

1        **Antimicrobial resistance among canine enteric *Escherichia coli* isolates and prevalence**  
2        **of attaching-effacing and extraintestinal pathogenic virulence factors in Spain**

3        **Running title:** EPEC, ExPEC and MDR *E. coli* in dogs

4  
5        Eloisa Sevilla<sup>1</sup>, Raúl C. Mainar-Jaime<sup>1\*</sup>, Bernardino Moreno<sup>1,2</sup>, Inmaculada Martín-Burriel<sup>3</sup>,  
6        Mariano Morales<sup>1</sup>, Sara Andrés-Lasheras<sup>4</sup>, Manuel Chirino-Trejo<sup>5</sup>, Juan J. Badiola<sup>1,2</sup>, Rosa  
7        Bolea<sup>1,2</sup>

8  
9        <sup>1</sup>Departamento de Patología Animal, Facultad de Veterinaria, Instituto Agroalimentario de  
10        Aragón - IA2 - (Universidad de Zaragoza - CITA), Zaragoza 50013, Spain. <sup>2</sup>Centro de  
11        Encefalopatías y Enfermedades Transmisibles Emergentes (CEETE), Facultad de Veterinaria,  
12        Universidad de Zaragoza, Zaragoza 50013, Spain. <sup>3</sup>Laboratorio de Genética Bioquímica  
13        (LAGENBIO), Facultad de Veterinaria, Instituto Agroalimentario de Aragón - IA2 -  
14        (Universidad de Zaragoza-CITA), Zaragoza 50013, Spain. <sup>4</sup>Agriculture and Agri-Food Canada,  
15        Lethbridge Research and Development Centre, Lethbridge AB T1J 4P4, Canada. <sup>5</sup>Department  
16        of Veterinary Microbiology, Western College of Veterinary Medicine, University of  
17        Saskatchewan, Saskatoon SK S7N 5B4, Canada.

18        **\*Corresponding author.** Tel: +34 976762088; E-mail address: rcmainar@unizar.es

20 **Abstract**

21 The aim of this study was to estimate the prevalence of antimicrobial resistance (AMR) in  
22 *Escherichia coli* from a dog population in Spain and assess specific virulence factors.  
23 Susceptibility to 22 antimicrobials was tested along with the production of extended-spectrum  
24  $\beta$ -lactamases (ESBLs) and AmpC in faecal isolates from 100 dogs. Virulence-related genes  
25 associated with attaching and effacing *E. coli* (*eae*, *Stx1*, *Stx2*) and extraintestinal pathogenic  
26 *E. coli* –ExPEC- (*papC*, *hlyA* and *cnf1*) were detected by PCR. At least one kind of AMR was  
27 observed in 73% of the isolates. The highest prevalences corresponded to penicillin (45%),  
28 aminoglycoside (40%), and non-extended spectrum cephalosporin (39%) classes. Multidrug  
29 resistance (MDR) was observed in 53.4% of the resistant isolates. No resistance to colistin was  
30 found. Production of ESBL/AmpC enzymes was detected in 5% of *E. coli*. Shiga toxin-  
31 producing *E. coli* were not observed, enteropathogenic *E. coli* were identified in only 12% of  
32 them, and ExPEC were found in 25%. Dog faeces can be a source of *E. coli* strains potentially  
33 presenting a threat to humans through their virulence factors or AMR. The non-hygienic  
34 keeping of animals may increase the risk of colonisation of such pathogens in humans.

35

36

37 **Key words:** Dogs, *Escherichia coli*, Drug resistance, Virulence factors, Spain

38

39

40 **Introduction**

41 Antimicrobial resistance (AMR) is a world-wide problem of great concern. High levels of AMR  
42 have been increasingly observed, including a rise in resistant bacteria from companion animals  
43 (Marques et al., 2018). *Escherichia coli* is considered an important member of the intestinal  
44 microbiota of a wide variety of animal species. Because of its genetic plasticity, commensal  
45 character and ubiquity, it is regarded as an important source of resistance genes, and therefore  
46 a useful indicator of AMR (Szmolka and Nagy, 2013).

47  
48 Pet animals may be considered a potential reservoir of AMR due to the extensive use of  
49 antimicrobials in dog and cats and the close contact between them and humans (Pomba et al.,  
50 2017). In fact, it has been shown as resistant *E. coli* strains from companion animals were  
51 clonally related to human strains, suggesting a bidirectional transmission (Ewers et al., 2010;  
52 Platell et al., 2011). Besides, a recent study reported that contact with dogs (or dog faeces) was  
53 associated with an increased risk of urinary tract infections (UTI) in humans caused by  
54 multidrug resistant (MDR) *E. coli* (Ukah et al., 2018). Consequently, the role that companion  
55 animals play in the dissemination of AMR should be of concern.

56  
57 Pathogenic *E. coli* can cause either enteric or extraintestinal disease through the acquisition of  
58 several virulence genes. In dogs, two main pathotypes have been associated with enteric  
59 disease, namely, enterotoxigenic *E. coli* (ETEC) and attaching and effacing *E. coli* (AEEC)  
60 (DebRoy and Maddox, 2001). The latter is characterized by the presence of the pathogenicity  
61 island termed LEE (locus of enterocyte effacement) and includes enteropathogenic *E. coli*  
62 (EPEC) and Shiga toxin-producing *E. coli* (STEC). EPEC and STEC represent potential causes  
63 of diarrhoea in dogs and both have been reported to occur in healthy and diarrhoeic dogs  
64 (Beutin, 1999).

65

66 Apart from enteric pathotypes, extraintestinal pathogenic *E. coli* (ExPEC), characterized by  
67 specific adhesins and toxins, are considered the most common cause of UTI in dogs (Thompson  
68 et al., 2011). Canine faeces may be an important source of ExPEC (Johnson et al., 2001a).  
69 Several studies have shown pathotypic and phylogenetic similarities between canine and human  
70 *E. coli* isolates, including AEEC and ExPEC, suggesting their zoonotic potential (Johnson et  
71 al., 2001b; Nakazato et al., 2004; Osugui et al., 2014).

72

73 Thus, the aim of this study was to characterize *E. coli* isolates from a dog population from Spain  
74 with regard to AMR patterns and virulence factors associated with the AEEC and ExPEC  
75 pathotypes, both scarcely described in companion animals in this country.

76

## 77 **Materials and methods**

### 78 **Sample collection**

79 Canine faecal samples were collected by private veterinary practitioners in Spain on a voluntary  
80 basis between 2012 and 2017. Samples belonged either to healthy dogs on admission to the  
81 hospital for routine clinical examination (checkups, etc.), or to dogs presenting digestive  
82 disorders (i.e. diarrhoea) according to the attending practitioner. Samples were taken before any  
83 antibiotic treatment was established. A total of 100 canine faecal samples were analysed, 50  
84 from each group. Data regarding date of sampling, gender, breed, age and location were  
85 collected. Considering the geographical distribution of the samples, they were grouped in three  
86 major geographical locations: northwest (NW), northeast (NE) and Centre/South (CS) of Spain.

87

### 88 ***E. coli* isolation**

89 Faecal specimens were collected using rectal sterile swabs and immediately refrigerated and  
90 submitted to the Laboratory of Microbiology, Faculty of Veterinary Medicine at the University  
91 of Zaragoza (Spain). Samples were enriched in Buffered Peptone Water (Panreac, Barcelona,  
92 Spain) and incubated aerobically at 37°C for 24 h. After enrichment, samples were inoculated  
93 on MacConkey agar plates (Panreac), at 37°C for 24 h. Three identical colonies with typical *E.*  
94 *coli* appearance were selected from each sample and tested for Gram staining and indole  
95 production. Once *E. coli* was confirmed, colonies were stored at -30°C until further analysis.

96

### 97 **Antimicrobial susceptibility testing**

98 One *E. coli* strain from each faecal sample was tested against a total of 22 antimicrobial agents  
99 grouped in 15 antimicrobial classes (Table 1 and Figure 1) and selected based on their frequent  
100 use in clinical practice or because of its importance in human medicine, i.e. ceftriaxone,  
101 ciprofloxacin, colistin and imipenem.

102

103 Susceptibility testing was performed by the Kirby-Bauer disk diffusion method, being each  
104 isolate classified as susceptible, intermediate or resistant (CLSI, 2017). Isolates presenting  
105 intermediate susceptibility results were categorized as resistant for statistical analysis. Since the  
106 disk diffusion method is not recommended for colistin (<http://www.eucast.org/>), the Minimum  
107 Inhibitory Concentration (MIC) was determined in this case by the broth microdilution method  
108 (ISO 20776-1:2006) and the interpretive breakpoint value of >2 mg/L was applied. Phenotypic  
109 detection of extended-spectrum  $\beta$ -lactamase (ESBL) and AmpC production was investigated  
110 through the Total ESBL + AmpC Confirm kit (Rosco Diagnostica, Taastrup Denmark), and  
111 results interpreted following manufacturer's instructions. *E. coli* ATCC 25922 was used as a  
112 reference strain in all performed assays.

113

114 A MDR isolate was considered as one displaying resistance to at least one agent in three or  
115 more antimicrobial classes. AMR levels (rare, low, moderate, very high and extremely high)  
116 were defined according to EFSA and ECDC (2019). A summary measure for AMR describing  
117 the percentage of resistance (PR) to all antimicrobial agents was calculated as described by  
118 Poppe et al. (2001).

119

### 120 **Virulence genes detection**

121 The same *E. coli* strains tested for AMR were screened for the presence of virulence-related  
122 genes, including those specific of AEEC, i.e. *eae* (intimin), *Stx1* (Shiga toxin 1) and *Stx2* (Shiga  
123 toxin2), and some of the most prevalent ones associated with ExPEC in dog and human strains,  
124 i.e. *papC* (P fimbriae assembly), *hlyA* ( $\alpha$ -haemolysin) and *cnf1* (cytotoxic necrotizing factor  
125 type 1) (Osugui et al., 2014).

126

127 DNA was extracted by boiling, and conventional PCR was used for detection of the virulence  
128 factors as described elsewhere (Olsvik and Strockbine, 1993; Blanco et al., 1997; Oswald et al.,  
129 2000). Positive *E. coli* controls used were CECT 4783 (*eae+*, VT1+, VT2+) and C136b (Hly+,  
130 CNF1+), kindly provided by Dr. J.A. Orden, University Complutense of Madrid, Spain. One of  
131 our strains (Pe8) displayed a positive amplification for *papC* (GenBank accession number  
132 MK034302) and was used as control for further analysis.

133

### 134 **Statistical analysis**

135 Basic prevalence estimates with their 95% Confidence Intervals (95% CI) were calculated.  
136 Simple comparisons among categories within a factor (i.e. gender, age, geographical origin,  
137 etc.) were made using the Fisher's exact test. The Mantel–Haenszel *Chi*-square test was used  
138 to assess potential trends (i.e. age). A difference was considered statistically significant for a *P*-

139 value  $\leq 0.05$ . All the analyses were performed using MedCalc v. 18.10 (MedCalc, Ostend,  
140 Belgium).

141

## 142 **Results**

### 143 **Antimicrobial resistance (AMR)**

144 Overall, *E. coli* strains displaying phenotypic resistance to at least one antimicrobial were  
145 detected in 73% (95%CI: 63.6-80.7) of the isolates. AMR to at least one antimicrobial was  
146 more common in healthy dogs compared to diseased dogs (86% vs. 60%;  $P=0.006$ ). AMR levels  
147 were high for ampicillin (45%), followed by cephalothin (39%), streptomycin (37%),  
148 sulfamethoxazole-trimethoprim (26%) and tetracycline (25%). No AMR was observed against  
149 imipenem, fosfomycin, amikacin and colistin (Table 1). Occurrence of ESBL and/or AmpC  
150 production was detected in 5% (95%CI: 2.1-11.1) of isolates, of which three possessed ESBL,  
151 one was AmpC positive and another isolate produced ESBL+AmpC. None of these five isolates  
152 was neither EPEC nor ExPEC, but all were isolated from diseased dogs.

153

154 The prevalence of AMR according to antimicrobial classes is presented in Figure 1. AMR was  
155 more prevalent for penicillin (45%), aminoglycoside (40%), non-extended spectrum  
156 cephalosporin (39%), sulphonamide and pyrimidine (26%) and tetracycline (25%) classes.  
157 Among the resistant strains, 53.4% (95%CI: 42.1-64.4) displayed MDR. Susceptibility to all  
158 antimicrobials was found in 27% (19.3-36.4) of the *E. coli* strains.

159

160 Among the numerous MDR profiles identified the most common ones were A-S-Su-T and A-  
161 NSC-S (10.3% each of them), followed by A-S-Na-Su-T (7.7%). Interestingly, within the group  
162 of resistant *E. coli* isolates from diarrhoeic dogs the proportion of MDR strains was significantly  
163 higher than that in the group coming from healthy dogs (76.7% vs. 37.2%;  $P=0.001$ ). The most

164 common profiles in MDR isolates from diseased dogs were A-S-Su-T (17.4%) and A-S-Na-Su-  
165 T (13%).

166

167 The percentage of resistance (PR) to the antimicrobial agents tested for the whole population  
168 of dogs was 12.1% (95%CI: 7.1-19.9). This value was slightly higher, but not statistically  
169 significant, for the group of diseased dogs (14.9%, 95%CI: 7.5-27.2) compared to the healthy  
170 ones (9.4%, 95%CI: 3.9-20.5).

171

## 172 **Virulence factors in *E. coli* isolates**

### 173 Attaching and effacing *E. coli* (AEEC)

174 The *eae* gene that characterizes EPEC was detected only in 12% (95%CI: 7-19.8) of the isolates,  
175 but its presence was not associated with dogs with digestive disorders (10% vs. 14% in healthy  
176 dogs;  $P=0.54$ ). EPEC was neither related to other factors except age and geographical location  
177 (Table 2). The prevalence of EPEC decreased somewhat as age increased ( $\chi^2$ (for trends) =3.36;  
178  $P=0.06$ ). Although only 6 dogs originated from Centre-South Spain, the prevalence of EPEC  
179 was significantly higher in this group compared to dogs from North (East and West) of Spain  
180 (50% vs. 10.6%;  $P=0.03$ ), after controlling by age and breed. No significant differences were  
181 observed with regard to prevalence of MDR between EPEC and non-EPEC strains (25% vs.  
182 40.9%;  $P=0.29$ ).

183

184 None of the 100 *E. coli* strains analysed carried any of the Shiga toxin genes (*Stx1* and *Stx2*),  
185 thus, no STEC were present in this study.

186

### 187 Extraintestinal pathogenic *E. coli* (ExPEC)



188 Strains harbouring at least one of the studied extraintestinal virulence-related genes were  
189 considered ExPEC (Osugui et al., 2014). They were more commonly detected (25%; 95%CI:  
190 17.5%-34.3%) than EPEC. The *papC* gene was identified in 24% of the canine isolates, *hlyA*  
191 gene was found in 19%, and the *cnf1* gene in 18%. Overall, no significant associations were  
192 observed between ExPEC and the factors considered (Table 2), but *cnf1* gene was more  
193 commonly detected in *E. coli* strains from healthy dogs than in those from dogs with diarrhoea  
194 (26% vs. 5%;  $P=0.042$ ). Within the ExPEC isolates, 68% (17/25) encoded simultaneously the  
195 three studied virulence factors related to this pathotype, and 70% of them belonged to healthy  
196 dogs. Among the ExPEC isolates, a total of six (24%) were classified as MDR, with five of  
197 them being isolated from healthy dogs. MDR strains were somewhat more common in non-  
198 ExPEC compared to ExPEC strains (44% vs. 24%;  $P=0.08$ ).

199

## 200 **Discussion**

201 This work analysed a collection of faecal samples from a population of diseased (i.e. evidence  
202 of diarrhoea) and healthy dogs collected by practitioners from several locations of Spain and  
203 voluntarily submitted to our laboratory. Thus, although the design of the study precludes  
204 considering the results representative of the dog population in Spain, it may provide useful  
205 information on AMR in *E. coli* from this animal species as well as on two pathotypes scarcely  
206 studied in this country. Despite the interest of using *E. coli* as indicator bacteria, there are few  
207 descriptive studies on AMR among enteric *E. coli* strains collected from dogs in Spain and, in  
208 particular, on AMR against critically important antibiotics in human medicine such as colistin,  
209 or on the occurrence of ESBL/AmpC-producing *E. coli*.

210

211 Overall, a high AMR prevalence was observed as only 27% (95%CI: 19.3-36.4) of the isolates  
212 were susceptible to all antimicrobials tested. This figure appeared to be slightly lower than the

213 overall prevalence of full susceptibility observed in a previous study (43.2%; 95%CI: 27.3-  
214 59.2) performed in Spain on *E. coli* isolated between 2008 and 2013 from dogs and cats with  
215 UTI (Marques et al., 2016). AMR was more prevalent for the following antimicrobial classes:  
216 penicillins (45%), aminoglycosides (40%), non-extended spectrum cephalosporins (39%),  
217 sulphonamide and pyrimidine (26%) and tetracyclines (25%), and MDR was observed in 39%  
218 (95%CI: 30-48.8) of the isolates, which was also somewhat higher than Marques' study.  
219 However, comparison between both studies is impaired by the different study design, since in  
220 the latter study the number of isolates (around 50) and the antimicrobial classes tested (5) were  
221 smaller, which may explain the lower overall level of resistance.

222  
223 AMR was also higher than that in other studies where only populations of healthy dogs were  
224 considered (Costa et al., 2008; Wedley et al., 2011). However, when these figures were  
225 compared to those from studies carried out on dogs visiting veterinary hospitals, then the AMR  
226 prevalence was similar (Thungrat et al., 2015; Wedley et al., 2017) or even lower (Leite-Martins  
227 et al., 2014), reflecting the likely impact of antibiotic treatments on the development of AMR.  
228 In any case, the high level of AMR in *E. coli* from dogs was in accordance with the overall  
229 higher resistance frequencies found in European Southern countries (Marques et al., 2016). The  
230 fact that overall sales of antimicrobial agents for veterinary use in Spain are the highest among  
231 those of European countries (EMA, 2018) may have contributed to this situation.

232  
233 None of the isolates was resistant to colistin, a last-resort antibiotic against MDR Gram-  
234 negative bacteria in humans, suggesting that plasmid-mediated colistin resistance genes (*mcr*)  
235 had not yet spread on these dogs despite they were present in other type of samples (i.e. food-  
236 producing animals and sewage water) at that time in Spain (Carattoli et al., 2017; Ovejero et  
237 al., 2017). In contrast, ESBLs and AmpC  $\beta$ -lactamases were detected in 5% of the *E. coli*

238 strains, all of them coming from diseased dogs. Bacteria producing ESBL/AmpC enzymes are  
239 usually resistant to third generation cephalosporins, which are critically important  
240 antimicrobials in human medicine (Paterson and Bonomo, 2005). Thus, to prevent the spread  
241 of this type of resistance, a careful selection of antibiotics should be carried out by practitioners  
242 when facing to diarrhoeic dogs.

243

244 A great proportion of isolates from healthy dog (86%) showed resistance to at least one  
245 antimicrobial, which was significantly higher than that for the group of diseased dogs (60%;  
246  $P=0.006$ ). In addition, no associations were observed between AMR or MDR and the  
247 pathotypes included in this study. Although it may be a link between resistant *E. coli* and  
248 virulence (da Silva and Mendonça, 2012), it seemed that, in this study, AMR may be more  
249 associated with other, likely commensal, *E. coli* that may have acquired resistance genes from  
250 elsewhere (Szmolka and Nagy, 2013). However, it would be required to search for other  
251 pathotypes, such as ETEC, before reaching any conclusion on this matter.

252

253 When only the group of resistant *E. coli* isolates was considered, MDR was significantly more  
254 prevalent in those coming from diarrhoeic dogs compared to those from healthy dogs (76.7%  
255 vs. 37.2%;  $P=0.001$ ). This result was supported by a somewhat higher PR value for the group  
256 of diseased dogs (14.9% vs. 9.4% in the healthy group). Resistance genes are usually included  
257 within genetic mobile elements, such as plasmids, which may also carry virulence determinants  
258 (Carattoli, 2013). It is likely that MDR *E. coli* harbours either a greater number of plasmids or  
259 larger plasmids, and therefore presenting a higher probability of carrying genes of virulence,  
260 other than those considered in this study.

261

262 According to the assessment of virulence factors, the *eae* gene that characterizes EPEC was  
263 found in 12% (95%CI: 7%-19.8%) of them, a prevalence similar to that observed in other  
264 studies (Nakazato et al., 2004; Puño-Sarmiento et al., 2013), but a relationship between EPEC  
265 and diarrhoea could not be observed. Indeed, 14% and 10% of the isolates from healthy and  
266 diarrhoeic individuals, respectively, were characterized as EPEC, showing even a somewhat  
267 higher proportion of EPEC+ within the group of healthy dogs. Although the prevalence of  
268 EPEC in diarrhoeic dogs is rather variable, EPEC may represent a significant cause of diarrhoea  
269 in this animal species (Nakazato et al., 2004; Puño-Sarmiento et al., 2013). Since EPEC causes  
270 diarrhoea mostly in young animals (Beutin, 1999), our results may be likely biased by the low  
271 proportion of young (<4 months old) dogs in this study (11.8% among dogs with a known age).

272

273 STEC have been isolated from dog faeces but, in general, their presence is usually low, i.e.  
274  $\leq 6\%$ , in healthy dogs (Sancak et al., 2004; Puño-Sarmiento et al., 2013), even when they live  
275 close to STEC-infected cattle (Hancock et al., 1998). Although their role in canine diarrhoea is  
276 not yet well known, some studies report a significant higher prevalence in dogs with acute or  
277 chronic diarrhoea (Sancak et al., 2004). In the present study STEC could not be found neither  
278 in diarrhoeic or healthy dogs, which was in line with the low prevalence observed in previous  
279 studies and suggested the limited importance of this pathotype in this population.

280

281 With regard to virulence factors linked to ExPEC, in 25% (95%CI: 17.5%-34.3%) of this dog  
282 population at least one of the ExPEC-related genes was detected, being the *papC* gene the most  
283 prevalent (24%). This prevalence was rather consistent with that observed in other studies based  
284 on faecal canine isolates (Mateus et al., 2013; Tramuta et al., 2014). Virulence factors  
285 associated with ExPEC are not as well defined as those related to enteric pathotypes, since very  
286 different combinations of virulence factors have been described in strains causing similar

287 pathologies (Bélangier et al., 2011). The assessment of other extraintestinal virulence factors in  
288 this analysis, such as CNF2 or CDT (cytolethal distending toxin), could have hence contributed  
289 to know a more detailed virulence repertoire of these isolates. Nevertheless, the three virulence  
290 factors included in this study have been found in *E. coli* strains causing extraintestinal disease  
291 in both human and companion animals (Johnson et al., 2001b). Veterinarians should be aware  
292 of the high proportion of ExPEC-positive dogs in this population and their potential as a  
293 reservoir of this pathotype for humans (Johnson et al., 2001a). No association was found  
294 between ExPEC and digestive disorders in these dogs, but neither with dogs presenting clinical  
295 signs compatible with UTI. Indeed, 68% of the ExPEC isolates displayed the three  
296 extraintestinal virulence-related genes in combination, and most of them (70%) belonged to  
297 healthy dogs. Since *E. coli* strains may be host-specific with regard to their ability to cause a  
298 disease (Ewers et al., 2007), it could be possible these strains had a non-canine origin, and  
299 perhaps a human origin (Johnson et al., 2008; Platell et al., 2011). The three extraintestinal  
300 virulence factors appeared together in most of the ExPEC isolates, which was in line with the  
301 likely presence of a possible pathogenicity island (Diard et al., 2010).

302  
303 In conclusion, MDR was widely distributed among *E. coli* isolates from this population of dogs,  
304 and therefore dogs may be regarded as important carriers of AMR. Some isolates from  
305 diarrhoeic dogs showed resistance to critically important antibiotics (i.e. ceftiofur, ceftriaxone  
306 and ciprofloxacin) and some also produced ESBLs and AmpC  $\beta$ -lactamases. Practitioners  
307 should be aware of this type of resistance to prevent its further spread. Practical guidelines on  
308 antimicrobial use and AMR testing are advised for the treatment of companion animals.  
309 Regarding pathotypes, EPEC was present in an expected frequency, but was not associated with  
310 gastrointestinal disorders. ExPEC was more common, suggesting that faeces from both healthy  
311 and diarrhoeic dogs may constitute a relevant reservoir of *papC*, *hlyA*, and *cnfI* genes.

312

313

314

### 315 **Acknowledgments**

316 We kindly thank the veterinary practices and their staff who helped with the study. ES is the  
317 recipient of a research fellowship (FPU 14/02035). The study has been partially benefited by  
318 funds from the Government of Aragón (Reference Groups on Prionic, Vectorial Diseases and  
319 Emerging Zoonoses -A05\_17R-, and on Bacterial Zoonoses - A13\_17R-).

320

### 321 **Conflict of interest**

322 No competing interest.

323

### 324 **References**

- 325 Bélanger, L., Garenaux, A., Harel, J., Boulianne, M., Nadeau, E., Dozois and C.M. (2011):  
326 *Escherichia coli* from animal reservoirs as a potential source of human extraintestinal  
327 pathogenic *E. coli*. FEMS Immunol. Med. Microbiol. 62, 1-10.
- 328 Beutin, L. (1999): *Escherichia coli* as a pathogen in dogs and cats. Vet. Res. 30, 285–98.
- 329 Blanco, M., Blanco, J.E., Rodríguez, E., Abalia, I., Alonso, M.P. and Blanco, J. (1997):  
330 Detection of virulence genes in uropathogenic *Escherichia coli* by polymerase chain  
331 reaction (PCR): Comparison with results obtained using phenotypic methods. J. Microbiol.  
332 Methods 31, 37–43.
- 333 Carattoli, A. (2013): Plasmids and the spread of resistance. Int. J. Med. Microbiol. 303, 298–  
334 304.
- 335 Carattoli, A., Villa, L., Feudi, C., Curcio, L., Orsini, S., Luppi, A., Pezzotti, G. and Magistrali,  
336 C.F. (2017): Novel plasmid-mediated colistin resistance *mcr-4* gene in *Salmonella* and

337 *Escherichia coli*, Italy 2013, Spain and Belgium, 2015 to 2016. Euro Surveill. 22, 30589.

338 CLSI (Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute) (2017): Performance Standards for  
339 Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing. CLSI supplement M100, 27th ed. Wayne, PA:  
340 Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute.

341 Costa, D., Poeta, P., Sáenz, Y., Coelho, A.C., Matos, M., Vinué, L., Rodrigues, J. and Torres,  
342 C. (2008): Prevalence of antimicrobial resistance and resistance genes in faecal  
343 *Escherichia coli* isolates recovered from healthy pets. Vet. Microbiol. 127, 97–105.

344 da Silva, G.J. and Mendonça, N. (2012): Association between antimicrobial resistance and  
345 virulence in *Escherichia coli*. Virulence 3, 18–28.

346 DebRoy, C. and Maddox, C.W. (2001): Identification of virulence attributes of gastrointestinal  
347 *Escherichia coli* isolates of veterinary significance. Anim. Heal. Res. Rev. 2, 129–140.

348 Diard, M., Garry, L., Selva, M., Mosser, T., Denamur, E. and Matic, I. (2010): Pathogenicity-  
349 associated islands in extraintestinal pathogenic *Escherichia coli* are fitness elements  
350 involved in intestinal colonization. J. Bacteriol. 192, 4885–93.

351 EFSA (European Food Safety Authority) and ECDC (European Centre for Disease Prevention  
352 and Control) (2019): The European Union summary report on antimicrobial resistance in  
353 zoonotic and indicator bacteria from humans, animals and food in 2017. EFSA J. 2019 17,  
354 5598.

355 EMA (European Medicines Agency) (2018): Sales of veterinary antimicrobial agents in 30  
356 European countries in 2016. EMA/275982/2018.

357 Ewers, C., Grobbel, M., Stamm, I., Kopp, P.A., Diehl, I., Semmler, T., Fruth, A., Beutlich, J.,  
358 Guerra, B., Wieler, L.H. and Guenther, S. (2010): Emergence of human pandemic  
359 O25:H4-ST131 CTX-M-15 extended-spectrum- $\beta$ -lactamase-producing *Escherichia coli*  
360 among companion animals. J. Antimicrob. Chemother. 65, 651–660.

361 Ewers, C., Li, G., Wilking, H., Kießling, S., Alt, K., Antão, E.-M., Laternus, C., Diehl, I.,

362 Glodde, S., Homeier, T., Böhnke, U., Steinrück, H., Philipp, H.-C. and Wieler, L.H.  
363 (2007): Avian pathogenic, uropathogenic, and newborn meningitis-causing *Escherichia*  
364 *coli*: How closely related are they? *Int. J. Med. Microbiol.* 297, 163–176.

365 Hancock, D.D., Besser, T.E., Rice, D.H., Ebel, E.D., Herriott, D.E. and Carpenter, L.V. (1998):  
366 Multiple sources of *Escherichia coli* O157 in feedlots and dairy farms in the Northwestern  
367 USA. *Prev. Vet. Med.* 35, 11–19.

368 Johnson, J.R., Clabots, C. and Kuskowski, M.A. (2008): Multiple-host sharing, long-term  
369 persistence, and virulence of *Escherichia coli* clones from human and animal household  
370 members. *J. Clin. Microbiol.* 46, 4078–82.

371 Johnson, J.R., Stell, A.L. and Delavari, P. (2001a): Canine feces as a reservoir of extraintestinal  
372 pathogenic *Escherichia coli*. *Infect. Immun.* 69, 1306–14.

373 Johnson, J.R., Stell, A.L., Delavari, P., Murray, A.C., Kuskowski, M. and Gaastra, W. (2001b):  
374 Phylogenetic and pathotypic similarities between *Escherichia coli* isolates from urinary  
375 tract infections in dogs and extraintestinal infections in humans. *J. Infect. Dis.* 183, 897–  
376 906.

377 Leite-Martins, L.R., Mahú, M.I.M., Costa, A.L., Mendes, Â., Lopes, E., Mendonça, D.M.V.,  
378 Niza-Ribeiro, J.J.R., de Matos, A.J.F. and da Costa, P.M. (2014): Prevalence of  
379 antimicrobial resistance in enteric *Escherichia coli* from domestic pets and assessment of  
380 associated risk markers using a generalized linear mixed model. *Prev. Vet. Med.* 117, 28–  
381 39.

382 Marques, C., Belas, A., Franco, A., Aboim, C., Gama, L.T. and Pomba, C. (2018): Increase in  
383 antimicrobial resistance and emergence of major international high-risk clonal lineages in  
384 dogs and cats with urinary tract infection: 16 year retrospective study. *J. Antimicrob.*  
385 *Chemother.* 73, 377–384.

386 Marques, C., Gama, L.T., Belas, A., Bergström, K., Beurlet, S., Briend-Marchal, A., Broens,



387 E.M., Costa, M., Criel, D., Damborg, P., van Dijk, M.A.M., van Dongen, A.M., Dorsch,  
388 R., Espada, C.M., Gerber, B., Kritsepi-Konstantinou, M., Loncaric, I., Mion, D., Mistic,  
389 D., Movilla, R., Overesch, G., Perreten, V., Roura, X., Steenbergen, J., Timofte, D., Wolf,  
390 G., Zanoni, R.G., Schmitt, S., Guardabassi, L. and Pomba, C. (2016): European  
391 multicenter study on antimicrobial resistance in bacteria isolated from companion animal  
392 urinary tract infections. *BMC Vet. Res.* 12, 213.

393 Mateus, L., Henriques, S., Merino, C., Pomba, C., Lopes da Costa, L. and Silva, E. (2013):  
394 Virulence genotypes of *Escherichia coli* canine isolates from pyometra, cystitis and fecal  
395 origin. *Vet. Microbiol.* 166, 590–594.

396 Nakazato, G., Gyles, C., Ziebell, K., Keller, R., Trabulsi, L., Gomes, T.A., Irino, K., Da  
397 Silveira, W.D. and Pestana De Castro, A. (2004): Attaching and effacing *Escherichia coli*  
398 isolated from dogs in Brazil: characteristics and serotypic relationship to human  
399 enteropathogenic *E. coli* (EPEC). *Vet. Microbiol.* 101, 269–277.

400 Olsvik, O. and Strockbine, N.A. (1993): PCR detection of heat-stable, heat-labile, and shiga-  
401 like toxin genes in *Escherichia coli*, In: Persing, D., Smith, T., Tenover, F., White, T. (eds),  
402 Diagnostic Molecular Microbiology: Principles and Applications. American Society for  
403 Microbiology, Washington DC, pp. 271–276.

404 Osugui, L., Pestana de Castro, A.F., Iovine, R., Irino, K. and Carvalho, V.M. (2014): Virulence  
405 genotypes, antibiotic resistance and the phylogenetic background of extraintestinal  
406 pathogenic *Escherichia coli* isolated from urinary tract infections of dogs and cats in  
407 Brazil. *Vet. Microbiol.* 171, 242–247.

408 Oswald, E., Schmidt, H., Morabito, S., Karch, H., Marchès, O. and Caprioli, A. (2000): Typing  
409 of intimin genes in human and animal enterohemorrhagic and enteropathogenic  
410 *Escherichia coli*: characterization of a new intimin variant. *Infect. Immun.* 68, 64–71.

411 Ovejero, C.M., Delgado-Blas, J.F., Calero-Caceres, W., Muniesa, M. and Gonzalez-Zorn, B.

412 (2017): Spread of *mcr-1*-carrying *Enterobacteriaceae* in sewage water from Spain. J.  
413 Antimicrob. Chemother. 72, 1050–1053.

414 Paterson, D.L. and Bonomo, R.A. (2005): Extended-spectrum  $\beta$ -lactamases: a clinical update.  
415 Clin. Microbiol. Rev. 18, 657–686.

416 Platell, J.L., Cobbold, R.N., Johnson, J.R., Heisig, A., Heisig, P., Clabots, C., Kuskowski, M.A.  
417 and Trott, D.J. (2011): Commonality among fluoroquinolone-resistant sequence type  
418 ST131 extraintestinal *Escherichia coli* isolates from humans and companion animals in  
419 Australia. Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 55, 3782–7.

420 Pomba, C., Rantala, M., Greko, C., Baptiste, K.E., Catry, B., van Duijkeren, E., Mateus, A.,  
421 Moreno, M.A., Pyörälä, S., Ružauskas, M., Sanders, P., Teale, C., Threlfall, E.J., Kunsagi,  
422 Z., Torren-Edo, J., Jukes, H. and Törneke, K. (2017): Public health risk of antimicrobial  
423 resistance transfer from companion animals. J. Antimicrob. Chemother. 72, 957–968.

424 Poppe, C., Ayroud, M., Ollis, G., Chirino-Trejo, M., Smart, N., Quessy, S. and Michel, P.  
425 (2001): Trends in antimicrobial resistance of *Salmonella* isolated from animals, foods of  
426 animal origin, and the environment of animal production in Canada, 1994-1997. Microb.  
427 Drug Resist. 7, 197–212.

428 Puño-Sarmiento, J., Medeiros, L., Chiconi, C., Martins, F., Pelayo, J., Rocha, S., Blanco, J.,  
429 Blanco, M., Zanutto, M., Kobayashi, R. and Nakazato, G. (2013): Detection of  
430 diarrheagenic *Escherichia coli* strains isolated from dogs and cats in Brazil. Vet.  
431 Microbiol. 166, 676–680.

432 Sancak, A.A., Rutgers, H.C., Hart, C.A. and Batt, R.M. (2004): Prevalence of enteropathic  
433 *Escherichia coli* in dogs with acute and chronic diarrhoea. Vet. Rec. 154, 101–6.

434 Szmolka, A. and Nagy, B. (2013): Multidrug resistant commensal *Escherichia coli* in animals  
435 and its impact for public health. Front. Microbiol. 4, 258.

436 Thompson, M.F., Litster, A.L., Platell, J.L. and Trott, D.J. (2011): Canine bacterial urinary tract

437 infections: New developments in old pathogens. *Vet. J.* 190, 22–27.

438 Thungrat, K., Price, S.B., Carpenter, D.M. and Boothe, D.M. (2015): Antimicrobial  
439 susceptibility patterns of clinical *Escherichia coli* isolates from dogs and cats in the United  
440 States: January 2008 through January 2013. *Vet. Microbiol.* 179, 287–295.

441 Tramuta, C., Robino, P., Nucera, D., Salvarani, S., Banche, G., Malabaila, A. and Nebbia, P.  
442 (2014): Molecular characterization and antimicrobial resistance of faecal and urinary  
443 *Escherichia coli* isolated from dogs and humans in Italy. *Vet. Ital.* 50, 23–30.

444 Ukah, U. V, Glass, M., Avery, B., Daignault, D., Mulvey, M.R., Reid-Smith, R.J., Parmley,  
445 E.J., Portt, A., Boerlin, P. and Manges, A.R. (2018): Risk factors for acquisition of  
446 multidrug-resistant *Escherichia coli* and development of community-acquired urinary  
447 tract infections. *Epidemiol. Infect.* 146, 46–57.

448 Wedley, A.L., Dawson, S., Maddox, T.W., Coyne, K.P., Pinchbeck, G.L., Clegg, P., Nuttall,  
449 T., Kirchner, M. and Williams, N.J. (2017): Carriage of antimicrobial resistant *Escherichia*  
450 *coli* in dogs: Prevalence, associated risk factors and molecular characteristics. *Vet.*  
451 *Microbiol.* 199, 23–30.

452 Wedley, A.L., Maddox, T.W., Westgarth, C., Coyne, K.P., Pinchbeck, G.L., Williams, N.J. and  
453 Dawson, S. (2011): Prevalence of antimicrobial-resistant *Escherichia coli* in dogs in a  
454 cross-sectional, community-based study. *Vet. Rec.* 168, 354.

455

456

457

458

459

460

461

462

463

464

465 **Table 1.** Prevalence of antimicrobial resistance in *E. coli* isolates and categorization of AR  
466 according to EFSA levels.

467

468

469 **Table 2.** Distribution of EPEC and ExPEC strains among factors analysed.

470

471

472 **Figure 1.** Percentage of resistant *E. coli* isolates according to antimicrobial class categorization.