[Research article]

[Santos el al., 2019]

1	Virulence potential of a multidrug-resistant Escherichia coli belonging to the
2	emerging clonal group ST101-B1 isolated from bloodstream infection
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4 5	Virulence of a multidrug-resistant <i>Escherichia coli</i> ST101 causing bloodstream infection
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27 Abstract

Escherichia coli EC121 is a multidrug-resistant (MDR) strain isolated from bloodstream 28 infection of an inpatient with persistent gastroenteritis and Zone T lymphoma that died 29 due to septic shock. Despite causing an extraintestinal infection, strain EC121 harbors 30 very few known virulence factors associated with extraintestinal pathogenic E. coli 31 (ExPEC). Furthermore, this strain was assigned to phylogenetic group B1, which is 32 33 usually related to commensals or diarrheagenic E. coli (DEC) strains, being rarely linked to extraintestinal infections. The question rises if E. coli EC121 is opportunistic or does 34 have a true virulence potential. To address this question the genome of strain EC121 was 35 sequenced, and an *in vitro* characterization of some pathogenic-associated properties was 36 performed. The data retrieved from genome analyses showed that E. coli strain EC121 37 38 belongs to the O154:H25 serotype, and to the sequence type 101-B1 (ST101-B1), which has been epidemiologically linked to extraintestinal infections and antimicrobial 39 resistance spread as well. Moreover, it is shown to be closely related to Shiga-toxin 40 41 producing E. coli (STEC). Besides, strain EC121 is an MDR strain harboring 14 antimicrobial resistance genes, including *bla*_{CTX-M-2}, and more than 50 complete virulence 42 genetic clusters, which are reported to be associated either with DEC or ExPEC, or both. 43 44 Strain EC121 also displays the capacity to adhere to and invade HeLa cells, intestinal Caco-2 cells and bladder T24 cells, as well as the ability to form biofilms on abiotic 45 surfaces, and survive the bactericidal serum complement activity. Altogether, the genetic 46 and phenotypic traits presented by E. coli EC121 may be unveiling a pathogen powered 47 by its multi-drug resistance characteristic. The recognition of such MDR pathogens 48 49 makes it essential to carry out studies providing accurate information about their virulence potential. Such studies will help in the development of alternative therapies of infection 50 management and spread control of MDR strains. 51

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Keywords: Extraintestinal, intestinal, pathogen, *Escherichia coli*, Multidrug resistance,
hybrid pathogen, bloodstream infection, ExPEC, DEC, MDR, genome, virulence, ST101

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56 Author summary

Extraintestinal pathogenic Escherichia coli are mostly associated with phylogenetic 57 58 group B2 and the majority of the studies regarding extraintestinal infection focus on the most virulent strains, which might also possess multidrug-resistant phenotype, like the 59 ST131 strains. On the other hand, strains that belong to phylogroup B1 and are isolated 60 from extraintestinal infections are almost neglected, being considered as merely 61 opportunist pathogens, and the majority of studies reporting strains from this phylogroup 62 63 focus on antimicrobial resistance. We concentrated our research on one multidrugresistant strain isolated from bloodstream infection that belongs to phylogenetic group B1 64 to enlarge the knowledge about the virulence of this kind of strain. We demonstrated that 65 66 strain EC121 has full potential to be considered a pathogenic strain, because it adheres to and invades intestinal and bladder human cells and survives in human serum; moreover, 67 our data highlight some important EC121 features, which are typical of ST101 strains, 68 69 like its involvement in the spread of antimicrobial resistance genes, its relationship with extraintestinal infections from diverse sources, and its close relatedness to Shiga toxin-70 producing E. coli. All these data are important for the development of global actions 71 concerning the spread of antimicrobial resistance, as well as to elucidate the virulence 72 potential of strains that at first glance may be considered as a mere opportunist. 73

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74 Introduction

Escherichia coli is one of the most frequent pathogens isolated from bloodstream infections (BSI) around the world [1–5]. Despite all knowledge of extraintestinal infections due to pathogenic *E. coli*, the number of severe infections and outbreaks caused by these pathogens is rising [2,6]. Moreover, many of these infections are caused by multidrug-resistant (MDR) strains, leading to higher burden of disease [7–10].

80 The term extraintestinal pathogenic Escherichia coli (ExPEC) is used to define strains recovered from any extraintestinal infection in humans or animals. Although many 81 virulence factors are associated with the pathogenicity of this group, it is difficult to 82 identify or classify ExPEC strains based on a specific group of virulence genes [11]. Some 83 studies developed molecular virulence patterns that define strains that harbor intrinsic 84 85 extraintestinal virulence potential [12] or are potentially capable of causing urinary tract infection [13]. These molecular patterns are useful tools to track ExPEC both in the 86 gastrointestinal tract or environment (soil, water, food), enabling the search for ExPEC 87 88 reservoirs.

Even though such methods may recognize the most virulent strains, they fail in 89 identifying a considerable part of isolates recovered from clinical samples [13,14]. The 90 91 reason is that infections take place as a result of an imbalance between the virulence potential of the pathogen and the immune defenses of the host what makes it sometimes 92 93 unclear whether the infection is being caused by a true pathogen or by an opportunistic strain. Considering this, the use of epidemiologic data and multi-locus sequence typing 94 (MLST) for the identification of strains belonging to major pathogenic clonal groups 95 could help in the determination of the potential pathogenic role played by an E. coli strain 96 [15–17]. 97

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The emergence of MDR E. coli strains calls attention to the spread of clones 98 99 carrying virulence along with resistance-encoding genes, making the control of these pathogens potentially difficult [2,18–22]. In this context, ST131 is the MDR high-risk 100 101 clonal group widely disseminated and studied worldwide nowadays. Other clonal groups, presenting MDR phenotype, like ST405, ST38, and ST648, have also emerged and are 102 already considered as of global risk [23]. On the other hand, some STs presenting MDR 103 104 phenotype, although being isolated around the world, have not their pathogenic potential 105 determined yet.

The spread of MDR pathogens is a major Public Health concern that needs to be 106 107 adequately addressed towards efficient control. Based on that, the World Health Organization (WHO) called attention to this problem and the need for alternative 108 therapeutic options for treatment of MDR infections. The development of vaccines and 109 110 anti-virulence compounds could be alternative approaches to combat MDR strains, especially those showing pan drug resistance (PDR) phenotype [24]. However, for these 111 112 alternatives to be effective, advanced knowledge is necessary, since not all pathogenic 113 strains share the same virulence factors, and the use of the most prevalent virulence factors as targets can be problematic as they can adversely affect the gut microbiota. 114

It is well accepted that the phylogenetic grouping of *E. coli* keeps a very good correlation with the virulence potential of bacterial isolates. More recent epidemiological data have shown that non-virulent strains are mostly classified in the phylogenetic groups A, while diarrheagenic *E. coli* (DEC) are B1, and ExPEC are mainly B2. However, the fact that most *E. coli* virulence factors are carried on mobile genetic elements (e.g. plasmids and pathogenicity islands) may eventually cross these phylogenetic boundaries and promote the appearance of potential pathogens in atypical phylogroups.

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122	Thus, a global analysis of virulence and resistance characteristics of ExPEC
123	isolates, especially those escaping typical classification, is essential for the understanding
124	of the infections they cause as well as for devising therapeutic alternatives to cope with
125	MDR E. coli strains.
126	Aiming to provide information about the virulence determinants in non-typical
127	ExPEC strains, we performed an extensive genotypic and phenotypic characterization of

128 the MDR E. coli EC121 strain, which was characterized as belonging to phylogenetic

129 group B1 and carrying only a few known virulence factors.

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130 **Results**

131 Genetic characterization and *in silico* analysis.

The EC121 genome sequence generated 143 contigs. PlasFlow algorithm identified that 66 of those were contained in plasmids while 43 were chromosomal. The predicted genome size was 5,119,556 bp, with 50.34 % of GC content. It was composed by one chromosome and four plasmids that, together, would comprise at least 426,419 bp

137 EC121 belongs to serotype O154:H25, ST101-B1, and is related to diarrheagenic *E*.

coli. The MLST analyses showed that the EC121 strain belonged to the ST101/ST88, 138 according to the Warwick and Pasteur MLST schemes, respectively. The determination 139 140 of O antigen type by sequencing analysis was inconclusive, because two possible O types, 141 O154 and O100, could be assigned. Using specific serum agglutination assays it was determined that strain EC121 expressed the O154 antigen. Together with the in silico 142 143 analysis of the *fliC* gene, which identified the H25 type flagella, EC121 was characterized 144 as belonging to serotype O154:H25. Moreover, group IV capsule encoding genes were 145 identified on its genome.

A phylogenetic tree built using reference *E. coli* strains from all pathotypes showed that EC121 was related to diarrheagenic *E. coli* (DEC) strains, since it was positioned in a clade closely associated with Shiga toxin-producing *E. coli* (STEC) (Fig 149 1).

150 A second phylogenetic tree was built with 93 strains available at the NCBI, which 151 belonged to the ST101 complex and were recovered from distinct sources (Fig 2, Table 152 S1). Analysis of the tree showed that the majority of the strains of this ST are MDR, many 153 of them carrying *mcr*-1 (mobile colistin resistance gene), a variety of β -lactamases 154 (*bla*_{CTX-M}-like, *bla*_{OXA}-like, *bla*_{NDM}-like) and genes related to fosfomycin resistance

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(fosA3). Interestingly, these strains were isolated from food, environment, animals, and 155 156 humans, as part of the microbiota or involved in both intestinal and extraintestinal infections. Among the strains isolated from human infections (Fig S1 and Table S1), most 157 were diagnosed as extraintestinal pathogens (28 strains), while three were intestinal 158 pathogens; among the latter, one was Shiga toxin-producing E. coli (STEC), and one was 159 160 enterotoxigenic E. coli (ETEC). Regarding the isolates from food and animals, seven 161 strains were identified as STEC (Fig 2, Fig S1 and Table S1). Showing that ST101 is associated with intestinal and extraintestinal infection and it is clonal group associated 162 163 with MDR phenotype

164

EC121 harbors genes involved in virulence and stress response. The EC121 genome 165 annotation showed that strain EC121 contained 5,175 coding sequences (CDS), 82 tRNA, 166 167 and 13 rRNA. One CRISPR *locus* was identified as type 1-IE and presented two arrays and 30 CRISPR-repeat regions (Fig 2A). Among the CDSs annotated, 702 corresponded 168 169 to putative proteins designated as hypothetical proteins, and 4,473 CDS to putative 170 proteins with functional assignments. Of interest, 221 genes were reported as belonging to systems involved in response to stress, virulence, and defense (Table 1 and Figs 2B-171 172 C).

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Table 1 - EC121 annotation overview.^a

Protein features	Occurrence
Hypothetical proteins	702
Proteins with functional assignments	4,473
Proteins with E.C. ^b number assignments	1,300
Proteins with G.O. ^b assignments	1,076
Proteins with Pathway assignments	911
Proteins with PLfam ^b assignments	5,063
Proteins with PGfam ^b assignments	5,064

a. Results obtained using PATRIC annotation service;

b. Abbreviations: E.C. number - Enzyme commission universal G.O. - Gene Ontology
Consortium; PLfam- PATRIC genus-specific family; PGfam- PATRIC cross-genus
family.

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Analysis using the MacSyFinder tool identified 10 type V secretion system
proteins, nine of which were from type T5aSS and one from T5cSS (EhaG) (Table S2).
One type III secretion system similar to *Salmonella* T3SS, and an incomplete type VI
secretion system that carried only *tssB*, *tssD*, *tssE*, *tssH*, and *tssI* genes were also present
(Table S2).

All genes that were reported by the PATRIC virulence factor database were manually curated to provide information about their full sequence. As shown in Table 2 and Table S3 and S4, the genome of the EC121 strain encodes multiple adhesins, invasins, iron uptake systems, and genes involved with evasion of the host immune system. By the position of strain EC121 in the pathotype phylogenetic tree, some of these virulence factors are related to the pathogenesis of DEC, specifically of STEC and ETEC (Tables

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190	2 and S3). Other virulence factors found were related to Salmonella spp. (PagN adhesin
191	and systems associated with immune evasion and macrophage survival) and Shigella spp.
192	(genes associated with intracellular survival and spread). Moreover, many accessory
193	genetic clusters associated with the bacterial ability to cause extraintestinal infections,
194	i.e., genes involved with biofilm formation, adherence to extraintestinal cells, iron
195	acquisition and immune evasion were also detected in the EC121 genome. Furthermore,
196	other clusters associated with Urinary Tract Infections (UTI) were detected (Tables 2 and
197	S3).
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Table 2 – Complete virulence factors identified	
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Virulence traits	Associated with virulence in				
	Other Genera	DEC	ExPEC	Various	
Colonization and invasion	MlaA, MsbB, Sfm, MisL, IcsP	Lpf-1 _{026,} EhaG, Hcp, Elf, EhaA, EhaB, CFA-I	FdeC, Pix, Ygi, Yad, Yeh, Yra, Yfc, YchO, IbeB, IbeC, EptC, OmpA	Type 1 Fimbriae (H190), Ecp, Curli	
Immune evasion	SodB, TrxA, SirA, FpkA		Iss, OmpTp ^a , OmpTc ^a , Mig- 14, HlyF	RelA	
Iron acquisition				Sit, Iro, Fhu, Enterobacti	
Regulators	DsbA, DegP, SlyA, CpxAR	EvgAS	DsbAB, PhoPQ	QseBC, RcsAB	
Toxins and Bacteriocin			Microcin V, Colicin B, Colicin M	ClyA, Hly III	
Non-LEE effectors		EspL1, EspL4, EspX1, EspX4, EspX5, EspR1			
^a OmpTc for chromo	osomal variant of OmpT protein	n, and OmpTp for plasmid van	riant of OmpT protein.		

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207	No complete phage sequences were detected in the EC121 strain. The search for phage
208	sequences in strain EC121 identified 12 regions containing genes from a variety of
209	different phages, ranging from 6 to 31 kb (Table 3, Table S4). Although the database
210	considered a predicted phage sequence in region 6 as intact, based on their score criteria,
211	it's size (14,400 bp) was not compatible with the size of the predicted "Salmonella phage
212	Fels-2", whose complete genome sequence deposited in NCBI database is 33,693 bp.
213	Remarkably, parts of the cytolethal distending toxin (Cdt-I and Cdt-V), and Shiga-like
214	toxin (Stx1a and Stx2c) converting phages, as well as of Shigella serotype-converting
215	phages SfI, SfII, and SfV were detected among these regions (Table 3 and Table S4).

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Region	Length	Completeness	Most Common Phage/accession number	GC %
1	6.3 kb	incomplete	Bacillus phage G/NC_023719	51.27
2	30.9 kb	incomplete	Salmonella phage 118970_sal3/NC_031940	49.82
3	14.2 kb	questionable	Enterobacteria phage P88/NC_026014	49.75
4	20 kb	incomplete	Shigella phage POCJ13/NC_025434	47.95
5	28.5 kb	incomplete	Shigella phage SfII/NC_021857	45.37
6	14.4 kb	intact	Enterobacteria phage Fels-2/NC_010463	49.56
7	9.4 kb	incomplete	Bacillus phage Shanette/NC_028983	49.50
8	7.5 kb	incomplete	Enterobacteria phage phi92/NC_023693	44.44
9	10.2 kb	questionable	Enterobacteria phage P2/NC_001895	55.39
10	3.8 kb	incomplete	Bacteriophage WPhi/NC_005056	50.16
11	8.4 kb	questionable	Phage cdtI/NC_009514	46.05
12	6.7 kb	incomplete	Shewanella sp. phage ¹ / ₄ /NC_025436	47.92

 Table 3 - Predicted phages detected in the EC121 genome.

a. Phage completeness was determined by scores obtained in the search algorithm
(PHASTER) based on the number of the phage's specifics CDSs detected in the analyzed
region.

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EC121 has multiple resistance genes, and several efflux-pumps compatible with its antimicrobial susceptibility profile. The software ResFinder identified 15 resistance genes in strain EC121, which are involved in reduced susceptibility to aminoglycosides, β -lactams, macrolides, phenicols, sulphonamides, trimethoprim, and tetracyclines (Table 4). Mutations in *parE*, *parC*, and in *gyrA* genes, which confer resistance to fluoroquinolones, were also observed in the EC121 genome. Additionally, several effluxpumps related to resistance to heavy metals (copper and mercury), arsenic, disinfectants

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228	(QacE), and	antimicrobials	(AcrAB-TolC,	AcrAD-TolC,	AcrEF-TolC,	AcrZ, EmrA	AB-
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229 TolC, EmrD, EmrKY-TolC, MacA, MacB, MdfA/Cmr, MdtABC-TolC, MdtEF-TolC,

230 MdtL, MdtM, and SugE) were also detected. The MDR phenotype profile of strain EC121

assessed by the microdilution method was consistent with the genomic findings (Table

232 4).

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Table 4 -Antimicrobial resistance genotype and phenotype observed in strain EC121.

Antincionali-1		Phenotype	
Antimicrobial Class	Genotype	Antimicrobial agent	MIC ^b (μg /mL)
Aminoglygogidag	aph(3'')-Ib, aph(6)-Id,	Amikacin	2
Aminoglycosides	aph(4)-Ia, aac(3)-Iva	Gentamicin	32
		Ampicillin	≥256
		Ceftazidime	64
		Ceftriaxone	≥512
	bla	Cefepime	16
β-lactams	$bla_{\text{TEM-1B}},$	Piperacillin/Tazobactam	>256/4
	bla _{CTX-M-2}	Meropenem	≤0.5
		Ertapenem	≤0.5
		Imipenem	≤0.5
		Aztreonam	>32
Sulfonamides/	sul2, sul1, sul1',	Trimethoprim/	>128/
Trimethoprim	dfrA14, dfrA7	Sulfamethoxazole	2,432
Phenicols	catA1	Chloramphenicol	>64
Tatua avalin ag	tet(A)	Minocycline	16
Tetracyclines		Tigecycline	1
Fluoroquinolones	<i>parE</i> (S ₄₅₈ A); <i>parC</i>		
-	$(S_{80}I)$; gyrA $(S_{83}L$ and $D_{87}Y)$	Ciprofloxacin	>64
	D ₈₇ 1)	Colistin	≤0.25
Polymyxins		Polymyxin B	_0.25 ≤0.25
Fosfomycin	-	Fosfomycin	NT
Macrolides	mph(A), mdf(A)	Azithromycin	NT

a. chromosomal mutations and mobile genes related to antimicrobial resistance identified;

b. Resistance is highlighted in bold, following EUCAST (2019) breakpoints.

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NT, not tested.

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The EC121 strain harbors four circular plasmids. Four plasmid bands were detected
by agarose gel electrophoresis, three of which presented high molecular weight masses
(approximately 67 kb, 110 kb, and 180 kb), and one was smaller than 6.9 kb (Fig 4).
Seven different replicons were found in EC121 using PlasmidFinder 2.0 (IncHI2A,
IncHI2, IncQ, IncFII, IncFIB, IncN, and IncL/M). This information was associated with
PlasFlow and Blast analyses to manually determine plasmid sequences.

The pEC121.A, which was the largest plasmid detected by gel electrophoresis consists of a 189,202 bp plasmid carrying three basic replicons belonging to incompatibility groups IncHI2A, IncHI2. This plasmid shows high identity with the pYps.F1 plasmid from *Yersinia pseudotuberculosis* strain Yps.F1 (cover: 99%, e-value: 0.0, identity: 99.77%) (Fig 4 and Fig S2). More important, plasmid pEC121.A carries the antimicrobial resistance genes *sul2, tet(A), bla*_{TEM-1B}, *aph*-3'-*Ib*, and *aph*-6-*Id* genes.

Plasmid pEC121.B was an IncFIB/IncFII plasmid with about 104,053 bp that is similar to pAPEC plasmids that carry virulence and resistance genes simultaneously (Fig S3). Such plasmid carries the beta-lactamase encoding gene $bla_{CTX-M-2}$, mercury and copper resistance-encoding genes, and a class 1 integron, as well as the *iro, sit, tra,* and *hlyF mig-14* operons; and *ompT*. The resistance genes were inserted close to a Tn21 transposon.

Plasmid pEC121.C is an IncL/M plasmid of 65,565 bp with high homology (100%
of identity and coverage) to the pASM2 plasmid (accession n° NZ_CP019841.1) of *Enterobacter roggenkampii* strain R11 (Fig S4). Finally, the smallest plasmid, pEC121.D,
carries an IncN replicon and is 3,205 bp in size.

261

262 Virulence phenotype.

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To evaluate the expression of the virulence-encoding genes detected, *in vitro* assays were performed to analyze the ability of the strain to: (i) resist to the bactericidal activity of the serum complement system; (ii) attach to abiotic surfaces and form biofilms; (iii) adhere to and invade eukaryotic cells.

267

The EC121 strain was resistant to the bactericidal activity of the complement system 268 and forms biofilm on abiotic surfaces. To disseminate in the host, extraintestinal 269 pathogenic bacteria must be able to survive the serum bactericidal activity. To identify 270 such a feature in EC121, we determined the lowest serum-resistant bacterial inoculum 271 272 using a pool of normal human sera (NHS). The lowest inoculum of EC121 strain that resisted serum activity after two hours was 10² CFU/mL, which was similar to the one 273 obtained for the resistant control strain J96. E. coli strain C600, used as the susceptible 274 275 control, barely resisted to 30 min-exposition period in the highest inoculum tested (10^8 CFU/mL). To validate if the bacterial survival was associated with the resistance to 276 277 complement activity, assays were repeated with heat-inactivated serum. In this condition, 278 all strains survived the challenge with similar inoculum (Table 5).

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280 Table 5 -	Estimated bacterial	inoculum resistant	to serum activity	(CFU/mL). ^a
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Strains						
	J96		EC121		C600	
Challenge period	NHS	inHS	NHS	inHS	NHS	inHS
30 min	101	101	10 ²	101	10 ⁸	10 ¹
1 h	10 ²	101	10 ²	101	NG	10 ¹
2 h	10 ²	101	10 ²	101	NG	10 ¹

281 *a.* Values represent the approximate relative mean of the lowest bacterial inoculum that 282 remained viable after the challenge. All assays were performed in triplicate using 50% 283 serum diluted in PBS (v/v);

NHS - Normal human serum; inHS - inactivated human serum; NG - no growth after thechallenge.

286

287 The ability to form biofilm can confer many advantages to any pathogen, including persistence in particular niches and tolerance against antimicrobials and the 288 host immune system. The EC121 strain was able to adhere to and form biofilms on a glass 289 290 surface when grown in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM), as shown in Fig. 5A. Although its adherence to the abiotic surface was not massive as the adherence 291 292 presented by the positive control (EAEC 042 strain), it was significantly more intense than that of the negative control (HB101 strain), as shown by results obtained using the 293 294 crystal violet absorption index (Fig 5B).

295

The EC121 strain adheres to and invades eukaryotic cell lineages. At first, we accessed the ability of strain EC121 to adhere to HeLa cells using a classic 3-h adherence assay, on which it was able to adhere to, both in the presence or absence of D-mannose,

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which abolishes the adherence mediated by type-1 fimbriae. The presence of D-mannose reduced the adherence ability of strain EC121 in more than 90% (Fig 6), from 2.1×10^8 CFU/mL to 1.4×10^7 CFU/mL. However, in such condition, the mean adherence index in the presence of D-mannose was similar to the diffusely adherent *E coli* C1845 strain (1.4×10^7 CFU/mL), used as a positive control (Fig 6).

We also investigated whether the EC121 strain was able to invade HeLa cells. In 304 a short-period invasion assay, the EC121 strain interacted with HeLa cells and invaded 305 with higher efficiency than reference invasive control Shigella flexneri strain M90T. 306 Indeed, the total number of internalized EC121 bacteria (mean of 7.11x10⁴ CFU/mL) was 307 308 22-fold higher than the number of internalized M90T cells (Figs 7 and S5). On the other hand, the proportion of invasion/interaction of strain EC121, determined as the invasion 309 index, was 2-fold lower than strain M90T (0.17% and 0.40%, respectively). The 310 311 difference between the invasion indexes of M90T and EC121 might be due to the large difference in the adherence efficiency between them; the interaction of EC121 with HeLa 312 313 cells was 50-fold higher than that of the M90T strain (Fig 7). Invasiveness in the presence 314 of D-mannose also was assessed to evaluate whether the invasion ability of EC121 was dependent on type-1 fimbriae or another mannose-dependent adhesin. EC121 remained 315 invasive in the presence of D-mannose but with reduced bacterial counts (Fig 7 and S5). 316 thus showing that type-1 fimbriae contributed to both adherence and invasion of EC121, 317 although it was not the only factor associated to these traits. 318

The capacity to interact (adhere to and invade) with differentiated intestinal Caco-2 cells and bladder T24 cells was also assessed. The EC121 strain also adhered to and invaded both cell lineages. Even though the adherence efficiency was similar, the invasion index was lower in Caco-2 cells than in HeLa cells (Fig 7 and S5). On the other hand, in T24 cells, these parameters were similar to those found in HeLa cells. A classic

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qualitative adherence assay revealed that the EC121 strain interacted abundantly with all
tested cell lines, avoiding the coverslip surface even in the absence of D-mannose (Fig
S6).

327

328 **Discussion**

The E. coli EC121 strain was isolated in 2007 from a bloodstream infection of an 329 330 inpatient that presented persistent gastroenteritis and T-zone lymphoma. Since initial analyses showed that it belonged to phylogenetic group B1 and carried few virulence 331 markers commonly related to extraintestinal pathogenic E. coli, it was classified as 332 ExPEC negative (ExPEC-) [25] and therefore considered as an opportunistic pathogen. 333 However, considering that about 40% of extraintestinal infections are caused by strains 334 335 devoid of virulence factors [13,14] and that EC121 was an MDR strain, its entire genome was sequenced to further understand its virulence potential. 336

337 Interestingly, the EC121 strain belongs to ST101, which has been previously 338 reported to be involved in nosocomial outbreaks caused by Metallo-B-lactamases-339 producing strains in many countries from Europe, Asia, and Oceania [26–30]. Furthermore, ST101 has also been detected among strains of non-outbreak related 340 341 extraintestinal infections [31–38], water [39], poultry infection [40], retail food [31,41– 43], and healthy human and animal intestinal microbiota [38,44-47], mostly presenting 342 343 an MDR phenotype. Shrestha et al. [48] drew attention to ST101 due to the PDR phenotype presented by some strains of this ST, and mainly because it is not considered 344 a pandemic clone, although it has been isolated worldwide. We, therefore, analyzed data 345 about the infection type, isolation source, and resistance genetic markers presented by the 346 strains of the ST101 complex that were previously deposited in the NCBI (Table S1). 347 Such analysis evidenced that MDR strains of this complex were spread worldwide. In 348

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addition, such ST complex is related to Shiga toxin-producing strains as well as strains
isolated from extraintestinal infections, human and animal microbiota, retail food, and
environment. Moreover, many strains simultaneously carry the *bla*_{CTX-M-55}, *mcr-1*, *fosA3*,
and *qnrS1* genes. Interestingly, one strain present simultaneously *aac(6')-Ib-cr*, *bla*_{CTX-M-55} *55*, *bla*_{NDM-5}, *bla*_{OXA-1}, *mcr-1*, *fosA3*, and other 19 resistance genes.

Likewise, the EC121 strain showed multiple antimicrobial resistance genes, 354 355 including genes that confer resistance to third-generation cephalosporins (*bla*_{CTX-M-2}). It is worth to mention that the EC121 strain was isolated in 2007, and its MDR phenotype 356 was relevant since at that period it was susceptible only to carbapenems, polymyxins, and 357 358 amikacin. Recently, the E. coli strain ICBEC72H, which belongs to ST101 and carried only *bla*_{CTX-M-8} and *mrc-1*[32] was isolated from a human extraintestinal infection in 359 Brazil. Similarly, the ST101 E. coli strain 200H (Table S1) was isolated from a human 360 361 urinary tract infection and carried bla_{OXA-9}, mcr-1, and aac(6')-Ib-cr. These reports show that MDR strains belonging to the ST101 complex have been circulating in Brazil for a 362 363 long time.

Some authors showed that the E. coli strain 912 (ST101) was selected by the usage 364 of antimicrobial agents in animals and that it was able to colonize human and pig gut and 365 366 spread through the environment, reaching and colonizing animals that were not under antimicrobial treatment [49,50]. These same authors have also shown that ST101 strains 367 can naturally acquire and transfer plasmid-borne antimicrobial resistance genes in the gut 368 [49,50]. Such a feature is important for various reasons. First, strain EC121 carried three 369 large plasmids, two of which (pEC121.A and pEC121.B) harbored different antimicrobial 370 resistance genes. Besides, E. coli strains belonging to ST101 were recovered from retail 371 372 meat in Europe and Asia [42,43], and from extraintestinal infections in Brazil and USA in the same regions in which they were detected from retail meat [31,40]. 373

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Additionally, strains belonging to the ST101 complex carrying multiple resistance 374 375 genes were recovered from the intestine of healthy humans and animals in many countries. Therefore, even if these strains do not cause infection directly, they could 376 potentially transfer plasmids to other bacteria, even from distinct genera. Such cross 377 genera plasmid transfer could be easily identified in the plasmids reported in the present 378 study; pEC121.C, for example, is closely related to plasmids found in *Klebsiella* spp. and 379 380 Enterobacter spp., while pEC121.A is related to Salmonella spp. and Yersinia spp. plasmids. Together, these findings reinforce the high risks associated with strains 381 belonging to the ST101 complex due to their ability to colonize humans and animals' gut, 382 383 to easily disseminate via retail food and water, being able to acquire and spread antimicrobial resistance-encoding genes. 384

385 Strains from the ST101complex are included in the phylogenetic group B1, which 386 implies that they do not have all the classical virulence factors that are usually associated 387 with the most virulent ExPEC strains [51,52]. Many studies reported phylogroup B1 *E*. 388 *coli* strains as commensals or as intestinal pathogens, but not as extraintestinal pathogens 389 [51–53].

The genomic analysis of the EC121 strain showed a high number of virulence 390 391 genes, demonstrating that it presents all the traits necessary to be considered as an 392 extraintestinal pathogenic agent. Moreover, like other ExPEC strains, EC121 displayed multiple virulence genes related to each feature, reflecting the redundant phenotype that 393 ensures its pathogenicity. However, even considering the completeness of each sequence 394 395 and each operon, which was manually checked, the presence of virulence genes "per se" does not guarantee that all of them are expressed. Therefore, to evaluate the expression 396 of such genes, distinct phenotypic assays were performed and confirmed the virulence 397 genetic background of EC121. 398

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399

400 To test the bacterial ability to resist the serum complement activity, a two hours challenge assay was performed, in which one particle can traverse all circulatory system 401 402 at least twice, so a pathogen that resists complement's activity during this period, even with a small bacterial load, is, in theory, more capable of reaching different niches and 403 404 spread through the bloodstream or cause a bloodstream infection. The EC121 strain 405 resisted the NHS for two hours with an inoculum similar to the resistant E. coli J96 control strain, thus confirming the EC121 serum resistant phenotype. Serum complement is the 406 first immunological barrier to control pathogens that reach the bloodstream. Complement 407 408 resistance confers the possibility to spread to different body sites through the bloodstream. Hallström et al. [54] reported the relationship of bacterial resistance to NHS 409 410 with sepsis severity, and other authors have associated it to different kinds of 411 extraintestinal infections [55-57].

The ability to colonize and attach to surfaces is also an important trait for any 412 413 pathogenic bacteria; in this way, the assays carried out showed not only that EC121 strain 414 was able to adhere to and invade different cell lineages, including bladder T24 cells but that it could also attach and produce biofilm on abiotic surfaces. Peirano et al. [58] showed 415 416 that ExPEC negative ST101 MDR strains isolated from extraintestinal infections could interact with HEp-2 and Caco-2 cells more efficiently than strains belonging to the 417 epidemic clones ST131 and ST405, which are ExPEC positive [58]. Moreover, the 418 capacity to produce biofilm could confer to EC121 strain protection against the 419 immunological system and antibiotics, assisting its persistence and spread in the 420 environment. 421

Interestingly, many of the EC121 virulence factors detected in the draft genomeare related to diarrheagenic E. coli, even though none of them is implicated in DEC

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pathotype definition. The presence of many genetic features related to Shiga-toxin
producing *E. coli* (STEC) strains, *e.g.*, Hcp, EhaG, and Lpf-1₀₂₆, as well as the proximity
of EC121 to the clade that contains STEC strains and *E. coli* O104:H4 strain 2011C-3493,
draws attention to its potential to cause diarrhea.

428 Many features identified in the EC121 genome reinforce its linkage with STEC 429 strains. Phenotypically, EC121 expressed the O154:H25 serotype, but it possesses the 430 group IV capsule-encoding genes. This kind of capsular group is known to be 431 thermoresistant and expressed as K_{LPS} or O-antigen capsule. This could explain the 432 expression of the O154 instead of O100 antigen, despite of the presence of all genes 433 related to the expression of the latter. Interestingly O100 is a STEC related serogroup.

Moreover, many of the phage remains detected in the EC121 strain were related 434 to Stx-converting phages; besides, ST101 strains carrying the stx_{la} gene have been 435 436 reported in food sources [41,59]. In humans, ST101 strains were already reported in a patient with Hemolytic Uremic Syndrome (HUSEC) [59-61] and in non-bloody diarrhea 437 438 related to a Stx1a-producing E. coli strain [62]. Although only one of these strains had its genome sequenced, some ST101 E. coli strains recovered from animals and food were 439 found to carry stx1. Interestingly, most Stx-converting phages remains found in EC121 440 were similar to those commonly related to Stx1a production, corroborating with the 441 results presented here. The genome of three non-STEC strains from diarrheic patients was 442 found in GenBank, one of which was devoid of DEC virulence factors. Likewise, EC121 443 was isolated from bloodstream infection of one inpatient with persistent infectious 444 gastroenteritis which was probably the source of EC121 infection. Unfortunately, the E. 445 coli isolated from stool was not stored not allowing further comparison between 446 bloodstream and stool E. coli isolates. 447

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448	In summary, our extensive in silico and in vitro analyses of virulence and
449	resistance properties of <i>E. coli</i> strain EC121, an O154:H25 B1-ST101 strain isolated from
450	a human bloodstream infection, confirmed its virulence potential in both intestinal and
451	extraintestinal infections and increased the knowledge on the complex scenario of
452	virulence traits present in the MDR E. coli ExPEC negative group, contributing to the
453	potential development of strategies to control the spread of such pathogens.

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454 Material and Methods

455 **Bacterial strain**.

The E. coli strain EC121 was isolated from the blood of a patient diagnosed with 456 457 T-zone lymphoma and persistent infectious gastroenteritis, who had been hospitalized in a tertiary hospital located in the city of São Paulo, Brazil, in 2007. The patient died due 458 to septic shock two days after isolation of the EC121. The EC121 strain was kept frozen 459 460 in glycerol at -80°C in ENTEROBACTERIALES-EXTRAINTESTINAL-EPM-DMIP collection nº A27A7C3. The initial virulence and resistance characterization showed that 461 EC121 strain belonged to phylogroup B1, presented an MDR phenotype by routine 462 susceptibility testing, and harbored few known virulence genes (fim, hra, cvaC, ompA, 463 ompT, sitA, iroN). Furthermore, it was not considered a pathogenic strain because it 464 465 harbored none of the virulence factors commonly involved in the characterization of ExPEC (presence of two of the following genes: *papA/C*, *sfaDE*, *afaBC*,*iuc/iut*,*kpsMT*II) 466 [25]. 467

468

469 Total DNA extraction, whole-genome sequencing (WGS), and genome assembly.

The total bacterial DNA extraction was done using Wizard[®] Genomic DNA Purification Kit (Promega - USA) following the manufacturer's protocol. The extracted DNA was sequenced in an Illumina[®] Hiseq1500 (Illumina-USA), using the Rapid protocol to obtain 2x250 paired-end reads, according to the manufacturer's recommendations. Raw data were processed with Trimmomatic, and then the paired-end reads were assembled using SPAdes (version 3.12.0), with default parameters, and careful mode on [63].

477

478 Genomic analyses and annotation.

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The obtained draft genome was submitted to various online bioinformatics platforms of the Center of Genomic Epidemiology (CGE) pipeline to determine (i) sequence types [64] for both *E. coli* MLST schemes;(ii) serotype (SerotypeFinder 2.0)[65];(iii) presence and types of plasmid replicons (PlasmidFinder 2.0) [66];(iv) presence of resistance genes (ResFinder 3.1)[67];and (v) STEC virulence factors (VirulenceFinder 2.0) [68]. PHASTER [69] and PHAST [70] were used to detect bacteriophage sequences in each contig of the draft genome.

The genome was annotated using Pathosystems Resource Integration Center 486 (PATRIC) Comprehensive Genome Analysis service that uses RASTtk[71]. Each 487 488 sequence that was assigned as a virulence factor in PATRIC's database was manually submitted to BLAST/NCBI [72] and UniProt [73] to validate the virulence factors, to get 489 490 all information about the virulence genes detected, to evaluate the completeness of the 491 sequence and to determine its homology in relation to the RefSeq protein in Swiss-Prot. PATRIC [71] service was also used to build a phylogenetic tree using RAxML-VI-HPC 492 493 or Fast tree 2, where all representative E. coli genomes from different pathotypes were 494 used to construct the tree, as well as the deposited genomes of E. coli strains belonging to ST101 complex from diverse sources. The tree was built based on the concatenated 495 496 sequence of all shared proteins among all genomes using RAxML or FastTree2. To construct the phylogenetic tree of EC121 and representative E. coli pathotypes, two 497 Escherichia fergusonni strains ATCC35469 and NCTC12128 were used as outgroups. To 498 build ST101 complex phylogenetic trees, E. fergusonni strains ATCC35469, E. coli str 499 500 IAI1, E. coli O157:H7 str Sakai, E. coli O104:H4 str 2011c-3493 were used as outgroup. All phylogenetic tree final layout and annotation were done using iTOL v.4 [74]. The 501 502 annotated genome was submitted to MacSyFinder from Galaxy@Pasteur [75] to detect CAS-CRISPR sequence type and the presence of secretion systems [76,77]. 503

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504

505 Serum agglutination assay for typing the O and H antigens.

506 Serum agglutination assay was carried out following the standard methodology as 507 described by Orskov and Orskov [78] for serotyping, using O serum against O100 and 508 O154, and H serum against H25 provided by the Centers for Disease Control and 509 Prevention (CDC, USA).

510

511 Plasmid DNA extraction and analysis.

Bacteria were cultivated in Tryptic soy broth (TSB - Difco, USA) at 37°C, in a static stove for approximately 18 h, and 1 ml of the culture was submitted to plasmid alkaline extraction protocol [79]. The *E. coli* strain 39R861 was used as a plasmid mass reference ladder and as control of extraction [80]. The plasmid extract was submitted to electrophoresis in an agarose gel (0.8%) in Tris-Borate-EDTA (TBE) buffer, stained with ethidium bromide solution (5 μ g/mL), analyzed using Molecular Imager®Gel DocTM XR⁺ with Image LabTM Software System from Bio-Rad (USA).

519

520 In silico plasmid analysis.

521 To accomplish the plasmid analysis, the following strategies were used. First, the draft genome was submitted to CGE to identify the contigs that contained replicons; 522 subsequently, the assembled genome was analyzed by PlasFlow [81] to classify the 523 possible source of each contig (as chromosomal or plasmid). The contigs containing 524 525 replicons were analyzed using the Standard Nucleotide BLAST in NCBI, all the retrieves that had returned an e-value of 0.0 and with more than 90% of identity and coverage were 526 BLASTed against EC121 draft genome to find the best complete sequenced plasmid 527 related to those found in EC121. When the sum of the contigs identified was consistent 528

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with plasmid predicted size determined in the agarose gels electrophoresis, the contigs
were marked and signed as belonging to the same plasmid. In parallel, using Bowtie2
version2.2.6, raw reads were mapped to the best complete plasmid that better matched
with the EC121 draft to validate the analyses.

533

534 Data availability.

The EC121 Whole Genome Shotgun project has been deposited at DDBJ/ENA/GenBank under the accession VYQD00000000. The version described in this paper is version VYQD01000000.

538

539 Determination of the lowest bacterial inoculum which was resistant to human serum 540 complement.

541 To access the bacterial serum-resistance, the lowest bacterial inoculum resistant to serum was assessed. Lyophilized human complement serum (Sigma, USA) was 542 543 reconstituted in sterile phosphate-buffered saline (PBS). The assay was performed in 96-544 wells plates, where complement serum was distributed in each well (90 uL per well). Bacteria were grown overnight at 37°C, serially diluted (1:10) in complement serum until 545 10⁻¹⁰ and incubated at 37°C. Aliquots of 10 µL of each well were seeded onto MacConkey 546 agar plates after 30 min, 1 h and 2 h of incubation. Simultaneously, another assay was 547 performed with previously heat-inactivated serum as control. The E. coli strains J96 and 548 C600 were used as resistant and susceptible controls, respectively [82]. The lowest 549 550 bacterial inoculum resistant to human complement was determined by the last bacterial dilution which had bacterial growth onto MacConkey after the challenge. For each assay, 551 the initial bacterial inoculum was determined by diluting bacteria in PBS, plating in 552

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553 MacConkey agar and CFU counting. The data was reported in CFU/mL. Biological 554 assays were performed in triplicates.

555

556 Antimicrobial susceptibility testing.

The minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) was determined using the broth 557 microdilution method, following the European Committee on Antimicrobial 558 Susceptibility Testing (EUCAST) recommendations and breakpoints [83]. The following 559 antimicrobials (Sigma - USA) were tested: ampicillin, piperacillin/tazobactam, 560 ceftriaxone, ceftazidime, cefepime, aztreonam, ertapenem, imipenem, meropenem, 561 colistin, 562 ciprofloxacin. amikacin. gentamicin, tigecycline, polvmvxin B, trimethoprim/sulfamethoxazole, and chloramphenicol. E. coli ATCC 25922 and 563 Pseudomonas aeruginosa ATCC 27853 were used as quality control strains. 564

565

566 Biofilm formation on abiotic surfaces.

Biofilm formation was evaluated on polystyrene and glass surfaces as described by Lima et al [84] in an 24 hours assay. Each assay was performed in biological and experimental triplicates. The *E. coli* strain EAEC 042 and laboratory *E. coli* strain HB101 were used as positive and negative controls, respectively; in all assays, a non-inoculated well was used as control of dye retention.

572

573 Cell culture and maintenance.

HeLa (ATCC[®] CCL-2TM), intestinal Caco-2 (ATCC[®] HTB-37TM) and bladder T24 (ATCC[®] HTB-4TM) cell lineages were used to evaluate the ability of strain EC121 to interact with eukaryotic cells. HeLa and Caco-2 cells were cultured in DMEM, High Glucose, GlutaMaxTM (Gibco- ThermoFisher Scientific, USA), supplemented with 10%

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bovine fetal serum (BFS) (Gibco, USA), 1% non-essential amino acids (Gibco, USA), and 1x Penicillin-Streptomycin-Neomycin (PSN) antibiotic mixture (Gibco, USA), while T24 cells (ATCC HTB-4) were cultured in McCoy 5A (modified) media (Gibco, USA), supplemented with 10% of BFS and 1x PSN antibiotic mixture. All lineages were kept at 37°C in an atmosphere of 5% CO₂. For all assays, cell suspensions containing 10^5 cells/mL were seeded in 24-well plates, with or without glass coverslips for qualitative or quantitative assays, and cultured for 48 h (HeLa cells) or ten days (Caco-2 cells).

585

586 Adherence assay in HeLa, Caco-2, and T24 cells.

587 Adherence, fixing, and staining procedures were performed as described by Garcia et al. [85]. All cell lineages were washed three times with PBS and 1 mL of proper 588 media, supplemented with 2% BFS and 2% D-mannose, was added. The assay was also 589 590 performed without D-mannose to assess the impact of abolishment of the mannose sensitive-adherence via Type 1-fimbria. To evaluate the efficiency of adherence to the 591 592 cells, the assay was performed as described previously [85], except that after 3 h of 593 incubation the epithelial cells were washed thrice with sterile PBS, lysed with 1 mL of sterile bi-distilled water for 1 h, collected, diluted and plated onto MacConkey agar for 594 quantification. The assays were performed in biological and experimental triplicates and 595 the data were expressed as SEM. The E. coli C1845 and laboratory E. coli MA3456 596 strains were used as adherent and non-adherent control strains, respectively. 597

598

599 Short period invasion assay in HeLa, Caco-2, and T24 cells.

The invasion assays were carried out as described by Martinez et al. [86], with modifications, in two sets of plates simultaneously. Aliquots of 20 μ L or 40 μ L of overnight bacterial cultures were inoculated in each well-containing epithelial cells, as

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described above, and were incubated for 2 h, at 37°C, in a normal atmosphere. After this 603 604 period, one plate set was washed three times with PBS and incubated again with PBS containing 100 µg/mL of amikacin for 1 hour at 37°C, to kill all extracellular bacteria. 605 606 After the incubation period, the assay was washed three times to remove all antibiotics. cells were lysed with water, and the well contents were collected, diluted and plated onto 607 MacConkey agar to obtain the number of internalized bacteria. The other set was washed 608 609 with PBS three times, the cells were lysed, and contents of each well were collected, diluted and plated to obtain the total number of bacteria interacting with the cells in the 610 period. An aliquot of the PBS recovered from the last wash after incubation with amikacin 611 612 was collected and plated without dilution, to ensure that the treatment had killed all extracellular bacteria. The initial inoculum was determined for each strain by serial 613 dilutions, plating, and counting the colony-forming units per milliliter (CFU/mL) before 614 615 starting the assay. The invasion index was determined by the ratio between the number of internalized bacteria and the total number of interacting bacteria multiplied per 100. 616 617 The Shigella flexneri strain M90T was used as an invasive control [87] and the 618 Escherichia albertii strain 1551::eae was used as adherent and non-invasive control [88]. The assays were performed in biological and experimental triplicates, and data were 619 620 reported as SEM.

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625

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635

636 Ethics

The strain EC121 used in this research was obtained from clinical routine after laboratory procedures. No additional procedure was performed to acquire any bacterial strain, so the consent form was not required as determinate by the Brazilian National Health Council n° 466/12 and 510/16. All patient information was obtained from medical records, and the research was done with the approval of the local Research Ethics Committee of the Federal University of São Paulo - UNIFESP/São Paulo Hospital (CEP 2031/08 and CEP N 7140160317).

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646 **Competing interests**

- 647 A.C.G. has recently received research funding and/or consultation fees from Eurofarma,
- 648 MSD, Pfizer, and Zambon. Other authors have nothing to declare. This study was not
- 649 financially supported by any Diagnostic/Pharmaceutical company.

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650 Supporting information captions

- 651 Table S1 ST101 complex strains, NCBI accession, multidrug resistance genotype,
- source, and country of isolation.
- **Table S2** Type V Secretion system protein identified by MaSyFinder.
- **Table S3** Complete Genetic cluster identified in EC121 strain and their predicted
- 655 association with virulence.
- 656 Table S4 -Virulence genes identification and validation in NCBI and Swiss-Prot.
- **Table S5** Detailed information of all predicted phages detected in strain EC121.
- **Fig S1** Phylogenetic relationship among 62 human isolates from the ST101 complex
- **Fig S2** Phylogenetic relationship obtained from sequence alignment to plasmid IncHI2
- 660 pEC121.A, using BLASTn
- 661 Fig S3 Phylogenetic relationship obtained from sequence alignment to plasmid
- 662 IncFIB/IncFII pEC121.B, using BLASTn
- 663 Fig S4 Phylogenetic relationship obtained from sequence alignment to plasmid IncL/M
- 664 pEC121.C, using BLASTn
- 665 Fig S5 EC121 interaction and invasion assay in Eukaryotic cell lineages
- **Fig S6** EC121 adherence in eukaryotic cell linages HeLa, Caco-2, and T24.

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986 FIGURE LEGENDS

987 Fig 1 - EC121 Phylogenetic tree.

A phylogenetic tree was built with genomes of reference E. coli strains, of relevant 988 pathogenic strains from all E. coli pathotypes, and some strains from ST101, using 989 Maximum Likelihood-based algorithm (RAxML) in PATRIC. When known, the strain's 990 pathotype was in parenthesis, following the strain identification. Diarrheagenic E. coli 991 992 strains were in orange; Extraintestinal pathogenic E. coli strains were in red, commensal or strains that the origin was not described were in black. In **bold** and with purple label 993 background, the strain studied in present work. Bootstrap upper than 50 were informed 994 995 in the tree.

996

997 Fig 2 - ST101 complex phylogenetic tree.

998 The phylogenetic tree was built using 95 E. coli strains from ST101 complex (ST101, ST359, ST2480, ST5957, and ST6388) from diverse source and countries using all shared 999 1000 protein among them on FastTree2 to build the tree. E. coli strain IAI1, E. coli O157:H7 str Sakai, and E. coli O104:H4 str 2011c-3493 are used as outgroups. Bootstrap upper 1001 than 50 were informed in the tree. Label colors are related with isolates origin or host 1002 diseases, being Shiga toxin-producing E. coli (STEC) in orange independently of the 1003 origin; Diarrheagenic E. coli (DEC) strains in yellow; Extraintestinal pathogenic E. coli 1004 (ExPEC) strains in red; isolates from microbiota in brown; isolates from retail food or 1005 environment in green; strains that the origin was not described in black. One strain 1006 isolated from Crohn's disease is in purple. In bold and with purple label background, the 1007 strain of present work. * All strains that harbor AMR for 3 or more antimicrobial classes 1008 were designed as MDR. Other FQ (Fluoroquinolone) resistance genes detected were the 1009

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mobile genes *qepA* and *aac(6')-Ib-cr*. Mutations that confer resistance to FQ were not
considered to build the AMR information in this tree.

1012

1013 Fig 3 - CRISPR locus composition and biological systems assignment in EC121. A -Genomic architecture representation of CRISPR locus in the EC121 genome; the image 1014 was obtained in MacSvFinder from genome annotation; **B** - Representation of EC121 1015 1016 genome composition in subsystems based on protein biological data obtained in silico; C - EC121 genome schematic composition, based on annotation, ordered by contig size. In 1017 circle from outer to the inner, forward strand, reverse strand, RNA related genes, 1018 1019 antimicrobial resistance, virulence factors, GC content, and GC skew. The colors in forward and reverse strands correspond to the subsystems presented in B. Figures 2B and 1020 2C were obtained using the comprehensive genome analysis service at PATRIC. 1021

1022

Fig 4 - Plasmid content of the EC121strain. Negative image of the plasmid content of
EC121 strain obtained by alkaline extraction, followed by electrophoresis on 0.8%
agarose gel in TBE buffer. Approximate sizes were predicted based on the plasmid
migration in agarose gel.

1027

Fig 5 - Adherence and biofilm formation on abiotic surfaces. Biofilm assays were
performed in DMEM, at 37°C, for 24 h. A - Qualitative adherence assay on a glass
surface. Bacteria were stained with crystal violet, observed in optical microscopy (OM)
400 x; B - Quantitative adherence assay on polystyrene.

Figure 6 – Classical adherence assay on HeLa cell. The assays were performed in
biological and experimental triplicates in the presence of 2% D-Mannose, except when

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indicated; M-, assay performed in the absence of 2% D-Mannose. C1845 strain was used
as adherent control; *E. coli* strain C600 was used as weakly adherent control.

1036

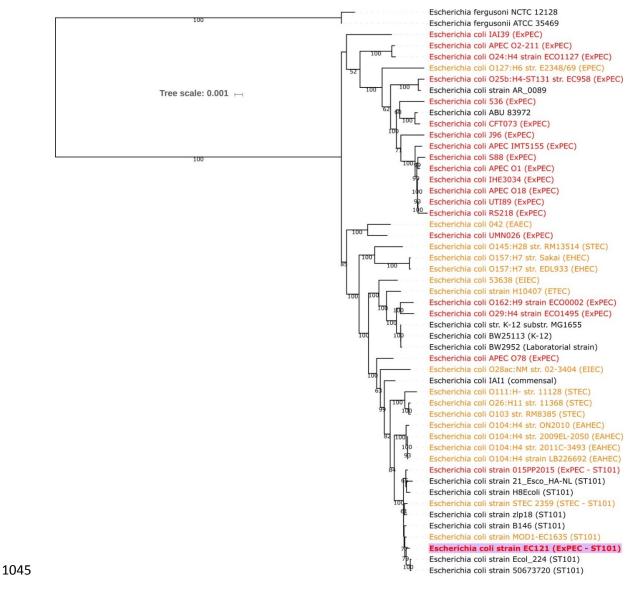
Fig 7– Interaction and invasion in different eukaryotic cell lineages. Short period
invasion quantitative assay was performed in HeLa, Caco-2 and T24 cells. All assays
were carried out in the absence of D-mannose, except for EC121 M+, where 2% Dmannose was added in the media; *S. flexneri* M90T was used as invasive control and *E. albertti*1551-2::eae was used as adherent non-invasive control in HeLa and Caco-2 cells.
Data shown are the mean of the relative interaction and invasion comparing with strains

against M90T in each cell lineage.

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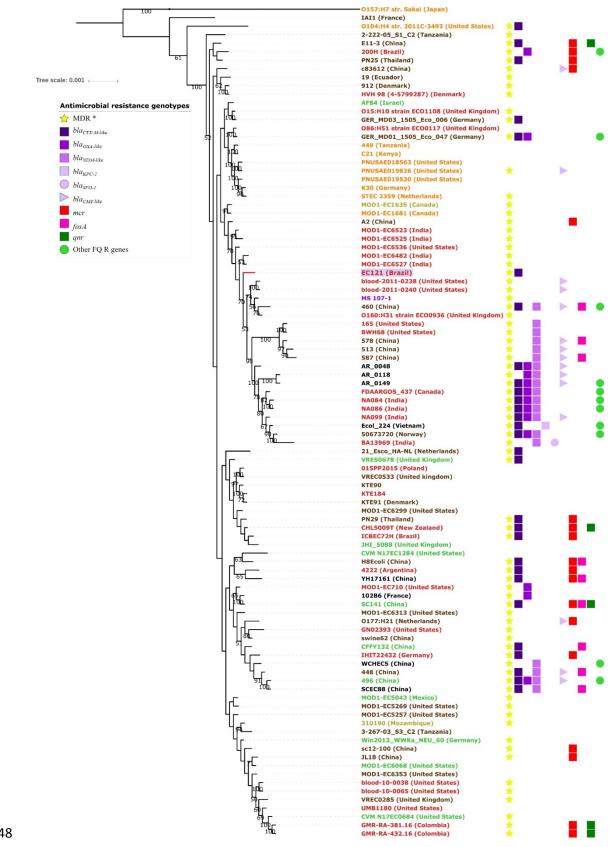
1044 Fig 1.



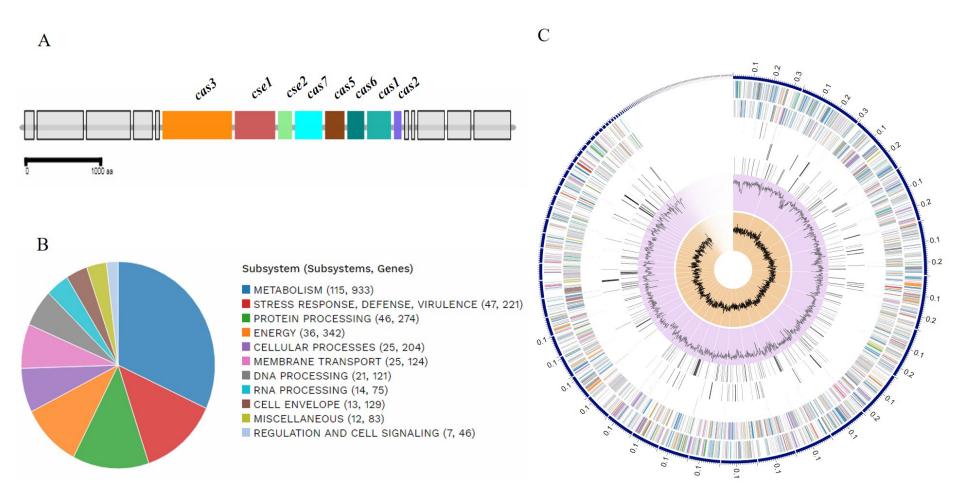
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1047 Fig 2.



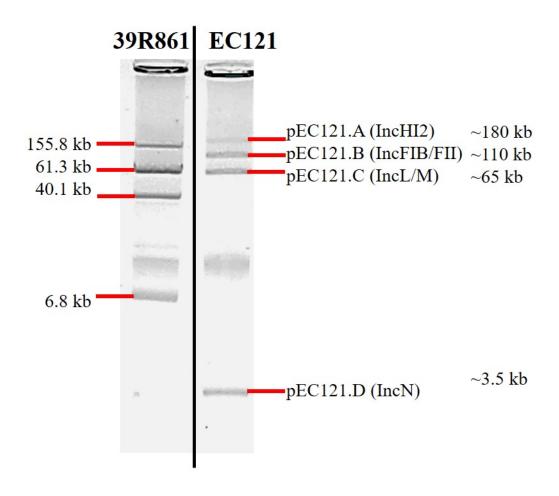




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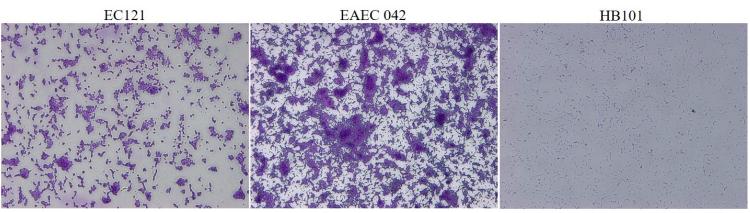
[Santos et al., 2019]

1052 Fig 4.

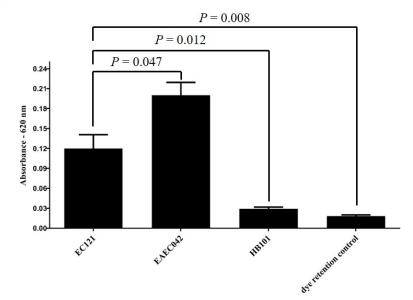


1054





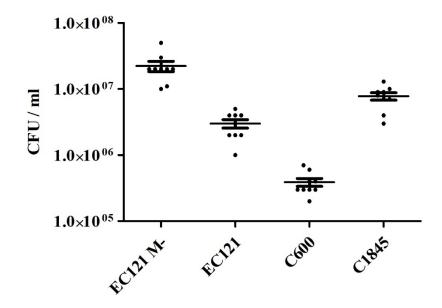
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1056 Fig 6.



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