Figure 5a**). These clusters represented 28.6%, 34.5%, 42.9%, 46.4%
and 53.6% of the total 84 newly sequenced clade A genomes at MGT9-ST, GC1, 2, 5
and 10, respectively. For clade B, there were 20, 28, 38, 37 and 35 clusters including
isolates collected within a 4-week window at MGT9-ST, GC1, 2, 5 and 10,
respectively (**Figure 5b**). These clusters accounted for 16.5%, 27.5%, 34.7%, 48.2%
and 67.9% of the 473 newly sequenced clade B genomes (from NSW and QLD) at
MGT9-ST, GC1, 2, 5 and 10, respectively. For clade C, only one cluster was collected
in 4 weeks at GC5 and GC10.

Evolutionary analysis of the first Australian clade B *S*. Enteritidis outbreak of
local origin

A confirmed large-scale outbreak of clade B *S*. Enteritidis occurred in Australia in
2018 and lasted until 2019 and was the first known *S*. Enteritidis outbreak to have

originated in a local farm source [23, 24]. This outbreak was associated with

contaminated eggs in NSW and caused more than 200 confirmed cases [23, 24]. The

majority of the cases were in NSW, but some were also observed in other states of

Australia, and New Zealand [23, 24]. The present study analysed 68 genomes of

outbreak isolates from NSW collected in 2018.

Different GC levels were examined to identify the level that best described the

outbreak. By GC10, one cluster contained all Australian outbreak isolates but also

contained 10 international isolates. By GC5, the number of international isolates was

reduced to three with two isolates from the UK and one from Ireland isolates which

were isolated from 2012 to 2015. By GC4, only the NSW isolates were clustered

together without any international isolates. The NSW isolates mainly belonged to

MGT7-ST3370 (90.0%).

To determine the evolutionary origins of the local *S*. Enteritidis lineage, we randomly

sampled 29 genomes from the European common lineage MGT4-CC30 to which the

Australian outbreak lineage belonged. Exponential growth and strict molecular clock

were evaluated as the optimal combination of settings in BEAST with a mean ESS

greater than 200. The most recent common ancestor (MRCA) of the Australian

outbreak isolates was estimated to be around 2015 (95% CI 2013-2017) (**Figure 6**,

green background). The MRCA of the Australian outbreak isolates and the UK

isolates, which were the most closely related sampled isolates with the Australian

outbreak, was estimated to be around 2011 (95% CI 2008-2012) (**Figure 6**). The

Bayesian phylodynamic and population expansion of this lineage is shown in **Figure**

S4.

Using Microreact to visualise and investigate large international outbreak

clusters spread to Australia

International outbreak-related clusters have been observed in Australia. To visualise

the temporal and spatial distribution of a single international cluster that includes

Australian isolates, Microreact [32] in combination with a GC dendrogram were used.

To investigate the relationship between the Australian isolates and international

isolates and to demonstrate the usefulness of this approach, one large international

cluster GC10-Cluster 89 (C89) was examined (**Figure 7a**). GC10-C89, which was

observed from 2004 to 2021, included 392 isolates from nine countries, including 11

isolates from Australia. Six of the 11 Australian isolates belonged to three GC2

clusters (two isolates each) being collected within a 4-week window, suggesting

potential small outbreak clusters. The leaves of the dendrogram represented isolates

with different MGT9-STs, nodes represented subclusters from GC1 to GC9 within

GC10-C89, which can be selected and visualised as a subtree (**Figure 7a**). An

international subcluster with 24 isolates was defined by a GC4 cluster (GC4-C5)

(**Figure 7b**). This GC4-C5 cluster was observed in Australia, the UK, the USA, South

Africa and Ireland from 2004 to 2018. Breaking down further to higher resolution GC

levels, two Australian *S.* Enteritidis isolates, which were collected in April 2018, were

of the same GC2 type as the three isolates from the UK, USA and Ireland, two of

which were also found in 2018 (unknown year for the USA isolate). The data suggest

a potential international outbreak cluster transmitted to Australia. Other isolates with

different GC2 cluster types were collected from 2004 to 2017. Notably, according to

the publicly available metadata of source types, GC10-C89 included 24 invasive

infection isolates which were observed in South Africa, Australia and the USA

(**Figure 7**). The interactive version of the GC10-C89 dendrogram and the linked

spatial, temporal and metadata information of **Figure 7** are available online in

Microreact (https://microreact.org/project/6y1Qay9BRdvZBdSGTWzfHr).

Presence of AMR genes in Australian *S.* Enteritidis

Antimicrobial resistance is emerging in *S.* Enteritidis, especially in the two lineages

prevalent in Africa [2]. We evaluated the presence of AMR genes in the Australian *S.*

Enteritidis genomes. No AMR genes were observed in isolates from clade A and C. In

clade B, 69.6% (500/718) were found to possess AMR genes, 11.7% (84/718) were

predicted to be MDR, with genes conferring resistance to three or more drug classes

(**Table 3**). Among the newly sequenced isolates, 11.6% of clade B were predicted to

be MDR. By lineages, 97.6% (82/84) of the MDR isolates belonged to the global

lineage MGT4-CC1.

We previously identified MDR associated STs within which there was a high

proportion of predicted MDR genomes (>= 80%) at different MGT levels [17]. All

Australian *S.* Enteritidis genomes (896 isolates) were screened for these MDR

associated STs. There were 47 Australian *S.* Enteritidis isolates found in 10 MDR

associated MGT-STs (**Table 4**) and 97.9% (46/47) of these isolates were confirmed to

carry MDR genes. Therefore, among the 84 Australian clade B genomes carrying

MDR genes, 54.8% (46/84) belonged to previously identified MDR associated MGT-

STs. The AMR drug classes of the 10 MDR associated STs were shown in **Table 4**,

MGT4-ST54, MGT6-ST107 and MGT4-ST354 were the top MDR associated STs in

Australian *S*. Enteritidis.

Plasmids were associated with the acquisition of AMR genes. We screened the

Australian *S*. Enteritidis genomes for plasmid replicon types. In clade A, only 10.9%

(16/147) of isolates had plasmid replicon genes (10 types), with IncI1 as the most

common type observed in eight isolates (**Table S2**). In clade C, 4 out of 31 isolates

(12.9%) had plasmid replicon genes observed belonging to four different types. In

clade B, 32 plasmid replicon types were found in one or more clade B genomes with

97.5% (700/718) isolates carrying at least one replicon gene (**Table S2**). Except for

IncFII(S) and IncFIB(S) which were present in > 94% of the clade B isolates,

InxX1_4 was the dominant type (22.1%), followed by IncX1 (12.1%) and Col156

(11.0%). We further estimated the presence of AMR genes in isolates possessing

different plasmid replicon types (**Figure S5**). Except for IncFII(S) and IncFIB(S),

more than 85% of the isolates with IncX1 (IncX1_1 or IncX1_4) plasmid types were

found to carry AMR genes (**Figure S5**). Nearly 40% of isolates with IncX1_4

plasmids were predicted to be MDR.

Discussion

In Australia, *S*. Enteritidis is the second most common serovar after *S*. Typhimurium

causing human non-typhoidal salmonellosis, however, *S*. Enteritidis appears to be not

prevalent in Australian farms [18-20]. Most *S*. Enteritidis infections have been

associated with travel and there were relatively few locally acquired cases [18-20, 43].

Therefore, the molecular epidemiology of *S*. Enteritidis in Australia has been

significantly different from locally prevalent *Salmonella enterica* serovars and distinct

from other countries. To investigate the genomic epidemiology of Australian *S*.

Enteritidis, this study characterised 896 Australian genomes (568 were newly

sequenced), by comparing them with ~40,000 international genomes in the MGTdb.

All Australian *S*. Enteritidis isolates belonged to clade A, B or C, with clade B being

dominant (80.1%), consistent with a previous report [15]. An additional two small

clades were recently identified from global data [16], but neither was found in
Australian *S*. Enteritidis.

Australian clades A and C are rarely linked to international isolates and clade A
can cause small-scale local outbreaks.

In the global *S*. Enteritidis MGTdb, more than 85% of clade A and 70% of clade C
genomes were from Australia. Using seven gene MLST (MGT1), clade A includes
two STs and clade C only one. MGT1-ST3304 (clade A) was not observed in any
other country, as was previously reported [15]. MGT1-ST180 (clade A) was also
found in New Zealand, Vanuatu, Vietnam, Germany, the UK and the USA. MGT1-
ST1972 (clade C) was also found in the UK and the USA. Within Australia, clade A was
significantly more common in QLD than in NSW and clade C was only observed in
QLD. This agrees with a previous report that QLD had the largest number of locally
acquired *S*. Enteritidis infections [19]. Factors that affect the differences in the
distribution of the two clades between states in Australia are unknown.

Using GCs and a 4-week window for clustered isolates as potential outbreaks, the data
showed a few small clusters that were potentially outbreak clusters, although there
was no epidemiological information to confirm them. For clade A, there were
multiple small GC2 clusters with 2-8 isolates each within clade A that included
isolates collected within 4 weeks, representing more than 40% of all clade A newly
sequenced isolates. The largest cluster at GC2 included 8 isolates, and was found in
both NSW and QLD within 4 weeks in 2018, suggesting a likely outbreak. Therefore,
clade A has the potential to cause small-scale outbreaks. This was supported by a
previous local outbreak in QLD caused by phage type 26 [22], which belongs to clade
A. Clade A isolates were historically found in samples related to chickens, eggs, dogs
and barramundi in QLD [15]. Therefore, the environmental reservoir of clade A is
likely to be diverse. Investigations of the food/environmental sources of such small
clusters in the future would help confirm such potential small-scale outbreaks as well
as prevent large-scale clade A outbreaks. By contrast, no GC2 clusters were observed
for clade C, with only one cluster of two isolates found at GC5 in QLD. Thus, clade C
mainly causes sporadic infections in QLD in Australia.

Most Australian clade B isolates were likely to have been imported

Clade B is a global epidemic clade, which includes at least 10 lineages as defined in our previous study [17]. Seven lineages were observed in Australia, with MGT4-CC1 as the dominant lineage (>80%), followed by MGT4-CC30. MGT4-CC1 is the global epidemic lineage, which corresponds to the global epidemic clade/lineage in Feasey *et al*. [2] and Li *et al*. studies [44], and the HC100_87 cluster by Achtman *et al*. [16]. The global epidemic lineage (MGT4-CC1) included phage type 4 (PT4) strains [44] and is prevalent in all continents except North America [17]. Lineage MGT4-CC30 was mainly observed in Europe [17]. Because of the large number of isolates from the NSW outbreak cluster, MGT4-CC30 was ranked as the second-largest lineage of Australian *S.* Enteritidis. Excluding the outbreak isolates, the European lineage MGT4-CC30 is rare in Australia with only six isolates. Interestingly, three isolates obtained from extra-intestinal sources (blood, wound and ankle fluid) belonged to the two African MDR and invasive lineages (represented by MGT3-CC10 and MGT3-CC15) [2].

Australian clade B isolates from NSW and QLD were found to be frequently linked to isolates from other countries using higher resolution typing levels (MTG4 or above and GCs at MGT9 level). In the MGTdb, although there were a limited number of genomes from Asian countries, three out of five top MGT5-STs (all belonging to MGT4-CC1 lineage) in Australia were also top STs in Asia, suggesting that the Australian *S.* Enteritidis may be epidemiologically linked with Asian countries (**Table 2**). By GCs, 58.1% and 82.2% of Australian clade B isolates belonged to international clusters at GC5 and GC10, respectively (**Figure S2**). These findings were supported by data from the annual reports of OzFoodNet, 75% to 95% of *S.* Enteritidis infections were travel related from 2005 to 2011 and more than 80% of travel related *S.* Enteritidis infections were acquired from South-East Asia (mainly Bali, Thailand, and Malaysia) [18-20, 43], which are popular Australian tourist destinations. However, clade B isolates were also likely to be imported from other continents. For example, the Europe and North America prevalent lineage (MGT4-CC13) was also observed in Australia although less frequently. Overall, by comparison with international isolates using MGT, the majority of Australian clade B genomes were mainly linked to isolates from Southeast Asia followed by Europe.

Apart from international travel related infections, there were also potential small
outbreaks or transmissions within Australia. At MGT9-ST, GC1, and GC2 levels,
16.5%, 27.5%, 34.7% of Australian clade B isolates from NSW and QLD were
grouped together in MGT9 ST or GC clusters and were isolated within a 4-week
window. These small clusters may be caused by a common infection source overseas;
local secondary transmissions or consumption of the same imported contaminated
food. The transmission from local farms to humans is less likely considering *S.*
Enteritidis remains uncommon in Australian poultry industry [45, 46]. These findings
highlight the need for further investigations as travel history or food exposure
metadata which was not available in this dataset could help to better understand the
transmission pathways in small closely related clusters and to monitor possible local
sources of *S.* Enteritidis causing outbreaks.

Imported Clade B can establish itself locally and cause outbreaks in Australia

S. Enteritidis was not usually considered to be a major cause of local outbreaks in
Australia [21]. The egg-associated NSW outbreak caused by *S.* Enteritidis in 2018, is
the first large scale local *S.* Enteritidis outbreak recorded in Australia [23, 24]. This
outbreak caused more than 200 cases and spread to other Australian states (e.g. QLD
and Victoria) and New Zealand [23, 24]. This study analysed 68 isolates of the
outbreak using the MGTdb. We found three isolates from UK and Ireland were
closely related (belonging to the same GC5 type) but were unlikely to be directly
linked to the Australian outbreak because the three European isolates were collected
from 2012 to 2015. By Bayesian analysis, the MRCA of the outbreak isolates was
around 2015 (95% CI 2013-2017). The Australian isolates and international isolates
(from the UK) had an MRCA around 2011 (95% CI 2008-2012) suggesting that this
outbreak strain may have been imported into Australia around or after 2011,
established locally and then caused a large outbreak.

These findings highlight the potential for travel-related or imported strains to colonise
local farms and cause large outbreaks, despite stringent biosecurity protection against
Salmonella in Australia [47]. Therefore, despite the low prevalence of *S.* Enteritidis in
Australian farms [21], controlling the spread of imported strains and routine
surveillance of clade B *S.* Enteritidis in the food production chain is critical. The
establishment of an imported *S.* Enteritidis strain in Australian farms suggests that the

absence of *S.* Enteritidis in local farms previously was not due to the farm
environment in Australia being unsuitable for *S.* Enteritidis to survive and grow.

Importantly, this outbreak belonged to a recently defined lineage MGT4-CC30 [17],
which was predominantly observed in Europe and the Australian outbreak is the first
large-scale outbreak recorded for this lineage globally. More attention should be paid
to this lineage as it can potentially cause large outbreaks, especially in Europe.

AMR *S.* Enteritidis in Australia

MDR *S.* Enteritidis has been highlighted as an emerging threat to human health [2,
48]. Clade A and C isolates had no AMR genes identified. This was similar to the
earlier study by Graham *et al.* [15]. The rarity of AMR genes in the Australian clades
A and C reflected the relatively strict strategies in agricultural usage of antibiotics in
Australia [49, 50]. In contrast, 69.6% of Australian clade B isolates possessed at least
one AMR gene, and 11.7% of clade B isolates were predicted to be MDR. Using STs
at different MGT levels, 54.8% of the MDR isolates belonged to previously identified
MDR associated MGT STs [17], with MGT4-ST54, MGT6-ST107 and MGT4-ST354
as the major MDR associated STs. Interestingly, all these STs belonged to MGT3-
ST8, which was one of the dominant types in Asian countries such as China [51, 52],
South Korea and Thailand. These findings further confirmed that clade B *S.*
Enteritidis strains isolated in Australia were likely to have originated from other
countries, likely from Asia, as part of the global spread of these MDR clones.
Continuous surveillance of MDR *S.* Enteritidis is critical because MDR associated
infections are an increasing threat [2, 53-55]. MGT STs are potential good candidates
for the global unified tracking of MDR clones. With more genomes available from
countries where there is more antibiotics overuse or misuse, more MDR associated
MGT STs are expected to be identified and their origins identified.

Plasmids are the main mechanism for the acquisition of AMR genes [56]. IncX1
plasmids (IncX1_4 and IncX1_1) were the most common plasmid replicon types in
Australian clade B genomes and more than 80% of isolates with these plasmid types
harboured AMR genes. The predicted MDR rate in isolates with plasmid IncX1_4
was nearly 40%, similar to our previous findings that a significantly higher proportion
of isolates with IncX1_4 carried MDR genes [17]. Graham *et al.* also found that

IncX1 plasmid was common in clade B *S.* Enteritidis that carried AMR genes [15].

An IncX1 plasmid with 16 AMR genes had been reported in *Salmonella* Agona from

Australia [57]. Therefore, more attention should be paid to isolates with plasmid

replicon type IncX1 (especially IncX1_4), which may have a higher risk of MDR

acquisition and transmission.

The application of MGT to epidemiological surveillance of *S.* Enteritidis

Public health laboratories across Australia have initiated genome-based surveillance

within the communicable disease genomics network (CDGN) and a national microbial

genomics framework has been formulated [58]. The Australian national genomics

framework has outlined the following key requirements for the integration of genomic

surveillance in public health systems [59]: **1**). Establishment of standardised national

microbial genomic surveillance approaches using unified nomenclatures. **2**).

Development of standardised genomic analysis reporting outputs for public health

surveillance and response. **3**). Rapid and sustainable data sharing between public

health laboratories. **4).** An open-source platform for data processing and data

repository is required.

The global open MGTdb for *S.* Enteritidis is a promising tool that can cater for all of

these requirements. **1**). MGT uses standardised and consolidated nomenclature

(STs/CCs of MGT) to identify predefined clades/lineage of *S.* Enteritidis; depict the

geographic and temporal epidemiology using MGT STs; identify important clones

(e.g. the MDR associated MGT STs); investigate potential outbreak clusters using the

scalable resolution GCs. Thus, MGT enables standardised national and international

microbial genomic surveillance. **2**). MGT consists of multiple allele-by-allele

comparison-based MLST schemes [25], which does not require the construction of a

phylogenetic tree and is computationally rapid. By describing the relationships of

isolates using the numeric STs and cluster types at different MGT levels, the data

interpretation could be simple and fast. To further simplify the data interpretation, the

online platform allows users to select and visualise the epidemiological distribution of

STs/CCs   at   different   MGT   levels

(https://mgtdb.unsw.edu.au/enteritidis/summaryReport) [60]. **3**). An open database for

S. Enteritidis is available (https://mgtdb.unsw.edu.au/enteritidis/), which allows for

unified typing among different laboratories and comparison with publicly available

international genomes. In summary, the comparison of the genomic features between
states and countries using MGT offered a more comprehensive picture to understand *S.*
Enteritidis in Australia. MGT is a promising system for surveillance of S. Enteritidis
in Australia, and is a good candidate to be integrated into the public health
surveillance system.

Challenges of using public genome data

There are two challenges related to the use of publicly available isolates that are
relevant to this study. Firstly, genome sequence datasets from different continents can
be biased with Asia, South America and Africa being underrepresented. This means
that international clusters were only described if they happened to be found in
Australia and a region with better coverage of WGS data (North America/Europe).
Secondly, global genomic surveillance relies on the availability and accuracy of
metadata. Exact collection dates could facilitate more accurate outbreak investigations
and source of samples or types of infections (e.g. gastroenteritis or iNTS) would
facilitate the risk assessment of imported *S.* Enteritidis.

Conclusion

This analysis of a large representative set of *S.* Enteritidis genomes using the MGT
scheme illustrated the scalable resolution of MGT typing and demonstrated that
Australian *S.* Enteritidis belonged to clades A, B and C. Clade A and C were
confirmed to be endemic in Australia and were not linked to international clusters.
However, clade A may have caused small-scale (2 to 12 isolates) local outbreaks.
Clade B isolates were dominated by the global epidemic lineage MGT4-CC1 and
likely to be mostly travel-related. The locally acquired egg-associated clade B
outbreak cluster was found belonging to a lineage (MGT4-CC30) prevalent in Europe.
AMR genes were only observed in clade B genomes and were especially common in
isolates with plasmid type IncX1. *S.* Enteritidis MGT provides a systematic and
sharable nomenclature and platform that can be effectively applied to public health
agencies for unified surveillance of *S.* Enteritidis globally. The application of *S.*
Enteritidis MGT platform to the Australian *S.* Enteritidis population in two states of
Australia showcased its value for high-resolution epidemiological surveillance in
Australia and internationally.

Authors' contributions

L.L., M.P. and R.L. designed the study. Q.W., I.R, R.G, M.G, J.D and E.M. collected
data. M.P., R.L., S.O., Q.W., M.T., A.J., V.S. and S.K. provided critical analysis and
discussions, L.L. wrote the first draft and all authors contributed to the final
manuscript.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

Acknowledgements

This work was funded by grants from the National Health and Medical Research
Council of Australia (1129713 and 2011806). Lijuan Luo was supported by a UNSW
scholarship (University International Postgraduate Award). The funders had no role in
study design, data collection and interpretation, or the decision to submit the work for
publication. The authors thank Duncan Smith and Robin Heron from UNSW
Research Technology Services for technical assistance.

References

1.   **Achtman M, Wain J, Weill FX, Nair S, Zhou Z et al.** Multilocus sequence
typing as a replacement for serotyping in *Salmonella enterica*. *PLoS Pathog*,
2012;8(6):e1002776.

2.   **Feasey NA, Hadfield J, Keddy KH, Dallman TJ, Jacobs J et al.** Distinct
Salmonella Enteritidis lineages associated with enterocolitis in high-income
settings and invasive disease in low-income settings. *Nat Genet*,
2016;48(10):1211-1217.

3.   **Ferrari RG, Rosario DKA, Cunha-Neto A, Mano SB, Figueiredo EES et**
al. Worldwide Epidemiology of *Salmonella* Serovars in Animal-Based Foods: a
Meta-analysis. *Appl Environ Microbiol*, 2019;85(14):e00591-00519.

4.   **Patrick ME, Adcock PM, Gomez TM, Altekruse SF, Holland BH et al.**
Salmonella enteritidis infections, United States, 1985-1999. *Emerg Infect Dis*,
2004;10(1):1-7.

5.   **Cogan TA, Humphrey TJ**. The rise and fall of *Salmonella* Enteritidis in the
UK. *J Appl Microbiol*, 2003;94 Suppl(s1):114S-119S.

6.   **Dewey-Mattia D, Manikonda K, Hall AJ, Wise ME, Crowe SJ**.
Surveillance for Foodborne Disease Outbreaks - United States, 2009-2015.
MMWR Surveill Summ, 2018;67(10):1-11.

7.   **Mansour MN, Yaghi J, El Khoury A, Felten A, Mistou MY et al.**
Prediction of *Salmonella* serovars isolated from clinical and food matrices in
Lebanon and genomic-based investigation focusing on Enteritidis serovar. *Int*
J Food Microbiol, 2020;333:108831.

8.   **Betancor L, Yim L, Fookes M, Martinez A, Thomson NR et al.** Genomic
and phenotypic variation in epidemic-spanning *Salmonella enterica* serovar
Enteritidis isolates. *BMC Microbiol*, 2009;9:237.

9.   **Pijnacker R, Dallman TJ, Tijsma ASL, Hawkins G, Larkin L et al.** An
international outbreak of *Salmonella enterica* serotype Enteritidis linked to eggs
from Poland: a microbiological and epidemiological study. *Lancet Infect Dis*,
2019;19(7):778-786.

10.   **Parn T, Dahl V, Lienemann T, Perevoscikovs J, De Jong B**. Multi-country
outbreak of *Salmonella* enteritidis infection linked to the international ice
hockey tournament. *Epidemiol Infect*, 2017;145(11):2221-2230.

11.   **Inns T, Ashton PM, Herrera-Leon S, Lighthill J, Foulkes S et al.**
Prospective use of whole genome sequencing (WGS) detected a multi-country
outbreak of *Salmonella* Enteritidis. *Epidemiol Infect*, 2017;145(2):289-298.

12.   **Hormansdorfer S, Messelhausser U, Rampp A, Schonberger K, Dallman**
T et al. Re-evaluation of a 2014 multi-country European outbreak of
Salmonella Enteritidis phage type 14b using recent epidemiological and
molecular data. *Euro Surveill*, 2017;22(50):17-00196.

13.   **Authority EFS, Prevention ECfD, Control**. Multi□country outbreak of
Salmonella Enteritidis phage type 8, MLVA profile 2□9□7□3□2 and
2□9□6□3□2 infections. *EFSA support publ*, 2017;14(3):1188E.

14.   **Assessment JE-ERO**. Multi□country outbreak of *Salmonella* Enteritidis
infections linked to eggs, third update – 6 February 2020. *EFSA support publ*,
2020;17(2):1799E.

15.   **Graham RMA, Hiley L, Rathnayake IU, Jennison AV**. Comparative
genomics identifies distinct lineages of *S.* Enteritidis from Queensland,
Australia. *PLoS One*, 2018;13(1):e0191042.

16.   **Achtman M, Zhou Z, Alikhan NF, Tyne W, Parkhill J et al.** Genomic
diversity of *Salmonella enterica* -The UoWUCC 10K genomes project.
Wellcome Open Res, 2020;5(223):223.

17.   **Luo L, Payne M, Kaur S, Hu D, Cheney L et al.** Elucidation of global and
national genomic epidemiology of *Salmonella enterica* serovar Enteritidis
through multilevel genome typing. *Microb Genom*, 2021;7(7).

18.   **Group OW**. Monitoring the incidence and causes of diseases potentially
transmitted by food in Australia: Annual report of the OzFoodNet network,
2011. *Commun Dis Intell Q Rep*, 2015;39(2):E236-E264.

19.   **Group OW**. Monitoring the incidence and causes of diseases potentially
transmitted by food in Australia: annual report of the OzFoodNet network,
2010. *Commun Dis Intell Q Rep*, 2012;36(3):E213-E241.

20.   **Group OW**. Monitoring the incidence and causes of diseases potentially
transmitted by food in Australia: annual report of the OzFoodNet Network,
2008. *Commun Dis Intell Q Rep*, 2009;33(4):389-413.

21.   **Ford L, Moffatt CRM, Fearnley E, Miller M, Gregory J et al.** The
Epidemiology of *Salmonella enterica* Outbreaks in Australia, 2001–2016. *Front*
Sustain Food Syst, 2018;2(86).

22.   **Moffatt CR, Musto J, Pingault N, Miller M, Stafford R et al.** *Salmonella*
Typhimurium and Outbreaks of Egg-Associated Disease in Australia, 2001 to
2011. *Foodborne Pathog Dis*, 2016;13(7):379-385.

23.   **FSANZ**. 2019. *Salmonella* Enteritidis (SE) linked to eggs
https://www.foodstandards.gov.au/consumer/safety/Pages/Salmonella-
Enteritidis-linked-to-eggs.aspx.

24.   **Svahn AJ, Chang SL, Rockett RJ, Cliff OM, Wang Q et al.** Genome-wide
networks reveal emergence of epidemic strains of *Salmonella* Enteritidis. *Int J*
Infect Dis, 2022;117:65-73.

25.   **Payne M, Kaur S, Wang Q, Hennessy D, Luo L et al.** Multilevel genome
typing: genomics-guided scalable resolution typing of microbial pathogens.
Euro Surveill, 2020;25(20):1900519.

26.   **Alikhan NF, Zhou Z, Sergeant MJ, Achtman M**. A genomic overview of
the population structure of *Salmonella*. *PLoS Genet*, 2018;14(4):e1007261.

27.   **Wood DE, Salzberg SL**. Kraken: ultrafast metagenomic sequence
classification using exact alignments. *Genome Biol*, 2014;15(3):R46.

28.   **Gurevich A, Saveliev V, Vyahhi N, Tesler G**. QUAST: quality assessment
tool for genome assemblies. *Bioinformatics*, 2013;29(8):1072-1075.

29.   **Robertson J, Yoshida C, Kruczkiewicz P, Nadon C, Nichani A et al.**
Comprehensive assessment of the quality of *Salmonella* whole genome
sequence data available in public sequence databases using the *Salmonella* in
silico Typing Resource (SISTR). *Microb Genom*, 2018;4(2).

30.   **Souvorov A, Agarwala R, Lipman DJ**. SKESA: strategic k-mer extension
for scrupulous assemblies. *Genome Biol*, 2018;19(1):153.

31.   Tableau (version. 9.1). *J Med Libr Assoc*, 2016;104(2):182-183.

32. **Argimon S, Abudahab K, Goater RJE, Fedosejev A, Bhai J et al.**
Microreact: visualizing and sharing data for genomic epidemiology and
phylogeography. *Microb Genom*, 2016;2(11):e000093.

33. **Hu D, Liu B, Wang L, Reeves PR**. Living Trees: High-Quality Reproducible
and Reusable Construction of Bacterial Phylogenetic Trees. *Molecular biology*
and evolution, 2020;37(2):563-575.

34. **Suchard MA, Lemey P, Baele G, Ayres DL, Drummond AJ et al.** Bayesian
phylogenetic and phylodynamic data integration using BEAST 1.10. *Virus*
Evol, 2018;4(1):vey016.

35. **Rambaut A, Drummond AJ, Xie D, Baele G, Suchard MA**. Posterior
Summarization in Bayesian Phylogenetics Using Tracer 1.7. *Syst Biol*,
2018;67(5):901-904.

36. **Kumar S, Stecher G, Li M, Knyaz C, Tamura K**. MEGA X: Molecular
Evolutionary Genetics Analysis across Computing Platforms. *Molecular*
biology and evolution, 2018;35(6):1547-1549.

37. **Rambaut A**. *FigTree v1. 4*. 2012.

38. **Feldgarden M, Brover V, Haft DH, Prasad AB, Slotta DJ et al.** Validating
the AMRFinder Tool and Resistance Gene Database by Using Antimicrobial
Resistance Genotype-Phenotype Correlations in a Collection of Isolates.
Antimicrob Agents Chemother, 2019;63(11):e00483-00419.

39. **Feldgarden M, Brover V, Gonzalez-Escalona N, Frye JG, Haendiges J et**
al. AMRFinderPlus and the Reference Gene Catalog facilitate examination of
the genomic links among antimicrobial resistance, stress response, and
virulence. *Sci Rep*, 2021;11(1):12728.

40. **Carattoli A, Zankari E, Garcia-Fernandez A, Voldby Larsen M, Lund O**
et al. *In silico* detection and typing of plasmids using PlasmidFinder and
plasmid multilocus sequence typing. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*,
2014;58(7):3895-3903.

41. **Feil EJ, Li BC, Aanensen DM, Hanage WP, Spratt BG**. eBURST: inferring
patterns of evolutionary descent among clusters of related bacterial genotypes
from multilocus sequence typing data. *J Bacteriol*, 2004;186(5):1518-1530.

42. **Sintchenko V, Wang Q, Howard P, Ha CW, Kardamanidis K et al.**
Improving resolution of public health surveillance for human *Salmonella*
enterica serovar Typhimurium infection: 3 years of prospective multiple-locus
variable-number tandem-repeat analysis (MLVA). *BMC Infect Dis*,
2012;12(1):78.

43. **Group OW**. Burden and causes of foodborne disease in Australia: annual
report of the OzFoodNet network, 2005. *Commun Dis Intell Q Rep*,
2006;30(3):278-300.

44. **Li S, He Y, Mann DA, Deng X**. Global spread of *Salmonella* Enteritidis via centralized sourcing and international trade of poultry breeding stocks. *Nat Commun*, 2021;12(1):5109.

45. **Chousalkar KK, McWhorter A**. Egg Production Systems and *Salmonella* in Australia. In: Ricke SC, Gast RK (editors). *Producing Safe Eggs*. San Diego: Academic Press; 2017. pp. 71-85.

46. **Chousalkar K, Gast R, Martelli F, Pande V**. Review of egg-related salmonellosis and reduction strategies in United States, Australia, United Kingdom and New Zealand. *Crit Rev Microbiol*, 2018;44(3):290-303.

47. **Bull A, Crerar S, Beers MY**. Australia's Imported Food Program-a valuable source of information on micro-organisms in foods. *Commun Dis Intell Q Rep*, 2002;26(1):28-32.

48. **Musicha P, Cornick JE, Bar-Zeev N, French N, Masesa C et al.** Trends in antimicrobial resistance in bloodstream infection isolates at a large urban hospital in Malawi (1998–2016): a surveillance study. *Lancet Infect Dis*, 2017;17(10):1042-1052.

49. **Cox JM, Brook MD, Woolcock JB**. Sensitivity of Australian isolates of *Salmonella* enteritidis to nitrofurantoin and furazolidone. *Vet Microbiol*, 1996;49(3-4):305-308.

50. **Abraham S, Groves MD, Trott DJ, Chapman TA, Turner B et al.** *Salmonella enterica* isolated from infections in Australian livestock remain susceptible to critical antimicrobials. *Int J Antimicrob Agents*, 2014;43(2):126-130.

51. **Jiang M, Zhu F, Yang C, Deng Y, Kwan PSL et al.** Whole-Genome Analysis of *Salmonella enterica* Serovar Enteritidis Isolates in Outbreak Linked to Online Food Delivery, Shenzhen, China, 2018. *Emerg Infect Dis*, 2020;26(4):789-792.

52. **Deng Y, Jiang M, Kwan PSL, Yang C, Chen Q et al.** Integrated Whole-Genome Sequencing Infrastructure for Outbreak Detection and Source Tracing of *Salmonella enterica* Serotype Enteritidis. *Foodborne Pathog Dis*, 2021;18(8):582-589.

53. **Aldrich C, Hartman H, Feasey N, Chattaway MA, Dekker D et al.** Emergence of phylogenetically diverse and fluoroquinolone resistant *Salmonella* Enteritidis as a cause of invasive nontyphoidal *Salmonella* disease in Ghana. *PLoS Negl Trop Dis*, 2019;13(6):e0007485.

54. **Rodriguez I, Rodicio MR, Guerra B, Hopkins KL**. Potential international spread of multidrug-resistant invasive *Salmonella enterica* serovar enteritidis. *Emerg Infect Dis*, 2012;18(7):1173-1176.

55. **Vidovic S, An R, Rendahl A**. Molecular and Physiological Characterization of Fluoroquinolone-Highly Resistant *Salmonella* Enteritidis Strains. *Front Microbiol*, 2019;10:729.

56. **Reygaert WC**. An overview of the antimicrobial resistance mechanisms of
bacteria. *AIMS Microbiol*, 2018;4(3):482-501.

57. **Cummins ML, Sanderson-Smith M, Newton P, Carlile N, Phalen DN et al.**
Whole-Genome Sequence Analysis of an Extensively Drug-Resistant
Salmonella enterica Serovar Agona Isolate from an Australian Silver Gull
(*Chroicocephalus novaehollandiae*) Reveals the Acquisition of Multidrug
Resistance Plasmids. *mSphere*, 2020;5(6):e00743-00720.

58. **Ferdinand AS, Kelaher M, Lane CR, da Silva AG, Sherry NL et al.** An
implementation science approach to evaluating pathogen whole genome
sequencing in public health. *Genome Med*, 2021;13(1):121.

59. **Health AGDo**. 2019. National Microbial Genomics Framework 2019 – 2022.
https://www.health.gov.au/resources/publications/national-microbial-
genomics-framework-2019-2022.

60. **Kaur S, Payne M, Luo L, Octavia S, Tanaka MM et al.** MGTdb: A web
service and database for studying the global and local genomic epidemiology
of bacterial pathogens. *bioRxiv*, 2022:2022.2006.2014.496187.

61. **Zankari E, Hasman H, Cosentino S, Vestergaard M, Rasmussen S et al.**
Identification of acquired antimicrobial resistance genes. *J Antimicrob*
Chemother, 2012;67(11):2640-2644.

Table 1. *S.* Enteritidis genome sequences used in this study.

	Australia			Other countries	Total
	QLD	NSW	Other states		
Newly sequenced	257	311			568
Publicly available	152	1	175	40,062	40,390
Total	409	312	175	40,062	40,958

Table 2. Comparison of the newly sequence genomes with genomes in the S. Enteritidis MGTdb by MGT5-STs.

MGT5 STs	Clades	MLST STs	Clade B MGT4	No. of new isolates	No. of total isolates	*S. Enteritidis MGTdb* [a]									Invasive
						Oceania [b]	Asia	Europe	North America	South America	Africa	No. of countries	Top country	Earliest Year	
68	A	3304		20	38	Top 4						1		2005	
836	A	180		14	17	+						1		2016	
863	A	3304		8	9	+						1		2017	
4181	A	3304		5	5							1		2017	
810	B	11	CC30	67	97	+		+	+			7	Aus	1981	
1	B	11	CC1	36	2353	Top 1	Top 1	Top 1	Top 17	Top 1	Top 2	39	UK	1981	2.5%
62	B	11	CC1	30	92	Top 2		+	+			4	Aus	2013	
425	B	11/1925	CC1	28	167	Top 3	Top 5	+	+			8	UK	2008	1.2%
838	B	11	CC1	19	53	+		+	+			4	UK	2015	
418	B	11	CC1	18	64	Top 5	+	+	+			4	Aus	2015	
716	B	11	CC1	14	65			+	+			5	UK	2016	
1361	B	11	CC1	10	17	+		+	+			3	Aus	2017	
61	B	1925	CC1	10	98	Top 6	Top 3	+	+			5	UK	2012	1.0%
2860	B	1925	CC1	8	10			+				2	Aus	2017	
543	B	11	CC1	7	56	+	+	+	+			5	UK	2014	3.6%
3045	B	11	CC1	5	7			+				2	Aus	2017	
854	B	11	CC1	5	12	+		+				2	Aus/UK	2016	
4140	B	11	CC1	5	5							1		2018	
67	B	11	CC13	7	201	+		Top 19	+		Top 4	8	UK	2004	6.5%

[a] Top 20 STs were labelled, only STs >= 5 isolates each were included for ranking. + represented the continent containing the ST but it ranked outside of the top 20 STs.

[b] Publicly available genomes from Oceania with 99% from Australia.

824 **Table 3. Presence of antimicrobial resistance (AMR) genes in Australian clade B**
825 **genomes.**

Presence of AMR genes	All genomes	%	Newly sequenced genomes	%	Publicly available genomes	%
≥3 drug classes	84	11.7%	58	12.3%	26	10.6%
2 drug classes	82	11.4%	58	12.3%	24	9.8%
1 drug class	334	46.5%	203	42.9%	131	53.5%
No AMR gene	218	30.4%	154	32.6%	64	26.1%
Total	718	100.0%	473	100.0%	245	100.0%

Table 4. Multidrug resistance (MDR) associated MGT-STs in Australian *S. Enteritidis* and the drug classes.

MGT-ST	Lineage	No. of Australian isolates	Aminoglycoside	Beta-lactam	Phenicol	Quinolone	Sulphonamide	Tetracycline	Trimethoprim
								Drug classes [a]	
MGT3-ST15	MGT3-CC15	1	+	+	+		+	+	+
MGT4-ST54	MGT4-CC1	15	+	+		+/-	+	+	
MGT6-ST107	MGT4-CC1	10	+	+		+	+		
MGT4-ST354	MGT4-CC1	8	+	+		+	+	+/-	
MGT3-ST9	MGT4-CC1	4	+	+		+/-	+	+	
MGT3-ST435	MGT4-CC1	3	+	+		+	+	+/-	
MGT5-ST86	MGT4-CC1	3	+	+		+	+		
MGT4-ST955	MGT4-CC1	1	+	+		+	+		
MGT4-ST1419	MGT4-CC1	1	+	+		+	+		
MGT5-ST2729	MGT4-CC1	1	+	+		+	+		

[a] The drug classes were predicted by ResFinder [61]. + means >= 80% of the isolates were predicted to be resistant to the drug class; +/- means < 80% but >= 20% of isolates were predicted to be resistant to the drug class.

 Figure legends:

Figure 1. The collection dates of the newly sequenced genomes from NSW and QLD
in Australia. The X-axis shows the month and the year of the collection time while Y-
axis shows the number of isolates for each month.

Figure 2. MGT typing of the newly sequenced genomes. a. Sequence types (STs)
assigned at each MGT level. **b**. Single linkage clustering of STs into clonal complexes
(CCs) (assigned based on STs from MGT2 to MGT9) and genomic clusters (GCs)
(assigned based on MGT9-STs). STs/CCs/GCs >= 2 isolates each were separated into
different colours and singleton types (one isolate each) were grouped in grey.

Figure 3. The population structure of the Australian *S*. Enteritidis using existing
nomenclatures. NA = North America. The population structure of all Australian isolates
(896) including the publicly available genomes. Seven previously defined lineages of
clade B were observed, with the majority of isolates belonging to the global lineage
MGT4-CC1. The two African lineages were observed with three isolates. Note the
geographic prevalence of different clades and lineages was based on the metadata in
MGTdb which may have sampling bias.

Figure 4. Genomic epidemiological characteristics of the MGT5-STs in Australia. a.
The main MGT5-STs (>=5 isolates each) of the newly sequenced Australian *S*.
Enteritidis genomes, and their distribution by states (NSW and QLD). **b**. Distribution of
the main MGT5-STs in different months. STs with >= 5 isolates each were represented
with different colours. Some STs occurred almost every month whereas several STs
appeared and persisted over several months.

Figure 5. Identification of putative outbreak clusters using a 4-week window.
Clusters with at least two isolates occurring within four weeks in clade A and B were
identified at different resolution genomic cluster (GC) levels. Clusters at each GC level
were categorised into four groups. Singletons were clusters with only one isolate each,
which were collapsed into one column in grey colour. For the non-singleton clusters: "4
weeks" referred to the clusters including at least two isolates collected within 4 weeks;

"Not 4 weeks" referred to clusters that did not include two isolates collected within 4

weeks; 'Unknown' referred to clusters without collection date information.

Figure 6. Phylodynamic analysis of the NSW outbreak related isolates. A total of 29

isolates were sampled with the exponential growth strict clock model as the optimal

model. Country and collection year-month information of the sampled isolates were

represented with different colours. Isolates belonging to the Australian outbreak were

highlighted in green. The most recent common ancestor (MRCA) of the Australian

outbreak isolates was around 2015 (95% CI 2013-2017). Six isolates from the UK were

phylogenetically close to the Australian outbreak isolates, and the MRCA was around

2011 (95% CI 2008-2012). Note that one Australian isolate from 2018 that was unrelated

to the large outbreak was identified and included in the tree.

Figure 7. Visualisation of an international cluster (GC10-C89) in Microreact. a.

Visualisation of the whole cluster. The dendrogram was generated based on the cluster

types from different resolution levels (MGT9 STs to GC10). The root was the GC10

cluster and each leaf was an MGT9 ST. Each internal node was a GC between GC1 and

GC9 as labelled. At each GC level, the branches that were linked with a horizontal line

belonged to the same cluster type. Different colours were used to represent different

countries. Isolates caused possible invasive infections were labelled in green colour band.

The size of the circles in the map corresponds to the number of isolates. Note that

international isolates with collection year and month information but no date were

assumed to be collected on the 15th of each month. Subclusters at different GC levels can

be selected and visualised. **b**. Visualisation of a GC4 subcluster (marked by the red arrow

in a) as a separate tree. The two Australian *S*. Enteritidis genomes collected from 2018

were of the same GC2 type with three isolates from the UK, USA and Ireland,

respectively. The UK and Ireland isolates were also observed in 2018.