- 1 Genomic epidemiology of a complex, multi-species plasmid-borne *bla*_{KPC}
- 2 carbapenemase outbreak in Enterobacterales in the UK, 2009-2014
- 4 Stoesser N*^{#1, 2}/Phan HTT*^{2,3}, Anna C. Seale^{1,4}, Zoie Aiken⁵, Stephanie Thomas⁵,
- 5 Matthew Smith⁵, David Wyllie¹, Ryan George⁵, Robert Sebra⁶, Amy J Mathers^{7,8},
- 6 Alison Vaughan¹, Tim EA Peto^{1,2,9}, Matthew J Ellington¹⁰, Katie L Hopkins¹⁰,
- 7 Derrick W Crook^{1,2,9}, Alex Orlek^{1,2}, William Welfare¹¹, Julie Cawthorne⁵, Cheryl
- 8 Lenney⁵, Andrew Dodgson^{5, 12}, Neil Woodford¹⁰, A Sarah Walker^{1,2,9}, and the
- 9 TRACE Investigators' Group
- 10 * These authors contributed equally to this work
- # Corresponding author

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- 13 Nuffield Department of Clinical Medicine, University of Oxford, Oxford, UK
- ²NIHR Health Protection Research Unit in Healthcare Associated Infections and
- Antimicrobial Resistance, University of Oxford, Oxford, UK
- ³Faculty of Medicine, University of Southampton, Southampton, UK
- 17 ⁴ Department of Infectious Disease Epidemiology, London School of Hygiene and
- 18 Tropical Medicine, UK
- ⁵ Manchester University NHS Foundation Trust, Manchester, UK
- 20 ⁶ Icahn Institute and Department of Genetics and Genomic Sciences, Icahn School of
- 21 Medicine, Mount Sinai, New York, USA
- ⁷ Division of Infectious Diseases and International Health, Department of Medicine,
- 23 University of Virginia Health System, Charlottesville, Virginia, USA
- ⁸ Clinical Microbiology Laboratory, Department of Pathology, University of Virginia
- Health System, Charlottesville, Virginia, USA

- ⁹ NIHR Biomedical Research Centre, University of Oxford, Oxford, UK
- 27 ¹⁰ Antimicrobial Resistance and Healthcare Associated Infections (AMRHAI)
- 28 Reference Unit, National Infection Service, Public Health England, London, UK
- 29 ¹¹ Public Health England North West, Manchester, UK
- 30 ¹² Public Health Laboratory, Public Heath England, Manchester, UK
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- 35 **Corresponding author**: Nicole Stoesser
- 36 Email: nicole.stoesser@ndm.ox.ac.uk
- 37 Tel: +44 (0) 1865 220856

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ABSTRACT

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Carbapenem resistance in Enterobacterales is a public health threat. Klebsiella pneumoniae carbapenemase (encoded by alleles of the bla_{KPC} family) is one of the commonest transmissible carbapenem resistance mechanisms worldwide. The dissemination of bla_{KPC} has historically been associated with distinct K. pneumoniae lineages (clonal group 258 [CG258]), a particular plasmid family (pKpQIL), and a composite transposon (Tn4401). In the UK, bla_{KPC} has caused a large-scale, persistent outbreak focused on hospitals in North-West England. This outbreak has evolved to be polyclonal and poly-species, but the genetic mechanisms underpinning this evolution have not been elucidated in detail; this study used short-read whole genome sequencing of 604 bla_{KPC}-positive isolates (Illumina) and long-read assembly (PacBio)/polishing (Illumina) of 21 isolates for characterisation. We observed the dissemination of bla_{KPC} (predominantly bla_{KPC-2} ; 573/604 [95%] isolates) across eight species and more than 100 known sequence types. Although there was some variation at the transposon level (mostly Tn4401a, 584/604 (97%) isolates; predominantly with ATTGA-ATTGA target site duplications, 465/604 [77%] isolates), bla_{KPC} spread appears to have been supported by highly fluid, modular exchange of larger genetic segments amongst plasmid populations dominated by IncFIB (580/604 isolates), IncFII (545/604 isolates) and IncR replicons (252/604 isolates). The subset of reconstructed plasmid sequences also highlighted modular exchange amongst non $bla_{\rm KPC}$ and $bla_{\rm KPC}$ plasmids, and the common presence of multiple replicons within $bla_{\rm KPC}$ plasmid structures (>60%). The substantial genomic plasticity observed has important implications for our understanding of the epidemiology of transmissible carbapenem resistance in Enterobacterales, for the implementation of adequate surveillance approaches, and for control.

IMPORTANCE

Antimicrobial resistance is a major threat to the management of infections, and resistance to carbapenems, one of the "last line" antibiotics available for managing drug-resistant infections, is a significant problem. This study used large-scale whole genome sequencing over a five-year period in the UK to highlight the complexity of genetic structures facilitating the spread of an important carbapenem resistance gene ($bla_{\rm KPC}$) amongst a number of bacterial species that cause disease in humans. In contrast to a recent pan-European study from 2012-2013(1), which demonstrated the major role of spread of clonal $bla_{\rm KPC}$ -Klebsiella pneumoniae lineages in continental Europe, our study highlights the substantial plasticity in genetic mechanisms underpinning the dissemination of $bla_{\rm KPC}$. This genetic flux has important implications for: the surveillance of drug resistance (i.e. making surveillance more difficult); detection of outbreaks and tracking hospital transmission; generalizability of surveillance findings over time and for different regions; and for the implementation and evaluation of control interventions.

INTRODUCTION

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Antimicrobial resistance (AMR) in Enterobacterales is a critical public health threat. Carbapenem resistance is of particular concern, and outbreaks involving multiple species of carbapenemase-producing Enterobacterales (CPE) are increasingly reported(2-5). Exchange of AMR genes, including carbapenem resistance genes, happens at multiple genetic levels(6), and is often facilitated by their presence on plasmids [circular DNA structures of variable size (2kb~>1Mb)], and/or other smaller mobile genetic elements (MGEs) such as transposons and insertion sequences (IS), that form part of the accessory genome. Whole genome sequencing (WGS) has significantly improved our understanding of infectious diseases epidemiology and is used in both community-associated and nosocomial transmission analyses (7, 8). Although useful for delineating transmission routes in clonal, strain-based outbreaks, standard phylogenetic approaches and comparative analyses have been more difficult for outbreaks involving multiple bacterial strains/species and transmissible resistance genes(6). Reconstruction of the genetic structures of plasmids carrying relevant antimicrobial resistance genes using long-read sequencing has improved our understanding of the genetic complexity of these resistance gene outbreaks, but has been difficult to undertake on a large scale. Although approximately 40 Klebsiella pneumoniae carbapenemase (KPC; encoded by bla_{KPC}) variants have now been described (as per NCBI's AMR reference gene catalogue, available at https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pathogens/isolates#/refgene/), only two have been most widely reported globally, namely KPC-2 and KPC-3 (H272Y with respect to KPC-2; single nucleotide difference in bla_{KPC} [C814T])(9,

10). In the UK, the first KPC isolate identified was a KPC-4-containing *Enterobacter* sp. isolated in Scotland in 2003(11), with subsequent identification of KPC-3 in isolates in the UK in 2007. From 2007, increasing numbers of suspected KPC isolates were referred to Public Health England (PHE's) Antimicrobial Resistance and Healthcare Associated Infections (AMRHAI) Reference Unit, with the majority of confirmed KPC-producers (>95%) coming from an evolving KPC-2-associated outbreak in hospitals in North-West England, first recognised in 2008(12). These isolates were predominantly bla_{KPC}-positive Enterobacterales cultured from patients in the Central Manchester University Hospitals NHS Foundation Trust (CMFT; now part of Manchester University NHS Foundation Trust)(13). bla_{KPC} is thought to have been introduced into the region via a pKpQIL-like plasmid(14, 15), a plasmid backbone previously associated with the global dissemination of bla_{KPC} in K. pneumoniae clonal group 258, and already observed in other K. pneumoniae sequence types (STs) and species in an analysis of 44 UK KPC-Enterobacterales from 2008-2010(15). We used WGS to undertake a large-scale retrospective study of this multi-species, polyclonal, bla_{KPC} outbreak in North-West England from 2009, generating complete genome structures, including bla_{KPC} plasmids, for a subset of isolates. We contextualised our analysis of regional outbreak strains using isolates from a national bla_{KPC} surveillance programme, with the goal of understanding the genetic structures associated with the regional emergence of bla_{KPC} in this setting.

RESULTS

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Of 742 isolates identified for sequencing, 60 (8%) were not retrievable or cultivable from the laboratory archives. After de-duplicating by taking the first bla_{KPC} -positive Enterobacterales (KPC-E) per patient, and excluding sequencing failures, any sequences without bla_{KPC} (assumed lost in culture), and mixtures (identified from genomic data analysis, see Methods), 604 evaluable isolate sequences were included. These included: 327 archived isolates (54%) from inpatients in the early stages of the observed outbreak (2009-2011), of which 309 and 18 isolates were from CMFT and the University Hospital of South Manchester NHS Foundation Trust (UHSM; now part of Manchester University NHS Foundation Trust) respectively; 78 (13%) later isolates from CMFT/UHSM (2012-2014); 119 (20%) isolates from other hospitals (n=15 hospitals) in North-West England (2009-2014, excluding CMFT and UHSM, up to the first 25 consecutive KPC-E isolates per hospital); 72 (12%) isolates from UK and Republic of Ireland hospitals (n=72 locations [n=4 from the Republic of Ireland]) outside the North-West (2009-2014) (first KPC-E isolate per hospital); and 8 (1%) isolates from English outpatient/primary care settings. Although three bla_{KPC} variants were observed in the 604 included isolates, bla_{KPC-2} dominated (n=573, 95%); bla_{KPC-3} [n=27, 4%] and bla_{KPC-4} [n=4, 1%]) were also observed. Two isolates (0.3%; trace524, trace534) showed evidence of mixed populations of bla_{KPC-2} and bla_{KPC-3} . The median bla_{KPC} copy number estimate was 1.8 (IQR: 1.6-2.1), with a maximum of 8.2. Across the three main species, bla_{KPC} copy numbers were higher in K. pneumoniae (n=525 [87%], median 1.8 [IQR: 1.6-2.1]), than E. coli (40 [7%]: 1.7 [1.5-1.9]) or E. cloacae (26 [4%], 1.6 [1.4-2.0]) (Kruskal-Wallis; p=0.0003; Fig.1A). Amongst common STs, copy number was highest in K.

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pneumoniae ST258 (n=65 [11%], median 2.4 [IQR: 1.8-2.9]) versus other species/STs (n=531 [89%], median 1.8 [1.6, 2.0]) (Kruskal-Wallis; p=0.0001; Fig.1B, Fig.S1). Other broad or extended-spectrum beta-lactamase genes were also commonly present across isolates, including: bla_{TEM} (n=452, all $bla_{\text{TEM-1}}$), bla_{OXA} (n=492; $\Delta bla_{\text{OXA-9}}$ [n=425], bla_{OXA-1} [n=138]), bla_{SHV} (n=497) and bla_{CTX-M} $(n=89; bla_{CTX-M-15}$ [n=57], bla_{CTX-M-9} [n=28]). Aminoglycoside resistance genes were also widely prevalent: aac (n=243), aph (n=196), ant (n=93) and aadA (n=280). In terms of acquired quinolone resistance, 160 isolates contained qnr variants, and 137 isolates contained aac(6')-Ibcr; no qep variants were seen. Insertion sequences (ISs) have been shown to be key in the reshaping and streamlining of bacterial genomes, as well as exerting more subtle effects in the regulation of gene expression(16). The median number of different IS types in isolates was 15 (IQR: 13-16), with a maximum of 32. Four hundred distinct IS profiles were identified amongst the 604 isolates, with only five identical profiles shared amongst ≥10 isolates - these included a distinct profile seen only in national K. pneumoniae ST258 isolates (IS1F, IS1R, IS3000, IS6100, IS903B, ISEcl1, ISKpn1, ISKpn14, ISKpn18, ISKpn25, ISKpn26, ISKpn28, ISKpn31, ISKpn6, ISKpn7), and other unique profiles seen in small groups of K. pneumoniae ST588, ST11, ST321 and ST54. This highlights the significant flux of small mobile genetic elements within and between lineages in our dataset. Tn4401 is a ~10kb transposon that has been the major transposable context for bla_{KPC} to date(17, 18). A predominant Tn4401 isoform was associated with both bla_{KPC-2} and

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 bla_{KPC-3} in this study, namely Tn4401a(17), which occurred in 584/604 (97%) isolates. Other known variants included Tn4401b (n=7) and Tn4401d (n=3). Only 20/584 (3%) isolates demonstrated evidence of SNV-level variation in Tn4401a (homozygous calls at 6 positions; heterozygous calls [i.e. mixed populations] at 3 positions). bla_{KPC-2} -Tn4401a (n=539 isolates) was predominantly flanked by a 5-bp target site duplication (TSD) ATTGA, with 465/604 (77%; 465/539 [86%] of this sub-type) isolates with this Tn4401/TSD combination (Fig.2A). In 74 other bla_{KPC-2} -Tn4401a isolates, the Tn4401a was flanked by other target site sequence (TSS) combinations, consistent with additional transposition events. Thirty-two of these were TSDs (16 AATAT-AATAT, 16 AGTTG-AGTTG), which have been described as more consistent with inter-plasmid transposition of Tn4401(19), and 35 were nonduplicate TSS combinations (ATTGA with either ATATA, TGGTA, CTGCC, AATAA, AGGAT), described as more consistent with intra-plasmid transposition. Evidence of multiple TSSs around bla_{KPC-2}-Tn4401a within single isolates was seen in 6 cases (i.e. multiple right and/or left Tn4401 TSSs); 1 case had a right TSS present, but no left TSS identified. The 604 isolates contained 91 unique combinations of plasmid Inc types (a crude proxy of plasmid populations present); no isolate was replicon negative. However, there were seven predominant combinations (Fig.2B) represented in 443/604 (73%) isolates, and these included six major Inc types, namely IncF (FIB [found in n=580] isolates], FII [n=545]), FIA (n=103), IncR (n=252), ColRNAI (n=86), and IncX3 (n=60). For many of the plasmid families, several different reference replicon sequences exist in the PlasmidFinder database, with a degree of homology amongst sequences in the same family, making it difficult to establish exactly which exact sub201 type of replicon is present. However, restricting to 100% matches to reference 202 replicon types for these common families, top matches included: 203 IncFIB(pQil) JN233705 (n=300) and IncFIB(K) 1 Kpn3 JN233704 (n=107); 204 ColRNAI_1_DQ298019 (n=84); IncR_1_DQ449578 (n=70); and 205 IncFII 1 pKP91 CP000966 (n=62; plasmid MLST IncFII_{K4}), 206 IncFII(K)_1_CP000648 (n=51; plasmid MLST IncFII_{K1}) and IncFII_1_AY458016 207 (n=19; plasmid MLST IncFII_{K2}). 208 209 Species and lineage diversity in the outbreak was substantial, with eight different 210 species amongst sequenced isolates, and many different known STs, including: K. 211 pneumoniae (n=525 isolates, 70 known STs), E. coli (n=40, 20 known STs), 212 Enterobacter cloacae (n=26, 9 known STs), Klebsiella oxytoca (n=6, 3 known STs), 213 Raoultella ornithinolytica (n=4), Enterobacter aerogenes (n=2), Serratia marcescens 214 (n=1) and Kluyvera ascorbata (n=1). The most common STs were all K. pneumoniae, 215 including ST258 (n=66), ST11 (n=35), ST491 (n=31), ST1162 (n=29) and ST54 216 (n=27) (Fig.2C). Therefore, although some of the earliest sequenced isolates were 217 KPC-K. pneumoniae ST258 and ST11 (both in 2009) [two major KPC strains from 218 CG258 circulating globally and in China at the time(9, 20)] and although KPC-219 producing K. pneumoniae ST258 appears to have been one of the earliest strains 220 observed in CMFT and UHSM, multiple diverse STs and species were subsequently 221 rapidly recruited to the outbreak in 2010 and 2011. This was most likely by the 222 widespread sharing of a *bla*_{KPC-2}-Tn4401a-ATTGA-ATTGA transposon within and 223 between IncFIB, IncFII and IncR plasmid populations (Fig.2B, 2C). 224 225 Long-read sequencing analyses

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In addition to short-read data, to resolve genetic structures fully we obtained longread PacBio data for 23 isolates, chosen to maximise the bla_{KPC} plasmid diversity assayed and focussing on isolates collected from the two main Manchester hospitals (12 CMFT isolates, 5 UHSM; plus 2 from other hospitals in North-West England, 4 from other UK locations). These included the two presumed earliest bla_{KPC} isolates from both CMFT and UHSM, as well as isolates sharing the same species/ST but with different plasmid replicon combinations or from North West regional versus national locations, same-species isolates with different STs, and isolates of different species. One PacBio sequencing dataset represented a clear isolate mixture (trace597 [UHSM] of E. cloacae ST133 and K. pnemoniae ST258), and for one isolate (trace457 [CMFT]), there were discrepancies between the short-read and long-read sequencing datasets, suggesting a laboratory error (E. cloacae ST45 long-read, E. coli ST88 short-read). These two assemblies were excluded, leaving 21 assemblies for further analysis (Table S1). Of the 153 contigs from these 21 assemblies, 30 were clearly chromosomal, 77 plasmid, one chromosomal with an integrated plasmid, and 45 with unclear provenance (i.e. possibly phage, plasmid, or chromosomal). Overall 78/153 [51%] contigs were circularised, including 56/77 [73%] clear plasmid sequences. Thirty-one contigs (21 (68%) circularised) harboured bla_{KPC}, of which one (trace 552, K. pneumoniae ST11) had bla_{KPC} integrated into the chromosome. Four isolates had multiple copies of bla_{KPC} (trace205 [K. pneumoniae, ST468; 2 copies, 1 contig], trace457 [E. cloacae, ST45; 5 copies [1 truncated], 2 contigs], trace75 [K. pneumoniae, ST252; 2 copies, 2 contigs], trace149 [9 copies, 9 contigs]). Trace149 (E. coli, ST1642), which had nine copies of bla_{KPC}, had one copy each on: a long,

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incomplete bla_{KPC} contig (203kb), seven nearly identical complete bla_{KPC} -containing circularised sequences of size ~10kb (possibly representing circularised translocatable intermediates(21)), and a short linear bla_{KPC} contig (~18kb). We observed bla_{KPC} in multiple plasmid backgrounds (Fig.3), including a majority of bla_{KPC} plasmids with multiple replicons (13/21 [60%] clear plasmid contigs, as represented in Fig.3), particularly with IncFIB/IncFII and/or IncR, consistent with replicon patterns in the isolates overall (Fig.2). For the IncFII group, for which we had 17 plasmid sequences with an IncFII(K) CP000648-like replicon (plasmidFinder match; 5 bla_{KPC} -negative [i.e. not represented in Fig.3] and 12 bla_{KPC} -positive), there was evidence of significant exchange and rearrangement of plasmid components between both bla_{KPC} -positive and bla_{KPC} -negative plasmids, integration of $IncFII_K$ and IncR plasmids, and gene duplication events of $Tn4401/bla_{KPC}$, as well as sharing between STs and species (Fig.4). In addition to their plasticity, part of the success of these bla_{KPC} plasmids may also be attributable to the presence of toxin-antitoxin plasmid addiction systems (ccdA/ccdB n=4 bla_{KPC} plasmids; higA n=6; vapB/vapC n=11); anti-restriction mechanisms (klcA n=16, previously shown to promote bla_{KPC} dissemination(22)); and heavy metal resistance (terB [tellurite] n=3; ars operon [arsenicals] n=3; chromate resistance n=1; *cop* operon/*pcoC/pcoE* [copper] n=7; *mer* operon [mercury] n=10). bla_{KPC} plasmid typing Attempts to identify complete plasmids (as opposed to plasmid replicon typing) from short-read data by comparison to a reference plasmid database has been estimated as

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being correct in only ~45%-85% of cases in previous studies (6, 23). However, 13/14 (93%) of isolates for which we had hybrid assemblies with only one completely reconstructed bla_{KPC} plasmid had the correct top match using our bla_{KPC} plasmid typing method (Table S2). Noting that any complete plasmid typing approach from short-read data is sub-optimal, we compared all short-read sequences with our reference bla_{KPC} plasmid database (see Methods); matches to one or more reference bla_{KPC} plasmid sequences were identified in 554/604 (92%) isolates. Filtering the single match with the highest score at the predefined ≥0.80 threshold left a subset of 428/554 (77%) for evaluation. These 428 isolates had matches to 12 bla_{KPC} plasmid clusters. Based on classification by these top plasmid-cluster matches, bla_{KPC} plasmid clusters were shared across a median (IQR) of 3 (1-6) STs, with pKpQIL-like plasmids being most widespread across species/STs (7 species, 75 STs), and clearly playing a major role in the North-West England outbreak, as well as being spread regionally and nationally (Fig.5). Other plasmid types identified as top-matches across the entire dataset included those fully resolved by long-read sequencing performed within this study, some of which were seen in ≥5% of study isolates (e.g. pKPC-trace75 [a nontypeable replicon]), and in non-North-West settings, likely reflecting recombination and generation of new blaker plasmid variants in North-West England and their subsequent dissemination. **DISCUSSION** We present the largest WGS-based analysis of bla_{KPC}-positive isolates (n=604) to our knowledge, focused on assessing genetic diversity around the carbapenemase gene

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itself rather than limiting the analysis based on species type, and incorporating a sampling frame from UK regional and national collections, over five years. bla_{KPC} remains one of the three most common carbapenemases observed in the UK, accounting for ~15% of cases referred to the AMRHAI Reference Unit in 2017(24), and presenting a significant challenge to hospitals in North-West England, including Manchester, where it accounted for >97% of carbapenem resistance through 2015(25). Our study provides an interesting context in which to consider the findings of a recently published pan-European survey of carbapenem non-susceptible *K*. pneumoniae (the EuSCAPE study; 6 months, 2013-2014; 244 hospitals, 32 countries)(1). In EuSCAPE, 684 carbapenemase-producing Klebsiella spp. isolates were Illumina sequenced, and similar to our study, most cases were healthcareexposed (<2% from outpatients). EuSCAPE carbapenemase-producing isolates were also predominantly bla_{KPC} (~45%, n=311 isolates), but mostly bla_{KPC-3} (232/311 [75%] versus 27/604 [5%] in our study), and ST258/ST512 (226/311 [73%] versus 107/525 (20%) of K. pneumoniae overall in our study). Based on identifying genetic "nearest-neighbours" in their data, the EuSCAPE team found 51% of bla_{KPC}-K. pneumoniae were most closely related to another isolate from the same hospital. The authors concluded that there was strong geographic structuring of strains, and that the expansion of a handful of clonal lineages was predominantly responsible for the spread of carbapenemases in K. pneumoniae in Europe, with onward nosocomial transmission. Like bla_{KPC-3} in EuSCAPE bla_{KPC-2} has also been linked with the clonal expansion of ST258 in Australia(26), where 48% of 176 K. pneumoniae isolates sequenced were *bla*_{KPC-2}-containing ST258.

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However, instead of clonal expansion, in our study we found rapid dissemination of mobile backgrounds supporting bla_{KPC-2} , similar to observations from sequencing of other polyclonal bla_{KPC} outbreaks reported elsewhere, including the US(6, 27). Tn4401a, associated with high levels of bla_{KPC} expression(28), has been previously predominantly seen in K. pneumoniae, and in isolates from the US, Israel and Italy, and similarly most commonly with an ATTGA-ATTGA TSD(10). Thus our findings are consistent with the importation of the predominant bla_{KPC-2}-Tn4401a-ATTGA-ATTGA motif into CMFT/North-West England and subsequent horizontal spread. Notably, as in EuSCAPE, 46/72 (64%) singleton isolates we sampled from UK hospitals were also CG258, but our detailed sampling within a region reflected a very different molecular epidemiology. Although the EuSCAPE study is large and impressive, its breadth may have been limiting in understanding regional diversity for example, the subset of bla_{KPC}-K. pneumoniae from the UK that were analysed in EuSCAPE consisted of 11 isolates submitted from six centres (https://microreact.org/project/EuSCAPE_UK). The focus was also more on analysing species-specific clonal relationships, with no analysis of other species or MGEs. Although in our study diversification occurred at all genetic levels (Tn4401+TSSs, plasmids, plasmid populations, strains, species), there was more limited variation observed within the transposon and its flanking regions, and the spread of bla_{KPC} appears to have been supported by highly plastic modular exchange of larger genetic segments within a distinct plasmid population, particularly IncFIB/IncFII (found in 580 and 545 of the 604 isolates respectively) and IncR replicons (252/604 isolates). A previous study, in which 11 transformed bla_{KPC} plasmids from the UK (2008-2010)

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were sequenced (Roche 454/assembly, PCR+sequencing based gap closure), identified a UK variant of the pKpQIL plasmid, designated pKpQIL-UK (IncFII_{K2} by plasmid MLST), that was highly similar to pKpQIL (maximum 32 SNVs diversity), and several other IncFII_{K2} pKpQIL-like plasmids, but with novel segmental genetic rearrangements (gains/losses; pKpQIL-D1, pKpQIL-D2)(15). Our data support the importance of $IncFII_{K2}$ -like plasmids in this bla_{KPC} outbreak too, but also that other IncFII_K-like plasmids (e.g. IncFII-_{K1, -K4, -K7, -K15}) and replicons (IncFIB, IncR) have also been a significant feature. In addition to their plasticity, the plasmids identified frequently harboured AMR genes other than bla_{KPC} which might offer a selective advantage, alongside heavy metal resistance genes, and plasmid toxin-antitoxin addiction systems. The plasticity and association of IncFII_K plasmids with resistance genes and IncFIB replicons has been supported by findings of a recent analysis of $IncFII_K$ plasmids(29). The problem of accurately classifying plasmid populations from short-read data was exemplified in this analysis, and highlighted by our smaller long-read/short-read hybrid assembly-based analysis, which demonstrated significant diversity within structures assigned as similar by short-read based typing approaches. With this caveat, it was interesting that even with relatively relaxed thresholds, 29% of isolates did not have a match to our reference blagge plasmid database (based on clustering of all publicly available reference sequences, as in Methods), consistent with rapid diversification in the genetic background of $Tn4401/bla_{KPC}$ elements in this setting. Our findings demonstrated that it is also important to consider plasmids without the resistance gene of interest in a population, as these may be relevant to a wider

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understanding of the transmission and evolution of smaller mobile genetic elements harbouring resistance genes (Fig.4). This was also shown to be relevant in a previous analysis of a large KPC-E. coli outbreak in the same setting in 2015-2016, in which a circulating bla_{KPC}-negative plasmid, pCAD3 (IncFIB/FII), acquired Tn4401 from a IncHI2/HI2A bla_{KPC}-positive plasmid, and went on to dominate within a clonal E. coli lineage(25). Most studies in general however tend to focus on analysing AMR plasmids of interest. Fortunately, long-read sequencing is becoming increasingly low cost and high-throughput, and hybrid assembly is able to reconstruct plasmid sequences in Enterobacterales (30, 31). New developments in large-scale comparative genomics of complete genomes, including plasmid structures, are essential for future large-scale analysis of AMR gene outbreaks. There are several limitations to our study. The reconstructed genomes generated using long-read PacBio data remained incomplete (49% of all contigs uncircularised). Improvements in long-read technology and assembly approaches will likely overcome this(30). Our short-read and long-read datasets were generated from the same frozen stocks of isolates, but from separate sub-cultures (because we used the short-read data to inform selection for long-read sequencing); ideally they would have been generated from the same DNA extract. PacBio sequencing library preparation incorporates size selection, and this may have led to short plasmid sequences (<15kb) being lost. Our interpretation of the evolution of backgrounds supporting bla_{KPC} was limited by the diversity present, and the inability to capture sequential evolutionary events, even with this large study. Lastly, very limited epidemiological data linked to the isolates were available, meaning that we were unable to ascertain any epidemiological drivers which might be contributing to the enormous heterogeneity of bla_{KPC} transmission

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Study isolates and setting

over apparently short timeframes; the latter finding also precluded the useful application of standard phylogenetic approaches based on identifying variants core to and within species. In addition, the collection of isolates by PHE as part of regional and national surveillance was dictated by referral patterns of isolates from the hospitals surveyed, and we do not have any denominator information on cultures (either bla_{KPC} -positive or bla_{KPC} -negative) to corroborate details on the robustness of this referral process. In conclusion, our large analysis highlights the difficulty and complexity of these outbreaks once important AMR genes have "escaped" the genetic confines of particular mobile genetic elements and bacterial species/lineages, with important implications for surveillance. These include the need to consider multiple bacterial species and plasmids as potential hosts of bla_{KPC} , and invest resource in sequencing approaches to adequately reconstruct genetic structures and avoid misinterpreting the molecular epidemiology. It also demonstrates that regional differences in AMR gene epidemiology may be quite marked, which may affect the generalizability of control methods. Finally, it is important to consider the wider genetic background of host strains and plasmids in understanding the evolution and dissemination of important AMR genes, as AMR gene transfer between plasmid backgrounds within bacteria may occur over short timescales, and the interaction of several plasmids (i.e. not just those harbouring the AMR gene of interest at any given time) in a population may be highly relevant to the persistence and dissemination of the AMR gene itself. MATERIAL AND METHODS

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We sequenced archived carbapenem-resistant Enterobacterales isolates from two hospital groups in Manchester (formerly known as CMFT and UHSM), aiming to include all inpatient isolates archived in the early stages of the observed outbreak, 2009-2011, and a subset of bla_{KPC} -positive Enterobacterales (KPC-E) isolates sequenced as part of regional and national surveillance undertaken by Public Health England (PHE, 2009-2014). The PHE set included: (i) up to the first 25 consecutive KPC-E isolates from any hospital in North-West England (2009-2014) and referred to the PHE reference laboratory (2009-2014); (ii) the first KPC-E isolate from any other hospital in the UK and the Republic of Ireland referred to PHE (2009-2014); and, (iii) any KPC-E isolates from outpatient/primary care settings in the UK referred to PHE (2009-2014).Ethical approval was not required as only bacterial isolates were sequenced, and their collection was part of outbreak investigation and management. DNA extraction and sequencing For short-read Illumina sequencing (HiSeq 2500, 150bp PE reads), DNA was extracted using Quickgene (Fujifilm, Japan), with an additional mechanical lysis step following chemical lysis (FastPrep, MP Biomedicals, USA). Sequencing libraries were constructed using the NEBNext Ultra DNA Sample Prep Master Mix Kit (NEB) with minor modifications and a custom automated protocol on a Biomek FX (Beckman). Ligation of adapters was performed using Illumina Multiplex Adapters, and ligated libraries were size-selected using Ampure magnetic beads (Agencourt). Each library was PCR-enriched with custom primers (Index primer plus dual index PCR primer) (32). Enrichment and adapter extension of each preparation was

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obtained using 9ul of size-selected library in a 50ul PCR reaction. Reactions were then purified with Ampure beads (Agencourt/Beckman) on a Biomek NXp after 10 cycles of amplification (as per Illumina recommendations). Final size distributions of libraries were determined using a Tapestation 1DK system (Agilent/Lab901), and quantified by Qubit fluorometry (Thermofisher). For long-read sequencing (PacBio [n=28]), DNA was extracted using the Qiagen Genomic tip 100/G kit (Qiagen, Netherlands). DNA extracts were initially sheared to an average length of 15kb using g-tubes, as specified by the manufacturer (Covaris). Sheared DNA was used in SMRTbell library preparation, as recommended by the manufacturer. Quantity and quality of the SMRTbell libraries were evaluated using the High Sensitivity dsDNA kit and Qubit Fluorimeter (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and DNA 12000 kit on the 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent). To obtain the longest possible SMRTbell libraries for sequencing (as recommended by the manufacturer), a further size selection step was performed using the PippinHT pulsed-field gel electrophoresis system (Sage Science), enriching for the SMRTbell libraries >15kb for loading onto the instrument. Sequencing primer and P6 polymerase were annealed and bound to the SMRTbell libraries, and each library was sequenced using a single SMRT cell on the PacBio RSII sequencing system. Sequencing data have been deposited in the NCBI (BioProject Accession: PRJNA564424). Sequence data processing and assembly

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We used Kraken(33) to assign species to sequenced isolates. SPAdes(34) v3.6 was used to de novo assemble reads (default options; subsequent removal of contigs shorter than 500bp and assembly coverage <2X). Isolates with sequence assemblies >6.5Mb were excluded to ensure that potentially mixed sequences were not included in the analyses. MLST was derived in silico by blasting de novo assemblies against publicly available MLST databases for E. coli (http://mlst.warwick.ac.uk/mlst/dbs/Ecoli), K. pneumoniae, E. cloacae and K. oxytoca (https://pubmlst.org/). Isolates with mixed MLST outputs were excluded. Antimicrobial resistance (AMR) genes, plasmid replicon (Inc) types and insertion sequences (IS) were identified using resistType (https://github.com/hangphan/resistType_docker; curated AMR gene database as in(35), plasmid replicon reference sequences from PlasmidFinder(36), ISs from the ISFinder platform(37); \geq 80% identity used as a threshold). bla_{KPC} copy number for each isolate was estimated by dividing coverage of the contig containing bla_{KPC} by the average coverage for the assembly. Plasmid MLST for common family types identified in short read data and for resolved genomes (i.e. based on PacBio and Pilon assemblies - see below) was confirmed by 100% sequence matches to reference alleles for families catalogued in the plasmidMLST website (https://pubmlst.org/plasmid/; IncA/C, IncHI1/2, IncN). PacBio sequencing data were assembled using the HGAP pipeline(38), and polished with the corresponding Illumina datasets using Pilon (version 1.18, default parameters)(39). Chromosomal sequences and plasmid sequences were then manually curated where possible to create complete, closed, circular structures by using BLASTn to identify overlaps at the end of assembled contigs. Those with overlapping 500 ends larger than 1000bp with sequence identity >99% were considered 501 circularised/complete, and trimmed appropriately for resolution. Complete sequences 502 were annotated using PROKKA (version 1.11)(40); annotations were used to 503 determine genes known to encode toxin-antitoxin systems, heavy metal resistance, 504 and anti-restriction mechanisms. 505 506 Tn4401 typing 507 Tn4401 typing was performed using TETyper(10), using the Tn4401, SNP and 508 structural profile reference files included with the package 509 (https://github.com/aesheppard/TETyper; Aug 2019), and a flanking length of 5bp, 510 representative of the known target site signature sequence indicative of Tn4401 511 transposition(41). 512 513 Plasmid database for bla_{KPC} plasmid typing 514 A reference bla_{KPC} plasmid sequence database composed of bla_{KPC} -harbouring 515 contigs/plasmids from long-read sequencing of isolates in this study and all complete 516 bla_{KPC} plasmids from (42-44) (August 2018) was used for bla_{KPC} plasmid typing 517 within this study. To construct this database, all 279/6018 evaluable plasmid

$$(p_i, p_j) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{l_{ij}}{l_i} + \frac{l_{ji}}{l_j} \right) \times \min \left(\frac{l_i}{l_j}, \frac{l_j}{l_i} \right)$$

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The score was designed to penalise differences in length of the compared sequences,

sequences carrying bla_{KPC} were first compared using dnadiff(45) to obtain the

pairwise similarity between any two plasmid sequences p_i and p_j . The similarity was

defined as a function of their lengths l_i , l_j , and the aligned bases l_{ij} , l_{ji} as reported by:

i.e. to make sequences of different lengths proportionately more different. The

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resulting similarity matrix was used to perform clustering of plasmid sequences using the affinity propagation clustering technique, suitable for graph clustering problems with sparse similarity matrix and uneven cluster size and cluster number (46), and resulted in 34 clusters of 1-43 plasmids per cluster (Table S3). The largest cluster was the set of pKpQIL-like plasmids comprising 43 related sequences. Representative sequences of each bla_{KPC} plasmid cluster in this network were chosen randomly, to generate a set (KPC-pDB) of plasmids ranging from 7,995bp (NC_022345.1; plasmid pAP-2) to 447,095bp (NZ_CP029436.1; plasmid pKPC_CAV2013) in the final database used for bla_{KPC} plasmid typing in this study. Subsequently, bla_{KPC} plasmid typing for each study isolate sequence was performed as follows: (1) assembled sequences for each isolate were BLASTed (BLASTn) against KPC-pDB; (2) any >1kb contig with >90% nucleotide identity and >80% total coverage match to sequences in KPC-pDB was retained; (3) for any sequence p_i in KPC-pDB, a score s_i was calculated by dividing the total matched bases of all contigs matched to p_i by p_i 's length; and (4) an isolate was assumed to plausibly carry p_i if s_i \geq 0.80. An isolate could have several bla_{KPC} plasmid matches; we restricted to the top match for each isolate in our analyses. Statistical analysis and data visualisation Statistical analysis (Kruskal-Wallis testing) was carried out in Stata 14.2. Plots for figures 1, 2, 5 and S1 were generated using ggplot2 in R (version 1.1.463). Figure 4 was generated using the GenomeDiagram package(47) in Biopython(48).

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Figure legends **Figure 1**. Estimated bla_{KPC} copy number distributions within major species (Fig.1A), and the top nineteen commonest species/ST combinations (Fig.1B) observed within the study (other ST/species combinations assigned as "Other" or "Other species/ST" respectively). Dots represent estimated copy number for single isolates; boxplots represent median estimated bla_{KPC} copy number +/- 1.58*IQR/sqrt(n). Boxplots are ordered by most common species and species/ST categories, left-to-right, except for the "Other", "Other species/ST", assigned to the right of the plots. For species assignations, "Kpne" = Klebsiella pneumoniae, "Ecol" = Escherichia coli, and "Eclo" $= Enterobacter\ cloacae.$ Figure 2. Incidence plots for 604 isolates included in the analysis. Dots are coloured by location of isolate collection, as defined in Methods. (A) Incidence plot of Tn4401/target site sequence (TSS; categories including \geq 10 isolates); Tn4401a-1 is bla_{KPC-2}/Tn4401a, Tn4401a-2 is bla_{KPC-3}/Tn4401a; Tn4401a-unknown comprises a set of Tn4401a (n=18) with mutational variation including C684T, G962A C3042Y|G4739R, C4121T, G5583A and C7187T. (B) Incidence plot of plasmid replicon combinations (categories including ≥10 isolates). (C) Incidence plot of species/ST (top 20 common categories as in Fig.1). **Figure 3.** Schematic of bla_{KPC} plasmid types and sizes identified from longread/short-read hybrid sequencing approach by species/ST and year of collection (NB only 21 contigs clearly designated as plasmid are represented). Closed circles denote circularised contigs (i.e. complete plasmids); circle colours denote replicon types assigned to each plasmid sequence (i.e. multiple colours represent multi-replicon

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plasmids). Plasmids from isolates from the wider UK collection are denoted with a ··*' **Figure 4.** Alignments of plasmid sequences harbouring an IncFII(K)_1_CP000648like replicon, includes bla_{KPC} -negative and bla_{KPC} -positive sequences. All sequences were re-orientated to start at IncFII for the purposes of alignment visualization (this also includes incomplete sequences, for which the exact structure and order may therefore be a proxy only). Loci of interest have been coloured and annotated as shown. Shading between sequences denotes regions of homology, with light pink shading denoting areas ≥90% nucleotide identity, dark pink areas ≥50% nucleotide identity, and light blue areas $\geq 90\%$ nucleotide identity in reverse orientation. The order of sequences is adjusted to highlight genetic overlap between sequences, but not to imply any specific direct exchange events. **Figure 5.** Short-read bla_{KPC} plasmid typing results (top match) for isolates by species and date. Dots are coloured by location of isolate collection, as defined in Methods. **Supplementary Tables and Figures Figure S1.** Estimated bla_{KPC} copy number distributions for species/ST combinations. Dots represent estimated copy number for single isolates; boxplots represent median estimated *bla*_{KPC} copy number +/- 1.58*IQR/sqrt(n). For species assignations, "Eclo" = Enterobacter cloacae, "Ecol" = Escherichia coli, "Ente" = Enterobacter spp., "Kluy" = Kluvera spp., "Koxy" = Klebsiella oxytoca, "Kpne" = Klebsiella pneumoniae, "Raou" = Raoultella ornithinolytica, "Serr" = Serratia marcescens.

Table S1. Details of isolates assembled using short-read (Illumina) and long-read (PacBio) datasets.

Table S2. Plasmid typing matches for isolates with short-read (Illumina) and long-read (PacBio) assemblies and reconstructed plasmid structures.

Table S3. Assignation of *bla*_{KPC} plasmids in study reference database to clusters for plasmid typing.







