

1 Epidemiology of paediatric gastrointestinal colonisation by extended spectrum
2 cephalosporin-resistant *Escherichia coli* and *Klebsiella pneumoniae* isolates in north-
3 west Cambodia

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5 JJ van Aartsen^{1,2}, CE Moore¹, CM Parry³, P Turner^{4,5}, N Phot⁶, S Mao⁶, K Suy⁶, T
6 Davies¹, A Giess¹, AE Sheppard¹, TEA Peto¹, NPJ Day^{5,7}, DW Crook¹, AS Walker¹, N
7 Stoesser^{1#}

8
9 ¹ Nuffield Department of Clinical Medicine and the National Institute for Health Research
10 Oxford Biomedical Research Centre (NIHR-OxBRc), University of Oxford, Oxford, United
11 Kingdom.

12 ² Department of Clinical Infection, Microbiology and Immunology, Institute of Infection and
13 Global Health, University of Liverpool, Liverpool, United Kingdom.

14 ³ Clinical Sciences, Liverpool School of Tropical Medicine, Liverpool, UK

15 ⁴ Cambodia-Oxford Medical Research Unit, Angkor Hospital for Children, Siem Reap,
16 Cambodia.

17 ⁵ Centre for Tropical Medicine and Global Health, Nuffield Department of Medicine,
18 University of Oxford, Oxford, UK

19 ⁶ Angkor Hospital for Children, Siem Reap, Cambodia.

20 ⁷ Mahidol-Oxford Tropical Medicine Research Unit, Faculty of Tropical Medicine, Mahidol
21 University, Bangkok, Thailand.

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23 **Running title: Paediatric ESBL Enterobacteriaceae carriage, Cambodia**

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25 # Corresponding author: Department of Microbiology/Infectious Diseases, John Radcliffe

26 Hospital, Headley Way, Headington, OX3 9DU, United Kingdom. Tel: +44-(0)1865 220856;

27 E-mail: nicole.stoesser@ndm.ox.ac.uk

28 ABSTRACT

29 Extended-spectrum cephalosporin resistance (ESC-R) in *Escherichia coli* and *Klebsiella*
30 *pneumoniae* is a healthcare threat; high gastrointestinal carriage rates are reported from
31 South-east Asia. Colonisation prevalence data in Cambodia are lacking. We determined
32 gastrointestinal colonisation prevalence of ESC-resistant *E. coli* (ESC-R-EC) and
33 *K. pneumoniae* (ESC-R-KP) in Cambodian children/adolescents and associated risk factors;
34 characterised relevant resistance genes, their genetic contexts, and the genetic relatedness of
35 ESC-R strains using whole genome sequencing (WGS). Faeces and questionnaire data were
36 obtained from individuals <16 years in northwestern Cambodia, 2012. WGS of cultured
37 ESC-R-EC/KP was performed (Illumina). Maximum likelihood phylogenies were used to
38 characterise relatedness of isolates; ESC-R-associated resistance genes and their genetic
39 contexts were identified from *de novo* assemblies using BLASTn and automated/manual
40 annotation. 82/148 (55%) of children/adolescents were ESC-R-EC/KP colonised; 12/148
41 (8%) were co-colonised with both species. Independent risk factors for colonisation were
42 hospitalisation (OR: 3.12, 95% CI [1.52-6.38]) and intestinal parasites (OR: 3.11 [1.29-
43 7.51]); school attendance conferred decreased risk (OR: 0.44 [0.21-0.92]. ESC-R strains were
44 diverse; the commonest ESC-R mechanisms were *bla*_{CTX-M} 1 and 9 sub-family variants.
45 Structures flanking these genes were highly variable, and for *bla*_{CTX-M-15}, -55 and -27, frequently
46 involved IS26. Chromosomal *bla*_{CTX-M} integration was common in *E. coli*. Gastrointestinal
47 ESC-R-EC/KP colonisation is widespread in Cambodian children/adolescents; hospital
48 admission and intestinal parasites are independent risk factors. The genetic contexts of
49 *bla*_{CTX-M} are highly mosaic, consistent with rapid horizontal exchange. Chromosomal
50 integration of *bla*_{CTX-M} may result in stable propagation in these community-associated
51 pathogens.

52 MAIN TEXT

53 INTRODUCTION

54 *Escherichia coli* and *Klebsiella pneumoniae* are two bacterial pathogens of the
 55 Enterobacteriaceae family that can cause a wide spectrum of clinical disease, ranging from
 56 cystitis and intra-abdominal abscesses to sepsis. Both species also asymptotically colonise
 57 the gastrointestinal tract, a reservoir that assists in the acquisition and spread of antimicrobial
 58 resistance (AMR)(1, 2). The increasing prevalence of AMR worldwide is reducing the
 59 efficacy of our limited armamentarium of empirical broad-spectrum antibiotics, such as
 60 extended-spectrum cephalosporins (ESCs), resulting in increased healthcare costs and
 61 mortality(3-5).

62

63 Recent reports from South-east Asia show substantial variation between country and cohort
 64 in gastrointestinal colonisation by Enterobacteriaceae possessing Ambler class A extended
 65 spectrum beta-lactamases (ESBLs) and/or class C AmpC enzymes, which can hydrolyse third
 66 and fourth generation cephalosporins. In the Lao People's Democratic Republic, for example,
 67 23% of pre-school children carried these strains, in contrast to a much higher prevalence of
 68 65.7% in a rural Thai adult population(6-8). Data describing the prevalence and mechanisms
 69 of antibiotic resistance in Cambodia are limited to only a few studies. Vlieghe and colleagues
 70 found 49.7% of Enterobacteriaceae from blood cultures in Phnom Penh from 2007-2010 were
 71 cefotaxime-resistant, mostly due to CTX-M-15 and CTX-M-14 enzymes(9). Studies from
 72 2004/5 and 2007-2011 identified ESC resistance in 36-44% of urinary tract infection
 73 isolates(10, 11). The gastrointestinal colonisation prevalence of ESC-resistant (ESC-R) *E.*
 74 *coli* and *K. pneumoniae* in Cambodia has previously only been investigated in hospitalised
 75 neonates(12).

76 This study aimed to: (i) estimate the prevalence of gastrointestinal colonisation with ESC-
77 resistant *E. coli* (ESC-R-EC) and *K. pneumoniae* (ESC-R-KP) in Cambodian children and
78 adolescents, and the molecular mechanisms responsible; (ii) investigate risk factors for ESC-
79 R colonisation; (iii) determine genetic relatedness of ESC-R strains.

80

81 **RESULTS**

82 *Sampling, culture and basic demographics*

83 In total, 196 faecal samples were obtained from a consecutive subset of children/adolescents
84 enrolled in a helminth prevalence study. 48 samples were excluded from this study because
85 of: (i) lack of specific consent for wider use of the faecal samples beyond the helminth survey
86 (n=36); (ii) no epidemiological data records (n=1); (iii) no (n=3) or poor (n=5) growth on
87 culture; or (iv) replicate samples for the same patient (n=3), leaving 148 samples/individuals
88 for analysis.

89

90 Overall, 184 distinct colony types grew within the cefpodoxime inhibition zones; 141 were
91 pink (presumed *E. coli*) and 43 were blue (presumed *Klebsiella* spp., *Enterobacter* spp. or
92 *Citrobacter* spp.). All pink colonies but only 22/43 (54%) blue colonies were confirmed as
93 phenotypically ESC-R using BSAC methods. All 163 confirmed ESC-R isolates were
94 sequenced; two failed and were excluded from further analysis. Of the 161 sequences, *in*
95 *silico* species identification confirmed 135 (84%) isolates were *E. coli*, 18 (11%)
96 *K. pneumoniae*, and 8 (5%) *Enterobacter* spp. 38 *E. coli* isolates and one *K. pneumoniae*
97 isolate were genetically sufficiently closely related to another isolate obtained from the same
98 patient sample to be considered as the same strain (defined as ≤ 5 chromosomal SNVs); these
99 were also excluded leaving 122 isolates for analysis. None of the 148 faecal samples yielded
100 imipenem resistant colonies.

101

102 Participants were median 4.2 years old (interquartile range: 1.1-8.8) at sample collection;
103 70/148 (47%) were male. 70/147 (48%; 1 missing) were inpatients at sample collection.
104 Although most were from Siem Reap province (99/148 [67%]), the hospital catchment is
105 such that the remainder were recruited from 10 other provinces. 16/148 (11%) were clinically
106 malnourished, and 23/148 (16%) had ≥ 1 underlying chronic medical condition including HIV
107 (n=5), haematological disease (n=3), congenital cardiac disease (n=5), tuberculosis (n=4),
108 and asthma (n=2)(Table 1).

109

110 *Prevalence of and risk factors for colonisation with ESC-R EC and/or ESC-R-KP*

111 A total of 114 confirmed ESC-R-EC (n=97) and ESC-R-KP (n=17) remained in the analysis
112 and were carried by 82/148 participants, giving a combined ESC-R-EC/KP prevalence of
113 55% (95% CI: 47%-64%); 53% for ESC-R EC (79/148 patients; 95% CI: 45%-62%) and
114 10% for ESC-R KP (15/148 patients; 95% CI: 6%-16%). Co-colonisation with both ESC-R-
115 EC and ESC-R-KP was observed in 12/82 (15%). Independent risk factors for ESC-R-EC/KP
116 colonisation included being a current inpatient (OR=3.64; 95% CI [1.71-7.74], p=0.001) and
117 the presence of faecal parasites (OR=3.96 [1.55-10.13], p=0.004). ESC-R-EC/KP
118 colonisation was lower in males (OR=0.39 [0.18-0.84], p=0.015) and in those attending
119 school (OR=0.39 [0.18-0.83], p=0.015)(Table 1).

120

121 *Sequence type, Ambler class and genetic mechanisms of ESC-R*

122 The 97 ESC-R-EC isolates came from 33 known and 6 novel STs (Fig.1, for details see Table
123 S1). 22% (17/79) of patients were colonised by at least two different ESC-R-EC STs,
124 although this may underestimate diversity as only a small number of colonies (≤ 3) were

sampled per patient(25). The 17 ESC-R-KP strains came from 11 known and 3 novel STs (n=4 isolates) (Fig.2, Table S2). Two patients were colonised by two different ESC-R *K. pneumoniae* STs (2/15, 13%).

In total, 77% (88/114) and 23% (26/114) of isolates displayed Ambler class A or C phenotypes, respectively. Neither species were associated with Ambler class A (76% [74/97] versus 82% [14/17]) or class C (23% [23/97] versus 18% [3/17]; Fishers exact test; p=0.759). In all class A isolates the phenotype could be explained by the presence of one (84/88, 95%) or two (4/88, 5%) *bla*_{CTX-M} genes; *bla*_{SHV} (12/88, 12%) and *bla*_{VEB} (1/88, 1%) occurred less commonly. Class C gene families were only identified in 39% (10/26) of phenotypically class C isolates: specifically *bla*_{CMY-2} (8/26, 31%) or *bla*_{DHA} (2/26, 8%). In the remaining 16 isolates, the genetic basis for the class C phenotype was unclear; of note, however, *ampC* promoter mutations were not assessed. 111 *bla*_{CTX-M} genes were found in 94% (107/114) of ESC-R-EC/KP, with two separate alleles identified in 4% of isolates (4/114). The most frequently identified allele was *bla*_{CTX-M-15} (53/111, 48%), followed by: *bla*_{CTX-M-55} (24/111, 22%), *bla*_{CTX-M-14} (17/111,15%), *bla*_{CTX-M-27} (14/111, 13%) and *bla*_{CTX-M-24} (3/111, 3%). Two different *bla*_{CTX-M} alleles were found in 21% (18/82) of individuals carrying ESC-R-EC/KP. *bla*_{SHV} genes were identified in 15/17 *K. pneumoniae*, including *bla*_{SHV-1/SHV-1-like} (3/15, 20%), *bla*_{SHV-11/SHV-11-like} (4/15, 27%), *bla*_{SHV-27-like} (1/15, 7%), *bla*_{SHV-28} (1/15, 7%), *bla*_{SHV-33} (3/15, 20.0%) and *bla*_{SHV-83} (1/15, 7%), *bla*_{SHV-99-like} (1/15, 7%) and *bla*_{SHV-142} (1/15, 7%). All eight *bla*_{CMY-2/CMY-2-like} genes were found in *E. coli*. The study population carriage prevalence of common genetic mechanisms encoded by ESC-R EC/KP was therefore: 53% *bla*_{CTX-M} (78/148), 9% *bla*_{SHV} (14/148), 1% *bla*_{VEB} (1/148), 5% *bla*_{CMY-2} (8/148), 1% *bla*_{DHA} (2/148). Two individuals (1%) carried isolates with *bla*_{OXA-48} (one *K. pneumoniae* ST48 and one *E. coli* ST648); no other carbapenem resistance mechanisms were identified.

Genetic context of ESC-R genes

For the 41 *E. coli* harbouring *bla*_{CTX-M-15}, it was chromosomally located in five cases (12%), and likely in plasmid contexts in two; in the remaining cases it was not possible to determine wider chromosomal/plasmid location (Table 2). One isolate (38P1) harboured short contigs containing truncated *bla*_{CTX-M-15}, leaving 40 cases in which to evaluate the immediate flanking contexts surrounding the *bla*_{CTX-M} gene. All contained *ISEcp1* upstream of *bla*_{CTX-M-15}, but with considerable evidence of additional mobilisation events/mosaicism (Table 2). In particular, *ISEcp1* was truncated by IS26 at 24, 497, 524, 1067, 1173, 1421, or 1489bp in 13 isolates, consistent with at least seven IS26-associated insertion events within *ISEcp1*(Fig.3). Another 13 *ISEcp1* elements were truncated by contig breaks, without any specific associated genetic signatures, although contig breaks are frequently due to repeat structures and may therefore have represented additional disruption events. One isolate had an intact *ISEcp1* element, without any wider flanking upstream context. The 13 cases with an intact *ISEcp1* were consistently flanked by variable lengths of Tn2, which was truncated by an IS26 right IRR in 2/7 evaluable cases (and by an unknown sequence in the other 5/7). Two isolates had a complete Tn2 structure interrupted by *ISEcp1-bla*_{CTX-M-15} (TCTCA-TCTCA and TTTTA-TAAAA target site sequences [TSSs] respectively)(Fig.3). Overall, genetic contexts of *bla*_{CTX-M-15} were consistent with integration and mobilisation of *ISEcp1-bla*_{CTX-M-15} within a Tn2 element, as previously described(26), with subsequent rearrangement events facilitated by IS26 and perhaps other ISs(27)(Table S3).

For the 24 *E. coli* harbouring *bla*_{CTX-M-55}, it was chromosomally located in 4 (17%), plasmid in 3 (13%) and unknown in 16 (67%). One contig contained a truncated *bla*_{CTX-M-55}, leaving 23 evaluable contexts. Similar to *bla*_{CTX-M-15}, it was invariably associated with *ISEcp1*

upstream of *bla*_{CTX-M-55} (Fig.4), which was often incomplete, representing at least 3 different IS26-associated *ISEcp1* disruption events (Table 2). Intact *ISEcp1* were flanked by variable lengths of Tn2 sequence, apart from 120P1 where the contig was truncated immediately at the 5' end of *ISEcp1*. One isolate (2P1) had the same *bla*_{CTX-M}/Tn2 unit as for *bla*_{CTX-M-15} (but with TACTC-TAAAA), consistent with the evolution of *bla*_{CTX-M-55} from *bla*_{CTX-M-15} (1 SNV difference) within this unit (Figs.3, 4).

For the 15 *E. coli* harbouring *bla*_{CTX-M-14}, it was chromosomally located in 2 (13%) cases, plasmid-associated in 5 (33%), and unknown in 8 (53%). Again, it was invariably associated with *ISEcp1*, but more often complete and with different mechanisms of disruption (2 ISVsa5-like sequence, one IS1S R IRR). All cases had an IS903 element at the 3' end of *bla*_{CTX-M-14}; this had been disrupted in 6 cases, with additional contig breaks in 5 cases (Fig.5). Two of three *E. coli* *bla*_{CTX-M-24} contexts were chromosomal, with flanking contexts similar to *bla*_{CTX-M-14} (Fig.S1). In the 12 *bla*_{CTX-M-27} cases, the *ISEcp1* element had been disrupted by an IS26 L IRR in all contexts, at 149, 192, 208 and 388bp, but the wider genetic context of this structure was indeterminable in all cases (Fig.S2).

Overall, *bla*_{CTX-M} was chromosomal in 13/92 cases (14%; 13/25 [52%] cases where plasmid versus chromosomal location could be assessed), suggesting that CTX-M genes may be incorporated chromosomally and indiscriminately in significant numbers of colonising *E. coli*, with possible implications for their stable propagation within the wider *E. coli* population.

For *K. pneumoniae*, 12 isolates harboured *bla*_{CTX-M-15}, in a plasmid-associated context in 9/12 cases, and an unknown context in 3/12 cases. Three isolates harboured a complete *bla*_{CTX-M-15}/Tn2 complex with GTTAA-GTTAA TSS, most consistent with a direct transposition of this element into a plasmid context. In the other isolates, the *ISEcp1*-*bla*_{CTX-M-15}-ORF477 was flanked by variable stretches of Tn2-associated sequence identical to that found in the *E. coli* isolates, and similarly truncated either as a result of contig breaks, or by IS26 inverted repeats, consistent with between species and within species mobilisation (Fig.S3).

Four *K. pneumoniae* isolates harboured *bla*_{CTX-M-9} group genes; two of these (*bla*_{CTX-M-14}) shared the same *ISEcp1* (Fig.5) and ~18kb upstream flanking plasmid sequence; and two (*bla*_{CTX-M-27}) an *ISEcp1* element truncated at position 1499 by an IS26 L IRR (Fig.S2).

DISCUSSION

We observed significant gastrointestinal carriage prevalence of both ESC-R-EC and ESC-R-KP in Cambodian children sampled in 2012; approximately one in twelve children was colonised with ESC-R strains of both species. A wide diversity of ESC-R strain types was observed, including several genotypes categorised as “high risk” clones, such as *E. coli* STs 38, 405, 131, 354 and 648(13). The predominant ESC-R genotypic mechanism was *bla*_{CTX-M}, with the major allelic variants being those widely described elsewhere in Asia (Group 1: *bla*_{CTX-M-15}, -55, Group 9: *bla*_{CTX-M-14}, -24, -27). Approximately one-third of the Cambodian population is <18 years old, so this group may be acting as a significant reservoir for the spread of anti-microbial resistant organisms. We did not observe particularly high rates of colonisation with carbapenem-resistant isolates (2 (1%) individuals), but one of these was an out-patient, with an OXA-48 *E. coli* isolate, and without any known chronic health problems,

suggesting that there may be some carriage of carbapenem-resistant isolates in the community. Further assessment of the extent of carriage of carbapenem-resistant EC/KP in this context is warranted.

Independent risk factors for colonisation included inpatient status, consistent with transmission within hospital, and/or selection of these organisms from low-level carriage by the use of antibiotics on admission given the high burden of infectious diseases in this region. Infection control (IC) in resource-limited settings remains challenging, and despite improvements within the study hospital(14), recent longitudinal surveillance within the neonatal care unit identified high rates of import of ESC-R-KP (62% colonised on admission) as well as nosocomial acquisition (23%)(12). In-patient acquisition of ESC-R-EC/KP has also been identified as a major problem in other low/middle-income settings(15). The specific effect of faecal parasites on gut microbiota is not well-studied, but they are thought to significantly perturb microbial diversity(16). Helminth infestation may also result in inappropriate antimicrobial use, including antibiotics, perhaps leading to secondary colonization with drug-resistant commensals. The decreased risk associated with school attendance has been observed in a previous study in Spain(17), and may represent a proxy marker for increased socio-economic status, and parental levels of education, which were not evaluated here, but may translate into better awareness of appropriate antibiotic use(18, 19). The decreased risk associated with male gender is unexplained; but independent associations for ESBL-EC/KP colonization have been described for both genders in previous studies(15, 20, 21).

Of particular importance was the high prevalence of chromosomal integration of *bla*_{CTX-M} in *E. coli* in this study (>14%), perhaps contributing to the stable propagation of this resistance gene family within certain strains. Chromosomal integration of *bla*_{CTX-M} in *K. pneumoniae* was not observed in our study, although it has been seen in Spain(22). In addition, despite the limitations of short-read assemblies, the genetic contexts of *bla*_{CTX-M} suggested high levels of genetic plasticity in flanking structures, and significant associations with IS26 for *bla*_{CTX-M-15}, *bla*_{CTX-M-55}, and *bla*_{CTX-M-27}. IS26 has been previously hypothesised to facilitate the mobility of *bla*_{CTX-M} and genetic rearrangement of resistance gene plasmids, and is likely contributing to the dissemination of these resistance genes within the human gastrointestinal reservoir(23-25).

This study has several limitations. Our survey dates from 2012, and the epidemiology of ESC-R EC/KP carriage may have changed in the intervening timeframe; nevertheless, our data represent the largest molecular epidemiological study of gastrointestinal ESC-R-EC/KP colonisation in Cambodia and a useful benchmark for future studies. We only included up to three bacterial colonies per faecal sample, likely resulting in significant under-estimation of the diversity present at the population level(26). Short-read sequencing resulted in limited information regarding the wider genetic context of important resistance genes conferring ESC-R; nevertheless, we were still able to ascertain that the genetic contexts of these resistance genes are extremely diverse. Our outpatient study population may not be truly representative of healthy children in the community, given that these individuals had presented to the outpatient department for some form of medical review. Lack of more detailed information on some potential risk factors meant we were unable to fully assess the specific mechanisms promoting ESC-R EC/KP colonisation. Further work characterising the role of healthcare admissions, socio-economic factors and intestinal parasites on the

acquisition and long-term carriage dynamics of these strains would be valuable. In addition, our sample size was too small and sparse to investigate geographical clustering of strain types, and to investigate specific risk factors for colonisation with common strain types or resistance gene alleles.

Despite these limitations, our study adds to the growing body of literature demonstrating widespread gastrointestinal colonisation with ESC-R-EC and ESC-R KP in Southeast Asia(8), and showing that exposure to this reservoir may in turn act as a source for the wider, global transfer of these strains(27). The genetic contexts of important resistance genes are highly mosaic, consistent with rapid exchange of resistance genes within and between bacterial hosts. Significant levels of chromosomal integration of the most important ESC-R gene family, *bla*_{CTX-M}, were also observed, and may result in these genes being stably maintained and propagated in one of the most common community-associated pathogens, namely *E. coli*.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Patients and setting

Faecal samples were obtained from a consecutive subset of children/adolescents (<16 years) who had been enrolled prospectively in a helminth prevalence study at Angkor Hospital for Children in Siem Reap, Cambodia, from 3rd April 2012 to 29th June 2012, as described in(28).

Microbiological methods

Samples were frozen at -80°C as aliquots homogenised in 0.9% sterile saline with 10% glycerol within an hour of receipt in the laboratory. For this study, faecal samples were thawed, and aliquots diluted 1:10 in saline and incubated for 16 hours at 37°C on Orientation CHROMagar (BD, Oxford, United Kingdom) with 10 µg cefpodoxime and 10 µg imipenem discs (Oxoid, Basingstoke, United Kingdom). For each faecal sample, up to three pink and/or dark blue colonies with different colonial morphotypes that grew within the cefpodoxime zone of inhibition (presumed ESC-R-EC and ESC-R-KP respectively) were selected for further analysis. Each selected colony was tested using the British Society of Antimicrobial Chemotherapy (BSAC) combination disc method to identify whether cefpodoxime (ESC) resistance was mediated via ESBLs (Class A: cefpodoxime-resistant, and cefpodoxime+clavulanic acid-sensitive) or via non-ESBL mechanisms (e.g. Class C AmpC beta-lactamases: cefpodoxime-resistant, and cefpodoxime+clavulanic acid-resistant)(29). All identified ESC-R colonies were stored frozen at -80°C in nutrient broth with 10% glycerol.

Whole genome sequencing and sequence data processing

DNA was extracted from sub-cultured ESC-R isolates using a commercial kit (Fujifilm Quickgene, Japan) with an additional mechanical lysis step (Fastprep MP Biomedicals, USA). All isolates were sequenced using the Illumina HiSeq 2500, generating 150bp paired-end reads. Sequence data have been deposited in GenBank (project accession: PRJNA391054).

To identify single nucleotide variants (SNVs) reads were mapped to species-appropriate reference genomes (*E. coli* CFT073 [GenBank: AE014075.1] and *K. pneumoniae* MGH78578 [GenBank: CP000647.1]), and variants called as described previously(30).

Alignments of variable sites were padded to the length of the reference genome using bases with the same %GC content as that observed within each dataset. Bootstrapped, maximum-likelihood phylogenies were reconstructed for each species using RaxML version 7.7.6(31), using a generalised time-reversible model and four categories of rate heterogeneity (./RAXML-7.7.6/raxmlHPC-PTHREADS-SSE3 -f a -s <input_alignment.phy> -m GTRGAMMA -p 12345 -c 4 -x 12345 -# 100 -n <output_raxml_rapid_bootstrap>). Phylogenies have been deposited as projects in MicroReact to enable an interactive assessment of geographic distribution of genotypes (*E. coli*: <https://microreact.org/project/By8bf5ajg>; *K. pneumoniae*: https://microreact.org/project/Hy_yQcaog(32).

Contigs were assembled using Velvet/VelvetOptimiser (hash value range: 75-149)(33, 34). *In silico* MLST was determined by BLASTn(35) matches (100% match) to the Achtman/Pasteur MLST schemes for *E. coli* and *K. pneumoniae*(36, 37), and supported correct species identification. The presence/absence of resistance genes was determined using BLASTn and an in-house curated resistance gene database of over 60 gene families(38). Genes were considered present if a blast match of $\geq 80\%$ of the query sequence was identified at $\geq 80\%$ sequence identity using the *de novo* assemblies as blast databases. Ambler class genotype was class A if *bla*_{CTX-M}, *bla*_{SHV} and/or *bla*_{VEB} were present, and/or class C if *bla*_{CMY-2}, *bla*_{DHA} and *bla*_{ACT-like} genes were present. Where patient faecal samples yielded ≥ 2 strains, all resistance genes were treated as a single entity within the individual's profile.

The genetic context of *bla*_{CTX-M} was examined by extracting the contigs containing these genes, and annotating these using PROKKA(39), combined with BLASTn and manual

annotation with reference to mobile genetic elements in the ISFinder database(40). Gene locations were characterised as “chromosomal” if other annotations on the contig were only found in chromosomal contexts in the top 20 BLASTn hits when the contig was compared with bacterial sequences available in GenBank (using default parameters); “plasmid” if the other annotations matched only plasmid sequences; or unknown if these conditions were not met e.g. the assembled contigs were too short to verify this.

Epidemiological analyses

Information regarding putative risk factors for ESC-R EC/KP colonisation (collected on a standardised form) included details on: gender, age, hospitalisation status, residence in Siem Reap province versus elsewhere, water source (river, rain, well, bottled, piped, boiled), domestic animals (cats, dogs, birds), livestock (chickens, ducks, pigs, cows or water buffalo), toilet availability, malnutrition, co-morbidities, presence/absence of diarrhoea, presence/absence of parasites (assessed within (28)), soap usage for hand-washing and school attendance. No details regarding antibiotic consumption were ascertained within the study, but previous work locally has shown that individuals are often ill-informed about the nature of any medications used and that 32% of outpatient attendees have evidence of urinary antimicrobial activity(41).

Statistical analyses

Independent risk factors for carriage were identified from a multivariable, stepwise, logistic regression model based on complete cases and initially including all factors (backwards elimination using exit $p < 0.1$ to reduce over-fitting). A final multivariable logistic model was then fitted including all cases for which complete information was available for the retained

364 risk factors. Statistical analyses were performed using STATA version 14 (StataCorp,
365 College Station, USA).

366

367 *Ethical Approval*

368 The study was approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB), Angkor Hospital for
369 Children, and the Oxford Tropical Research Ethics Committee (OXTREC 12–12). Caregivers
370 of all included participants gave informed consent for their child to participate in the helminth
371 survey, and for the samples to be used more widely in additional studies approved by the
372 IRB.

373

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388

389 The authors have no conflicts of interest to declare.

FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1.

Phylogeny of study *Escherichia coli* isolates. Interactive map of geographic locations and genetic attributes can be visualised at: <https://microreact.org/project/By8bf5ajg>

Figure 2.

Phylogeny of study *Klebsiella pneumoniae* isolates. Interactive map of geographic locations and genetic attributes can be visualised at: https://microreact.org/project/Hy_yQcaog

Figure 3. Schematic of aligned genetic contexts for *bla*_{CTX-M-15} in study *Escherichia coli*.

Features of interest are highlighted in the figure key. White numbers within open reading frames denote truncated sequence length (bp). Isolates harbouring this genetic context are listed to the left of the figure. “x” denotes contig breaks. ^P denotes plasmid contexts; ^C chromosomal contexts.

Figure 4. Schematic of aligned genetic contexts for *bla*_{CTX-M-55} in study *Escherichia coli*.

Features of interest are highlighted in the figure key. White numbers within open reading frames denote truncated sequence length (bp). Isolates harbouring this genetic context are listed to the left of the figure. “x” denotes contig breaks. ^P denotes plasmid contexts; ^C chromosomal contexts.

Figure 5. Schematic of aligned genetic contexts for *bla*_{CTX-M-14} in study *Escherichia coli* and

Klebsiella pneumoniae. Features of interest are highlighted in the figure key. White numbers within open reading frames denote truncated sequence length (bp). Isolates harbouring this

414 genetic context are listed to the left of the figure. “x” denotes contig breaks. ^p denotes
415 plasmid contexts; ^c chromosomal contexts.

416 TABLES

417 Table 1. Clinical and epidemiological details of all 148 participants, also categorised by presence/absence of gastrointestinal colonisation
418 with ESC-resistant *E. coli* and/or *K. pneumoniae*, and multivariable logistic regression outcomes

	Overall (n=148)	ESC-R <i>E. coli</i> / <i>K. pneumoniae</i> colonised (n=82; 55%)	ESC-R <i>E. coli</i> / <i>K. pneumoniae</i> non-colonised (n=66; 45%)	Univariable logistic regression for ESC-R carriage		Multivariable logistic regression for ESC-R carriage [‡]	
	Number (%) unless otherwise specified	n (%)	n (%)	OR [95% CI]	p	OR [95% CI]	p
Median age [IQR], years	4.24 [1.10 - 8.82]	3.07 [0.97 - 7.21]	6.23 [1.32 - 9.23]	1.00 [1.00-1.00]	0.712		
Male	70 (47)	35 (43)	35 (53)	0.66 [0.34-1.27]	0.211	0.39 [0.18-0.84]	0.015
Inpatient*	70 (48)	49 (60)	20 (32)	3.28 [1.66-6.50]	0.001	3.64 [1.71-7.74]	0.001
Province							

Siem Reap	99 (67)	51 (62)	48 (72)	1		
Other (versus Siem Reap) [¶]	49 (33)	31 (38)	18 (28)	1.06 [0.72-1.58]	0.716	
Malnutrition	16 (11)	12 (15)	4 (6)	2.66 [0.81-8.67]	0.105	
Co-morbidities[§]	25 (17)	19 (23)	6 (9)	3.01 [1.13-8.06]	0.028	
Diarrhoea present^{&}	70 (48)	44 (54)	26 (40)	1.78 [0.92-3.46]	0.086	
Water sources						
Well	123 (83)	64 (78)	59 (89)	0.42 [0.16-1.08]	0.073	
Bottled	17 (11)	13 (16)	4 (6)	2.92 [0.90-9.43]	0.073	
River	5 (3)	3 (4)	2 (3)	1.22 [0.20-7.49]	0.834	
Rain	8 (5)	5 (6)	3 (5)	1.36 [0.31-5.93]	0.680	
School attendance	71 (48)	32 (39)	39 (59)	0.44 [0.23-0.86]	0.016	0.39 [0.18-0.83] 0.015
All animals	119 (80)	65 (79)	54 (82)			

Domestic animals	113 (76)	61 (74)	50 (79)	0.78 [0.36-1.69]	0.532
Cat	51 (34)	32 (39)	19 (29)	1.58 [0.79-3.17]	0.194
Dog	100 (68)	57 (70)	43 (65)	1.22 [0.61-2.43]	0.573
Birds	24 (16)	12 (15)	12 (18)	0.77 [0.32-1.85]	0.561
Livestock/food animals	89 (60)	54 (66)	35 (53)	1.71 [0.88-3.32]	0.114
Water buffalo	4 (3)	3 (4)	1 (1)	2.47 [0.25-24.3]	0.439
Chickens	80 (54)	49 (60)	31 (47)	1.67 [0.87-3.23]	0.122
Pigs	23 (16)	14 (17)	9 (14)	1.30 [0.53-3.23]	0.567
Ducks	2 (1)	2 (2)	0	1 (omitted)	
Cattle	24 (16)	15 (18)	9 (14)	1.42 [0.58-3.48]	0.446

Use of toilet for defecation	88 (59)	45 (54)	42 (65)	0.65 [0.33-1.27]	0.207		
Use of soap[#]							
Never	34 (23)	18 (23)	16 (25)	1			
Some use (versus Never)	111 (77)	62 (76)	49 (75)	1.12 [0.52-2.43]	0.765		
Presence of intestinal parasites	36 (24)	25 (30.49)	11 (17.19)	2.19 [0.99-4.88]	0.054	3.96 [1.55-10.12]	0.004

* missing one datapoint (n=147)

& missing two datapoints (n=146)

missing three datapoints (n=145)

¥ Backwards elimination performed using 144 cases for which complete information available, on all predictors, using exit $p \leq 0.1$.

Final model then incorporated 147 cases for which complete information available on included predictors (gender, in-patient status, presence of intestinal parasites and school attendance)

¶ “Other province” category includes: Banteay Meanchey (n=21), Oddar Meanchey (8), Kampong Thom (6), Battambang (5), Preah Vihear (3), Kampong Cham (2), Kampong Chhang (1), Lann Kimfong (1), Pursat (1), Vuth Variath (1)

§ Includes: HIV (n=5), blood dyscrasia (3), Down’s syndrome (2), congenital heart disease (6), TB (4), asthma (2), other (8); five individuals had multiple co-morbidities

p-values <0.05 in bold

419 **Table 2. Summary of genetic contexts of *bla*_{CTX-M} in *E. coli***

	<i>E. coli bla</i> _{CTX-M-15}	<i>E. coli bla</i> _{CTX-M-55}	<i>E. coli bla</i> _{CTX-M-14}	<i>E. coli bla</i> _{CTX-M-27}	<i>E. coli bla</i> _{CTX-M-24}
	(n=41)	(n=24)	(n=15)	(n=12)	(n=3)
Location (chromosome versus plasmid)					
Chromosomal	5 (12%)	4 (17%)	2 (13%)	0	2 (67%)
Likely plasmid	2 (5%)	4 (17%)	5 (33%)	0	1 (33%)
Not determined	34 (83%)	16 (67%)	8 (53%)	12 (100%)	0
Evaluable	n=40*	n=23^y	n=15	n=12	n=3
immediate flanking context					
ISEcp1 upstream	40 (100%)	23 (100%)	15 (100%)	12 (100%)	3 (100%)
3' GACTA target site	36 (90%)	23 (100%)	0	0	0
sequence (TSS) at					

48bp upstream of <i>bla</i> _{CTX-M}					
3' TTTC A TSS at	4 (10%)	0	0	0	0
127bp upstream of <i>bla</i> _{CTX-M}					
3' GAATA TSS at	0	0	15 (100%)	12 (100%)	3 (100%)
42bp					
ISEcp1 incomplete	26 (65%)	14 (61%)	6 (40%)	12 (100%)	1 (100%)
due to IS26 element	13** (32%)	12† (52%)	0	12 (100%)	0
	left IRR - 11	left IRR - 1		left IRR - 12	
	right IRR - 2	right IRR - 11			
due to contig break	13 (32%)	2 (9%)	3 (20%)	0	1 (33%)
due to ISVsa5-like	0	0	2 (13%)	0	0

due IS1S right IRR	0	0	1 (7%)	0	0
ISEcp1 complete	13 (32%)	9 (39%)	9†† (60%)	0	2 (67%)
5' TCATA TSS	9 (22%)	4 (17%)	0	0	0
5' TAATA TSS	4 (10%)	3 (13%)	0	0	0
5' TAACA TSS	0	2 (14%)	0	0	0
5' CATT A TSS	0	0	4 (44%)	0	1 (33%)
5' AAATA TSS	0	0	2 (22%)	0	0
5' TAAAA TSS	0	0	1 (11%)	0	0
5' GCCGA TSS	0	0	1 (11%)	0	0
5' TATAT TSS	0	0	0	0	1 (33%)

420 * excluding one isolate with short contigs harbouring truncated *bla*_{CTX-M-15}

421 ** *ISEcp1* truncated at 24, 497, 524, 1067, 1173, 1421, or 1489bp.

422 ‡ excluding one isolate with short contig harbouring truncated *bla*_{CTX-M-55}

423 † *ISEcp1* truncated at 267, 309 or 497bp

- 424 †† For one only 1 bp of 5' TSS evaluable
- 425 ¶ *ISEcp1* truncated at 149, 192, 208 and 388bp
- 426 TSS=target site sequence
- 427 IRR=inverted repeat region

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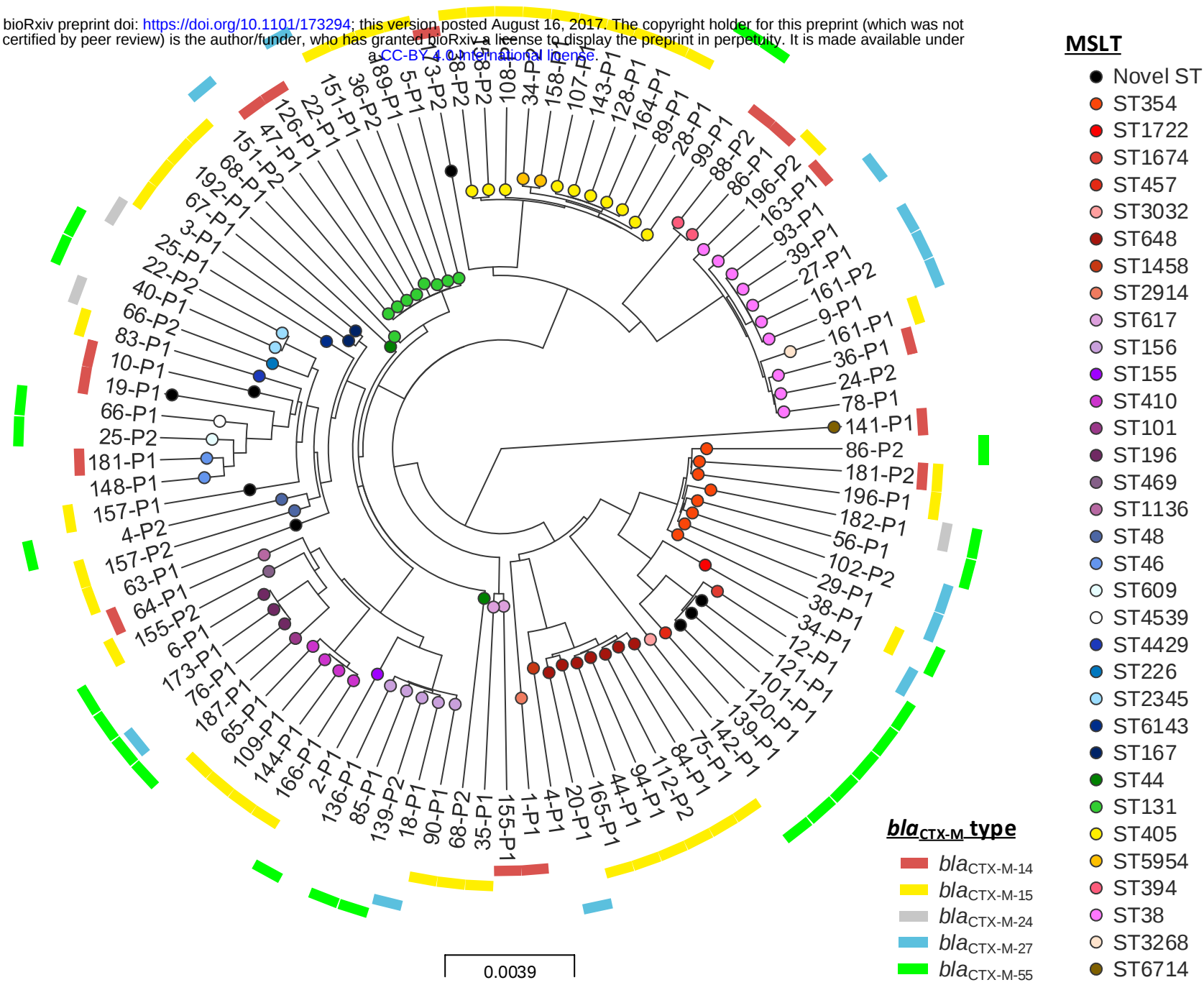
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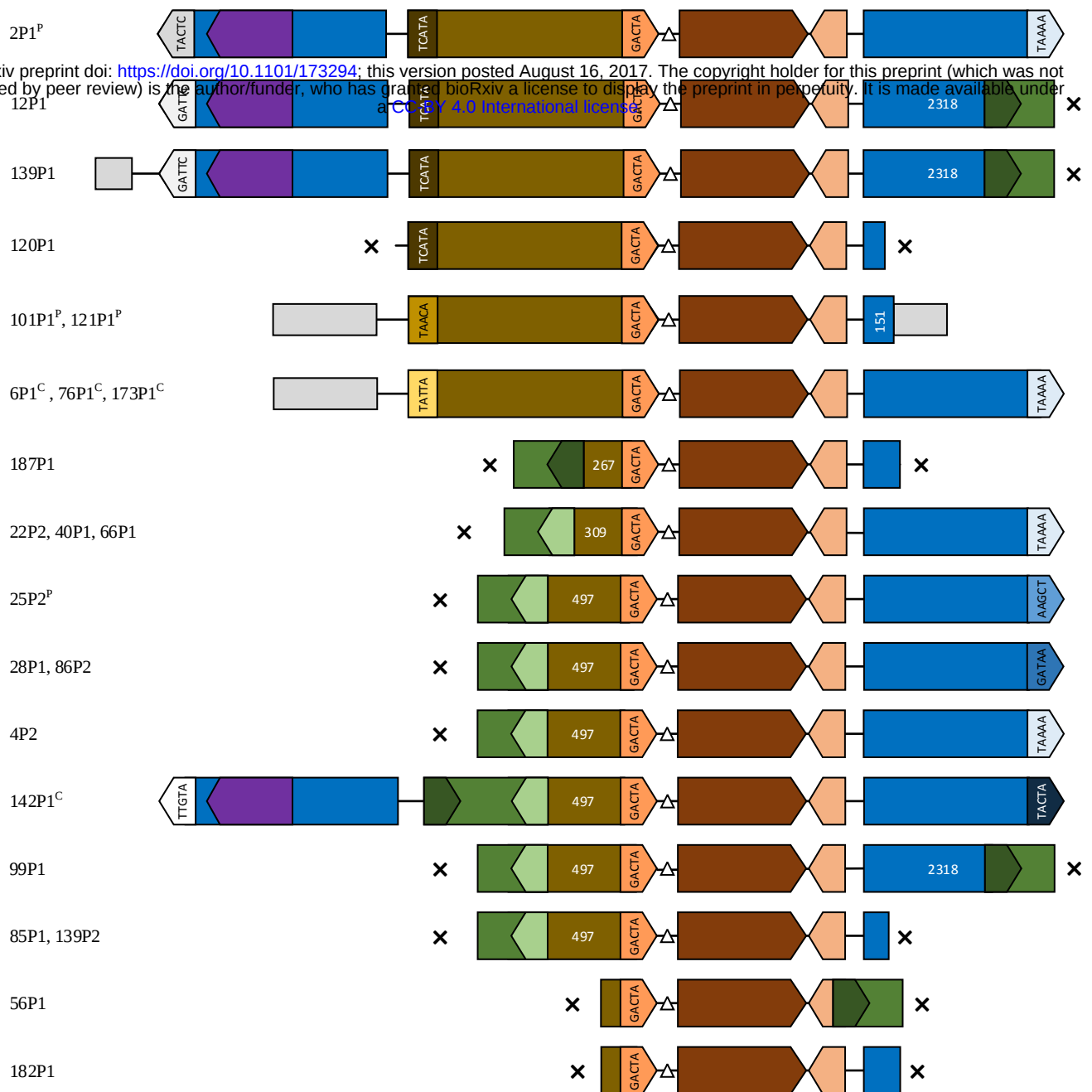
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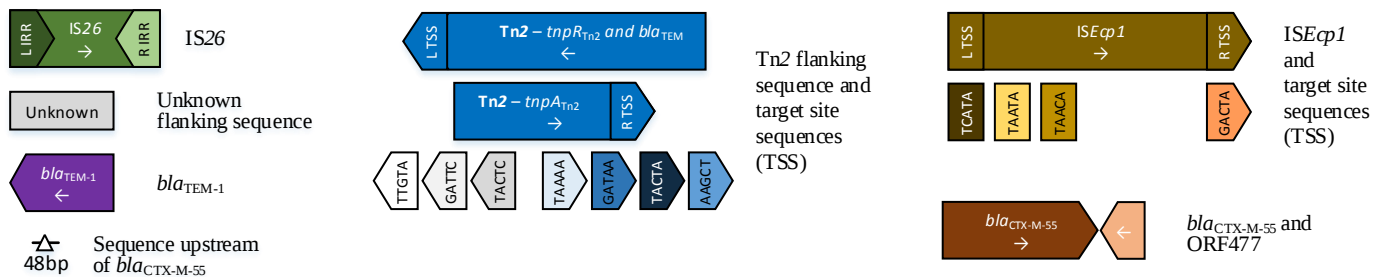
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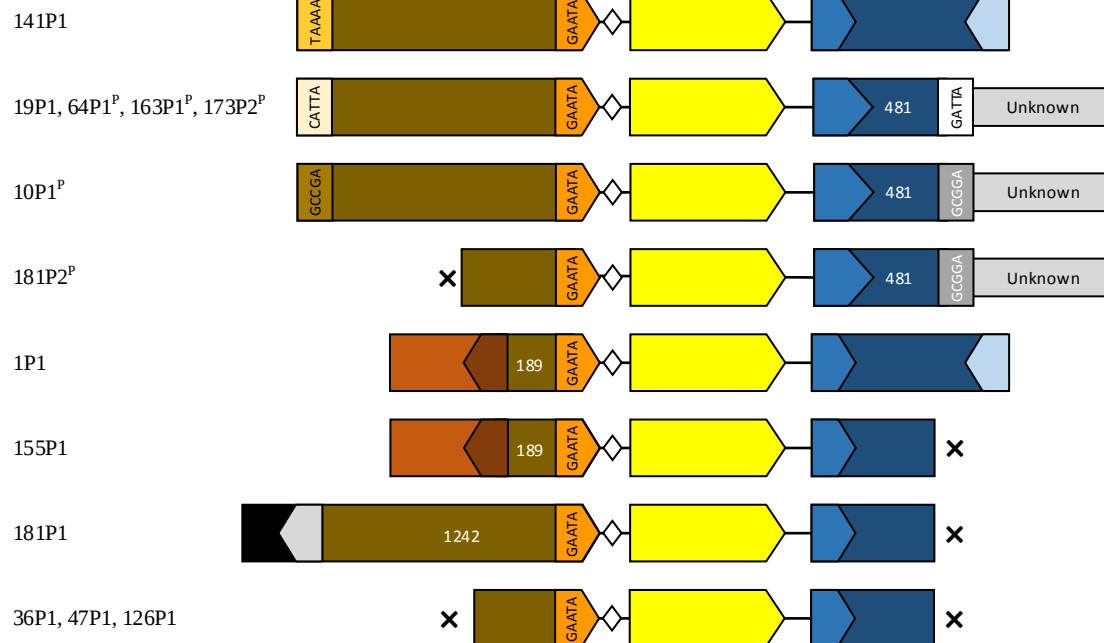


Key



a) *E. coli*

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b) *K. pneumoniae*



Key

