

Genome dynamics and diversity of *Shigella* species, the etiologic agents of bacillary dysentery

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ABSTRACT

The *Shigella* bacteria cause bacillary dysentery, which remains a significant threat to public health. The genus status and species classification appear no longer valid, as compelling evidence indicates that *Shigella*, as well as enteroinvasive *Escherichia coli*, are derived from multiple origins of *E.coli* and form a single pathovar. Nevertheless, *Shigella dysenteriae* serotype 1 causes deadly epidemics but *Shigella boydii* is restricted to the Indian subcontinent, while *Shigella flexneri* and *Shigella sonnei* are prevalent in developing and developed countries respectively. To begin to explain these distinctive epidemiological and pathological features at the genome level, we have carried out comparative genomics on four representative strains. Each of the *Shigella* genomes includes a virulence plasmid that encodes conserved primary virulence determinants. The *Shigella* chromosomes share most of their genes with that of *E.coli* K12 strain MG1655, but each has over 200 pseudogenes, 300~700 copies of insertion sequence (IS) elements, and numerous deletions, insertions, translocations and inversions. There is extensive diversity of putative virulence genes, mostly acquired via bacteriophage-mediated lateral gene transfer. Hence, via convergent evolution involving gain and

loss of functions, through bacteriophage-mediated gene acquisition, IS-mediated DNA rearrangements and formation of pseudogenes, the *Shigella* spp. became highly specific human pathogens with variable epidemiological and pathological features.

INTRODUCTION

Shigella is a group of Gram-negative, facultative intracellular pathogens. Recognized as the etiologic agents of bacillary dysentery or shigellosis in the 1890s, *Shigella* was adopted as a genus in the 1950s and subgrouped into four species: *Shigella dysenteriae*, *Shigella flexneri*, *Shigella boydii* and *Shigella sonnei* (also designated as serogroups A to D) (1). The bacteria are primarily transmitted through the faecal-oral route and therefore continue to threaten public health mainly in developing countries where sanitation is poor. The estimated annual number of episodes of shigellosis is 160 million, with 1.1 million deaths, mostly children under 5 years old in developing countries (2). Owing to the emerging multiple resistance strains that have compromised antibiotic treatment, development of effective novel vaccination strategies is urgently required (3).

There are very few biochemical properties that can distinguish *Shigella* from enteroinvasive *Escherichia coli* (EIEC), which are also a major cause of dysentery. Indeed, some O-antigens associated with EIEC are identical to those

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The authors wish it to be known that, in their opinion, the first four authors should be regarded as joint First Authors

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found in *Shigella* spp. (4), and many plasmid-associated virulence determinants are common to both EIEC and *Shigella* (5).

The virulence plasmid encodes the ~30 kb Mxi-Spa type III secretion system (TTSS) and invasion plasmid antigens (Ipa proteins) required for invasion of the colonic and rectal epithelial cells, and the release of the bacteria into the host cell cytosol. IpaB in particular induces apoptosis in host macrophages and dendritic cells, leading to inflammatory infection (6). The virulence plasmid also encodes a surface protein, IcsA, responsible for actin-based motility required for intra- and inter-cellular spread of the bacteria (7). In addition to the plasmid, many chromosomal genes, such as those encoded by the *Shigella* pathogenicity island (SHI)-1 and SHI-2, also contribute to virulence (8–10). For a better understanding of the genetic basis of *Shigella* pathogenicity, we and others previously sequenced the genome of *Shigella flexneri* 2a, the most prevalent of the *Shigella* species (11,12). The genome of *S. flexneri* includes a virulence plasmid and shares a large proportion of chromosomal genes with closely related non-pathogenic and enterohemorrhagic *E. coli* (EHEC) strains. This is in good agreement with a study based on multilocus sequencing (MLS) that places *Shigella* within *E. coli* (13). However, in the *S. flexneri* chromosome, there are hundreds of pseudogenes, numerous lateral acquired *S. flexneri*-specific sequences, as well as insertion sequence (IS)-mediated deletions, translocations and inversions, which extensively reshaped the genome presumably for the benefit of a fuller expression of virulence.

Despite the availability of the *S. flexneri* genome sequence, questions remain about the distinctive epidemiological and pathological features that *Shigella* species/strains exhibit. While *S. flexneri* (six serotypes) is primarily endemic in developing countries, *S. sonnei* (1 serotype) is largely associated with episodes in industrialized nations. *S. boydii* (18 serotypes) is mainly endemic to the Indian subcontinent. *Shigella dysenteriae* serotype 1, which possesses the cytotoxic Shiga toxin (Stx), causes deadly epidemics in many of the poorer countries (6). For understanding of these viable features, we have determined the complete nucleotide sequences for the genomes of *S. dysenteriae* serotype 1 (strain 197), *S. boydii* serotype 4 (strain 227) and *S. sonnei* (strain 046) for comparison with the previously reported *S. flexneri* serotype 2a (strain 301) genome. Our study has revealed extensive diversity among the *Shigella* genomes, forming the genetic basis to explain the species/strain specific epidemiological and pathological features. Furthermore, many of the putative novel virulence genes identified may offer possible targets for the development of new treatment and prevention strategies.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Shigella strains

S. dysenteriae serotype 1 (strain 197), *S. boydii* serotype 4 (strain 227) and *S. sonnei* (strain 046) were subjected to complete genome sequencing and are abbreviated to Sd197, Sb227 and Ss046, respectively. All strains were isolated from epidemics in China during the 1950s and were kindly provided by The Institute of Epidemiology and Microbiology, Chinese Academy of Preventive Medicine.

Sequencing and analysis

The whole genome sequence shotgun libraries for all strains were established as described previously (11), and ABI3730 automated sequencers were used for sequence collection. For each genome, we generated over 48 000 paired-end shotgun reads with estimated 8- to 9-fold coverage. The initial genome assembly was processed by phred/phrap program with the Q20 criteria (14). As there were large numbers of IS-elements present in each of the genomes, to avoid mis-assembly contigs obtained by phrap were split at each dubious IS locus and their relationships were rebuilt manually based on paired-end reads location information using Consed (15). Approximately 4500–6000 sequencing reads were generated for primer-walking of large clones or for PCR amplicons during the finishing phase for each of the genomes. To verify the final assembly, we designed overlapping primer pairs covering the whole genome sequence using genomic DNA as template for PCR amplifications. The genome annotations were performed as described previously (11), and GenomeComp was used for genomic comparison with default parameters (16). Each pairwise comparison figure used in Figure 2 was exported from GenomeComp with a 1000 bp filter setting along with the scale setting of 3000 and 300 for chromosomes and virulence plasmids, respectively. The KEGG database was used for the metabolic pathways analysis (17).

Data accessibility

Complete genome sequences have been deposited in the GenBank. The accession numbers for chromosomes and virulence plasmids are Sd197, CP000034 and CP000035; Sb227, CP000036 and CP000037; Ss046, CP000038 and CP000039. In addition, genome annotation and comparative analysis can be obtained at *Shi*BASE (<http://www.mgc.ac.cn/ShiBASE/>) (18).

RESULTS

General features of the *Shigella* genomes

In common with the reported *S. flexneri* strain Sf301 and 2457T, the genomes of the newly sequenced *Shigella* strains all contain a virulence plasmid and a single chromosome (Table 1 and Figure 1). Note that, we included data of both Sf301 and 2457T genomes in Tables 1–5 for a complete comparison. However, since variations between the 2457T and the Sf301 genomes are minute (12), we use Sf301 genome only for comparison with newly sequenced genomes to avoid redundant descriptions. All the virulence plasmids have nearly identical (R100-like) replication origins and maintenance genes, including *repA*, *copA* and *copB* for replication, and the *parA* and *parB* genes for partitioning. The plasmid from *S. flexneri* is also known to have post-segregation killing systems *ccdA/ccdB* and *mvpA/mvpT* (19,20). While the *ccdA/ccdB* is absent from pSS_046 in Ss046 only, the *mvpA/mvpT* is intact in all the virulence plasmids. The ~30 kb cell-entry region, encoding the Mxi-Spa TTSS and Ipa proteins, is generally conserved in virulence plasmids pCP301, pSD1_197 and pSS_046. But, there is some polymorphism, with *ipaD* showing the most with 41 polymorphic sites (4.1% of the coding sequence). However, a pairwise analysis on the *ipaD* coding sequences showed that only in the case of pCP301 and pSS_046 is the synonymous to

Table 1. General features of the *Shigella* genomes compared with the genome of *E.coli* K12 MG1655

Chromosome	MG1655 ^a	Sd197	Sf301 ^b	2457T ^c	Sb227	Ss046
Total length (bp)	4 639 675	4 369 232	4 607 203	4 599 354	4 519 823	4 825 265
No. of total ORFs	4254	4557	4434	4456	4353	4434
No. of pseudogenes	12	285	254	372	217	210
Percentage of CDS (%)	87.3	77.2	80.4	77.2	80.5	80.5
G+C content (%)	50.79	51.25	50.89	50.91	51.21	51.01
No. of ribosomal RNA (16S/23S/5S)	7/7/8	7/7/8	7/7/8	7/7/8	7/7/8	7/7/8
No. of transfer RNA	86	85	97	98	91	97
Deletions (kb) ^d	–	955	639	709	746	518
Insertions (kb) ^d	–	411	444	479	441	490
Translocations and inversions ^d	–	43	13	15	23	11
IS-elements (percentage)	44 (1%)	623 (12%)	314 (7%)	280 (7%)	403 (9%)	394 (8%)
Virulence plasmid		pSD1_197	pCP301 ^b	pINV-2457T ^c	pSB4_227	pSS_046
Total length (bp)		182 726	221 618	~218 000	126 697	214 396
No. of total ORFs		224	267	ND	149	241
Percentage of CDS (%)		76.03	76.24	ND	74.18	79.06
G+C content (%)		44.80	45.77	ND	47.41	45.27
IS-elements (percentage)		78 (27%)	88 (32%)	ND	72 (38%)	96 (33%)

^aData are obtained from a recently updated version of U00096.

^bData are obtained from Jin *et al.* (11).

^cData are obtained from Wei *et al.* (12); the virulence plasmid pINV-2457T was reported in the communication but the sequence is not yet publicly available.

^dOnly those with DNA segments > 5 kb are listed.

non-synonymous substitution ratio (Ks/Ka) smaller than 1 (0.71). The Ks/Ka ratios are 1.85 and 1.73 for pCP301 and pSD1_197, and pSS_046 and pSD1_197, respectively. In fact, the Ks/Ka ratios for the majority of genes in the cell-entry regions are greater than 1 (data not shown), suggesting that the selection pressure from the host has maintained the conservation of these coding sequences. This is in contrast to the notion that many plasmid genes that encode secreted effector proteins (e.g. *ospB*, *ospC2*, *ospD2*, *ospF* and *mxiL*) outside of the cell-entry region are under pressure for non-synonymous substitution (21). The cell-entry region is bracketed by IS100 and IS600 in all the virulence plasmids, suggesting the transmission of a common ancestral form of the virulence plasmid to all *Shigella*, or alternatively, the cell-entry region was transmitted to all the virulence plasmids from related sources. The cell-entry region and the *icsA* gene are, however, deleted from pSB4_227 in strain Sb227. Additionally, pSB4_227 lacks a segment of ~30 kb corresponding to the region between *icsA* and *ccdA* in pCP301 (Figure 2b). Since Sb227 was positive in the Sereny test when isolated and *ipaB* was detected previously by PCR (China CDC record), loss of the cell-entry region and *icsA* has probably occurred during long-term storage. Thus, caution needs being taken for interpreting gene decay via deletions in the *Shigella* genomes as the presence of the huge numbers of IS-elements can riddle the genomes considerably during storage.

The *Shigella* chromosomes have the same replication origin and terminus as those of MG1655 (22), indicating that they probably have the same replication mechanism as *E.coli*. In all the *Shigella* genomes, the rRNA operons map to approximately the same relative positions as in MG1655, indicating that there is no DNA recombination between rRNA operons as observed previously in some *Shigella* strains (23). All currently sequenced *Shigella* and *E.coli* genomes available from GenBank have in total ~3 Mb in common (or backbone). This potentially encodes 2790 proteins accounting for 65% of coding capacity of the MG1655 genome, which likely includes genes essential for bacterial survival and growth. Within the

backbone there are 2393 orthologous genes shared by all four genomes. Details about orthologous genes between each pair of the genomes can be found in *ShiBASE* at http://www.mgc.ac.cn/ShiBASE/Orth_order.htm#table. Within the backbone there are 313 genes which are pseudogenes in at least one of the *Shigella* genomes (Supplementary Table S1), indicating that probably none of these is essential for survival and growth. The chromosomes of Sd197, Sf301 and Sb227 are smaller than MG1655, while that of Ss046 is larger (Table 1). This variation in genome size is due mainly to deletions and insertions of >5 kb.

IS-elements and dynamics of the *Shigella* genomes

The most striking feature of the *Shigella* genomes is their highly dynamic nature due to the presence of hundreds of IS-elements in each of the genomes (Table 2). IS-elements are capable of causing many kinds of DNA rearrangements (24) and the presence of the many rearrangements (deletions as well as translocations and inversions) are a likely the result of the copious numbers of IS-elements. The Sd197 genome shows the most rearrangements and is considerably smaller than the MG1655 genome due to a large number of deletions (Table 1). The genome of this *Shigella* strain also possesses the greatest number of IS-elements, mainly in the form of IS1N (Table 2), which may be responsible for many of these rearrangements.

The deletions are often associated with translocations and inversions, which interrupt the collinearity of the *Shigella* and the MG1655 chromosomes (Figure 2a). Sd197 and Sb227 have more translocations and inversions involving DNA segments >5 kb than Sf301 and Ss046 (Table 1). Therefore, the collinearity with MG1655 chromosome is more severely interrupted in Sd197 and Sb227. All *Shigella* chromosomes have inversions at the replication origins and termini, which have been suggested to be recombination hotspots (25). The rearrangements at the termini can be very complex. Although a single inversion, probably mediated by IS1, is present in Ss046,

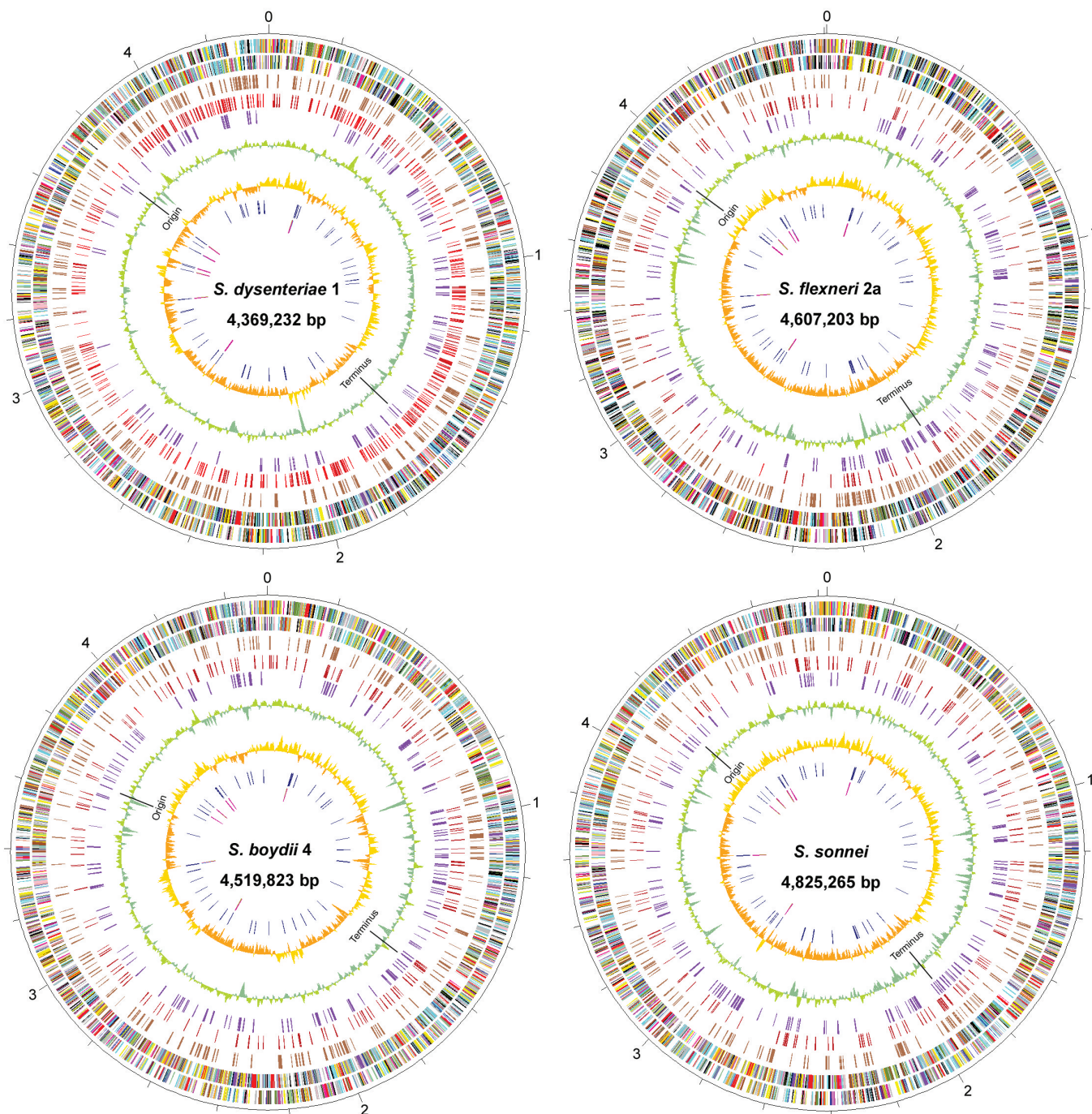


Figure 1. Circular representations of the *Shigella* genomes. The outer scale is marked every 200 kb. Circles range from 1 (outer circle) to 9 (inner circle). Circles 1 and 2, ORFs encoded by leading and lagging strands, respectively, with colour code for functions: salmon, translation, ribosomal structure and biogenesis; light blue, transcription; cyan, DNA replication, recombination and repair; turquoise, cell division; deep pink, posttranslational modification, protein turnover and chaperones; olive drab, cell envelope biogenesis; purple, cell motility and secretion; forest green, inorganic ion transport and metabolism; magenta, signal transduction; red, energy production; sienna, carbohydrate transport and metabolism; yellow, amino acid transport; orange, nucleotide transport and metabolism; gold, co-enzyme transport and metabolism; dark blue, lipid metabolism; blue, secondary metabolites, transport and catabolism; grey, general function prediction only; black, function unclassified or unknown. Circle 3, distribution of pseudogenes. Circles 4 and 5, distribution of IS1/ISIN and other IS-species, respectively. Circles 6 and 7, G+C content and GC skew (G-C/G+C), respectively, with a window size of 10 kb. Circles 8 and 9, distribution of tRNA genes and *rrm* operons, respectively. The replication origin and terminus are indicated for each. (The circular map for Sf301 was created based on the updated annotation.)

several inversions and translocations of different sizes, and probably mediated by different IS-elements, are present in the other genomes (Figure 2a). This suggests that the rearrangements at the termini were formed through

independent recombination events among the *Shigella* genomes.

GC skew is the measurement of mononucleotide frequencies ($[f_G - f_C]/[f_G + f_C]$). The GC compositional strand bias

Table 2. IS-elements identified in *Shigella* genomes and *E.coli* K12 MG1655 chromosome

IS1 iso-	Length (bp)	No. of ORFs	No. of intact elements										No. of partial elements ^a											
			MG1655	Sd197	SF301	2457T	Sb227	Ss046	pCP301	pSDI_197	pSB4_227	pSS_046	MG1655	Sd197	SF301	2457T	Sb227	Ss046	pCP301	pSDI_197	pSB4_227	pSS_046		
IS1	768	2	7	151	108	105	160	167	2	3	6	3	0	0	0	10	9	3	14	8	1	0	0	1
iso-	803	(766)	2	0	273	0	1	1	0	8	0	0	0	0	27	1	0	0	0	0	5	5	4	5
IS1(IS1N)																								
IS2	1331	2	6	25	30	29	33	27	1	2	3	2	1	1	7	5	4	10	16	2	4	4	4	4
IS3	1258	2	5	0	5	5	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	3	1	0	0	7	2	4	4	6
IS4	1428	1	1	10	18	19	16	28	1	1	3	1	0	2	2	3	3	10	5	1	1	4	4	1
IS5	1198	1	11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
iso-IS10R	1329	1	0	0	13	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
IS21	2131	2	0	0	0	0	0	17	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	3	3	1	1	5
IS30	1221	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
IS91	1830	1	0	0	3	5	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	2	1	0	0	2	6	4	2	2	6
IS100	1963	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	7	3	3	5
IS150	1443	3	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	0	2	0	1	1
IS186	1372	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
IS600	1264	2	0	54	35	35	20	51	3	2	1	6	1	1	28	17	12	17	23	10	8	4	4	4
IS629	1310	2	0	0	10	12	41	3	8	4	5	3	0	0	2	11	2	0	1	3	5	4	6	6
IS630	1164	1	0	0	0	0	0	16	1	0	1	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	2	4	4
IS911	1250	2	0	12	16	16	26	7	1	0	2	0	0	4	9	0	4	22	0	0	1	4	1	1
IS1294	1689	1	0	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	1	2	0	0	2	3	3	0	0	7	2	7	6	6
ISS/71	923	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	1	1	5
ISS/72	1374	1	0	4	6	5	8	9	2	1	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	1	1	1
ISS/73	1302	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
ISS/74	2754	3	0	0	3	6	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	3	7	5	3	0	2	5	4	4	4
IS/EC8	2506	3	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	2	2	3	0	1	1	1	1
ISS/06	2506	3	0	0	0	0	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	11	1	0	1	1	1	1
Total			37	529	247	238	314	327	26	26	24	28	7	94	67	42	89	67	62	52	48	68	68	68

^aOnly those with IS fragments ≥ 100 bp are listed.

Table 3. Known and putative virulence genes in the *Shigella* chromosomes

Product	Gene	Location	Function	Sd197	Sf301	2457T	Sb227	Ss046
Toxins								
Shiga toxin	<i>stxAB</i>	<i>stx</i> -phage P27	N-glycosidase, block protein synthesis	SDY1398, 1390	-	-	-	-
ShET1	<i>setIA</i> , <i>setIB</i>	SHI-1	Ion secretion	-	SF2973a, 2973b	ND ^a	-	-
ShET2	<i>senB</i>		Ion secretion	-	-	-	-	SSO2665
Protease								
Serine protease	<i>pic</i>	SHI-1	Mucinase	-	SF2973	S3178	-	SSO3595 ^a
Serine protease	<i>sigA</i>	SHI-1	Ion secretion	-	SF2968	S4824	SBO0233, 4150	SSO3223
Others								
Aerobactin	<i>iutA</i> , <i>iucABCD</i>	SHI-2/SHI-3	Iron acquisition	-	SF3719, 3715-3718	S4052, 4053-4056	SBO4314, 4337-4340	SSO3605, 3601-3604
Siderophore receptor	<i>iroN</i> , <i>iroBCDE</i>		Iron acquisition	SDY1022, 1023-1026	-	-	-	-
ABC transporter	<i>sitABCD</i>		Iron acquisition	SDY1454-1457	SF1362-1365	S1964-1967	SBO1691-1694	SSO1750-1753
Hemin receptor	<i>shuA</i> , <i>shuS</i> , <i>shuT</i> , <i>shuY</i> , <i>shuV</i>		Iron acquisition	SDY3547-3555	-	-	-	-
ABC transporter	<i>ipaH</i>	<i>ipaH</i> island	Iron acquisition	SDY1240-1242	SF1192-1194	S1278-1280	-	-
Invasion plasmid antigen			Unknown	SDY0834, 1062, 2001, 2003, 2753	SF0722, 1383, 1880, 2022 ^b , 2610	S0761 ^b , 0934, 1268, 1947, 2119, 2330 ^b , 2782	SBO0653, 0953, 1026, 1256, 1619, 2084	SSO0751, 1272, 1317, 2179, 2646
Putative adhesin	<i>yadA</i> -like	OI#144-like island	Unknown	-	SF3641	S4127 ^b	SBO3605	SSO3803
Putative chaperone	<i>clp</i> -like	OI#7-like island	Unknown	-	-	-	-	SSO0242
Inner membrane protein	<i>IcmF</i> -like	OI#7-like island	Unknown	-	-	-	-	SSO0236
Exoprotein	<i>RTX</i> -like	OI#28-like island	Unknown	SDY0420-0424	-	-	-	-
Transport system		OI#28-like island	Unknown	SDY0416, 0417	-	-	-	-
T2SS	<i>gspC-M</i>		Unknown	SDY3092-3102	-	-	SBO3011 ^b , 3012 ^b , 3013-3021	-

^aSequences exist in the genome but are not recognized as coding genes by the current annotation.^bPseudogenes.

Table 4. Known and putative virulence genes in the *Shigella* virulence plasmids

Product	Gene	Function	pSD1_197	pCP301	pSB4_227	pSS_046
TTSS	<i>mxi-spa</i> region	Invasion and internalization	SDYP174–193	CP0136–0156	–	SSOP098–117
TTSS secreted protein	<i>ipaA</i>	Actin depolymerization	SDYP163	CP0125	–	SSOP087
	<i>ipaB</i>	Inducing apoptosis	SDYP166	CP0128	–	SSOP090
	<i>ipaC</i>	Actin polymerization, activation of Cdc42 and Rac	SDYP165	CP0127	–	SSOP089
	<i>ipaD</i>	Forming a complex with IpaB, control the flux of proteins through the type III secretion	SDYP164	CP0126	–	SSOP088
	<i>ipgD</i>	Inositol 4-phosphatase, membrane blebbing	SDYP171	CP0133	–	SSOP095
	<i>icsB</i>	Camouflaging IcsA from autophagic host defense system	SDYP170	CP0132	–	SSOP094
	<i>virA</i>	Microtubule destabilization, membrane ruffling	SDYP211	CP0181	–	SSOP142
	<i>ospF/mkaD</i>	Unknown	SDYP013	CP0010	SBOP017	SSOP009
	<i>ipaH7.8</i>	Facilitating the escape of the bacteria from phagocytic vacuole of macrophages	SDYP038	CP0078	SBOP067	SSOP058
	<i>ipaH9.8</i>	Transported to the nucleus, function unknown	SDYP099	CP0226	SBOP113	SSOP167
	<i>ipaH4.5</i>	Unknown	SDYP037	CP0079	SBOP066	SSOP059
	<i>ipgB</i>	Unknown	SDYP168	CP0130	–	SSOP092
	<i>ospG</i>	Unknown	SDYP101	CP0227	–	SSOP170
Toxins						
ShET2	<i>senA</i>	Ion secretion	SDYP056	CP0093	SBOP076	SSOP050
	<i>senB</i>	Homologues of ShET2	SDYP010	CP0009	SBOP016	SSOP008
Enzymes	<i>icsP/sopA</i>	Cleavaging of IcsA	SDYP224	CP0271	SBOP149	SSOP241
	<i>sepA</i>	Tissue invasion	–	CP0070	–	–
	<i>msbB</i>	Fatty acyl modification of O-antigen	SDYP110	CP0238	SBOP119	SSOP182
	<i>apy</i>	ATP-diphosphohydrolase	SDYP004	CP0004	SBOP006	SSOP004
	<i>phoN-Sf</i>	Non-specific acid phosphatase	SDYP067	CP0190	–	–
	<i>rfbU</i>	O-antigen biosynthesis	SDYP108	CP0236	–	SSOP180
	<i>ushA</i>	UDP-sugar hydrolase (5'-nucleotidase)	SDYP064	CP0185	–	SSOP147
Regulators	<i>virF</i>	Activating transcription of <i>virB</i> and <i>icsA</i>	–	CP0046	SBOP052	SSOP041
	<i>virK</i>	Post-transcriptional regulation of <i>icsA</i> expression	SDYP109	CP0237	SBOP118	SSOP181
	<i>virB</i>	Activating <i>ipa</i> , <i>spa</i> , and <i>mxi</i> operons	SDYP161	CP0123	–	SSOP085
Others	<i>icsA/virG</i>	Nucleation of actin filaments	SDYP214	CP0182	–	SSOP143

Table 5. ORFs in each *Shigella* genome related to main clinical biochemical reactions

Reaction	Gene	Product	Sd197	Sf301	2457T	Sb227	Ss046
Indol	<i>tnaA</i>	Tryptophanase	–	SF3754	S4017	SBO3667 ^a	–
Ornithine	<i>speC</i>	Ornithine decarboxylase	SDY3107	SF2962	S3165	SBO3024 ^a	SSO3230
Lactose	<i>lacY</i>	Galactoside permease	SDY0376 ^a	–	–	–	SSO0300 ^a
	<i>lacZ</i>	Beta-D-galactosidase	SDY0378	–	–	–	SSO0299
Lysine	<i>cadA</i>	Lysine decarboxylase	SDY4466 ^a	–	–	–	SSO4308 ^a
	<i>cadB</i>	Lysine/cadaverine transport protein	SDY4465 ^a	–	–	–	SSO4315 ^a
Hydrogen sulfide	<i>phsA</i>	Hydrogen sulfide production: membrane anchoring protein	–	–	–	–	–
	<i>phsB</i>	Hydrogen sulfide production: iron-sulfur subunit; electron transfer	–	–	–	–	–
	<i>phsC</i>	Hydrogen sulfide production: membrane anchoring protein	–	–	–	–	–
Citric acid	<i>citT</i>	Citrate:succinate antiporter	–	SF0530 ^a	S0536 ^a	SBO0477	SSO0564
	<i>citC</i>	Citrate lyase synthetase	–	SF0535	S0542	SBO0483	SSO0571 ^a
	<i>citD</i>	Citrate lyase acyl carrier protein (gamma chain)	–	SF0534	S0541	SBO0482	SSO0569
	<i>citE</i>	Citrate lyase beta chain (acyl lyase subunit)	–	SF0533	S0540	SBO0481	SSO0568
	<i>citF</i>	Citrate lyase alpha chain	–	SF0532	S0539	SBO0480	SSO0567
	<i>citA</i>	Sensory histidine kinase, regulation of citrate fermentation, senses citrate	–	–	–	SBO0484 ^a	SSO0572
	<i>citB</i>	Response regulator, regulation of citrate fermentation	–	SF0660	S0683	SBO0485	SSO0573
Acetate	<i>aceA</i>	Isocitrate lyase	SDY4328	SF4081	S3649	SBO4035 ^a	SSO4187
	<i>aceB</i>	Malate synthase A	SDY4329 ^a	SF4080 ^a	S3650 ^a	SBO4034	SSO4186
	<i>aceK</i>	Isocitrate dehydrogenase kinase/phosphatase	SDY327	SF4082 ^a	S3648 ^a	SBO4036	–
D-mannitol	<i>cmtA</i>	PTS system, mannitol permease II, BC component	SDY3144	–	–	SBO3056	SSO3087 ^a
	<i>cmtB</i>	PTS system, mannitol permease II, A component	SDY3143	–	–	SBO3055	SSO3086
	<i>mtlA</i>	PTS system, mannitol permease II, ABC components	–	SF3633	S4135	SBO3597	SSO3809
	<i>mtlD</i>	Mannitol-1-phosphate dehydrogenase	–	SF3634	S4134	SBO3598	SSO3808
D-sorbitol	<i>srlA</i>	PTS system, glucitol/sorbitol-specific II, C component	SDY2898	SF2725 ^a	S2916 ^a	SBO2816	SSO2846
	<i>srlE</i>	PTS system, glucitol/sorbitol-specific II, B component	SDY2899 ^a	SF2726	S2917	SBO2815	SSO2847
	<i>srlB</i>	PTS system, glucitol/sorbitol-specific enzyme II, A component	SDY2901	SF2727	S2918	SBO2814	SSO2848
	<i>srlD</i>	Glucitol (sorbitol)-6-phosphate dehydrogenase	SDY2902	SF2728	S2919	SBO2813	SSO2849 ^a
D-xylose	<i>xylA</i>	D-xylose isomerase	–	SF3609 ^a	S4160 ^a	SBO3573	SSO3820
	<i>xylB</i>	Xylulokinase	–	SF3608	S4161	SBO3572	SSO3821
	<i>xylF</i>	D-xylose transport system substrate-binding protein	SDY4336 ^a	SF3610	S4159	SBO3574	–
	<i>xylG</i>	D-xylose transport system ATP-binding protein	–	SF3611	S4158	SBO3575	–
	<i>xylH</i>	D-xylose transport system permease protein	–	SF3612	S4157	SBO3576	–

^aPseudogenes.

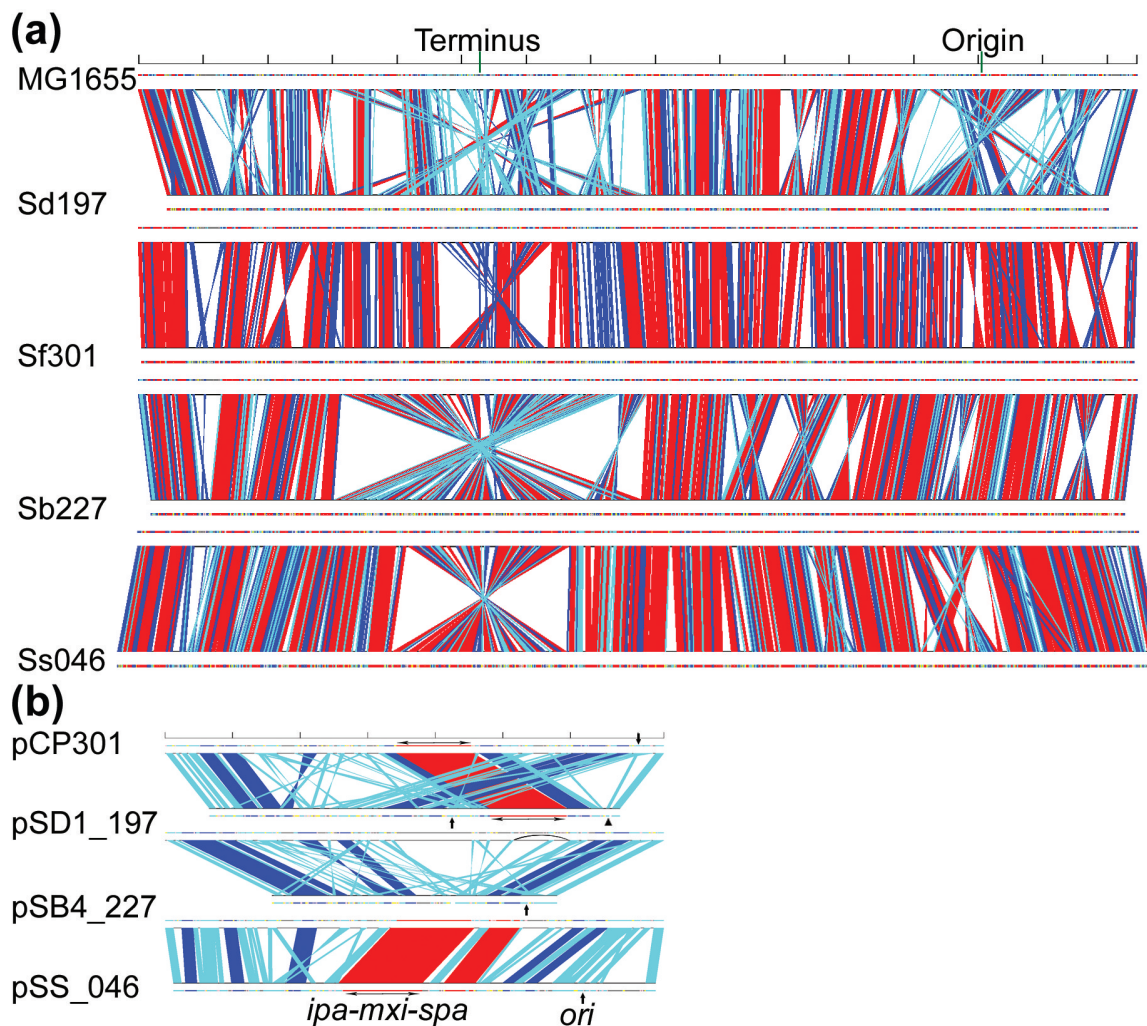


Figure 2. Comparison of the *Shigella* chromosomes (a) and the virulence plasmids (b) (to scale). The chromosomes are compared to that from the *E. coli* K12 strain MG1655 (top). The virulence plasmids comparisons are made with pCP301 from Sf301 (always on the top). Each marker length denotes 300 and 30 kb for chromosome and plasmid comparisons, respectively. Colour code donates maximal length of the paired segments: red, >10 kb; blue, 5–10 kb; cyan, 1–5 kb. The replication origin, *ori*, is indicated by an arrow for each plasmid, and the cell-entry regions are marked with horizontal double-arrowhead lines. The arrowhead indicates the locus of the truncated *ori* sequence in Sd197, and the arched line indicates the corresponding region in pCP301 that is deleted from pSB4_227 nearby the cell-entry region (see main text).

observed in the *E. coli* genome, which gives rise to two distinctive replichores, has been hypothesized to reflect the biased mutational traits in codon positions in the leading and lagging strands under natural selection (22). Owing to the many inversions, the GC skew has been distorted in the *Shigella* genomes particularly in Sd197 and Sb227 (Figure 1).

Inversions are often accompanied by deletions. The *ompT* gene is removed by inversion-associated deletions from all four genomes. This is the basis of so called *kcp* locus necessary for *Shigella* to cause keratoconjunctivitis in guinea pigs because *OmpT* reduces *IcsA* expression (26). The *cadA* gene responsible for converting lysine to cadaverine that in turn attenuates virulence (27) is missing from Sf301 and Sb227 by inversion-associated deletions. In Sd197 and Ss046 *cadA* is inactivated via a frameshift and an IS insertion, respectively.

Compared with MG1655, *Shigella* strains not only have many more copies of IS-elements but also have additional IS-species, such as IS1N, IS600 and IS629 (Table 2). Within the *Shigella* genomes, IS1 is predominant in the Sf301, Sb227

and Ss046 chromosomes whereas IS1N is copiously present in the Sd197 chromosome. Intact IS21 and IS630 are present only in Ss046, while the newly identified ISS*bo6* is found mainly in Sb227 chromosome. ISS*bo6* is similar to ISE*c8* found adjacent to the locus of enterocyte effacement (LEE) pathogenicity island in EHEC (28). Furthermore, most copies of the ISS*bo6* are located within SHI-1, SHI-2 and *ipaH* islands (see below) in the Sb227 genome. The virulence plasmids and chromosomes share most of the IS-species, suggesting that inter- and intra-replicon translocation and replication has occurred, leading to large numbers of IS-elements in the genomes.

The virulence plasmids also display a dynamic nature with many IS-mediated deletions, translocations and inversions. Plasmid pSS_046 from Ss046 shows the closest collinearity to pCP301 (Figure 2b). Apart from IS-mediated inversions and translocations, the collinearity is interrupted downstream to the replication origin, *ori*, due to a 13 kb insertion in pSS_046 that carries genes for O-antigen synthesis as described

previously (29). pSB4_227 from Sb227 also shows the colinearity with pCP301 except for the ~80 kb deletion including the cell-entry region (see above). Plasmid pSD1_197 from Sd197 has a notable translocation involving a DNA segment of ~50 kb associated with duplication of the *ori* sequence and nearby *repA* and *copAB* genes. As a result, the cell-entry region is sandwiched by two sets of *ori*, *repA* and *copAB* (Figure 2b). The original *ori* sequence is truncated, so that plasmid replication is probably performed by the functional duplicated *ori* sequence.

A number of notable loci present in pCP301 are absent from pSS_046. These include *sepA*, (which codes for an extracellular serine protease involved in tissue invasion) (30), *phoN* (encoding a non-specific phosphatase), *stbAB* (encoding one of the two partition systems) and *ipgH* (encoding a sugar phosphate). The *sepA* gene has been shown by DNA hybridization to be absent from a number of other *S. sonnei* virulence plasmids (21).

Diversity of the virulence genes: gain of functions

The distribution of putative virulence genes shows diversity among the *Shigella* genomes (Tables 3 and 4). The so-called *Shigella* pathogenicity island (SHI)-1 in Sf301 encodes three characterized proteins: the autotransporter proteases Pic and SigA, and the enterotoxin ShET1 which is encoded by the *setAB* genes and which are entirely within, and on the complementary strand of, the *pic* coding sequence. Pic is implicated in mucinase activity, serum resistance, and hemagglutination (31), while SigA is capable of casein degradation, is cytopathic for HEP-2 cells and along with ShET1 contributes to fluid accumulation in rabbit ileal loops (32,33). SHI-1 is wholly absent from Sd197, and in Sb227 and Ss046, although *sigA* is present, the *pic/setAB* coding sequence is missing. A second copy of *sigA* is also present in Sb227.

SHI-2 was originally identified at the *selC* tRNA locus in *S. flexneri*. It carries the *iut/iuc* operon encoding an aerobactin system for iron acquisition (10). SHI-2 is present in Ss046 but unlinked with the *selC* gene, which appears to be caused by an inversion near the replication origin in Ss046, as evidenced by the fact that *selC* tRNA gene is located in the leading strand in MG1655 and Sf301 but situated in the lagging strand in Ss046. The previously reported *S. boydii* SHI-3 is present in Sb227. SHI-3 carries the same *iut/iuc* operon as SHI-2 but is linked with the *pheU* tRNA locus (34). Sd197 has neither SHI-2 nor SHI-3 but solely possesses the *shu* and the *iro* operons (Table 3). The *shu* operon encodes a TonB-dependent heme transport system (35). The *iro* genes were originally identified in *Salmonella enterica* as a ferric iron transport system (36).

One of the interesting features of the Sf301 genome is the presence of 12 copies of the *ipaH* genes: 5 on the plasmid and 7 on the chromosome, of which 5 are located in *ipaH*-islands which are apparently acquired via phage-mediated lateral gene transfer (11). All the *ipaH* products have a conserved C-terminal half of 260 amino acid residues but variable N-terminal halves, within which are leucine-rich repeat regions implicated in protein-protein interaction. The plasmid encoded IpaH_{7,8} is involved in the escape of *Shigella* from phagocytic vacuoles in macrophages (37), and the bacteria express more IpaH_{9,8} when inside host cells (38). Hence, the multiple *ipaH* are an interesting phenomenon. It is now

confirmed that there are multiple *ipaH* genes in all *Shigella* genomes (Tables 3 and 4), except that *ipaH*_{1,4} and *ipaH*_{2,5} are absent in pSB4_227 and pSS_046, respectively, and that the coding region of *ipaH*_{1,4} in pSD1_197 is truncated due to an IS629 insertion. Thus, the necessity for these two *ipaH* genes in virulence is in doubt. The chromosomal *ipaH* genes are mostly within *ipaH* islands and are always next to a gene that encodes a protein homologous to a bacteriophage P27 protein (accession no. NP_543109) of unknown function. However, the plasmid *ipaH* genes from all strains are unlinked with the phage gene. Hence, the virulence plasmids and the chromosomes may have acquired the *ipaH* genes from different sources or by different mechanisms.

The type II secretion system (T2SS) encoded by genes of the general secretion pathway (*gsp*) is widely distributed in Gram-negative bacteria (Supplementary Figure S1). The known *E. coli* T2SS encoded by the *yhe* genes at 74.5 min of the MG1655 chromosome is absent in all four sequenced *Shigella* genomes (Figure 3a). However, there is a novel set of *gsp* genes in the Sd197 and Sb227 chromosomes, which is absent in MG1655 and the other *Shigella* genomes (Figure 3b). The *gsp* products from Sd197 and Sb227 show some similarity to those of the *E. coli* *yhe* genes, but significantly greater similarity to those of the *gsp* genes from enterotoxigenic *E. coli* (ETEC) and *Vibrio cholerae* responsible for secreting the *E. coli* heat labile toxin (Ltx) and cholera toxin (Ctx), respectively (39,40) (Supplementary Figure S1). Shiga toxin, Stx, is encoded by a prophage at a distance locus from *gsp* as described previously (41). The Sb227 T2SS is likely to be inactive due to a frameshift in *gspC* and a nonsense mutation in *gspD*. Interestingly, the *gsp* genes are present as an island at the *pheV* tRNA locus in both Sd197 and Sb227. However, in Sf301 and Ss046, this locus is occupied by SHI-1 (Figure 3b). So, the *pheV* tRNA locus in *Shigella* strains may be a hotspot for insertion of laterally transferred genes.

In the *Shigella* genomes, there are regions similar to the 'O-islands' (OI) from EHEC EDL933 (42). Some of these O-island-like sequences may be of significance to virulence. In Sd197, the open reading frames (ORFs) SDY0416-SDY0425 may encode a RTX-toxin-like exoprotein and a transporter similar to those encoded by OI #28. In Sd197 and Sf301, there are ORFs (SDY1240-SDY1242 and SF1192-SF1194, respectively) which encode a putative iron compound ABC transporter similar to those from EDL933 (Z1964-Z1966). In Sf301, Sb227 and Ss046, there are genes encoding a putative adhesin similar to that encoded by the EDL933 OI #144 (Z5029), which belong to the *Yersinia* YadA family that mediates bacterial adherence and invasion through binding to fibronectin and β 1 integrin (43) and induces the production of interleukin-8 (44). However, only Ss046 encodes a protein of 1616 amino acids similar in length to that of EDL933 of 1588 amino acids. Sf301 encodes a protein with only 990 amino acids at the C-terminus, whereas Sb227 encodes a protein with a truncation of more than 200 amino acids at the C-terminus, both of which may not be functional.

Deletions and pseudogenes: loss of functions

Deletions and pseudogenes are effective mechanisms for loss of functions, and the inactivation of the *ompT* and *cadA* genes provide examples of how loss of some functions may increase

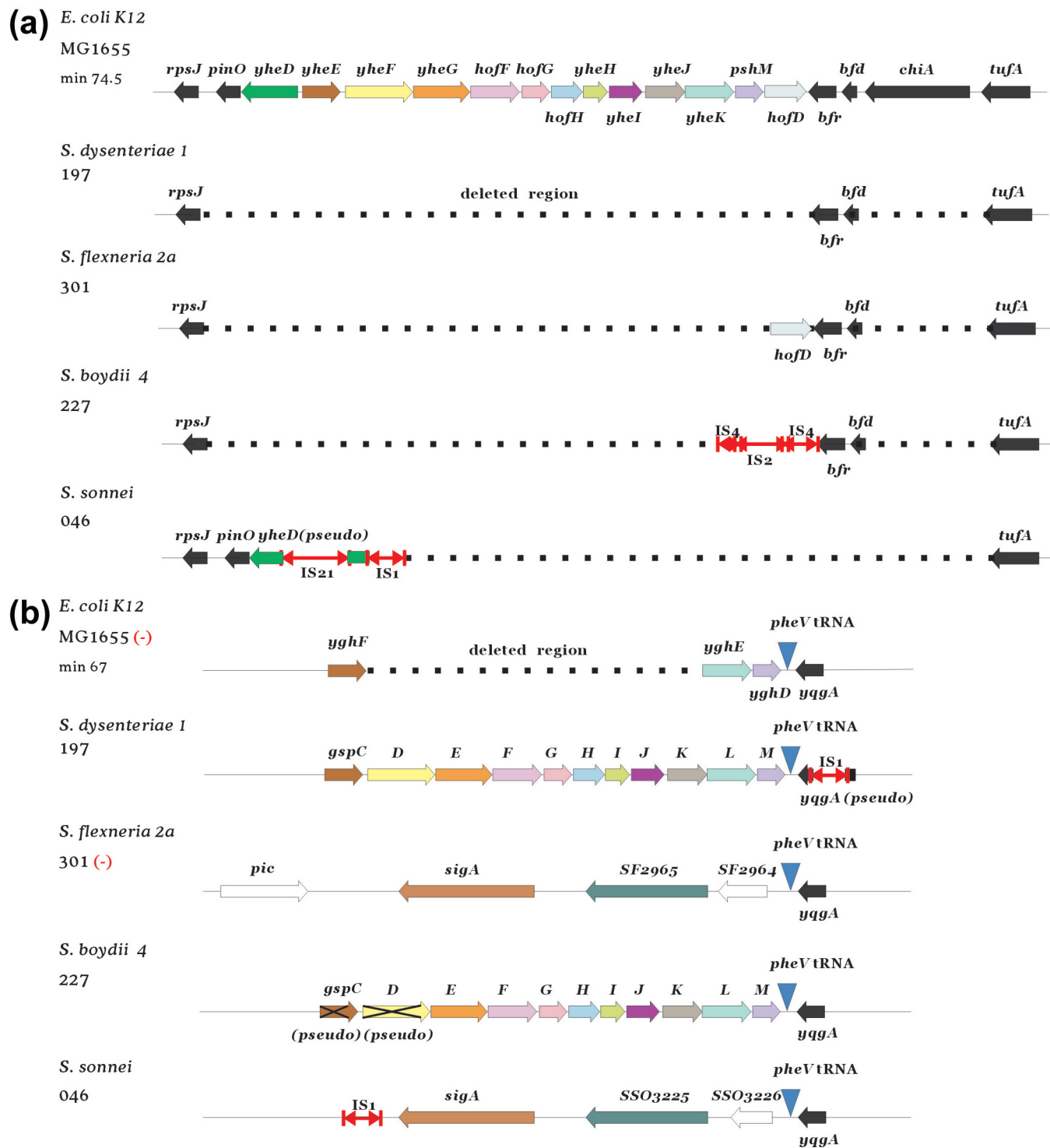


Figure 3. Graphic representation of the different T2SS loci in *E. coli* K-12 MG1655 and *Shigella* genomes (to scale). (a) The *yhe* locus at 74.5 min of the MG1655 chromosome and the corresponding regions in the *Shigella* genomes. (b) The *pheV* tRNA locus at 67 min of MG1655 and the corresponding loci in *Shigella* genomes where the *gsp* genes are located. A strain name followed by a minus sign (-) means the reverse complement strands of the genome sequences were used for the diagram.

the pathogenicity of *Shigella* (see above). Additionally, all the sequenced strains of *Shigella* have lost flagellar function due to mutations in many different genes (Supplementary Table S2). Fimbriae are also absent from these *Shigella*. In the EHEC genome (NC_002655), there are 14 loci involved in fimbrial

biogenesis. None of the counterpart loci in the *Shigella* genomes is intact (Supplementary Table S2).

The central intermediary metabolism is conserved in all four *Shigella* species and MG1655. However, considerable variations have been found in carbohydrate and amino acid

metabolism (Supplementary Table S2). *Shigella* bacteria do not synthesize lysine decarboxylase due to inactivation of *cadA* gene (see above), do not produce hydrogen sulfide from thiosulfate, do not produce gas from carbohydrate, do not use citric acid as a sole carbon source and do not grow on sodium acetate. Table 5 is a summary of the genetic basis for these negative *Shigella* properties in main clinical biochemical reactions (see Supplementary Table S2 for a complete list). Note that only Sb227 carries all genes necessary for utilization of D-mannitol, D-sorbitol and D-xylose (Table 5).

Lactose fermentation is a biochemical property commonly used for distinguishing *Shigella* from *E.coli*. However, some *S.dysenteriae* 1 and *S.sonnei* isolates ferment lactose slowly, which now can be explained genetically. In the genomes of Sd197 and Ss046 the key gene, *lacZ* (encoding β -D-galactosidase), is intact though *lacY* (encoding galactose permease) is a pseudogene (both of them are deleted from Sf301 and Sb227). Additionally, Sd197 and Ss046 have ORFs SDY2556 and SSO2450, respectively, which encode proteins similar to the sucrose permease from EHEC (NP_288931) sharing a conserved LacY domain and overall 34% identity with the lactose permease from *Klebsiella pneumoniae* (JT0487). This unspecialised galactoside transport function may compensate partially for the loss of LacY in Sd197 and Ss046 leading to slow lactose fermentation.

DISCUSSION

An MLS study (13) and the previous reported *S.flexneri* genomes (11,12) have suggested strongly that *Shigella* is within the species of *E.coli*. The complete genomes of *S.dysenteriae*, *S.boydii* and *S.sonnei* have provided additional supporting evidence; they all have ~3 Mb of genomic DNA in common with all published *E.coli* and *Shigella* genomes. The extensive diversity of the *Shigella* genomes revealed by the whole genome sequences supports the hypothesis that *Shigella* have emerged from diverse origins of *E.coli*. Recently, Lan *et al.* (45) have presented evidence based on MLS that EIEC strains are also derived from different origins of *E.coli*. One of the EIEC strains (serotype O112ac) is grouped into *Shigella* Cluster 2, and outliers of *Shigella* strains, *S.dysenteriae* type 1 and *S.sonnei*, are more closely related to EIEC strains. Based on the comparative genomic hybridization microarray, Fukiya *et al.* (46) have also shown that three out of four EIEC strains are closely related to three *Shigella* strains (*S.flexneri* 2a, *S.sonnei* and *S.boydii*) but more distance to EPEC, ETEC, EHEC and UPEC strains. Thus, there is little doubt now that *Shigella* and EIEC form a single pathovar of *E.coli*.

The extensive diversity of the *Shigella* genomes appears to be multi-factorial. First, *Shigella* has evolved from diverse genomic backgrounds of *E.coli*. Particularly, we must remember that Sd197 and Ss046 are outside of three main *Shigella* phylogenetic groups (13). Therefore, the diversity of the four sequenced genomes does not reflect the entire genome diversity within the *Shigella*. Second, putative virulence genes have been transferred by bacteriophages to selected genomes. The distribution of SHI-1 and SHI-2 provide an example of this. Third, convergent evolution has been facilitated by IS-mediated rearrangements. For example, *ompT* and *cadA* were inactivated by deletions involving different DNA segments in

different genomes, and 14 orthologous fimbrial systems identified in the EHEC genome have all been inactivated in different ways in the *Shigella* genomes. Fourth, creation of independent pseudogenes, e.g. different genes for utilization of D-sorbitol are inactivated in different genomes (Table 5).

The diversity of the genomes provides a basis for further investigations into pathogenesis, epidemiology and microbial evolution. For example, it is known that *S.dysenteriae* produces Shiga toxin (47). However, it is unknown until now that there is a T2SS. Given that Stx has an overall similar structure to Ctx and Ltx and that T2SS from Sd197 shows extensive homology to those from *V.cholerae* and ETEC, it is highly likely that Stx is actively secreted from Sd197. Therefore, the *S.dysenteriae* T2SS ought to contribute significantly to pathogenicity as it enables toxin molecules to reach the target host cells from proliferating bacteria. Otherwise, the accumulated toxin molecules can be released only upon bacterial lysis. Of course, it is also of interest to investigate whether the *Shigella* T2SS secretes other putative virulence factors in addition to Shiga toxin.

A comparative genomic hybridization test indicates a wide distribution of the *gsp* genes among strains from all phylogenetic groups (J. Peng, X. Zhang, J. Yang, J. Wang, E. Yang, W. Bin, C. Wei, M. Sun and Q. Jin, unpublished data), which suggests that many strains possessed Stx before their subsequent loss, and thereafter in the case of Sb227 the T2SS was inactivated. It has been reported that an Stx-expressing prophage from an *S.sonnei* strain is able to form plaques on a number of different *Shigella* species and serotypes (48). We found in this study that Ss046 possesses remnants of the previously reported Stx-phage Φ P27 (49) which has a different gene content and organization to the Sd197 Stx-phage, and Sf301 and Sb227 possess remnants of the Stx-phage of Sd197. Taken together, many *Shigella* strains have probably gained and then lost the Stx genes in the evolutionally past. Perhaps, loss of Stx genes has provided advantages to the bacteria for better adaptation to the human hosts, as causing severer disease offers little benefit to the organisms for long term survival. Alternatively, according to the hypothesis by Escobar-Paramo *et al.* (50) the integration, retention and expression of certain virulence factors may be the result of the interaction between the newly introduced genes and the bacterial genomic background. Hence, perhaps only *S.dysenteriae* 1 and a few *S.sonnei* strains have the right genomic background to retain and express Stx stably.

In addition to Shiga toxin and the T2SS, *S.dysenteriae* type 1 alone possesses two iron acquisition systems, *shu* and *iro*. Though the *shu* system, responsible for heme uptake, is not essential for invasion and proliferation in cultured Henle cells, it still can be very important *in vivo* (51). Recently, Skaar *et al.* (52) showed that *Staphylococcus aureus* preferably imports heme iron over transferrin *in vivo* and that mutant strains defective in heme transport are severely attenuated in a *Caenorhabditis elegans* infection model. Thus, there is a need to establish whether *S.dysenteriae* also prefers heme over other iron sources during infection. In addition, it is important to identify the genetic basis of the previously observed heme transport activity in *S.flexneri* (53). A comparison of that yet unidentified heme transport system with the Shu system is necessary for a better understanding of the iron acquisition strategies that *Shigella* employs.

The *iro* genes were originally identified in *S. enterica* as a ferric iron transport system (36). As the receptor, the *iroN* product, has affinity to some iron-containing substrates produced by soil microbes, the *iro* system has been speculated to facilitate the growth of *S. enterica* in soil. Whether this system offers an advantage to *S. dysenteriae* for environmental survival over other strains or plays a role during infection requires further investigations. We must emphasize that the observed differences in gene content between the different species here are not necessarily characteristic for the different species. For example, the *iro* genes are only present in serotype 1 but not in other *S. dysenteriae* strains (J. Peng, X. Zhang, J. Yang, J. Wang, E. Yang, W. Bin, C. Wei, M. Sun and Q. Jin, unpublished data).

In general, the virulence of *Shigella* is in the order, *S. dysenteriae* > *S. flexneri* > *S. sonnei* (54). The lack of ShET1 and Pic, and SepA in Ss046 may collectively make *S. sonnei* lesser virulent than *S. flexneri*, as these are probably the major determinants involved in the diarrhoeal phase of the infection. On the other hand, *S. dysenteriae* 1 infection generally has only a very limited diarrhoeal phase, but abrupt onset of acute dysentery (54). This may be due to its possession of factors, such as the very potent Shiga toxin, and thus lack of SHI-1 is insignificant to *S. dysenteriae* type 1.

The presence of large numbers of IS-elements in the *Shigella* genomes is likely the major cause of many of the genome rearrangements. IS1 dominates in Sf301, Ss046 and Sb227, and is associated with DNA rearrangements at many different loci in these three genomes. These events could not be random events which must have occurred in accordance with the whole genome property or promoted (or restrained) by other genetic loci. Previously ISIN, also known as iso-IS1, was found only in *S. dysenteriae* serotype 1 (55). However, we found that Sb227 and Ss046, and the EHEC strain EDL933 all have a single copy of ISIN next to *yiiX*, a gene encoding a hypothetical protein. The uropathogenic *E. coli* (UPEC) strain CFT073 has three partial copies but none is at this locus. Since Sd197 also has a copy of ISIN next to *yiiX*, this locus is likely to be the original site for ISIN acquisition except the UPEC strain. Thus, either the expansion of ISIN is permitted only in *S. dysenteriae* type 1 or ISIN has transmitted into the other genomes fairly recently.

The fact that ISSb06 is restricted in SHI-1, SHI-2 and *ipaH* islands in Sb227 is interesting. It indicates that those pathogenicity islands were acquired earlier than the IS-elements, which probably is mainly distributed among microbes within the Indian subcontinent.

Inversions, probably IS-mediated, are another mechanism that has reshaped the genomes. One of the conserved genetic traits, namely the CG bias strand composition or GC-skew, among the enteric bacteria, is distorted by inversions in the *Shigella* genomes (Figure 1). This can be significant to gene expression as GC-skew is a reflection of the biased mutational traits in codon positions in the leading and lagging strands under natural selection (22). *Shigella* colonizes and proliferates in the cell cytosol, a niche unique amongst the enteric bacteria, and thus is likely to be under different selective pressure to change the expression of many genes compared with other enteric bacteria. Inversions and, additionally, translocations effectively lead to preferred leading or lagging strand, orientation and distance

to the replication origin for the optimal expression of these genes.

Gene decay or reductive evolution is noted to be an important evolutionary mechanism for the obligate intracellular pathogens, such as *Mycobacterium leprae* (56). *Shigella* bacteria, being facultative intracellular pathogens, also employ such a mechanism. The Sd197 genome is obviously smaller than that of MG1655 (Table 1), and the other three sequenced genomes display a net loss of genetic material [excluding the IS sequences which account for 7–12% of the genomes (Table 1)]. Besides deletions, formation of pseudogenes also plays an important part in gene decay, leading to many important characteristics in favour of *Shigella* pathogenesis.

For many pathogenic bacteria, flagella are responsible for chemotaxis and play a role in tissue invasion (57). Conversely, mammalian hosts detect the conserved domain on flagellin monomers through the Toll-like receptor (TLR)-5, which triggers pro-inflammatory and adaptive immune responses (57). *Shigella* spends most of the time intracellularly during infection and is very mobile within the cells by polymerising actin using IcsA. Therefore, flagella synthesis is inactivated in all genomes via deletions as well as pseudogenes (Supplementary Table S2). This not only conserves energy but also allows evasion of TLR-5 mediated innate and adaptive immunity.

Adherence to the host cell surface via fimbriae is generally assumed to be important for bacteria to establish an infection. However, *Shigella* infective doses can be very low despite all the fimbrial genes orthologous to those of EHEC being inactivated. The YadA-like proteins are the only *Shigella* adhesins identified so far and are intact only in Ss046. Perhaps, the efficient invasion mechanism through Ipa proteins and the TTSS has overcome the need for fimbriae and other adherence factors, which has led to the inactivation of the fimbrial genes as well as the *yadA* genes. While it is important to investigate the significance of the intact YadA in Ss046 for virulence, sequencing or performing northern blotting on more epidemiologic *S. sonnei* strains will indicate whether or not the *yadA* gene is prone to gene decay.

In summary, the *Shigellas* have evolved from different strains of *E. coli* and have become highly specific human pathogens through extensive convergent evolution involving gain and loss of functions. A similar scenario is also observed in Typhi and Paratyphi A of *S. enterica*; through convergent evolution, mainly involving gene decay, these pathogens have become human restricted, with similar virulence properties (58). This study has provided valuable information for further investigation of the pathogenicity, epidemiology and virulence of one of the important human pathogens, and provides some insight into how these pathogens have evolved.

SUPPLEMENTARY DATA

Supplementary Data are available at NAR online.

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Conflict of interest statement. None declared.

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