

1 **Original research**

2 **Clones of enterotoxigenic and Shiga toxin-producing *Escherichia coli* implicated in**  
3 **swine enteric colibacillosis in Spain and rates of antibiotic resistance**

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26 **ABSTRACT**

27 Shiga toxin-producing *E. coli* (STEC) and enterotoxigenic *E. coli* (ETEC) are the main  
28 agents of swine colibacillosis, an infectious disease which implies important economic  
29 losses. We characterized here 186 diarrheagenic *E. coli* from Spanish industrial pig  
30 farms (2005-2017) to know which clones were involved in this syndrome, and the rates  
31 of antibiotic resistance. The PCR based on pathotype-associated virulence genes  
32 determined that 161 of 186 isolates (86.5%) exhibited the ETEC pathotype, 10 (5.4%)  
33 the STEC pathotype, and 15 (8.1%) the hybrid ETEC/STEC pathotype. The majority of  
34 the isolates showed phylogroup A (85.5%), clonotype CH11-24 (72%) and belonged to  
35 the clonal complex (CC) 10, including two ETEC clones accounting for around 50% of  
36 the 186 isolates: O157:HNM-A-ST10 (CH11-24), which exhibited mostly the fimbrial  
37 antigen F4ac; and O108:HNM-A-ST10 (CH11-24), which exhibited mainly F18. Other  
38 associations were O139:H1-E-ST1 (CH2-54) with the STEC pathotype, and both  
39 O141:H4-A-CC10 (CH11-24) and O138:HNM-E-ST42 (CH28-41) with ETEC/STEC.  
40 We found that 87.1% of the isolates were multidrug-resistant, including 9% ESBL-  
41 producers, with the highest rates to nalidixic acid (82%), colistin (77%), ticarcillin  
42 (76%) and ampicillin (76%). Besides, more than 50% of isolates showed non-  
43 susceptibility to gentamicin, tobramycin, doxycycline, ciprofloxacin, trimethoprim-  
44 sulfamethoxazole and chloramphenicol. Additionally, 11 out of 17 ESBL-producing  
45 isolates were *mcr*-carriers. Results suggest that O108:HNM-A-ST10 (CH11-24) F18 is  
46 an emerging clone taking space left by other classical serogroups. Further follow-up  
47 studies on predominant clones in pig colibacillosis are essential for the update of  
48 vaccines, as alternative to the use of antibiotics.

49 **Keywords:**

50 *E. coli*, swine colibacillosis, ETEC, STEC, F18, F4 (K88), antibiotic resistance.

51

52 **1. Introduction**

53 Swine colibacillosis is a multifactorial syndrome caused by *Escherichia coli*, which  
54 exhibits three main disease conditions, namely, edema disease, neonatal and post-  
55 weaning diarrhea. Each of them can be differentiated by the pathogenesis, age-range of  
56 the affected animals, and the involved pathotype: Shiga toxin-producing *E. coli*  
57 (STEC), enterotoxigenic *E. coli* (ETEC), and atypical enteropathogenic *E. coli*  
58 (aEPEC). Besides, hybrid strains (ETEC/STEC) are also relatively common  
59 (Fairbrother & Gyles, 2012; Gyles & Fairbrother, 2010; Mainil & Fairbrother, 2014).  
60 However, among all pathotypes, ETEC is the most prevalent cause of diarrhea in piglets  
61 (Dubreuil et al., 2016; García-Meniño et al., 2018).

62 In addition to enterotoxins (LT, STa and/or STb), the ETEC isolates exhibit  
63 colonization fimbriae which adhere to specific receptors of the small intestinal  
64 enterocytes of piglets. These fimbriae are F4 (K88), subtypes F4ab, F4ac and F4ad; F5  
65 (K99); F6 (P987); F41 and F18, with three subtypes F18ab (F107), F18ac (2134P,  
66 8813) and F18 new variant (Byun et al., 2013). Neonatal diarrhea affects suckling  
67 piglets during the first week of life, when there is a major development of the enterocyte  
68 receptors to F4, F5, F6, or F41 fimbriae (Fairbrother and Gyles, 2012; Mainil and  
69 Fairbrother, 2014). During the weaning period, different situations such as forced diet  
70 changes, trigger the apparition of post-weaning diarrhea (PWD) (Dubreuil et al., 2016).  
71 It is in this period when the piglets show a greater predisposition in the binding of F18  
72 and/or F4 fimbriae to their receptors in the enterocyte (Curcio et al., 2017). Finally,  
73 edema disease is a toxemia caused by Stx2e-producing *E. coli* (STEC). The adhesion of  
74 Stx2e isolates to the enterocyte is mainly mediated by the F18 fimbriae (Fairbrother &  
75 Gyles, 2012; Gyles & Fairbrother, 2010).

76 Swine colibacillosis is one of the major challenges for the pig industry due to the high  
77 morbidity and mortality rates, as well as the cost derived from its prevention and  
78 antibiotic treatment. On the other hand, WHO currently identifies the spread of  
79 multiresistance, together with the decrease in the available antimicrobial treatments, as a  
80 main threat to the global health. WHO, together with ECDC and CDC, urge to  
81 implement a “One-Health” approach, involving human and veterinary medicine (WHO,  
82 2019). The pig sector stands out as one of the largest consumers of antibiotics in food-  
83 production animals (EMA, 2019). In fact, there is an increasing trend in the detection of  
84 multidrug-resistant (MDR) ETEC strains of porcine origin (Aarestrup et al., 2008;  
85 Luppi, 2017; García-Meniño et al., 2018). The intensive use of antimicrobials in  
86 livestock implies a selection pressure that can boost the distribution, regrouping, and co-  
87 location of virulence and resistance genes in conjugative plasmids or pathogenicity  
88 islands (Shepard et al., 2012). Currently, vaccination is the most effective and  
89 economical method for the control of pig colibacillosis and the most appropriate  
90 alternative to reduce the excessive consumption of antibiotics in animal production  
91 (Melkebeek et al., 2013). So far, there are few studies focused on the identification and  
92 clone characterization of ETEC and STEC isolates involved in swine colibacillosis  
93 (Shepard et al., 2012; Abraham et al., 2014; Kusumoto et al., 2016). The aim of the  
94 present study was to contribute to this knowledge with the identification of the clonal  
95 groups involved in porcine colibacillosis in Spain, as well as their rates of antibiotic  
96 resistance.

97

## 98 **2. Material and Methods**

### 99 **2.1 *E. coli* collection**

100 One hundred and eighty-six *E. coli* isolates implicated in swine enteric colibacillosis,  
101 and collected during the years 2005 to 2017 in at least 18 Spanish provinces and 50  
102 different Spanish farms, constituted the collection of study. The isolates were recovered  
103 from faecal swabs of pigs affected with diarrhea which were tested for routine diagnosis  
104 of enteric colibacillosis. Only one sample per animal was included in the study  
105 (Supplementary Table S1). Faecal swabs were plated on lactose MacConkey agar  
106 (LMAC) and sorbitol MacConkey agar (Oxoid) supplemented with cefixime (0.05 mg/l)  
107 and potassium tellurite (2.5 mg/l) (CTSMAC), and incubated at 37 °C for 18–24 h.  
108 Then, the confluent growth of all plates was tested to detect the presence of ETEC and  
109 STEC by PCR based on specific genes encoding toxins (LT, STa, STb and Stx2e) and  
110 fimbriae (F4, F5, F6, F18, and F41) (Supplementary Table S2). From positive  
111 confluent, a selection of up to five *E. coli*-like colonies plated on tryptone soy agar  
112 (Oxoid) were individually analyzed by PCR. Those colonies showing different genetic  
113 characteristics for the selected targets were stored at room temperature in nutrient broth  
114 (Difco™) with 0.75% nutrient agar (Difco™) for further characterization. The 186 *E.*  
115 *coli* represented at least one isolate per outbreak, with a maximum of three per outbreak  
116 and showing different serogroups and/or virulence profiles. From those 186, a group of  
117 131 isolates had been analyzed in previous studies of colistin resistance associated to  
118 *mcr* gene (102 *mcr*-4 and 29 *mcr*-1 positive isolates) (García et al., 2018; García-  
119 Meniño et al., 2018).

## 120 **2.2 O and H Typing**

121 Determination of O:H antigens was carried out following the method described by  
122 Guinée et al., (1981) with O1 to O185 and H1 to H56 antisera, respectively. The  
123 antisera were obtained at the Laboratorio de Referencia de *E. coli* (LREC-USC). All  
124 antisera were absorbed with the corresponding cross-reacting antigens to remove the

125 nonspecific agglutinins. Isolates that did not react with any O antisera were classified as  
126 non-typeable (ONT), and non-motile strains (HNM) were further tested by PCR to  
127 determine their flagellar genes (Supplementary Table S2).

### 128 **2.3 Antimicrobial Susceptibility and Genotypic Characterization of $\beta$ -Lactamases**

129 Antimicrobial susceptibility was determined by minimal inhibitory concentrations  
130 (MICs) using the MicroScan WalkAway<sup>®</sup>-automated system (Siemens Healthcare  
131 Diagnostics, CA, United States) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The  
132 antibiotics tested included: aztreonam, cefepime, ceftazidime, ticarcillin, ampicillin-  
133 sulbactam, piperacillin-tazobactam, imipenem, meropenem, amikacin, gentamicin,  
134 tobramycin, ciprofloxacin, levofloxacin, trimethoprim-sulphamethoxazole, fosfomycin,  
135 colistin, minocycline and tigecycline. Additionally, resistance to amoxicillin+clavulanic  
136 acid, ampicillin, cefazolin, cefotaxime, cefoxitin, cefuroxime, chloramphenicol,  
137 doxycycline, nalidixic acid and nitrofurantoin was determined by disk (Becton  
138 Dickinson, Sparks, MD, United States) diffusion assays. All results were interpreted  
139 according to human specific breakpoints of the CLSI (2020) except for ticarcillin and  
140 tigecycline values, which were interpreted according to EUCAST (2020). MDR isolates  
141 were defined following the Magiorakos et al. (2012) criteria, as those showing acquired  
142 non-susceptibility to at least one agent in three or more antimicrobial categories.  
143 Besides, isolates phenotypically suspected of ESBL production were tested for ESBL-  
144 encoding genes: *bla*<sub>TEM</sub>, *bla*<sub>SHV</sub> and *bla*<sub>CTX-M</sub> followed by *bla*<sub>CTX-M</sub> group 1 and group 9  
145 by PCR amplification and sequencing of the positive amplicons using specific primers  
146 and conditions described elsewhere (Supplementary Table S2).

### 147 **2.4 Phylogroups, Clonotypes, and Sequence Types**

148 The main phylogenetic groups of *E. coli* (A, B1, B2, C, D, E, and F) were assigned by  
149 means of the quadruplex PCR method described by Clermont et al., (2013)

150 (Supplementary Table S3). Then, the sequence type (ST) of a selection of 88 isolates  
151 was determined by Multilocus Sequence Typing (MLST) following the Achtman seven-  
152 locus scheme (Wirth et al., 2006). Primers, conditions and the allelic profile were  
153 retrieved through the Enterobase website  
154 ([https://enterobase.warwick.ac.uk/species/ecoli/allele\\_st\\_search](https://enterobase.warwick.ac.uk/species/ecoli/allele_st_search)) (Supplementary Table  
155 S3). The 88 isolates included representatives of the different  
156 phylogroup/serogroup/clonotype combinations found within the 186 *E. coli*. To confirm  
157 the consistency of the phylogroup assignments, a neighbor-joining tree was constructed  
158 by MEGA6 (Tamura et al., 2013), based on concatenated sequences of the seven  
159 housekeeping genes from the MLST scheme. Finally, the clonotyping was based on the  
160 internal 469-nucleotide (nt) and 489-nt sequence of the *fumC* and *fimH* genes,  
161 respectively (Weissman et al., 2012), where the combination of *fumC* (from MLST) and  
162 *fimH* (alleles obtained from FimTyper database  
163 <https://cge.cbs.dtu.dk/services/FimTyper/>) determined the clonotype (CH)  
164 (Supplementary Table S3).

165

## 166 **2.5 Statistical Analysis**

167 The differences within groups were compared by a one-tailed Fisher's exact test. *P*  
168 values <0.05 were considered statistically significant.

169

## 170 **3. Results**

### 171 **3.1 Pathotypes and virulence profiles**

172 PCR based on specific genes encoding the LT, STa, STb and Stx2e toxins determined  
173 that 161 of 186 isolates (86.5%) conformed to ETEC pathotype (positive for genes  
174 encoding enterotoxins, *eltA* and/or *estA*, and/or *estB*). Besides, 10 isolates (5.4%)

175 conformed to STEC pathotype (positive for gene encoding the Shiga toxin *stx2e*) and 15  
176 isolates (8.1%) were of the hybrid ETEC/STEC pathotype (positive for both Shiga toxin  
177 and enterotoxin encoding genes) (Table 1). The STb-encoding gene was the most  
178 frequently detected within the collection (74.7%), followed by LT (66.1%) and STa  
179 (50.5%), and only 13.5% of the strains were carriers of the Stx2e-encoding gene. With  
180 regard to the intestinal colonization factors, F18 was the most prevalent fimbriae-  
181 encoding gene (43.5% of the 186 isolates), followed by F4 (38.2%) of the F4ac subtype.  
182 Finally, four isolates encoded the F5 fimbriae, two the F6, and five carried both the F5-  
183 and F41-encoding genes. The most common virulence profiles within each pathotype  
184 were: LT, STb, F4 and LT, STa, STb, F18 (37.3% and 18.6% of the 161 ETEC isolates,  
185 respectively); STa, STb, Stx2e, F18 (86.7% of the 15 ETEC/STEC isolates) and Stx2e,  
186 F18 (70% of the 10 STEC isolates) (Table 1).

### 187 **3.2 Serotyping**

188 Twenty-three different O:H combinations (serotypes) were determined (Supplementary  
189 Table S1). However, four of 23 accounted for 68.3% of the 186 isolates: O157:HNM  
190 (24.7%; 46 isolates), O108:HNM, (23.1%; 43 isolates), O141:H4 (10.8%; 20 isolates)  
191 and ONT:HNM (9.7%; 18 isolates). A high number of isolates were non-motile (HNM)  
192 and negative for the *fliC<sub>H</sub>* genes analyzed by PCR (68.3%; 127 strains). Importantly, we  
193 found significant associations between certain serotypes and pathotypes: O157:HNM  
194 and O108:HNM with ETEC, O141:H4 and O138:HNM with ETEC/STEC and  
195 O139:H1 with STEC ( $P < 0.05$  for all comparisons) (Table 2). Furthermore, there was a  
196 significant correlation between the carriage of F4-encoding gene and specific serotypes:  
197 O157:HNM, O149:H10 and O45:HNM (84.8%, 100% and 85.7% of isolates belonging  
198 to those serotypes were F4 positive, respectively). Likewise, the F18 showed correlation  
199 with serotypes O141:H4, O139:H1, O138:HNM and O108:HNM (75%, and 87.5%,

200 90% and 79.1% of isolates belonging to those serotypes were F18 positive,  
201 respectively) ( $P < 0.05$  for all comparisons). Finally, seven of the nine F5 and/or F41  
202 isolates of this study belonged to the serogroup O101 with different H antigen  
203 combinations (H10, H9 or HNM) (Table 2).

204

### 205 **3.3 Clones involved in pig colibacillosis**

206 By the quadruplex PCR method described by Clermont et al., (2013), three phylogroups  
207 were identified within the 186 isolates, although the majority belonged to phylogroup A  
208 (85.5%; 159 isolates), followed by E (12.4%; 23 isolates) and B1 (2.1%; 4 isolates). The  
209 ETEC isolates clearly belonged to phylogroup A (93.2%; 150 of 161), while the STEC  
210 pathotype appears associated to phylogroup E (90%; 9 of 10) ( $P$  values  $< 0.05$ ).  
211 Clonotyping identified 14 different clonotypes, however, CH11-24 was by far the most  
212 prevalent (72%; 134 isolates), followed by CH27-0 (5.9%; 11 isolates), CH11-54  
213 (4.8%; 9 isolates), CH28-41 (4.8%; 9 isolates) and CH2-54 (4.8%; 9 isolates). Most  
214 ETEC showed CH11-24 (77.6%), while CH11-24 and CH28-41 were similarly  
215 represented within ETEC/STEC (53.3% and 46.7%, respectively); and CH2-54 was the  
216 main clonotype established for STEC (90%) (Table 2; Supplementary Table S1).

217 By MLST, we further analyzed a selection of 88 isolates for their STs. This selection  
218 included representatives of the different phylogroup/serogroup/clonotype combinations  
219 found within the 186 *E. coli*. As a result, we obtained 16 allelic profiles, 10 of which  
220 belonged to the CC10, accounting for 70.5% of the isolates (62 out of 88). Furthermore,  
221 the ST10 represented more than 50% (48 of 88). The remaining CC10 isolates showed:  
222 ST7323 (4), ST744 (2), ST5786 (2) and ST746, ST772, ST5507, STNew1, STNew2,  
223 STNew3 (1 isolate each). The other non-CC10 STs determined were: ST42 (11

224 isolates), ST1 (6), ST100 (6), ST58 (1), ST453 (1), ST910 (1) (Supplementary Table  
225 S4).

226 The serotype, phylogroup, ST and clonotype typing allowed the definition of major  
227 clones (Table 2). It is of note that two ETEC clones accounted for around 50% of the  
228 186 isolates: O157:HNM-A-ST10 (CH11-24) and O108:HNM-A-ST10 (CH11-24).  
229 Other significant associations were O139:H1-E-ST1 (CH2-54) with the STEC  
230 pathotype, and both O138:HNM-E-ST42 (CH28-41) and O141:H4-A-CC10 (CH11-24)  
231 with ETEC/STEC ( $P < 0.05$ ). The association found between fimbriae and clones was  
232 also of great interest: F18 with clones O108:HNM-A-ST10 (CH11-24), O141:H4-A-  
233 CC10 (CH11-24), O138:HNM-E-ST42 (CH28-41) and O139:H1-E-ST1 (CH2-54); and  
234 F4ac with O157:HNM-A-ST10 (CH11-24), O149:H10-A-ST100 (CH27-0) and  
235 O45:HNM-A-ST10 (CH11-24) ( $P < 0.05$ ). The F5 and/or F41-encoding genes were  
236 detected in clones O101:H9-A-ST10 (CH11-54), O101:H9-A-ST10 (CH11-399),  
237 O101:H10-A-ST744 (CH11-54), O101:HNM-A-ST10 (CH11-54) (Table 2).

238

### 239 **3.4 Antibiotic resistance and ESBL-typing**

240 Of the 186 *E. coli* isolates, 162 (87.1%) showed acquired non-susceptibility to at least  
241 one agent in three or more antimicrobial categories, and therefore were defined as MDR  
242 (Magiorakos et al., 2012). Furthermore, 55.9% of the isolates were non susceptible to  $\geq$   
243 six antimicrobial categories (Table 3). The highest rates of resistance were to nalidixic  
244 acid (82.3%; 153 isolates), colistin (76.9%; 143 isolates), ticarcillin (76.3%; 142  
245 isolates) and ampicillin (76.3%; 142 isolates). Furthermore, more than 50% of isolates  
246 were non-susceptible to ampicillin/clavulanic acid, gentamicin, tobramycin,  
247 doxycycline, ciprofloxacin, trimethoprim-sufamethoxazole and chloramphenicol.

248 Globally, ETEC isolates showed a significant higher rate of resistance in comparison  
249 with STEC (Table 3).

250 Besides, 17 (9.1%) of the 186 *E. coli* were ESBL-producers. The ESBL-typing showed  
251 the *bla*<sub>CTX-M-14</sub> gene in eight isolates, *bla*<sub>SHV-12</sub> in six, *bla*<sub>CTX-M-1</sub> in three, and *bla*<sub>TEM-135</sub>  
252 in one of the *bla*<sub>CTX-M-14</sub>-positive isolates. Eight of the 17 ESBL-producers belonged to  
253 clones O108:HNM-A-ST10 (CH11-24) (5 isolates) and O157:HNM-A-ST10 (CH11-  
254 24) (3 isolates). Furthermore, 11 of the 17 ESBL-producers were *mcr*-carriers (Table 4).

255

#### 256 **4. Discussion**

257 Enteric colibacillosis in pig industry is still highly prevalent and associated to important  
258 economic losses worldwide. Vaccination is, in addition to antimicrobial treatment, one  
259 important part in controlling disease. But the continuing abuse of the latter has been  
260 highlighted as a main cause of the AMR increase, including resistance to colistin  
261 (Curcio et al., 2017; Luppi, 2017). The detailed characterization of *E. coli* clones  
262 involved in swine enteric colibacillosis is critical for the effective surveillance and  
263 design of alternatives to the use of antibiotics. So, the aim of the present study was the  
264 clone characterization of the classical pathotypes ETEC and STEC involved in swine  
265 colibacillosis. The aEPEC-associated genes and their clones were not investigated here.  
266 While it is true that aEPEC have also been implicated in PWD in pigs (García-Meniño  
267 et al., 2018), their pathogenicity still remains unclear (Malik et al., 2017).

268 We defined the clonal structure of the pathogenic *E. coli* collection by means of the  
269 serotype-phylogroup-ST-CC-CH and virulence typing combination. Serogroups such as  
270 O8, O138, O139, O141, O147, O149 and O157, have been traditionally reported in  
271 swine colibacillosis worldwide (Garabal et al., 1996; Gyles and Fairbrother, 2010;  
272 Mainil and Fairbrother, 2014). In Spain, the serogroups O9, O20, O101, O138, O141

273 and O149, identified within the isolates of this study, were also present in the 80s and  
274 90s, although showing different prevalence. The O9, O20, O101, O138, O141 and O149  
275 were associated with ETEC, and the O91 and O138 with STEC isolates (Garabal et al.,  
276 1996). In a subsequent paper, the characterization of 74 representative isolates showed  
277 the presence of three major seropathotypes: O141:HNM:K85ab, F6 (12.2%; 9/74);  
278 O149:H10:K91, LT, F4 (12.2%; 9/74) and O138:H14:K81, STx (6.8%; 5/74) (Blanco et  
279 al., 1997). In addition to those, we report here the emergence of serogroups O157 and  
280 O108. In fact, O157:HNM (24.7%), O108:HNM (23.1%), O141:H4 (10.8%) and  
281 ONT:HNM (9.7%) were the four major serotypes accounting for 68.3% of the 186  
282 isolates characterized in the present study. Therefore, we have detected in Spain an  
283 evolution in the prevalence of the serogroups traditionally reported in swine  
284 colibacillosis, mainly due to the emergence of O108. There are few reports of this  
285 serogroup within swine *E. coli* isolates. Salajka et al., (1992) detected the O108 in  
286 11.3% of 943 strains (fifth in importance) from pigs with edema disease in Czech  
287 Republic. Brand et al., (2017) identified an O108 ETEC isolate (STa, EAST-1) in a  
288 study carried out in Switzerland. Besides, Magistrali et al., (2018) reported the presence  
289 of two O108:H39-ST10 *mcr*-positive isolates in pigs with colibacillosis (one from Spain  
290 and one from Belgium). Studies on pig STEC show a more limited range of serogroups  
291 (O138, O139 and O141) (Mattsson and Wallgren, 2008; Gyles and Fairbrother, 2010).  
292 In agreement, all our STEC isolates belonged to those three serogroups. In any case,  
293 there is a global lack of information regarding serotypes/O:H antigens of *E. coli*  
294 currently implicated in swine colibacillosis.

295 Despite the genetic diversity showed by the 186 isolates of our collection, belonging to  
296 three phylogroups and 13 clonotypes, we observed a clonal structure within the  
297 diarrheagenic pathotypes. Thus, most ETEC isolates belonged to the CC10-A (CH11-

298 24) clonal group, the majority of STEC isolates exhibited ST1-E (CH2-54), and the  
299 hybrid STEC/ETEC isolates appeared distributed within CC10-A (CH11-24) and ST42-  
300 E (CH28-41). By far, the clonal group CC10-A (CH11-24) was the most prevalent,  
301 accounting for 72% of the isolates. The CC10 is found widely disseminated and very  
302 successful in the intestinal microbiota of humans, food-production animals and the  
303 environment (river water and wastewater) (Varela et al., 2015). However, CC10  
304 contains a high phylogenetic diversity in number of STs (Reid et al., 2018). Within  
305 CC10, and in accordance with the results presented here, is ST10 one of the most  
306 commonly STs reported in swine colibacillosis (Shepard et al., 2012; Yang et al.,  
307 2019). Other authors have also found certain clonality within swine pathogenic *E. coli*  
308 isolates in different countries. Thus, Shepard et al., (2012) conducted a phylogenetic  
309 analysis of 78 strains from suckling and post-weaned piglets, and identified three major  
310 clonal groups (ST10-CC10, ST23-CC23 and ST169) associated with swine  
311 colibacillosis in USA. In piglets with diarrhea or edema disease in Japan, O139-ST1  
312 (26.1%) and O149-ST100-CC165 (25.3%) isolates were the most frequently detected  
313 (Kusumoto et al., 2016). A more recent study in China, highlighted the importance of  
314 ST10 (CC10) (12.8%) and ST48 (CC10) isolates (9.4%) (Yang et al. 2019). In  
315 Australia, Abraham et al., (2014) identified O149-A-ST100-CC165 (44.3%) and O141-  
316 A-ST1260 (CC10) (38,6%) as the most prevalent clones among 70 ETEC isolates  
317 (seven of neonatal diarrhea and 63 of post-weaning diarrhea) recovered between 1999  
318 and 2005. The O149:H10-A-ST100-CC165 (CH27-0) F4ac clone was also  
319 identified in 54.4% of 90 PWD isolates of a recent study performed in Denmark  
320 (García et al., 2020). The A-ST100 (CH27-0) F4ac comprised, however, only 4.3% of  
321 our collection (11 out of 186 isolates) including clones: O149:H10-A-ST100 (8  
322 isolates) and O138:H10-A-ST100 (3 isolates). The Spanish picture regarding  
323 antibiotic resistance is also very different to that found in Denmark, where no resistance

324 was found to ciprofloxacin or colistin (García et al., 2020). On the contrary, the  
325 prevalence within our collection to these antibiotics were 56% and 77%, respectively.  
326 The widespread use of antibiotics in animal and human medicine has contributed to the  
327 high rates of antibiotic resistance worldwide. Vieira et al., (2011) reported a significant  
328 association in many European countries between antimicrobial resistance in *E. coli*  
329 isolates from food animals and clinical human samples, especially regarding resistance  
330 to quinolones, fluoroquinolones, beta-lactams and aminoglycosides. The European  
331 Medicines Agency (EMA) has recently proposed a new categorization of antimicrobials  
332 (EMA, 2020). This proposal establishes four categories, with Category A (“Avoid”)   
333 including those antimicrobials not currently authorized in veterinary medicine in the  
334 European Union, such as fosfomycin or monobactams; and with Category B  
335 (“Restrict”) including those that should be restricted in animals to mitigate the risk to  
336 public health, namely, quinolones, 3rd- and 4th-generation cephalosporins and  
337 polymyxins. The high resistance rates detected here to some of these antibiotics, with  
338 more than 50% of isolates non-susceptible to fluoroquinolones or colistin and 87%  
339 MDR, are therefore worrisome.

340

## 341 **5. Conclusion**

342 We have detected a shift in the predominant clones implicated in swine colibacillosis in  
343 Spain (2005-2017) compared to previous studies (1986-1991). Currently, there are two  
344 clones involved in around 50% of porcine colibacillosis in Spain: O157:HNM-A-ST10  
345 (CH11-24) and O108:HNM-A-ST10 (CH11-24) associated with the fimbrial antigens  
346 F4ac and F18, respectively. Follow-up studies of predominant clones within pig  
347 colibacillosis are essential for the development of new vaccines, as alternative to the use  
348 of antibiotics.

349 **6. Declarations:**

350 None declared.

351

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365

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367 None declared.

368

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371

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