Extensive Capsule Locus Variation and Large-Scale Genomic Recombination within the *Klebsiella pneumoniae* Clonal Group 258

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Abstract

*Klebsiella pneumoniae* clonal group (CG) 258, comprising sequence types (STs) 258, 11, and closely related variants, is associated with dissemination of the *K. pneumoniae* carbapenemase (KPC). Hospital outbreaks of KPC CG258 infections have been observed globally and are very difficult to treat. As a consequence, there is renewed interest in alternative infection control measures such as vaccines and phage or depolymerase treatments targeting the *K. pneumoniae* polysaccharide capsule. To date, 78 immunologically distinct capsule variants have been described in *K. pneumoniae*. Previous investigations of ST258 and a small number of closely related strains suggested that capsular variation was limited within this clone; only two distinct ST258 capsule polysaccharide synthesis (*cps*) loci have been identified, both acquired through large-scale recombination events (>50 kb). In contrast to previous studies, we report a comparative genomic analysis of the broader *K. pneumoniae* CG258 (*n* = 39). We identified 11 different *cps* loci within CG258, indicating that capsular switching is actually common within the complex. We observed several insertion sequences (IS) within the *cps* loci, and show further intraclone diversification of two *cps* loci through IS activity. Our data also indicate that several large-scale recombination events have shaped the genomes of CG258, and that definition of the complex should be broadened to include ST395 (also reported to harbor KPC). As only the second report of extensive intraclonal *cps* variation among Gram-negative bacterial species, our findings alter our understanding of the evolution of these organisms and have key implications for the design of control measures targeting *K. pneumoniae* capsules.

Key words: *Klebsiella*, ST258, carbapenemase, *cps*, genome, evolution.
**Introduction**

*Klebsiella pneumoniae* has emerged as a common cause of multidrug-resistant healthcare-associated infections. In particular, isolates of sequence type (ST) 258 and closely related variants, such as ST11 (as defined by multilocus sequence typing [MLST]; Diancourt et al. 2005), are distributed across continents (Kitchel et al. 2009; Ko et al. 2010; Gomez et al. 2011; Li et al. 2012; Richter et al. 2012; Chiu et al. 2013), cause nosocomial outbreaks (Li et al. 2012; Richter et al. 2012; Snitkin et al. 2012), and are associated with the dissemination of carbapenem resistance encoded by the *K. pneumoniae* carbapenemase (KPC) gene (Kitchel et al. 2009; Seki et al. 2011; Richter et al. 2012; Yang et al. 2013). KPC carrying *K. pneumoniae* and other carbapenem-resistant *Enterobacteriaceae* are difficult to treat (Munoz-Price et al. 2013), and have recently been recognized as an urgent public health threat by the World Health Organization (2014), the United States Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (US Department of Health and Human Services 2014), and several other government bodies.

Given the limited options for therapeutic treatment of KPC and *K. pneumoniae* infections (Munoz-Price et al. 2013), there has been a resurgence of interest in *K. pneumoniae* vaccines as an alternative method of infection control, including polysaccharide vaccines targeting the capsule of outbreak strains (Ahmad et al. 2012). In addition, therapeutics based on capsule-targeting phage, or their capsular depolymerase enzymes, have also been proposed for control of *K. pneumoniae* (Lin et al. 2014). The polysaccharide capsule is among the most important *K. pneumoniae* virulence determinants, providing protection from phagocytosis, resistance to complement-mediated killing, and suppression of human beta-defensin expression (Allen et al. 1987; Kabha et al. 1995; Clements et al. 2008; Lee et al. 2014; Moranta et al. 2010). Counter-current immunoelectrophoresis techniques have distinguished 78 capsular serotypes (K types) (Brisse et al. 2004), and nucleotide sequencing has been used to explore the dynamics of capsule switching and genomic variation within the clonal complex (Chen et al. 2014; Deleo et al. 2014; Wright et al. 2014). These studies only included genomes of ST258 isolates and a small number of closely related variants (only three ST11) from a limited geographic distribution (mostly North America and Italy) (Chen et al. 2014; D’Andrea et al. 2014; Deleo et al. 2014; Wright et al. 2014). Overall, just three distinct cps loci have been characterized in clonal group (CG) 258 and two others have been indicated but not described (Chen et al. 2014).

Here, we performed a genomic investigation of 39 members of the wider *K. pneumoniae* ST258/11 CG258, which were identified within a diverse collection of 230 *K. pneumoniae* genomes as well as publicly available data. Our analysis incorporates more distantly related genomes than those included in previous reports, from nine countries across four continents, including a total of nine ST11, which is the presumed ancestor of ST258. Our analysis identifies numerous large-scale recombination events within CG258; identifies additional STs not previously recognized as part of this clonal complex; and provides independent confirmation of the recombination events involving ST42 and ST442 in the derivation of ST258. Most importantly, we identified 11 distinct cps loci within CG258, and used these data to explore the dynamics of capsule switching and genomic variation within the clonal complex.

**Materials and Methods**

**Genome Sequence Data analyzed in This Study**

Genomic data representing 39 *K. pneumoniae* CG258 representatives were included in this study (table 1). Genome assemblies for 30 isolates were retrieved from GenBank.
Sequence reads for one isolate (KpMDU1) were generated on the Ion Torrent platform. A total of 76-bp paired-end (PE) sequence reads for 8 isolates were generated on the Illumina Genome Analyzer GAII platform as part of a global diversity study of *K. pneumoniae*. Accessions for all CG258 sequence data are given in tables 1 and 2.

For genome-wide single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) screening of potential CG258 members or recombination donors, two public read sets were also analyzed (ERP000165, ERP002642).

### Genome-Wide Phylogenetic Analysis of Klebsiella pneumoniae

Sequence reads or, for public genomes, 100-bp PE reads simulated from assembled sequences using SAMTools wgsim (Black et al. 2010) with 0% error rate were mapped against the HS11286 reference chromosome (accession: NC_016845.1) using Bowtie 2 (Langmead and Salzberg 2012). SNPs were identified using SAMTools (Li et al. 2009) as previously described (Holt et al. 2012). Briefly, positions in which an unambiguous SNP call was made in any isolate with Phred quality ≥30 and read depth ≥5 were identified, and consensus alleles (unambiguous homozygous base calls with Phred ≥20) were extracted from all isolates and concatenated to generate an SNP alignment. For the global phylogeny, a concatenated alignment of all 272,365 core genome SNPs was generated (defined as genome positions conserved in ≥99% of the genomes). A maximum likelihood (ML) phylogeny was generated using RAxML (Stamatakis 2006) and a general time reversible substitution model with gamma model of rate heterogeneity. The tree representing the highest ML score among 5 runs, each of 100 bootstrap replicates, is shown in supplementary figure S1, Supplementary Material online.

### Phenylogy Construction and Recombination Detection within CG258

For the CG258 analysis, sequence reads or simulated reads (as above) were mapped against the HS11286 reference chromosome using Burrows-Wheeler Aligner (BWA) (Li and Durbin 2009) and SNPs were identified as above. A pseudo-whole genome alignment was generated by replacing reference bases with SNP alleles identified in each genome. Putative recombinant genome regions were identified from this whole genome alignment using BRATNextGen (Marttinen et al. 2012), with 100 × 20 iterations and a reporting threshold of $P < 0.05$. An ML phylogeny was generated using RAxML as above, using an alignment of SNPs at those sites that were conserved in ≥98% of CG258 genomes but not identified by BRATNextGen as affected by recombination
Investigation of Large-Scale Recombination Events Affecting ST258

Variable genome positions were identified by read mapping to the ST258 reference, NJST258_1 (accession: CP006923.1), and variant calling as described above. The resulting SNPs were analyzed using ChromoPainter (Lawson et al. 2012), assuming a uniform recombination map and running 10 iterations, maximizing over the recombination scaling constant. Table 2 lists the genomes included in this analysis.

Identification and Annotation of cps Loci

For publicly available assemblies, genome sequences were retrieved from GenBank (accessions in table 1). For short read data, reads were assembled de novo using two alternative approaches: SPAdes (Bankevich et al. 2012; with kmers 21, 33, 55, 63, 71) and Velvet with Velvet Optimizer (Zerbino and Birney 2008). For each isolate, the assembly yielding the smallest number of contigs was used for the analysis (SPAdes assembly for all except DM23092/04 and 09-370B). Cps loci were identified and extracted from the assemblies using a custom Python script, whereby BLAST was used to identify sequence regions with homology to the flanking genes galF and ugd (nucleotide BLAST followed by protein BLAST if no nucleotide-level matches were found). When galF and ugd were not found on the same contig, the nucleotide sequences from, and including, galF or ugd up to the ends of their respective contigs were extracted. In such cases, contig adjacency was manually confirmed by visual inspection of PE read mapping to the galF and ugd contigs (reads were mapped against extracted cps locus sequences using BWA [Li and Durbin 2009], sorted and compressed with SAMTools [Li et al. 2009], and viewed in Artemis [Rutherford et al. 2000]). In three cases, the galF and ugd contigs could not be joined (i.e., cps loci were split across more than two assembly contigs) and additional contigs were identified by BLAST search of published cps locus sequences, and confirmed by read mapping. In three cases (VA360, KpMDU1, and 09-370B), a putative contig join could not be confirmed using the mapping approach. In the case of the public genome, ATCC BAA-2146, no reads were available for mapping. The annotated cps sequences for these loci therefore contain contig breaks, the positions of which are shown in figure 2.

Cps loci were clustered into groups representing distinct structures by visual comparison using BLAST and Artemis Comparison Tool (Carver et al. 2005). Single representatives of each distinct cps locus cluster were annotated using Prokka (Seemann 2014) together with a reference protein set derived from published cps loci available in GenBank (accessions: AB371289.1, AB198423.1, AB289646.1, AB289648.1, AB289650.1, AB290716.1, AB371296.1). The resulting annotations, available at https://github.com/kelwyres/Kp-cps-loci (last accessed April 23, 2015) and GenBank (accessions: KR007671–KR007677), were then manually inspected and curated. Nucleotide sequences of conserved coding sequences (CDSs) were extracted and pairwise similarities were calculated using MEGAS (Tamura et al. 2011). Transposases were annotated using insertion sequence (IS) Finder (https://www-is.biotoul.fr/, last accessed April 23, 2015). Wzi alleles were assigned by comparison with the international K. pneumoniae BIGSdb (at http://biggsdb.web.pasteur.fr, last accessed April 23, 2015) using SRST2 (http://katholt.github.io/srst2/ , last accessed April 23, 2015; dx.doi.org/10.1101/006627).

Pairwise Nucleotide Differences and Gene Distance Jaccard Scores

Nucleotide differences were calculated using SNP data generated as described above. SNPs representing putative recombinant genomic regions identified by BRATNextGen were excluded. The total set of genes represented among the CG258 genomes was identified by mapping to a pan genome sequence for CG258. The latter was obtained by using iterative contig comparison to collate a nonredundant set of distinct contig sequences (~95%
sequence identity) present in the set of assemblies, which was annotated using Prokka (Seemann 2014). The presence of each gene in each read set was determined from mapping data, with presence defined as coverage of ≥95% of the length of the gene with mean read depth ≥5. Jaccard distances (J) were calculated as $J = a / b$, where $a$ denotes the number of genes that were different between two genomes (i.e., present in one but not both) and $b$ denotes the total number of genes present in either genome (i.e., present in one or both genomes).

**Results**

**Definition of the Wider Clonal Group 258**

It is generally accepted that *K. pneumoniae* of ST258 and its single locus variants, ST11, ST437, and ST512, represent a...
single clonal group, which descended from a recent common ancestor (Pereira et al. 2013; Deleo et al. 2014). We sought to identify all available genome sequences that may belong to CG258; therefore for the purposes of this analysis, we included all draft genomes of these STs that were available in public databases at the time of investigation (table 1). Additionally, MLST data and a core genome SNP phylogeny of a diverse global collection of \textit{K. pneumoniae} (described elsewhere, supplementary fig. S1, Supplementary Material online) indicated that ST395 was related to ST11: ST395 shared 4/7 MLST loci with ST11, and we estimated 0.2% genome-wide divergence between ST11 and ST395 compared with 0.6% mean divergence between ST11 and other \textit{K. pneumoniae} KpI. We therefore included the publicly available ST395 genome 1191100241, and our own sequenced ST395 isolate K242An, in the subsequent analysis.

**Evolution by Recombination**

We used BRATNextGen (Martinen et al. 2008) to assess the extent of recombination within the CG258 genomes (fig. 1).
In total, 160 recombinant genomic regions were identified across the chromosome; these recombinogenic regions had a median length of 2,385 bp (range 21 bp to 1.47 Mb, mean 57 kb). The BRATNextGen analysis identified three large recombinant regions in the ST395 genomes, each of which was >100 kb. The largest of these regions (which span the origin in fig. 1) was approximately 1.5 Mb in length and contained the three MLST loci that differ from ST11 (infB, mdh, and pgI; fig. 1). One of the other two recombinant regions identified in ST395 (>500 kb in length) was shared in whole or in part by the ST11 and ST437 genomes (marked by * in fig. 1). This region spans the recently reported recombination into the most recent common ancestor (MRCA) of ST258 (Chen et al. 2014); we concluded that BRATNextGen incorrectly characterized this as an import into all strains except ST258, as opposed to an import into the MRCA of ST258, simply due to a lack of resolution to differentiate these two possibilities.

We sought to investigate and characterize the largest putative recombination events in more detail across these isolates. We screened the collection of 230 K. pneumoniae genomes for genetic markers (wzi and/or MLST alleles) matching those within the putative imported regions. We were unable to identify any putative donors of the large ST395 recombinant regions described above, but identified candidate donors for the ST258 lineage recombination events (ST42/wzi-29 isolate DB44834/96 and ST442/wzi-154 isolate QMP Z4-702).

We used ChromoPainter (Lawson et al. 2012) to estimate the probable ancestral origin of sites across the ST258-2 and ST258-1 genomes, as a function of our ST11, ST42, and ST442 genome sequences (supplementary fig. S2, Supplementary Material online). This analysis indicated that ST258-2 resulted from import into ST11 of a large ST442-like sequence spanning the cps locus and resulting in a change of cps type, followed by a later import of an ST42-like 50 kb sequence again spanning the cps locus, resulting in a further capsule switch and generating the ST258-1 lineage.

Fine-Scale Phylogenetic Structure

A phylogey reflecting vertical patterns of inheritance among the wider CG258 is shown in figure 1 (also see supplementary fig. S3, Supplementary Material online). ML tree inferred from genome-wide SNP calls after excluding SNPs introduced by putative recombination events identified by BRATNextGen). The MRCA for all ST11 genomes was close to the root of the tree, that is, the MRCA of the whole complex. Genomes of ST258 and ST512 formed a subcluster, within which two further sublineages were identified (supplementary fig. S3, Supplementary Material online), which matched those previously described as ST258-1, and ST258-2 plus ST512 (Deleo et al. 2014; Wright et al. 2014). The definition of these sublineages was supported even after putative recombinant genomic regions were removed from the analysis, as presented here and by Deleo et al. ST258/512 and ST395 were each defined as tight clusters separated by deep branches, indicating long-term divergence from the MRCA followed by recent independent clonal expansions of each sublineage. In contrast, the ST11 genomes exhibited a greater degree of diversity (fig. 1, panel B). Taken together, these phylogegetic and recombination analyses indicate that members of CG258 descend from a common ancestor (most likely of ST11) that has diversified into several distinct lineages, some of which have novel ST combinations due to point mutations or recombination affecting the MLST loci.

In all cases where dates were known, our K. pneumoniae were isolated between 2004 and 2012, and did not show any obvious patterns across the CG258 subclusters. All of the ST11 isolates originated from South East Asia, whereas the ST258/512 subcluster isolates originated from a wider geographic distribution including the United States, Italy, Israel, and Australia. However, given that our genomes do not represent a systematic sample, it is not possible to use our data to make any inferences about differences in geographic distribution between subclusters.

Cps loci in CG258

We identified 11 distinct cps loci within CG258 (fig. 2, table 1). Three of these cps loci matched those previously characterized in the ST11 reference genome HS11286 (genotype wzi-74/cps4, wzi-29/cps3, and wzi-154/cps-504; unknown serotypes) (Chen et al. 2014; D’Andrea et al. 2014; Deleo et al. 2014). The remaining cps loci were annotated and are available in GenBank (accessions: KR007671–KR007677) or at https://github.com/kelwyres/Kp-cps-loci.git (last accessed April 23, 2015). The capsular serotypes were predicted based on wzi alleles (table 1).

All CG258 cps loci shared a conserved macrostructure consistent with that previously reported among K. pneumoniae (Shu et al. 2009)(figs. 2 and 3). The macrostructure comprised eight conserved CDSs situated at either end of the locus had a conserved macrostructure comprising eight conserved CDSs situated at either end of the locus and resulting in a change of cps type, followed by a later import of an ST42-like 50 kb sequence again spanning the cps locus, resulting in a further capsule switch and generating the ST258-1 lineage.

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evolutionary origins of the nonconserved CDSs are distinct from those of the conserved CDSs and the rest of the K. pneumoniae chromosome. Presumably, the central CDSs have been transferred horizontally into the center of the locus and then exchanged through homologous recombination mediated by sequence conservation in the outer CDSs. The cps sequences indicated that variation in the central region drives differences in the overall length and CDS content of the cps locus, which ranged from 20 to 31 kb and from 16 to 24 CDSs, respectively (excluding transposases, see fig. 2). Among the 223 independent CDSs annotated across the 11 CG258 cps loci, predicted protein products included sugar production/processing proteins \( (n = 69) \), sugar transferase proteins \( (n = 69) \), capsule export and assembly proteins \( (n = 44) \), sugar transport proteins \( (n = 15) \), unknown proteins associated with capsule production \( (n = 11) \), and hypothetical proteins \( (n = 15) \) (fig. 2). The nonconserved CDSs in the center of the locus were predominantly associated with capsule-specific sugar synthesis and assembly. For example, cps-A, -F, and -I carried \( \text{manB} \) and \( \text{manC} \) that encode a phosphomannomutase and a mannose-1-phosphate guanylyltransferase, respectively. In total, 134 CDSs were identified within the nonconserved \( \text{cps} \) regions. BLAST comparisons with nucleotide and protein sequences in the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) database indicated that 58 of these proteins were associated with the synthesis, processing, and/or export of specific sugars and/or sugar derivatives: Mannose \( (n = 21) \), galactose \( (n = 9) \), glucose \( (n = 9) \), colonic acid \( (n = 8) \), pyruvic acid \( (n = 5) \), acetic acid \( (n = 4) \), fucose \( (n = 1) \), and hyaluronic acid \( (n = 1) \). A further 61 CDSs had \( >70\% \) amino acid identity to sequences commonly associated with sugar synthesis, processing, and/or export. Fifteen CDSs did not match any known nucleotide or protein sequences in the NCBI database or matched sequences annotated as hypothetical. Notably, the nonconserved region of the \( \text{cps} \) locus of National Institutes of Health (NIH) outbreak-associated isolates included two putative rhamnosyltransferase genes, consistent with the reported detection of rhamnose derivatives in the capsule of outbreak-associated isolates (Kubler-Kielb et al. 2013). Thirteen transposase-associated CDSs were additionally identified within the \( \text{cps} \) sequences (fig. 2). These included \( \text{IS1} \) (present in four \( \text{cps} \)), \( \text{IS2} \) (present in one \( \text{cps} \), adjacent to an \( \text{IS1} \) insertion), \( \text{IS5} \) (present in three \( \text{cps} \)), and \( \text{IS630} \) (present

**Fig. 3.—**Macrostructure and features of Klebsiella pneumoniae \( \text{cps} \) loci. (A) Structure of a representative \( \text{cps} \) locus, \( \text{cps-B} \) (individual structures \( \text{cps A–K} \) are given in fig. 4). Filled arrows indicate size and direction of protein-coding genes; dark gray, conserved CDSs present in all \( \text{cps} \) loci (gene symbols labeled); light grey, nonconserved CDSs (present in \( \text{cps-B} \) but not other \( \text{cps} \) loci); white arrow, transposase. Black arrows indicate the relative start position and direction of transcriptional units as described in Shu et al. (2009). (B) \( \text{G+C} \) content across \( \text{cps-B} \); red and blue indicate above and below the mean \( \text{G+C} \) content of the locus. Dashed line indicates mean \( \text{G+C} \) across the whole genome (57%). Note that although only \( \text{cps-B} \) is represented here, we observed a similar \( \text{G+C} \) content pattern across all \( \text{cps} \) loci. (C) Distributions of pairwise nucleotide similarities among CG258 \( \text{cps} \) loci, for conserved genes only.
in one cps). Furthermore, four of the IS insertions (two IS1, two IS5) occurred upstream of wzi, near the transcriptional start site for the majority of capsular synthesis genes. These transposases have strong promoters and are in frame with the cps CDS. The other IS insertions all occur within the central sugar processing regions—two of these disrupt CDS (IS1 in cps-G and IS5 in cps-Ki).

For two cps loci, transposase insertions were differentially present, generating variant forms of the cps locus. Cps-K (wzi-75), identified in three closely related ST11 isolates from Singapore, carried an IS5 insertion in the sugar-processing region in one isolate. Both available ST258-1 references carried an IS5 insertion in the sugar-processing regions—two of these disrupt CDS (IS1 in cps-G and IS5 in cps-Ki).

Phylogenetic Distribution of cps Loci and Capsule Switching

The various cps loci were confined to distinct phylogenetic subclusters within CG258 (fig. 1). Across the clonal group, genomes with different cps regions were also differentiated in terms of nucleotide divergence across conserved regions of the genome (fig. 4). As presented above, the ST258/512 cluster harbored two cps loci, each confined to one of the ST258 sublineages that were separated by a few hundred SNPs. The next closest genome pair with different cps loci was NCSR101 and ATCC BAA-2146 (both ST11), which differed by 500 SNPs across the rest of the genome, whereas all other pairs of genomes with different cps loci differed by >1,000 SNPs. These data suggest that stable capsule switching events may occur as frequently as one in every $10^2$–$10^3$ nucleotide substitutions in K. pneumoniae. (A recent molecular clock analysis of ST258 K. pneumoniae suggested that this may be equivalent to as few as 3 years in real time; Gaia et al. 2015). Extensive differences in gene content were also observed within CG258 and were correlated with nucleotide divergence (fig. 4). Genomes with different cps loci also differed substantially in terms of gene content outside the cps locus (mean 809 genes different between pairs of genomes).

Discussion

Our data provide important insights into the evolution and capsular diversity of globally distributed KPC-associated K. pneumoniae CG258. Significantly, we show that the previously reported large-scale recombination events and capsule switches are not unique events in the history of this clonal group, but are a major and potentially common driver of variation within CG258. Our analyses also provide independent evidence to support the previous findings that ST258/512 emerged as a hybrid lineage within CG258 (Chen et al. 2014; Wright et al. 2014) and, through use of an alternative analytical framework (ChromoPainter) and novel genomes, we provide independent confirmation of the large-scale recombination events that drove its emergence and resulted in capsule switching.

We identified a large (1.5 Mb) recombination import and a second import of approximately 113 kb within the ST395 genomes (fig. 5), which lay within CG258 (fig. 1). These large-scale recombination events led to the acquisition of divergent alleles at three of the seven K. pneumoniae MLST loci (fig. 5). As a consequence, ST395 (a 4-locus variant of ST258) has not routinely been considered part of the global CG258, even when KPC ST395 was found cocirculating with KPC ST11 in Asia (Yang et al. 2013) or when CGs were defined based on core genome MLST (MLST comprising 694 conserved K. pneumoniae genes, whereby CGs were defined as groups of isolates that differed at $\leq$100 loci) (Bialek-Davenet et al. 2014). Our data indicate that ST395 is highly similar to ST258 in that it is a hybrid KPC-associated strain emerging within CG258. Our analysis therefore provides strong evidence for an expanded definition of CG258 to include all strains that share an MRCA with ST11 as opposed to being based on shared MLST alleles (fig. 1). Furthermore, our data suggest that all CG258 isolates, including ST395 and ST437, should be included in any surveillance and research investigations focused on KPC CG258.

We identified 11 distinct cps loci among CG258, of which only 3 had been previously described in the complex.
The capsular serotypes of the ST258 isolates included in this study were unknown, as serotyping is rarely performed for \textit{K. pneumoniae}. However, previous studies have reported expression of serotype K41 among three ST258 \textit{K. pneumoniae} that were tested (Tzouveleks et al. 2013). It is not clear which of the ST258-associated \textit{cps} loci was present in those sero-typed isolates, although it was noted that they harbored KPC allele 2, which has been associated with ST258-1/\textit{wzi}-29/\textit{cps}$_{207}$-2 (Deleo et al. 2014; Wright et al. 2014). The \textit{cps} loci reported here had very few conserved genes (figs. 2 and 3) and differed extensively in their complement of sugar-processing genes. Hence, while the associated serotypes are not known for all the \textit{cps} loci, exchange of these loci within CG258 can be assumed to result in phenotypic capsule switching.

The \textit{cps} loci were correlated with phylogenetically defined sublineages (fig. 1). We also observed diversification of \textit{cps} loci into variants within phylogenetic sublineages, via the activity of IS, which may prove to be useful epidemiological markers for identifying ST258 subclones. The ISs involved are diverse and are not site specific, but were nevertheless observed only in two regions within the \textit{cps}—upstream of \textit{wzi}, or within the central sugar-processing region. Only 2 of the 13 insertions interrupted coding sequences, indicative of selection against transposition events that interrupt expression of the capsular biosynthesis genes (as other IS insertions within CDSs presumably occur but are deleterious in competition with encapsulated strains). However, the IS insertions could hypothetically alter capsular gene expression, or promote capsule switching via rearrangement or horizontal transfer. IS1 and IS5 were identified upstream of \textit{wzi}, within the promoter region of the majority of capsular biosynthesis genes (Shu et al. 2009), in four different \textit{cps} loci (figs. 2 and 3). It has been shown that insertion of IS5 into specific sites upstream of coding sequence regions can enhance expression of various operons in \textit{E. coli} (Schnetz and Rak 1992). IS1 insertions in either orientation can also enhance (Olliver et al. 2005) or interrupt (Fernández et al. 2007) gene expression in \textit{E. coli}. Furthermore, insertion of IS1301 upstream of the capsule biosynthesis (\textit{sia}) and export (\textit{ctr}) operons of \textit{Neisseria meningitidis} C has been shown to upregulate capsule expression and promote resistance to complement-mediated killing (Uria et al. 2008). Therefore, the apparent hotspot for IS acquisition upstream of \textit{wzi} in the \textit{K. pneumoniae} \textit{cps} locus may indicate not only purifying selection against deleterious mutants resulting in loss of capsular expression, but also positive selection for enhanced capsule expression at the transcriptional level. In addition, IS1, IS2, IS5, and IS630 were all found within the sugar-processing region of the \textit{cps} loci. IS1-mediated rearrangement of the \textit{cps} locus has been reported in \textit{E. coli} (Drummelsmith et al. 1997); consequently, the accumulation of IS in this central region may contribute to capsule switching and diversification of the \textit{cps} loci in \textit{K. pneumoniae}. 

**Fig. 5.**—Evolutionary history of the CG258 genomes. Dendrogram represents hierarchical relationships among ST442, ST42, and the CG258 STs (branch lengths not meaningful). Colored bars (right) represent the genome of each ST (approximate scale only, coordinates relative to HS11286 genome). Dark grey blocks represent genomic regions descended from the MRCA of CG258; yellow blocks represent recombinant regions acquired from an unknown donor(s); dark blue bar represents the ST442 genome, part of which was imported to ST11 forming the hybrid ST258-2 genome; red bar represents the ST42 genome, part of which was imported to ST258-2 forming ST258-1. The positions of MLST loci and the \textit{cps} locus are indicated by arrows.

(D’Andrea et al. 2014). In addition, further IS-associated variants of two loci were identified (fig. 2). The 11 \textit{cps} loci were differentiated by structural (gene content and synten) rather than nucleotide-level differences. As such, the presence of multiple different variants among otherwise closely related isolates indicates change by horizontal transfer rather than mutation. In contrast to the large recombination events identified in ST395 and ST258, most \textit{cps} locus changes were not associated with large-scale recombination events, suggesting that the recombination breakpoints associated with these capsule switches lay much closer to, or possibly within, the \textit{cps} locus itself. This hypothesis is consistent with the observation of declining sequence conservation toward the center of the \textit{cps} locus, because this region has likely been affected by a greater number of recombination events than the outer \textit{cps} locus regions throughout the evolutionary history of \textit{K. pneumoniae}. Alternatively, it is possible that the downstream recombination breakpoints lay outside of the \textit{cps} locus but were masked by interstrain variation at the nearby Lipopolysaccharide locus (O antigen locus), which also varied among our \textit{K. pneumoniae} genomes. The latter may be indicative of diversification of LPS within the complex; however, as the genetics of LPS production in \textit{K. pneumoniae} are not well-understood, we are unable to draw conclusions about this from the sequence data.
Extensive capsular switching within clones is well-understood in Gram-positive pathogens such as Streptococcus pneumoniae, and was recently reported among epidemic Acinetobacter baumannii (Kenyon et al. 2013) and E. coli (Alqasim et al. 2014), but has not been widely reported among other Gram-negative Enterobacteriaceae (Croucher and Klugman 2014). The high number of distinct cps locus variants within our sample suggests that capsule switching may be a common event across the wider K. pneumoniae CG258. It is reasonable to assume that as the ST258 sublineages continue to evolve, their cps loci will continue to diversify through recombination, transposition, and potentially transposase-mediated horizontal gene transfer, as described here for ST11 and other members of the wider CG. The pool of potential cps locus donors is expansive; 78 capsular serotypes have been defined, and wzi and wzc sequencing efforts suggest that many more cps loci exist in the wider K. pneumoniae population (Brisse et al. 2013; Pan et al. 2013). The ST442/wzi-154 and ST42/wzi-29 K. pneumoniae we identified as being closely related to the donors involved in ST258 recombination events were isolated under very different circumstances to those described in previous reports. The K. pneumoniae ST442/wzi-154 strain in this study was isolated from a case of bovine mastitis at a dairy farm in New York State in 2006 (Kanevsky-Mullarky et al. 2014), which is geographically close to the location of the first reports of ST258 in New York in 2000 (Woodford et al. 2004). The ST42/wzi-29 was isolated in 1996 from a blood stream infection in a hospital in Singapore (Koh et al. 1999) (note that ST11 is considered most common in South East Asia). Thus, our data serve as a reminder that circulating genetic variation, including virulence determinants such as the cps locus, can be disseminated through both clinical and environmental sources. The latter niche is currently drastically undersampled, meaning that much of the genetic variation circulating within global K. pneumoniae populations is not yet captured.

It is not yet clear whether capsular switching is equally common among all K. pneumoniae CGs. Evidence from our data suggest that a similar pattern of capsular diversity may exist among ST42 K. pneumoniae (we identified four genomes with three different cps loci: One with wzi-29, one with wzi-41, and two with wzi-33—all unknown serotypes; genome data in BigGdb, http://biggdb.web.pasteur.fr, last accessed April 23, 2015). In contrast, ST23 K. pneumoniae have generally been associated with a single capsule type (Bialek-Davenet et al. 2014). In order to better understand the capsule epidemiology among different K. pneumoniae CGs, it may be valuable to include capsule typing methods in routine surveillance programs, perhaps utilizing wzi or wzc sequencing as an indication of cps locus diversity (although it should be noted that the extent to which wzi/wzc alleles are conserved among structurally similar cps loci encoding the same capsule synthesis machinery, and vice versa, is not yet known). However, these data should not be used to inform epidemiological investigations in the absence of core chromosomal information such as MLST or whole genome SNPs, because distantly related K. pneumoniae may harbor highly similar cps loci, for example, the ST258/wzi-29 and ST42/wzi-29 isolates described here.

Given that K. pneumoniae capsule variants are immunologically distinct (Campbell et al. 1996), the apparent propensity of KPC CG258 to undergo multiple sequential capsular switching is concerning, and suggests that capsular-based vaccines or depolymerase treatments may be of limited use. One possible vaccination strategy would be to target a wider range of capsule types, similar to the approach currently used in the design of S. pneumoniae capsular vaccines (currently 10 or 13 types). However, comprehensive population surveillance would be required in order to monitor the response to vaccination, which in the case of S. pneumoniae has included the emergence of vaccine escape strains (Golubchik et al. 2012) and the expansion of pre-existing clones expressing capsule types not targeted by the vaccine (Pai et al. 2005). Depolymerase treatment comprises the application of capsule-specific phage enzymes that lyse K. pneumoniae capsules. Such treatment has been shown to improve the survival rate of mice infected intraperitoneally with K. pneumoniae (Lin et al. 2014), but would likely be difficult to scale in the face of extensive capsule diversity. In either case, a more comprehensive understanding, including investigation of diversity and evolution of capsular loci among the broader population of clinical, human carriage and environmental K. pneumoniae isolates, is required.

**Supplementary Material**

Supplementary figures S1–S3 are available at Genome Biology and Evolution online (http://www.gbe.oxfordjournals.org).

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