EcOH: In silico serotyping of E. coli from short read data

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Abstract

The lipopolysaccharide (O) and flagellar (H) surface antigens of Escherichia coli are targets for serotyping that have traditionally been used to identify pathogenic lineages of E. coli. As serotyping has several limitations, public health reference laboratories are increasingly moving towards whole genome sequencing (WGS) for the rapid characterisation of bacterial isolates. Here we present a method to rapidly and accurately serotype E. coli isolates from raw, short read sequence data, leveraging the known genetic basis for the biosynthesis of O- and H-antigens. Our approach bypasses the need for de novo genome assembly by directly screening WGS reads against a curated database of alleles linked to known E. coli O-groups and H-types (the EcOH database) using the software package SRST2. We validated our approach by comparing in silico results with those obtained via serological phenotyping of 197 enteropathogenic (EPEC) isolates. We also demonstrated the utility of our method to characterise enterotoxigenic E. coli (ETEC) and uropathogenic E. coli (UPEC) epidemic clone ST131, and for in silico serotyping of foodborne outbreak-related isolates in the public GenomeTrakr database.

Introduction

Differentiation of isolates of Escherichia coli is commonly performed by serological typing (serotyping) of the highly polymorphic somatic- (O) and flagellar- (H) antigens (DebRoy et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2003). The O-antigen is an integral part of the lipopolysaccharide (LPS) in the outer membrane of Gram-negative bacteria, whilst the H-antigen projects...
beyond the cell wall and provides cell motility (Li et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2003). Currently there are 182 E. coli O-groups and 53 H-types recognised by serotyping (Croxen et al., 2013; Iguchi et al., 2014; Joensen et al., 2015). Serotyping involves performing a series of agglutination reactions with panels of antisera, and is expensive in terms of both labour and reagent costs (Achtman et al., 2012; Fratamico et al., 2009). In addition, the interpretation of these assays is subjective and relies on antisera that vary in titre and specificity according to the source and integrity of the serum. Further, a significant proportion of E. coli isolates (approximately one quarter) are serologically ‘untypeable’ due to cross-reactivity or a lack of reaction with available antisera (DebRoy et al., 2011). For these reasons there has been a shift away from serological phenotyping of E. coli, towards inference of O- and H- genotypes using molecular methods (Jenkins, 2015).

O-antigen biosynthesis in E. coli is encoded in gene clusters that are typically located between the chromosomal housekeeping genes galF and gnd/ugd (Iguchi et al., 2014; Liu et al., 1996). The genes required to synthesise this antigen fall into three classes: (i) sugar synthesis genes, (ii) glycosyl transferase genes, and (iii) O-antigen processing genes (Samuel & Reeves, 2003). Two distinct O-antigen pathways are known: (i) the Wzx/Wzy-dependent pathway, encoded by the wzx (O-antigen flippase) and wzy (O-antigen polymerase) genes, and (ii) the ABC transporter pathway, encoded by wzm and wzt (Feng et al., 2004; Samuel & Reeves, 2003). In general, variation in these gene sequences correlates with structural variation in the carbohydrate residues that make up each O-antigen (DebRoy et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2003). Because of this, the sequences of these genes can be used for O-antigen genotyping (Joensen et al., 2015; Mentzer et al., 2014). Nevertheless, genotype-phenotype relationships for some O-groups are unexpectedly complex. For example, two distinct gene clusters are associated with the same O45 serotype (Plainvert et al., 2007), whereas some distinct O-antigens are encoded by near-identical gene clusters (Iguchi et al., 2014).

H-antigen specificity is determined by flagellin, which is the protein subunit of flagella. This protein is encoded by fliC in 43 of the 53 serologically defined H-types (Wang et al., 2003). PCR detection of fliC alleles has been used for molecular H-typing for some time (Wang et al., 2003). However, some E. coli isolates have an alternative flagellar phase, due to the presence of an additional flagellin gene (flnaA, flIA, fmlA or flkA), similar to those found in Salmonella species (Feng et al., 2008; Ratiner, 1998; Ratiner et al., 2010; Tominaga, 2004; Tominaga & Kutsukake, 2007).
As the cost of high-throughput short read DNA sequencing declines, public health laboratories are increasingly moving away from phenotyping and towards whole genome sequence (WGS) based typing of bacteria including *E. coli* (Joensen *et al.*, 2015; Kwong *et al.*, 2015). Given the strong genetic basis for O- and H-antigenic variation in *E. coli*, the availability of genome data provides a valuable opportunity to infer serotypes at little or no additional cost. Here we present a method to rapidly and accurately serotype *E. coli* isolates from raw, short read sequence data, by screening reads directly against a curated database of alleles linked to known *E. coli* O-groups and H-types (the EcOH database, presented here) using the software package SRST2 (Inouye *et al.*, 2014). The EcOH database can also be used to infer serotypes from assembled genome data using BLAST or other sequence comparison tools, which will become increasingly useful as long-read sequence data become more common. We validated our approach by comparing in silico predicted serotypes to those determined phenotypically in a public health reference laboratory, and demonstrated the utility of in silico serotyping to characterise more than 1,000 *E. coli* isolates including enteropathogenic *E. coli* (EPEC), enterotoxigenic *E. coli* (ETEC), the uropathogenic *E. coli* (UPEC) clone ST131 and foodborne outbreak-associated isolates of *E. coli* deposited in the public GenomeTrakr database.

**Methods**

*Curation of the EcOH database*

The EcOH database of O- and H-type encoding sequences was initially constructed in 2014 from publically available sequences identified in GenBank by reviewing the literature on the PCR detection of *E. coli* O- and H-types (DebRoy *et al.*, 2011; Ratiner *et al.*, 2010; Wang *et al.*, 2003). This was updated by a further review in May 2015 (Iguchi *et al.*, 2014; Joensen *et al.*, 2015). Twelve novel O loci identified in the present study were also included. The resulting EcOH database includes sequences of alleles for wzm and wzt, or wzx and wzy, covering 180 O-groups; and fliC, flmA, fmlA, flkA and fllA allele sequences covering all 53 known H-types. Details of all sequences in the EcOH database are provided in Table S1. The EcOH database is available at https://github.com/katholt/srst2.

*Publically available sequence data used in this study*

Details of the short read Illumina data used in this study are provided in Table 1. A total of 41 complete *E. coli* genomes were downloaded from PATRIC (Wattam *et al.*, 2013), with the accession numbers given in Table S2. Serologically determined O-groups were identified in the GenBank entries or associated literature for 40 of these genomes (and H-types for 20) (Table S2). The Achtman multi-locus sequence typing (MLST) scheme for *E. coli* (Wirth *et al.*, 2011).
al., 2006), now hosted at Warwick University (http://mlst.warwick.ac.uk/mlst/dbs/Ecoli), was downloaded using the getmlst.py script included in the SRST2 package (https://github.com/katholt/srst2). An SRST2-formatted version of the ARG-ANNOT antimicrobial resistance gene database (Gupta et al., 2013) was downloaded from https://github.com/katholt/srst2.

**Assembly and BLAST analysis**

100 bp PE Illumina reads were generated previously for 197 EPEC isolates (Ingle et al, in press) and assembled using Velvet and Velvet Optimiser (Zerbino & Birney, 2008). Reads and assemblies are available in the European Nucleotide Archive (ENA) under ERP001141 (Ingle et al, in press). Here, we generated alternative assemblies using SPAdes (v3) (Bankevich et al., 2012) with error correction and kmer lengths of 21, 33, 55, 77 and 89. The resulting contigs were extended with the scaffolder SSPACE (Boetzer et al., 2011); gaps within the scaffolds were closed using GapFiller (Boetzer & Pirovano, 2012) and then further extended with AlignGraph (Bao et al., 2014).

Both sets of assemblies were screened against the EcOH database using BLAST+ (blastn). A genotype call was made where a hit was identified with ≥90% coverage of a query sequence at ≥90% nucleotide identity. Note that as the SPAdes assemblies yielded fewer genomes with BLAST+ hits to O-antigen loci, these assemblies were discarded and all results were reported as comparisons of SRST2 data to assembly-based analysis using the Velvet Optimiser assemblies. This makes the comparison as generous as possible towards the competing method of assembly-based analysis.

**SRST2 analysis**

SRST2 was run with default parameter settings, such that a genotype call reflects detection of reads covering ≥90% of the length of a query locus at ≥90% nucleotide identity. Where multiple alleles of the same locus appears in the database, SRST2 reports the best-scoring allele as the genotype call (Inouye et al., 2014). A confident genotype call is defined as one exceeding the minimum depth cut-offs (Inouye et al., 2014). Here we used the SRST2 default values of ≥5x mean read depth across the query locus to define a confident call.

**Phenotypic characterisation of 197 EPEC isolates**

Isolates were subcultured on Luria-Bertani agar and incubated overnight at 37°C before being submitted to the National E. coli Reference Laboratory at the Microbiological Diagnostic Unit Public Health Laboratory (MDU PHL) in Melbourne, Australia, for serotyping.
O- and H- serotyping utilised the standard tube agglutination tests, adapted for U-bottomed microtitre trays (Chandler & Bettelheim, 1974; Kauffmann, 1944).

**Characterisation of potential novel O-antigens**

Where an O-group was determined via serological testing of an isolate, but no wzx/wzy or wzm/wzt genes were detected in the corresponding isolate’s genome, the *de novo* genome assembly was interrogated to identify potential novel O-antigen loci. For each such isolate the assembled contig containing the genes *galF* and *gnd*, which typically flank the O-antigen locus, was identified using BLAST and extracted using EMBOSS (Rice et al., 2000). The intervening sequences were annotated with Prokka (v1.11) (Seemann, 2014), using translated protein sequences from the EcOH database as the preliminary annotation source. We then used ACT (Carver et al., 2008) to visually compare the annotated sequences with full-length reference sequences for the corresponding O-group that had been identified by serology. Putative wzx and wzy alleles for these O-groups were identified based on (i) the annotation, (ii) sequence homology with the reference O-group sequences, and (iii) the presence of transmembrane domains identified using TMHMM (Krogh et al., 2001). These putative wzx and wzy gene sequences were added to the EcOH database with the suffix ‘var1, var2’, etc to differentiate them from the prototypical alleles (e.g. the novel wzx gene detected in isolates that were serologically phenotyped as O116 are labelled ‘wzx-O116var1’, whereas the prototypical O116 wzx gene is labelled wzx-O116, see Table S1).

**Analysis and visualisation of O- and H- antigen diversity and MLST data**

For the EPEC and ETEC pathotypes, population structure was determined by constructing neighbour-joining trees based on Hamming distances between MLST allele profiles inferred from the genomes using SRST2. O- and H-types were plotted against these trees using *R* (plotting code is available in the *plotSRST2data.R* script within the SRST2 package at https://github.com/katholt/srst2). Diversity analyses, including Simpson index calculations and rarefaction plots, were performed using the *vegan* package for *R* (Oksanen et al., 2015).

**Analysis of ST131 UPEC**

Illumina reads from a total of 169 isolates (accession numbers in Table 1) were mapped to the ST131 reference genome, SE15 (accession AP009378) (Toh et al., 2010) using the mapping-based pipeline RedDog (available at https://github.com/katholt/RedDog). Briefly, RedDog uses Bowtie2 (Langmead et al., 2009) to map short reads to the reference genome then uses SAMtools (Li et al., 2009) to call SNPs (Phred score ≥30, read depth ≥5x); consensus alleles at all SNP sites identified in the isolate collection are then extracted from
each read set using SAMtools (Li et al., 2009) (Phred score ≥20 and unambiguous homozygous base call; otherwise allele call set to unknown ‘-’). The resulting SNPs were filtered to include only those located within common genes (defined as genes with ≥95% coverage in ≥95% of the ST131 genomes analysed), yielding a total of 38,213 SNPs. The resulting SNP alignment was used as input to infer a maximum likelihood (ML) tree using RAxML (yielding 100% bootstrap support for all major nodes). The phylogeny was outgroup-rooted using the group comprising four closely related ST95 isolates (these had originally been identified as ST131 in PCR analysis for rfb and pabB genes, before MLST confirmed they were ST95 (Petty et al., 2014)).

Analysis of GenomeTrakr

GenomeTrakr (NCBI BioProject: PRJNA183844) is a public repository of genome data from foodborne pathogens submitted by various laboratories including the US Food and Drug Administration and the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. It includes raw Illumina reads and a kmer-based phylogeny of E. coli read sets, which is updated daily to incorporate newly submitted data. A subset of the most recently submitted read sets, together with the kmer tree, were downloaded from GenomeTrakr on 5 June, 2015. A subtree representing relationships between the 300 isolates was extracted from the full kmer tree, by removing all other tips from the tree using R packages ape (Paradis et al., 2004) and Geiger (Harmon et al., 2007).

Results and Discussion

To identify unique sequences encoding E. coli O- and H- antigens, we began by curating a database (named EcOH) of 551 unique sequences representing known O- and H-types of E. coli, incorporating data from Iguchi et al. 2014 and several reviews (see Methods). Of the 182 currently recognised O-serogroups of E. coli, 180 corresponding genotypes were represented in the database by gene sequences for either wzx and wzy, or wzm and wzt. The two exceptions were O57 and O14, as isolates with these O-groups lack any of these genes and harbour only small O-antigen gene clusters, with no known polymerase or flippase genes, and only the housekeeping genes galF, gnd and hisI together with ugd and wzz which is not sufficient to delineate these O-groups. The EcOH database also includes sequences for all 53 known H-types, allowing for the detection of both fliC and non-fliC flagellin genes, and for the identification of isolates that may be able to undergo flagellum phase variation (Tominaga, 2004; Tominaga & Kutsukake, 2007).
As a preliminary validation of the EcOH database, we used it to screen 40 publically available *E. coli* genome assemblies that had reported O-groups. For 38 of these genomes the expected O-group (or O-cluster based on near-identical gene clusters (Iguchi *et al.*, 2014)) was detected (Table S2). The two exceptions were *E. coli* isolates SE11 and SE15, which are reported in the literature as O152 and O150, respectively (Oshima *et al.*, 2008; Toh *et al.*, 2010). *In silico* analysis of these genomes identified wzx and wzy alleles for O16 and O173, respectively, and no BLAST+ hits to the alleles corresponding to the reported serogroups O152 and O150. Reported H-types were available for 20 of the reference genomes and we identified the expected H-alleles in all of these (Table S2), including both *fliC* H4 and *flnA* H17 in strain p12, consistent with a previous report of dual flagellin loci in this isolate (Ratiner *et al.*, 2010).

**Comparison of serological phenotyping to *in silico* serotype prediction**

We compared *in silico* serotyping (i.e., O- and H-genotyping) to serological phenotyping of 197 EPEC isolates. All isolates were serotyped by a national reference laboratory which yielded phenotypic identification of O-group for 144 isolates (73%; total 44 O-groups). The remaining 53 isolates were assessed either as O-rough (n=9, the isolates auto-agglutinated or were hyper-mucoid), or as O-non-typeable (n=44, agglutination did not occur with any antiserum). H-types were phenotypically identified for 128 isolates (65% of those tested; 18 different H-types). The remaining 69 isolates were identified as H- (n=67, indicating that the isolate was non-motile) or H rough (n=2, indicating non-specific agglutination with H-antiserum).

The 197 isolates were previously subjected to whole genome sequencing using the Illumina HiSeq platform (Ingle *et al.*, 2015, in press). We compared two different strategies for *in silico* assignment of O- and H-types using the EcOH database: (i) typing direct from reads using SRST2, and (ii) *de novo* assembly (using Velvet Optimiser) followed by identification of alleles via BLAST+ (see Methods). Results are summarised in Figure 1 with the full results reported in Tables S3-S5. SRST2 analysis yielded matching (i.e., same O-group) confident genotype calls at two O-determining loci (either wzx and wzy, or wzm and wzt) for 167 isolates (85%), and at one O-determining locus for a further 15 isolates. Thus, a total of 182 (93%) isolates were genotyped using SRST2, including 137/144 (95%) of those that were serologically typeable and 45/53 (85%) of those that were not (i.e., those that the reference laboratory identified as O-non-typeable or O-rough) (Fig. 1(a)). In comparison, BLAST+ analysis of the Velvet Optimiser assemblies yielded full-length (>90% coverage) hits to ≥1 O-gene locus for 180 (91%) isolates, including 135/144 (94%) of serologically typeable isolates and 45/53 (85%) of non-typeables (Fig. 1(c)). Alternative assemblies generated using
SPAdes yielded fewer hits, with only 91/144 (64%) serologically typed isolates yielding full-length (>90% coverage) BLAST+ hits to any O-gene in the EcOH database. These assemblies were not analysed further.

Of the 15 isolates for which SRST2 analysis did not yield a serotype call, 7 isolates had serological O-groups but no high confidence calls for any wzx/wzy or wzm/wzt genes (serologically typed as O2 [n=3], O103 [n=1], O108 [n=1], O124 [n=1] or O153 [n=1]). For 6 of 7 of these isolates, no O-antigen genes were detected in the assemblies either; for one isolate (serologically O103), SRST2 yielded a low-confidence call of O111, while assembly analysis detected O103 wzx and wzy alleles (Table S3). The remaining 8 isolates had no serotype detected via phenotypic or genotypic assays.

Of the 144 isolates that yielded a serological O-phenotype, genotyping based on confident SRST2 calls at ≥1 O-gene locus matched the serologically identified O-group for 121 isolates (84%), a different O-group for 16 isolates (11%; 15/16 with matching calls for both O loci) and no result for 7 isolates (5%) (Table S3). Of the 15 isolates for which SRST2 calls agreed at the two O loci but did not match the serological phenotype, assembly analysis identified the same O-group as SRST2 in 14/15 cases, and the serological O-type in 1/15 cases. There was only one isolate for which assembly-based analysis identified the same O-group as phenotyping when SRST2 had no result, and there were also two cases where SRST2 analysis identified the serological O-group and BLAST+ did not.

The possible reasons for mismatches between O-antigen phenotype and genotype include multiple genetic variants manifesting in the same phenotype (for example O45, see (Plainvert et al., 2007)) and/or atypical genetic variation such as multi-copy genes or novel genes. To explore these possibilities we manually inspected the genome assemblies of isolates yielding conflicting genotype/phenotype calls and identified twelve novel O-antigen loci, which were added to the EcOH database with the suffix ‘var1, var2’ etc., to differentiate them from prototypical alleles. (Fig. S1). For example, three isolates phenotyped as O116 or O33-related, had detectable wzx O116 genes but no wzy genes. Interestingly, the wzx alleles were detected at high depth (~100x) and were highly divergent from the reference O116 wzx allele (~10% nucleotide divergence, the maximum limit of detection we used for genotyping). We hypothesised that these isolates may carry wzy genes that are genetically distant from the prototypical alleles that were included in our database, but which nonetheless result in similar phenotypic agglutination patterns to isolates carrying more prototypical genes. Investigation of the corresponding genome assemblies revealed a novel O-antigen locus, including novel wzx and wzy variants that were 10% and 40% divergent,
respectively, from the prototypical O116 gene sequences (Fig. S1(a)). The novel wzx and wzy sequences were labelled O116var1 and added to the EcOH database to facilitate identification of this novel type in future. In the genomes of four isolates genotyped as O8 but phenotyped as O153 (Table S3), we confirmed the presence of O8 wzx and wzy alleles, but also identified a putative wzx homolog (with 76% identity to O83) outside the O-antigen region which, if expressed, could potentially alter the O-antigen phenotype (Fig. S1(b)). Interestingly, an isolate which displayed the O153 phenotype but had no O-locus hits in the EcOH database, also had two putative novel wzx genes (53% nucleotide similarity to O83 and 57% to O170, respectively), one of which was similar to the additional wzx gene identified in the genomes of the O153 phenotype/O8 genotype isolates (Fig. S1(b)).

H-typing using the EcOH database yielded similar results to O-typing. SRST2 analysis returned 127 confident calls that matched the phenotype in 119 of 128 (93%) of the serologically H-typed isolates, and gave confident genotype calls in 67 of 69 (97%) non-motile (serologically H-) isolates (Fig. 1(b), Tables S4-5). In contrast, assembly analysis identified the expected genes in only 112/128 (88%) of serologically H-typed isolates and 59/69 (86%) of non-motile isolates (Fig. 1(d), Tables S4-5). The high rate of genotype calls amongst phenotypically H-non-motile isolates is likely due to a lack of flagellin expression during serotyping, which does not affect genotyping. Only two isolates had no flagellin genes detected from the sequence data. These were non-motile and may be the only isolates that genuinely lack the ability to express flagella.

**Applications of rapid in silico serotyping and multi-locus sequence typing of E. coli**

The data above show that the use of SRST2 and the EcOH database to type raw Illumina read sets can provide rapid *in silico* serotyping, that outperforms assembly-dependent analysis (especially for H-typing) and is largely predictive of results obtained from serological typing while yielding fewer ‘untypeable’ results. In addition to the EcOH database, other databases, such as those used for multi-locus sequence typing (MLST) and antibiotic resistance gene profiles, can be interrogated using SRST2 (Inouye et al., 2014), with a single SRST2 analysis returning MLST, serotype and antimicrobial resistance gene results in a few minutes (approximately 5-10 minutes for paired Illumina data at mean read depth 50-100x, see (Inouye et al., 2014)). We therefore sought to demonstrate the utility of this approach for the rapid characterisation of *E. coli* genomes, including serotyping, MLST and antibiotic resistance gene profiling, in a variety of contexts including the investigation of EPEC and ETEC pathotype populations, the epidemic UPEC clone ST131, and isolates associated with foodborne outbreaks.
SRST2 analysis of the 197 EPEC plus 360 recently sequenced ETEC isolates (Mentzer et al., 2014) highlighted that both pathotypes comprise a diversity of phylogenetic lineages and serotypes (Fig. 2, Fig. S2). A total of 46 O- and 20 H-types amongst the EPEC isolates; and 54 O- and 31 H-types amongst the ETEC isolates (Fig. 2, Fig. S2). These analyses suggest that H-types are more stably maintained within E. coli clones than are O-groups (Fig. 3), consistent with observations of serological diversity in Salmonella enterica (Achtman et al., 2012). Interestingly, some MLST sequence types (STs) showed greater evidence of O-group diversity than others (Figs. 2-3, Fig S2), particularly ST29 and ST517 (EPEC); ST155, ST173 and ST23 (ETEC); and ST10 (both EPEC and ETEC). ST10 was frequent amongst both EPEC and ETEC and displayed high O-group diversity in both pathotypes (Simpson index = 0.62 in EPEC, 0.84 in ETEC; see Fig. 3). Interestingly, all ST10 EPEC carried H40 flagella, but ST10 ETEC had 8 different H-types (Simpson index = 0.79; see Fig. 3). This high diversity within ST10 is consistent with the fact that it was one of the first E. coli lineages identified as harbouring multiple pathotypes as well as commensal strains (Mentzer et al., 2014; Wirth et al., 2006).

Next we used SRST2 and the EcOH database to analyse Illumina read sets for 169 UPEC isolates previously reported as belonging to the epidemic UPEC clone ST131 (Petty et al., 2014; Price et al., 2013) (Fig. 4). Most isolates were confirmed as ST131, although 6 were single locus variants of ST131, including four belonging to ST95 (consistent with the original report on these genomes (Petty et al., 2014)). In silico serotyping identified the majority of isolates (90%) as O25:H4, which is the reported O-group for this epidemic clone (Nicolas-Chanoine et al., 2008). However, we also identified 14 isolates (8%) as O16:H5; these clustered together tightly in the core genome phylogeny, indicating they represent a sub-clone of ST131 in which a change of serotype has occurred (Fig. 4). The O16:H5 sub-clone carried fewer resistance genes than other ST131 genomes and corresponds to ST131 Clade A, which has been identified as an ancestral sub-lineage of ST131 that is distinct from the sub-lineage which is now globally disseminated (Petty et al., 2014). O-antigen variation within ST131 was detected in the original genome reports (Petty et al., 2014; Price et al., 2013), but was not explored in detail. Our data highlight the utility of in silico serotyping to illuminate on-going microevolution in important epidemic clones of E. coli, including change of serotype, which could confound serological identification of outbreak-related isolates.

Finally, we performed in silico serotyping of 300 foodborne outbreak-associated E. coli genomes recently deposited by public health laboratories into the GenomeTrakr project (NCBI BioProject accession: PRJNA183844). Figure 5 shows our in silico serotyping results overlaid on the GenomeTrakr kmer-based tree. Environmental isolates displayed a diversity
of ST, O- and H-types, whereas most clinical isolates belonged to one of six clonal lineages, each characterised by a specific serotype (Fig. 5). The predominant lineage amongst these recently-deposited isolates was the well characterised enterohaemorrhagic E. coli (EHEC) lineage ST11, O157:H7. Other lineages included ST16 O111:H8, ST655 O121:H19, and ST232 O145:H- (in which no serotype variation was detected), as well as clonal complexes (CC) CC21 O26:H11 and CC17 O103:H2 (both of which displayed some serotype variation, see Fig. 5). For 227 isolates (76%), matching confident calls were obtained for both O-antigen genes, whilst 272 isolates (91%) had a confident call for at least one allele. In most cases where a low-confidence O-antigen genotype call was made (due to low read depth), the call was for O157 alleles; the position of these genomes within the ST11 O157:H7 lineage of the kmer tree suggests that these low-confidence calls of these genomes are likely to be correct. Only 7 isolates (2%) yielded no genotype calls for the H-locus, indicating they are likely to be non-motile. These data demonstrate the utility of our method for in silico serotype prediction of E. coli sequenced for the investigation of foodborne outbreaks or other purposes.

Conclusion

This study has demonstrated that E. coli O- and H-genotypes can be rapidly and accurately extracted from whole genome data using the free SRST2 software and a new publicly available database, EcOH. The method improves on both (i) serological phenotyping, which is resource intensive in terms of time, labour and reagent costs, and fails to type up to one third of E. coli isolates, and (ii) assembly-based approaches for in silico genotyping of Illumina data, particularly for H-typing, which are more computationally expensive and are highly dependent on the quality of the sequence data. Importantly, since SRST2 works on raw reads and can readily be used to extract other useful genotyping information in addition to serotype, including MLST, antimicrobial resistance and virulence genes (Inouye et al., 2014), it lends itself to integration with robust assembly-free pathogen genome characterisation pipelines. Our data demonstrate that this approach can be used to readily infer serotypes from genome data currently being produced by GenomeTrakr and other public health networks as part of routine investigation of foodborne E. coli outbreaks. This could be useful in identifying the emergence of novel serotypes within outbreak clades that may signal a shift in the pathogen population during its dissemination (as we identified in ST131 UPEC), and importantly will provide backwards compatibility with the wealth of serotype data that is currently available from historical outbreak investigations.
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Abbreviations

CC clonal complex
EHEC enterohaemorrhagic Escherichia coli
EPEC enteropathogenic Escherichia coli
ETEC enterotoxigenic Escherichia coli
ML Maximum Likelihood
MLST multi-locus sequence typing
SNP single nucleotide polymorphism
UPEC uropathogenic Escherichia coli

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## Figures and Tables

### Table 1. Datasets used to assess accuracy and utility of the EcOH database

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<td>Genome Trakr</td>
<td></td>
<td>PRJNA183844 (NCBI)</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>Diverse</td>
<td>Food and Drug Administration, USA</td>
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Figure Legends

Figure 1. Comparison of serotype calls in 197 EPEC isolates
Venn diagrams showing the number of isolates yielding confident serotype calls for O-group or H-antigen by serological phenotyping vs. SRST2 analysis of reads (confident call at ≥1 O-antigen locus or at H locus; a-b), or vs. BLAST+ analysis of de novo assemblies (hit to ≥1 O-antigen locus or at H locus; c-d).

Figure 2. Serotype and sequence type diversity amongst 197 EPEC isolates
(a) Tree of EPEC isolates based on clustering of MLST allele profiles. Tips are labelled with sequence types. (b) Distribution of O-groups determined by SRST2 analysis using the EcOH database. The 12 most frequent O-groups are highlighted in colour with the less frequent O-groups shown in grey. (c) Distribution of H-types detected by SRST2 analysis using the EcOH database. The 10 most frequent H-types are highlighted in colour with the less frequent H-types shown in grey.

Figure 3. Accumulation curves for O-groups and H-types amongst EPEC and ETEC isolates
Accumulation of O-groups (a, c) or H-types (b, d) detected as more isolates in each lineage (ST) of EPEC (a, b) or ETEC (c, d) are sampled.

Figure 4. In silico prediction of serotype and antimicrobial resistance for UPEC ST131 isolates
Core genome SNP tree for 170 isolates, outgroup-rooted using ST95 isolates. Serotype and acquired antimicrobial resistance gene profiles, detected using SRST2, are demarcated on the rings surrounding the phylogeny; note low-confidence serotype calls are shown in paler colours.

Figure 5. In silico prediction of serotype and sequence type from GenomeTrakr data
Kmer-based tree obtained from the GenomeTrakr project; common sequence types (STs) or clonal complexes (CC), identified by SRST2, are highlighted and labelled. Rings show predicted O-type (inner ring) and H-type (outer ring).
H-type calls (n = 197)

O-group calls (n = 197)

SRST2 Phenotype

BLAST+ Phenotype

(121 matched Phenotype)

(119 matched Phenotype)

SRST2 Phenotype

BLAST+ Phenotype

(121 matched Phenotype)

(112 matched Phenotype)