**Norwegian patients and retail chicken meat share cephalosporin-resistant *Escherichia coli* and IncK/*bla*CMY-2 resistance plasmids**

E.S. Berg1,\*, A.L. Wester1, J. Ahrenfeldt2, S.S. Mo3, J.S. Slettemeås3, M. Steinbakk1, Ø. Samuelsen4,5, N. Grude6, G.S. Simonsen4,7, I.H. Løhr8, S.B. Jørgensen9, S. Tofteland10, O. Lund2, U.R. Dahle1, M. Sunde1,3

1) Domain of Infection Control and Environmental Health, Norwegian Institute of Public Health, Oslo, Norway,

2) Center for Biological Sequence Analysis, Department of Systems Biology, Technical University of Denmark, Kongens Lyngby, Denmark

3) Department of Diagnostic services, Norwegian Veterinary Institute, Oslo, Norway

4) Norwegian National Advisory Unit on Detection of Antimicrobial Resistance, Department of Microbiology and Infection Control, University Hospital of North Norway, Tromsø, Norway

5) Research Group for Microbial Pharmacology and Population Biology, Department of Pharmacy, University of Tromsø - The Arctic University of Norway, Tromsø, Norway

6) Department of Clinical Microbiology, Vestfold Hospital Trust, Tønsberg, Norway

7) Research group for Host-Microbe Interactions, Faculty of Health Sciences, University of Tromsø - The Arctic University of Norway, Tromsø, Norway

8) Department of Medical Microbiology, Stavanger University Hospital, Stavanger, Norway

9) Department of Clinical Microbiology and Infection Control, Akershus University Hospital, Lørenskog, Norway

10) Department of Clinical Microbiology, Sørlandet Hospital, Kristiansand, Norway

Running title:

Humans and poultry share cephalosporin resistant *E. coli*.

Keywords:

Zoonotic transfer of cephalosporin resistant *E. coli*, plasmid-mediated AmpC transmission, chicken meat, urinary tract infections

Corresponding author:

E. S. Berg

Domain of Infection Control and Environmental Health

Norwegian Institute of Public Health

PO Box 4404 Nydalen

0403 Oslo, Norway

Phone: +47 21076288

Fax: +47 22353605

E-mail: [einarsverre.berg@fhi.no](mailto:einarsverre.berg@fhi.no)

**Abstract**

**Objectives:** In 2012 and 2014 the Norwegian monitoring programme for antimicrobial resistance in the veterinary and food production sectors (NORM-VET) showed that 124 of a total of 406 samples (31%) of Norwegian retail chicken meat was contaminated with extended-spectrum cephalosporin-resistant *Escherichia coli*. The aim of this study was to compare selected cephalosporin-resistant *E. coli* from humans and poultry to determine their genetic relatedness based on whole genome sequencing (WGS).

**Methods:** *E. coli* representing three prevalent cephalosporin-resistant multi-locus sequence types (STs) isolated from poultry (*n=*17) were selected from the NORM-VET strain collections. All strains carried an IncK plasmid with a *bla*CMY-2 gene. Clinical *E. coli* isolates (*n=*284) with AmpC-mediated resistance were collected at Norwegian microbiology laboratories from 2010 to 2014. PCR screening showed that 29 of the clinical isolates harboured both IncK and *bla*CMY-2. All IncK/*bla*CMY-2 positive isolates were analysed by WGS-based bioinformatics tools.

**Results:** Analysis of single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNP) in 2.5 Mbp of shared genome sequences showed close relationship with less than 15 SNP differences between five clinical isolates from urinary tract infections, and the ST38 isolates from poultry. Furthermore, 26 of the 29 clinical isolates harboured IncK/*bla*CMY-2 plasmid variants highly similar to the IncK/*bla*CMY-2 plasmid present in the poultry isolates.

**Conclusions:** Our results provide support for the hypothesis that clonal transfer of cephalosporin-resistant *E. coli* from chicken meat to humans may occur, and may cause difficult-to-treat infections. Furthermore, these *E. coli* can be a source of AmpC resistance plasmids for opportunistic pathogens in the human microbiota.

**Introduction**

Use of antimicrobials in human- and veterinary medicine and in livestock industry drives the emergence, selection and spread of bacterial resistance [1]. Food contaminated with antibiotic-resistant bacteria can be a source of resistance for human pathogens either by direct colonization of zoonotic bacteria, or by transfer of mobile genetic elements, e.g. plasmids, to other gut-colonizing bacteria [2].

The World Health Organization defines extended-spectrum cephalosporins as critically important antimicrobials for human medicine [3]. Many studies have shown that β-lactamase-producing *Escherichia coli* occurs in chicken meat [3, 4]. Widespread use of cephalosporins in the broiler production pyramid and the international trade of breeding animals and hatching eggs enhance this into a global problem [5]. However, to which extent consumption of chicken meat contaminated by resistant bacteria affects human health, has not yet been established [2, 6].

With the exception of coccidiostats (not classified as an antibiotic in Europe), Norwegian broiler production has a very low usage of antimicrobials [7-10]. In spite of this, cephalosporin-resistant *E. coli* were detected in approximately one-third of the broilers and retail chicken filets produced in Norway in the period from 2011 to 2014 [7-10]. A recent study showed that cephalosporin-resistant *E. coli* originating from Norwegian chicken filets had low genetic diversity, mainly limited to a few multi-locus sequence types (STs), and typically carried the plasmid-mediated AmpC (pAmpC) *bla*CMY-2 gene on an IncK plasmid [11]. The poultry-associated *E. coli* had many of the same virulence factors as human extraintestinal pathogenic *E. coli* (ExPEC), which could facilitate human colonization and extraintestinal infections [11].

In order to investigate if poultry-associated strains existed among human clinical *E. coli* isolates with pAmpC-production, we screened isolates from microbiology laboratory- and national strain collections. Isolates that were PCR positive for both IncK- and *bla*CMY-2- were selected for whole genome sequencing (WGS). The aim of the study was to compare human- and poultry-associated cephalosporin-resistant *E. coli* by use of single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) analyses in order to determine the genetic relatedness of selected AmpC-producing strains from the two reservoirs with the highest possible resolution.

**Methods**

**Bacterial isolates**

The scheme for selection and analysis of the isolates in the present study is illustrated in Fig. 1.

*E. coli isolates from broilers.* The poultry-associated *E. coli* strains were a subset of isolates originally collected from retail chicken meat (filets) in 2012 (*n*=4) and 2014 (*n*=10) and from chicken faecal samples in 2011 (*n=*3) as a part of the Norwegian monitoring programme for antimicrobial resistance in the veterinary and food production sectors (NORM/NORM-VET) [7-11]. The monitoring program reported the following prevalence of pAmpC positive *E. coli* isolates from broilers: 43% (108/252) from intestinal flora of healthy broilers in 2011, and from chicken filet samples 32% (66/205) and 29% (58/201) in 2012 and 2014, respectively. Briefly, the 17 isolates selected for this study belonged to phylogroup D and carried similar conjugative IncK plasmids encoding *bla*CMY-2. The strains were typed to ST38 (*n=*10), ST1158 (*n=*5) and ST115 (*n=*2). ST38 and ST1158 were the two most common STs among the cephalosporin-resistant *E. coli* isolated from Norwegian chicken meat in 2012 and 2014 [11]. Furthermore, molecular characterization of the chicken isolates identified virulence factor genes (e.g. *iroN, cma,* and *iss*) similar to those of ExPEC [11].

*Human clinical E. coli isolates.*

The human clinical *E. coli* consisted of two collections of AmpC-producing ExPEC isolates. The first collection (A) included 158 isolates with a *bla*CMY-positive genotype tested as described by Brolund and colleagues [12]. These isolates were from Norwegian clinical microbiology laboratories sampled during 2010-2012 and originally submitted for verification of the presence of pAmpC at the Norwegian National Advisory Unit on Detection of Antimicrobial Resistance. Submission criteria were resistance to cefotaxime (MIC >2 mg/L) and ceftazidime (MIC > 4 mg/L) in combination with multi-drug resistance (MDR) (defined as resistance to at least two of the following groups of antibiotics: aminoglycosides, fluoroquinolones, trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole, or nitrofurantoin). The second collection (B) included 126 *E. coli* isolates displaying an AmpC phenotype identified at nine Norwegian clinical microbiology laboratories during 2013-2014. The phenotypic AmpC profile was determined according to EUCAST [13]. None of the isolates displayed classical serine extended-spectrum β-lactamase (ESBL) production. The original sample materials for the 284 human clinical *E. coli* isolates (of which 84% were from urinary tract infections) are presented in Fig. 1.

*Ethical considerations.*

This study was approved by the Norwegian Regional Committees for Medical and Health Research Ethics (REC) (ref. 2014/419/REK sør-øst).

**Molecular characterization**

*PCR screening.* All human clinical isolates were screened for the presence of IncK plasmids and for the *bla*CMY-2 gene. Twenty-nine *E .coli* isolates harboured both targets. The real-time PCR targeting the IncK replicon was based on previously published IncK primers [14]. The *bla*CMY-2 target was amplified in triplex-PCR format similar to a previously published real-time pAmpC PCR [12]. Further technical details for the PCR assays are presented in the appendix.

*Whole genome sequencing (WGS)*. Human clinical (*n=*29) and poultry (*n=*17) isolates PCR positive for *bla*CMY-2- and IncK were subjected to WGS. Paired-end genomic libraries with insert size of 500 bp were made from approximately 100 ng purified DNA and sequenced on an Illumina HiSeq 2500 system (BGI Tech Solutions Co,. Ltd., Hong Kong). Sequencing was performed twice for two poultry isolates (2011-01-2112 and 2012-01-1292) and one clinical isolate (E4-14) to provide WGS reproducibility controls.

**Bioinformatic analysis of WGS data**

*Genome assembly and in silico genotyping.* The raw sequence data were initially trimmed and cleaned for adaptors (BGI Tech Solutions). The paired-end reads were further cleaned for errors and *de novo* assembled into contigs (draft genomes) by the SPAdes-3.6.1 pipeline using default settings [15]. The contigs were submitted to the Center for Genomic Epidemiology (CGE), Technical University of Denmark (DTU), for bioinformatics analysis (<https://cge.cbs.dtu.dk/services/>).

*Identification of single nucleotide polymorphisms* (*SNPs) and phylogenetic analysis.* The paired-end read sets, error-corrected by SPAdes, were uploaded to CSI Phylogeny 1.1 [16]. on the DTU server by use of the default minimum settings (<https://cge.cbs.dtu.dk/services/>). The assembled scaffold of one of the poultry isolates (2012-01-1292) was used as reference sequence by the mapping of the read sets. A selection of completed *E. coli* reference genomes downloaded from National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genome/167>) was included in the analysis to limit the SNP calling to the phylogenetic informative genomic sequences assumed to be representative for the *E. coli* core genome [17]. The rationale was that only the evolutionary conserved sequences would remain as shared core genome sequence after the sequence alignment of highly different *E. coli* strains [18]. A final maximum-likelihood tree was constructed using FigTree (<http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/software/figtree>).

*IncK plasmid assembly and plasmid SNP analysis.* Draft sequences of the IncK plasmid was made by mapping of the trimmed read sets against several IncK plasmids available from GenBank using BioNumerics, version 7.5 (Applied Maths, Sint-Martens-Latem, Belgium). The best match was obtained using the poultry-associated strain 53C unnamed 3 IncK plasmid with *bla*CMY-2 assembled by De Been and colleagues as reference (Accession no NZ\_JXMX01000007.1, ([https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/nuccore/NZ\_JXMX01000007.1?report=GenBank)](https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/nuccore/NZ_JXMX01000007.1?report=GenBank).) [19]. Finally, paired-end read sets from each isolate were uploaded to CSI phylogeny for SNP-based plasmid similarity analysis using the 53C IncK plasmid as reference.

*BEAST simulation.* To estimate a timeline for the diversification of the most closely related isolates of poultry and human origin, Bayesian Evolutionary Analysis Sampling Trees, BEAST version 1.7 software was used with input from CSI Phylogeny analysis of the 15 most closely related isolates [20]. A basic assumption for the time estimation was that any SNPs located in recombination sites of the *E. coli* genomes had been removed in the CSI Phylogeny analysis, i.e., by the pruning the SNPs. Among several models of evolution, the chosen model with the best fit assumed an uncorrelated relaxed molecular clock, expansion growth in population size and a lognormal distribution of the mutation rate. All the BEAST Monte Carlo Markov Chain (MCMC) simulations were run for 150 million steps, and samples were saved every 10,000 steps. A single maximum clade credibility tree was produced using TreeAnnotator tool in the BEAST pipeline, where 10% of the MCMC steps were removed as burn-in. A final tree was constructed using FigTree.

**Results**

In total, 29 of the 284 clinical *E. coli* isolates were PCR positive for both *bla*CMY-2 and IncK. In collection A, consisting of 158 genotypic *bla*CMY-2-positive MDR clinical isolates, 16 carried IncK plasmids (14 isolates from UTIs, one isolate from blood stream infection, and one isolate from an unknown body site). In collection B with 126 phenotypic AmpC-positive clinical isolates, 53 isolates were *bla*CMY-2-positive and 13 of these were also IncK positive (11 isolates from UTIs, one isolate from perianal abscess and one from an unknown body site) (Table S1, appendix).

WGS-based *in silico* genotyping of the 29 IncK/*bla*CMY-2-positive isolates revealed a diversity of other plasmid replicons (e.g. IncFIB, IncFII, and IncI1), acquired antibiotic resistance genes (e.g. *bla*TEM-1B, *sul1/2*, and *strA/B*), STs (e.g. ST38, ST69, and ST131), serotypes (e.g. O7:H18, O17/O77:H18, and O25:H4) and virulence factors (e.g. *iroN, cma, iss, eilA*, and *iha*) (table S2 and figure S2, appendix). A subset of the human isolates (*n=*7), all from UTIs, showed similar genotypic features as the most prevalent poultry-associated *E. coli* strains (ST38, phylogroup D, serotype O7:H18, carriage of IncK, IncFIB-, IncFII-, and p0111 plasmids, and *iroN*, *cma*, *iss*, and *eilA* virulence factor genes) [11]. (Table S2 and Fig. S2, appendix).

The CSI Phylogeny pipeline identified 56610 valid SNP positions in the shared core genome of 2.51 Mbp of the 29 clinical isolates, the 17 poultry strains, and the 23 NCBI reference strains. The phylogenetic analysis revealed that the majority of the 29 clinical isolates were genetically diverse and not closely related to the poultry isolates (Fig. 2). However, from the subset of the seven ST38 UTI isolates, five clustered together with the ten ST38 poultry isolates (Fig. 3). The number of SNP differences between these UTI- and poultry isolates was only 1-13 (Fig. 2 and Fig. S2, appendix). The remaining ST38 clinical isolates, E2-21 and E4-13 had 34 and 529 SNP differences, respectively, compared to the ST38 reference poultry isolate (Fig. 2 and Fig. S2, appendix). In contrast, pairwise comparison of any of the ST38 poultry isolates to the non-ST38 human clinical isolates as well as to the NCBI reference *E. coli* genomes, resulted in 4000 – 10600 SNP differences. The poultry strains clustered in three genetically diverse groups according to their STs and showed few SNP differences within each group (ST38 group < 8 SNP differences, ST1158 group < 5 SNP differences, and ST115 group = 1 SNP difference) (Fig. 2 and Fig. 3). For the three isolates that were sequenced twice as WGS reproducibility controls, no SNP differences were observed between each pair (Fig. S2, appendix).

Mapping of the paired-end read sets to the 53C unnamed 3 IncK plasmid sequence re-constructed by de Been and colleagues [19] showed that the 28 of the 29 clinical isolates and each of the poultry strains had IncK plasmid variants highly similar to the 53C reference plasmid (85.9 kb) albeit with a size range of 80–85 kb. The closely related human clinical and chicken isolates as well as the rest of the clinical and poultry isolates shared an IncK plasmid backbone with a 79 kb core sequence. The CSI phylogeny analysis clustered the IncK variants from most of the isolates into one large group whereas the five ST1158 poultry isolates formed a separate group (Fig. S3, appendix).

The genome sequences of the closely related clinical ST38 UTI isolates (*n=*5) and the poultry strains (*n=*10) were subjected to a new CSI Phylogeny analysis to produce data input to the BEAST simulation. The SNP alignments were used as input to the BEAST-analyses that estimated the point in time for the diversification of the ancestor of the 15 closely related isolates to year 2005 with a mutation rate of 0.0098 mutations/genome/year (Fig.4). The final tree illustrates that the five clinical UTI *E. coli* isolates belonged to three different clusters (Fig. 4). Apparently, the genetic diversity within this group of UTI isolates was in the same order of magnitude as the genetic diversity between the UTI- and poultry isolates.

**Discussion**

The aim of this study was to use WGS-based SNP analysis to achieve the best discriminatory power by the determination of the genetic relatedness of a selected group of AmpC-producing human clinical ExPEC isolates compared to cephalosporin-resistant *E. coli* found in retail chicken filets. To focus the investigation on isolates that might have received their AmpC- resistance from poultry-associated *E. coli*, the presence of IncK and *bla*CMY-2 was used as a selection criterion for the human clinical isolates [11]. The PCR screening showed that 29 of the 284 AmpC-producing human clinical isolates were IncK/ *bla*CMY-2-positive. This indicates that the majority (*n*=182) of our *bla*CMY-2-positive clinical ExPECs have acquired the pAmpC from other sources than the cephalosporin-resistant *E. coli* found in chicken filets and were thus unrelated to the chicken meat *E. coli*. Sequence analysis after WGS confirmed that nearly all of the 29 clinical isolates selected in the screening carried a plasmid backbone with high similarity to the IncK/*bla*CMY-2 plasmid in the poultry-associated *E. coli*.

The WGS-based *in silico* low-resolution *E. coli* genotyping of the 29 clinical strains showed that most of these ExPEC isolates were distantly related to the poultry *E. coli*. However, seven of them, all from UTIs, belonged to ST38. The dominating cephalosporin-resistant *E. coli* isolated from the Norwegian retail chicken filets also belonged to this ST [11]. Noteworthy, several European studies have shown that ST38 is associated with human UTIs, and in addition, may occur as a contaminant of chicken meat [21-25]. The phylogenetic SNP-based analysis provided higher resolution than MLST and showed that only five of the seven clinical ST38 ExPEC isolates were nearly identical to the dominating ST38 *E. coli* isolates collected from poultry (*n*=10). The high-resolution comparisons of informative SNPs within the multiple sequence alignment-defined common “core” genome (2.5 Mbp) of the reference strains, the poultry and human isolates revealed very few SNP differences (<15) between these 15 ST38 isolates. Hereby, the SNP-based phylogenetic result strongly suggests a link between these isolates. Extrapolation and comparison of our findings to similar studies using *E. coli* core genomes derived from proteome analyses indicate that our ten poultry- and five UTI isolates were as closely related as would be expected for clones in a foodborne *E. coli* outbreak [6, 19]. With the assumption that the isolates were clonal, the BEAST analyses determined the time when these 15 human- and poultry *E. coli* isolates diverged from a common ancestor to year 2005. The BEAST output showed that the five clinical *E. coli* isolates were positioned among the poultry isolates in three different clusters. Furthermore, the diversity within these human ExPEC isolates was in the same low order of magnitude as the diversity between the human and poultry *E. coli* isolates.

A limitation of our study is lack of epidemiological data of patient exposure to chicken meat to strengthen the hypothesis of resistance transmission from poultry to human. Alternatively, data of exposure to other potential sources of antimicrobial resistance could weaken the hypothesis. In addition, the BEAST analysis that was based on only 15 isolates collected over a short time period could not show the evolution of the strains in the two compartments over time. Another limitation of our study is the narrow focus on comparison of SNPs in *E. coli* from the two reservoirs without a view to identify the genes harboured the SNPs to see a potential biological significance or to study the evolution of ST38 ExPEC.Consumption of chicken meat contaminated with cephalosporin-resistant *E. coli* can be a driver for increasing occurrence of pAmpC positive pathogens causing human infections. Previous findings have demonstrated the same plasmid-mediated resistance genes (e.g. *bla*CTX-M, *bla*SHV, *bla*TEM, and *bla*CMY-2), the same mobile genetic element, and highly similar genotypes of *E. coli* in humans and retail chicken meat. These studies have indicated a common link between these reservoirs [21, 25-30]. The WGS-based genome comparisons enabled us to investigate if transmission of resistance may occur by whole bacterium clonal transfer between poultry and humans. Furthermore, the high-resolution sequence comparison also enabled us to investigate if the resistance transmissions may have occurred by horizontal dissemination of plasmids between bacteria*.* The results of this study provide support for the hypothesis that clonal transmission of AmpC-producing *E. coli* between poultry and humans may occur. Our results based on the SNP comparisons and the BEAST analysis showed that certain ST38 strains from the two reservoirs are very closely related and that they may have a common ancestor. Since the strains are highly similar, we cannot firmly decide in which direction the transmission between the two reservoirs occurred. However, contaminated poultry meat is a recognized source for infections with other zoonotic bacteria such as *Campylobacter*. This strengthens the hypothesis that a recent clonal transfer of resistant *E. coli* might have occurred from a poultry reservoir to human hosts. With the low number of SNP differences (< 6 SNPs per Mbp core genome) and close genetic relatedness between the ST38 strains from human and poultry, our results differ from the data from the Netherlands [19]. De Been and colleagues identified 1263 SNP differences per Mbp core genome between their most closely related human and poultry isolates collected in 2006-2011 [19]. The dissimilar results of the two studies may be explained by different sampling strategies and selection of isolates.

We found similar IncK plasmid variants with *bla*CMY-2 both in the clonally related human clinical isolates (*n=*5) and the poultry strains (*n*=10), and in most of the remaining clinical isolates (*n=*23) and the poultry strains (*n*=7). This suggests that horizontal transfer of resistance plasmids seems to occur with higher frequency than clonal transmission of resistant bacteria. Our results are in line with the results from other studies, and supports that plasmids are significant vectors for antimicrobial resistance dissemination [19, 31]. Building an IncK/*bla*CMY-2 plasmid scaffold by positioning the WGS read sets against the 53C unnamed 3 IncK plasmid (86.0 kb), resulted in a common plasmid backbone sequence of 79 kb for 28 of our 29 ExPEC isolates. This plasmid backbone might be a part of many of the variants of *bla*CMY-2-containing IncK plasmids detected in the *E. coli* population of broilers in parts of Europe during the last few years [11, 19, 21-25, 32]. Noteworthy, in addition to *bla*CMY-2, the poultry-associated IncK plasmid backbone has two plasmid addiction systems that ensure stable maintenance of the plasmid within each of the daughter cells after cell division [11, 33]. Plasmid addiction systems increase the potential for persistence regardless of any antimicrobial selection pressure. In addition, they may increase the potential for resistance plasmid transmission to opportunistic pathogens or to other bacteria in the human- and poultry gut microbiota or in environmental reservoirs [33].

Even if only a small fraction of pAmpC-producing ExPEC in human infections is attributable to contaminated food, this is a significant public health concern [6]. Our approach based on targeted selection of resistant isolates for WGS-based high-resolution comparisons supports that transmission of antimicrobial resistance may occur both by clonal transfer of *E. coli* from poultry to humans and more frequently by the transfer of plasmids to pathogenic *E. coli* adapted to humans.

In conclusion, 5 of the 29 selected IncK/*bla*CMY-2-positive ExPEC isolates showed very close relatedness to cephalosporin-resistant *E. coli* found in retail chicken filets. Twenty-four of the remaining clinical isolates exhibited a pAmpC vector highly similar to the IncK plasmid carried by the cephalosporin-resistant *E. coli* associated with poultry. This study supports the hypothesis that transfer of antimicrobial resistance may occur between poultry and humans both by clonal transmission and, more frequently, by plasmid dissemination.

**Transparency declaration**

**Declaration of interests**

We declare no conflicting interests.

**Funding sources**

This study was funded by, the Norwegian Institute of Public Health and the Research Council of Norway grant no 233632, which had no role in the study design, data collection, data analysis, data interpretation, or writing of the report. The corresponding author had full access to all data in the study and had final responsibility for the decision to submit for publication.

**Authors contribution**

ESB, ALW, MSt, ØS, URD and MSu designed and conceived the study. ESB, ALW, SSM, JSS, ØS, NG, GSS, IHL, SBJ, ST, and MSu performed initial strain selection and analysis. ESB, JA, SSM, JSS, MS, OL, and MSu did the data analysis. ESB, JA, and OL performed the bioinformatic analysis. ESB, ALW, JA, SSM, JSS, MSt, ØS, NG, GSS, IHL, SBJ, ST, OL, URD and MSu wrote the manuscript.

**Acknowledgments**

We wish to acknowledge Åse Berg and Elizabeth Fleur Peacocke for help with revising the manuscript and the staff at the Department of food-borne diseases, and Department of Bacteriology, Division of disease control, NIPH as well as at the Norwegian National Advisory Unit on Detection of Antimicrobial Resistance Department of Microbiology and Infection Control, UNN for technical assistance. The views expressed in this publication are those of the authors, and not necessarily those of NIPH.

**References**

[1] Holmes AH, Moore LS, Sundsfjord A, Steinbakk M, Regmi S, Karkey A, et al. Understanding the mechanisms and drivers of antimicrobial resistance. Lancet 2016;387:176-87.

[2] Lazarus B, Paterson DL, Mollinger JL, Rogers BA. Do human extraintestinal *Escherichia coli* infections resistant to expanded-spectrum cephalosporins originate from food-producing animals? A systematic review. Clin Infect Dis 2015;60:439-52.

[3] WHO. Critically Important Antimicrobials for Human Medicine, 3rd Revision 2011. <http://appswhoint/iris/bitstream/10665/77376/1/9789241504485_engpdf> (accessed april 2016).

[4] EUCAST. European Food Safety Authority. Scientific Opinion on the public health risks of bacterial strains producing extended-spectrum β-lactamases and/or AmpC β-lactamases in food and food-producing animals. EFSA Journal 2011;9(2322):<http://www.efsa.europa.eu/sites/default/files/scientific_output/files/main_documents/2322.pdf> (accessed April 016).

[5] Liebana E, Carattoli A, Coque TM, Hasman H, Magiorakos AP, Mevius D, et al. Public health risks of enterobacterial isolates producing extended-spectrum beta-lactamases or AmpC beta-lactamases in food and food-producing animals: an EU perspective of epidemiology, analytical methods, risk factors, and control options. Clin Infect Dis 2013;56:1030-7.

[6] Manges AR. Escherichia coli and urinary tract infections: the role of poultry-meat. Clin Microbiol Infect 2016;22:122-9.

[7] NORM/NORM-VET. 2011. Usage of Antimicrobial Agents and Occurrence of Antimicrobial Resistance in Norway. Tromsø / Oslo 2012 ISSN:1502-2307 (print) / 1890-9965 (electronic).

[8] NORM/NORM-VET. 2012. Usage of Antimicrobial Agents and Occurrence of Antimicrobial Resistance in Norway. Tromsø / Oslo 2013 ISSN:1502-2307 (print) / 1890-9965 (electronic).

[9] NORM/NORM-VET. 2014. Usage of Antimicrobial Agents and Occurrence of Antimicrobial Resistance in Norway. Tromsø / Oslo 2015 ISSN:1502-2307 (print) / 1890-9965 (electronic).

[10] Mo SS, Norstrom M, Slettemeas JS, Lovland A, Urdahl AM, Sunde M. Emergence of AmpC-producing *Escherichia coli* in the broiler production chain in a country with a low antimicrobial usage profile. Vet Microbiol 2014;171:315-20.

[11] Mo SS, Slettemeas JS, Berg ES, Norstrom M, Sunde M. Plasmid and Host Strain Characteristics of *Escherichia coli* Resistant to Extended-Spectrum Cephalosporins in the Norwegian Broiler Production. PloS One 2016;11:e0154019.

[12] Brolund A, Wisell KT, Edquist PJ, Elfstrom L, Walder M, Giske CG. Development of a real-time SYBRGreen PCR assay for rapid detection of acquired AmpC in *Enterobacteriaceae*. J Microbiol Methods 2010;82:229-33.

[13] EUCAST. EUCAST guidelines for detection of resistance mechanisms and specific resistances of clinical and/or epidemiological importance. EUCAST. 2011:<http://www.eucast.org/fileadmin/src/media/PDFs/EUCAST_files/Resistance_mechanisms/EUCAST_detection_of_resistance_mechanisms_v1.0_20131211.pdf> (accessed April 2016).

[14] Carattoli A, Bertini A, Villa L, Falbo V, Hopkins KL, Threlfall EJ. Identification of plasmids by PCR-based replicon typing. J Microbiol Methods 2005;63:219-28.

[15] Bankevich A, Nurk S, Antipov D, Gurevich AA, Dvorkin M, Kulikov AS, et al. SPAdes: a new genome assembly algorithm and its applications to single-cell sequencing. J Comput Biol 2012;19:455-77.

[16] Kaas RS, Leekitcharoenphon P, Aarestrup FM, Lund O. Solving the problem of comparing whole bacterial genomes across different sequencing platforms. PloS One 2014;9:e104984.

[17] Leimbach A, Hacker J, Dobrindt U. *E. coli* as an all-rounder: the thin line between commensalism and pathogenicity. Curr Top Microbiol Immunol 2013;358:3-32.

[18] Kaas RS, Friis C, Ussery DW, Aarestrup FM. Estimating variation within the genes and inferring the phylogeny of 186 sequenced diverse *Escherichia coli* genomes. BMC Genomics 2012;13:577.

[19] de Been M, Lanza VF, de Toro M, Scharringa J, Dohmen W, Du Y, et al. Dissemination of cephalosporin resistance genes between Escherichia coli strains from farm animals and humans by specific plasmid lineages. PLoS Genet. 2014;10:e1004776.

[20] Drummond AJ, Suchard MA, Xie D, Rambaut A. Bayesian phylogenetics with BEAUti and the BEAST 1.7. Mol Biol Evol. 2012;29:1969-73.

[21] Voets GM, Fluit AC, Scharringa J, Schapendonk C, van den Munckhof T, Leverstein-van Hall MA, et al. Identical plasmid AmpC beta-lactamase genes and plasmid types in E. coli isolates from patients and poultry meat in the Netherlands. Int J Food Microbiol. 2013;167:359-62.

[22] Dierikx C, van der Goot J, Fabri T, van Essen-Zandbergen A, Smith H, Mevius D. Extended-spectrum-beta-lactamase- and AmpC-beta-lactamase-producing Escherichia coli in Dutch broilers and broiler farmers. The Journal of antimicrobial chemotherapy. 2013;68:60-7.

[23] Agerso Y, Jensen JD, Hasman H, Pedersen K. Spread of extended spectrum cephalosporinase-producing Escherichia coli clones and plasmids from parent animals to broilers and to broiler meat in a production without use of cephalosporins. Foodborne Pathog Dis. 2014;11:740-6.

[24] Seiffert SN, Tinguely R, Lupo A, Neuwirth C, Perreten V, Endimiani A. High prevalence of extended-spectrum-cephalosporin-resistant enterobacteriaceae in poultry meat in Switzerland: emergence of CMY-2- and VEB-6-possessing Proteus mirabilis. Antimicrobial agents and chemotherapy. 2013;57:6406-8.

[25] Day MJ, Rodriguez I, van Essen-Zandbergen A, Dierikx C, Kadlec K, Schink AK, et al. Diversity of STs, plasmids and ESBL genes among Escherichia coli from humans, animals and food in Germany, the Netherlands and the UK. The Journal of antimicrobial chemotherapy. 2016;71:1178-82.

[26] Jakobsen L, Kurbasic A, Skjot-Rasmussen L, Ejrnaes K, Porsbo LJ, Pedersen K, et al. Escherichia coli isolates from broiler chicken meat, broiler chickens, pork, and pigs share phylogroups and antimicrobial resistance with community-dwelling humans and patients with urinary tract infection. Foodborne Pathog Dis. 2010;7:537-47.

[27] Kluytmans JA, Overdevest IT, Willemsen I, Kluytmans-van den Bergh MF, van der Zwaluw K, Heck M, et al. Extended-spectrum beta-lactamase-producing Escherichia coli from retail chicken meat and humans: comparison of strains, plasmids, resistance genes, and virulence factors. Clin Infect Dis. 2013;56:478-87.

[28] Leverstein-van Hall MA, Dierikx CM, Cohen Stuart J, Voets GM, van den Munckhof MP, van Essen-Zandbergen A, et al. Dutch patients, retail chicken meat and poultry share the same ESBL genes, plasmids and strains. Clinical microbiology and infection : the official publication of the European Society of Clinical Microbiology and Infectious Diseases. 2011;17:873-80.

[29] Overdevest I, Willemsen I, Rijnsburger M, Eustace A, Xu L, Hawkey P, et al. Extended-spectrum beta-lactamase genes of Escherichia coli in chicken meat and humans, The Netherlands. Emerg Infect Dis. 2011;17:1216-22.

[30] Vincent C, Boerlin P, Daignault D, Dozois CM, Dutil L, Galanakis C, et al. Food reservoir for Escherichia coli causing urinary tract infections. Emerg Infect Dis. 2010;16:88-95.

[31] Borjesson S, Ny S, Egervarn M, Bergstrom J, Rosengren A, Englund S, et al. Limited Dissemination of Extended-Spectrum beta-Lactamase- and Plasmid-Encoded AmpC-Producing Escherichia coli from Food and Farm Animals, Sweden. Emerg Infect Dis. 2016;22:634-40.

[32] Egervarn M, Borjesson S, Byfors S, Finn M, Kaipe C, Englund S, et al. Escherichia coli with extended-spectrum beta-lactamases or transferable AmpC beta-lactamases and Salmonella on meat imported into Sweden. Int J Food Microbiol. 2014;171:8-14.

[33] Unterholzner SJ, Poppenberger B, Rozhon W. Toxin-antitoxin systems: Biology, identification, and application. Mob Genet Elements. 2013;3:e26219.