Full title

Plasmid characterization in bacterial isolates of public health relevance in a tertiary healthcare

facility in Kilimanjaro, Tanzania

Short title

Plasmids characterization and public health relevance

Authors

Lameck Pashet Sengeruan [1, 2,] * (LP), Marco van Zwetselaar [3] (MvZ), Happiness Kumburu [3] (HK),

Frank Møller Aarestrup [4] (FM), Katharina Kreppel [1] (KK), Elingarami Sauli [1] (ES), Tolbert Sonda [3]

(TS)

Affiliations

[1] School of Life Science and Bioengineering, The Nelson Mandela African Institution of Science

and Technology, Arusha, Tanzania.

[2] Training and Capacity Building Department, Ifakara Health Institute, Bagamoyo, Tanzania.

[3] Genomics and Bioinformatics unit, Kilimanjaro Clinical Research Institute, Moshi, Tanzania

[4] DTU-Food, Technical University of Denmark

* Corresponding author

E-mail: lpashet@ihi.or.tz/ lameckpashet@gmail.com (LP)

Abstract

Plasmids are infectious double stranded DNA molecules that are found within bacteria. Horizontal gene transfer promotes successful spread of different types of plasmids within or among bacteria species, making their detection an important task for guiding clinical treatment. We used whole genome sequenced data to determine the prevalence of plasmid replicons in clinical bacterial isolates, the presence of resistance and virulence genes in plasmids, and the relationship between resistance and virulence genes within each plasmid. All bacterial sequences were de novo assembled using Unicycler before extraction of plasmids. Assembly graphs were submitted to Gplas+plasflow for plasmid prediction. The predicted plasmid components were validated using PlasmidFinder.

A total of 159 (56.2%) out of 283 bacterial isolates were found to carry plasmids, with *E. coli, K. pneumoniae and S. aureus*being the most prevalent plasmid carriers. A total of 27 (87.1%) combined plasmids were found to carry both resistance and virulence genes compared to 4 (12.9%) single plasmids. No statistically significant correlation was found between the number of antimicrobial resistance and virulence genes in plasmids (r =-0.25, p > 0.05). Our findings show a relatively high proportion of plasmid-carrying isolates suggesting selection pressure due to antibiotic use in the hospital. Co-occurrence of antibiotic resistance and virulence genes in clinical isolates is a public health relevant problem needing attention.

Keywords: whole genome sequencing; plasmids; antibiotic resistance; virulence; public health, Tanzania

Introduction

Plasmids are circular, double-stranded DNA molecules that occur naturally in bacterial cells [1], whose genes often provide evolutionary advantages for bacteria, such as antimicrobial resistance and/or virulence [2,3]. Plasmids are important vehicles in disseminating and acquiring antibiotic resistance and virulence, and can thus constitute a major burden on human health [4]. Recent studies have suggested that the prevalence of antimicrobial resistance (AMR) is higher in Low- and Middle-income Countries (LMICs) compared to European countries and the United States [5,6]. There is however, limited knowledge regarding the dissemination of antibiotic resistance genes (ARGs) and virulence among clinical isolates in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA). This study was conducted to determine the proportion of bacterial isolates carrying plasmids, to identify plasmids that mediate resistance and virulence genes, and to investigate the relationship between antimicrobial resistance genes and virulence genes within plasmids using whole genome sequence data from clinical bacterial isolates among inpatients at Kilimanjaro Christian Medical Centre (KCMC) in Tanzania.

Materials and methods

Study setting, Whole-genome sequencing and library preparation

Kilimanjaro Christian Medical Centre (KCMC) is one of Tanzania's five zonal referral hospitals, located in Moshi, northern Tanzania. KCMC has a bed capacity of 650 and serves a catchment area of about 15 million people. It serves around 500 outpatients daily, from different parts of Tanzania

[7]. The whole genome sequence data that was analyzed originated from a prospective cross-sectional study that was conducted at KCMC between August 2013 and August 2015. In this study, a total of 56 stool, 122 sputum, 126 blood and 286 wound swabs (wound/pus) clinical samples, with patients' clinical and socio-demographic characteristics, were collected from 575 patients admitted to KCMC hospital [8,9]. A written informed consent was obtained from each participant and from parents or guardians of children before enrolled into the study.

Collected specimens were taken to the microbiology unit at Kilimanjaro Clinical Research Institute (KCRI) for culture and identification of bacterial isolates. Out of 590 specimens collected, 249 were culture positive, resulting in 377 isolates [8]. All bacterial isolates were sequenced in the KCRI genomics lab, and all sequences were archived on the KCRI compute cluster. In brief, whole genome sequencing (WGS) was performed for genomic DNA that was extracted from cultures of bacterial isolates using the Easy-DNA Extraction Kit (Invitrogen®). Short-read WGS was performed using the Illumina MiSeq platform (Illumina Inc.). Libraries for Illumina sequencing were constructed using the Illumina Nextera XT kit (Illumina Ltd., San Diego, CA, USA) according to the manufacturer's recommendations. The libraries were sequenced on Illumina MiSeq platform using the 2 x 250bp paired-end protocol, previously reported by Kumburu et al [8] & Sonda et al [9]. For the purpose of this study, a total of 283 bacterial whole genomes isolates with associated metadata were retrieved for analysis. Additional ethical approval was obtained from the Ifakara Health Institute Research Ethics Committee (IHI/IRB/No: 14-2021) for plasmid characterization.

Bioinformatics Analyses

Quality Control and Trimming of Illumina Sequences

The following steps were followed: (i) All bacterial raw reads were submitted to in-house bacterial analysis pipeline (BAP), available at https://github.com/zwets/kcri-cge-bap. Assembly was performed using SKESA 2.4.0 [10]. (ii) All resulting assemblies were then processed in batch by the Genome Taxonomy Database Toolkit (GTDB-Tk) 0.3.2 [11] for detailed taxonomic assignment. (iii) Metrics produced by the BAP and GTDB-Tk were then used to assess the quality of each assembly. Assessment was based on read counts, coverage depth, assembly structure (contig count, N1, N50, L50), deviation of assembly length from reference, GTDB alignment fraction, and GTDB Multi-Locus Sequence Alignment (MSA) coverage. A six-point scale was used for assembly quality rating: 0 (Unusable), 1 (Mix), 2 (Bad), 3 (Usable), 4 (Good), and 5 (Excellent). (iv) Finally, categories 0 to 2 were excluded, while categories 3 through 5 were used for subsequent analysis. Every assembly in these categories was for a single isolate that had (nearly) complete genome coverage, at sufficient sequencing depth.

Plasmid extraction and validation

Raw reads assembly was repeated with Unicycler 0.4.7 [12] for its ability as a "SPAdes optimiser" to produce long and, in the ideal case, circular contigs. Assembly graphs (GFA) were submitted to Gplas+plasflow for plasmid prediction. Gplas 0.6.1 [13] + Plasflow 1.1 [14] take into account the connected components in the assembly graph when predicting plasmids. The components predicted to be plasmids were extracted from the assemblies and submitted to PlasmidFinder version 1.3 [15] for validation.

Identification of Plasmid-Mediated Antibiotic Resistance Genes (ARGs) and Virulence genes

To identify antibiotic resistance and virulence genes carried in plasmids, the assembled putative plasmid sequences for each isolate were submitted to Resfinder 4.0 [16] and VirulenceFinder 1.4[17] respectively. In both Resfinder and VirulenceFinder, 90% identity and 60% coverage settings to call a gene were selected.

Statistical analysis

Stata 14 (College Station, TX, 77845, USA) was used for descriptive statistics and determination of the relationship between antimicrobial resistance and virulence genes in plasmids.

Results

Study population

In total, 128 patients whose whole genome bacterial isolates were analyzed were included in this study (Table 1). One-hundred twenty patients were plasmid positive isolates. The mean age in years (SD) was 46.2 (18.0). Male patients were 77 (60.2%), females were 47 (36.7%) and 4 (3.1%) missed gender identification. A total of 62 (48.4%) patients were admitted to surgical ward, 9 (7.1%) surgical ICU, 52 (40.6%) medical ward, 4 (3.1%) medical ICU ward, and 1 (0.8%) missed ward admission identification. Eighty-seven (67.9%) specimens were swabs, 19 (14.8%) were stool, 13 (10.2%) were sputum, 8 (6.3%) were blood and 1(0.8%) specimen missed identification. A total of 28 (21.9%) patients were diabetic, 6 (4.7%) were cancer patients, 6 (4.7%) were suffering from TB, 2 (1.5%) were HIV positive and 86 (67.2%) were others: Of those 61 (47.7%) had no

underlying conditions and 25 (19.5%) had other underlying conditions. Of the wound swabs, twenty-four (18.8%) were from patients with diabetic wounds, 11 (8.6%) were from burn wounds, 10 (7.8%) were from post-surgical wounds, 6 (4.6%) were from motor traffic accidents wounds and 77 (60.2%) were others: Of those 35 (27.3%) other wounds and 42 (32.8%) had no wounds.

Seventy-eight (60.9%) patients had no history of hospitalization and 42 (32.8%) had hospitalization history. A total of 81 (63.3%) patients were transferred from another hospital and 44 (34.34%) were not. Among all participants, the median number of days stayed in the hospital before the survey was 8 days (Table 1).

 Table 1. Demographic and clinical characteristics of patients that samples were taken from

Patient characteristics	Missing [a]	Total (%)
Number of patients		128 (100)
Mean age in years (SD)		46.2 (18.0)
Gender	4 (3.1)	
Female		47 (36.7)
Male		77 (60.2)
Ward of admission	1 (0.8)	
Surgical		62 (48.4)
Surgical ICU		9 (7.1)
Medical		52 (40.6)
Medical ICU		4 (3.1)
Specimen collected	1 (0.8)	
Blood		8 (6.3)
Sputum		13 (10.2)
Stool		19 (14.8)
Swab		87 (67.9)
Underlying conditions		
Cancer		6 (4.7)
Diabetes		28 (21.9)
HIV		2 (1.5)
TB		6 (4.7)
Others		86 (67.2)
Type of wound		
Burn wound		11 (8.6)
Diabetic wound		24 (18.8)
Motor traffic wound		6 (4.6)
Post-surgical wound		10 (7.8)
Others		77 (60.2)
History of hospitalization	8 (6.3)	
No		78 (60.9)
Yes		42 (32.8)
Patient hospital transfer	3 (2.3)	
No		44 (34.4)
Yes		81 (63.3)
Patient ward transfer	5 (3.9)	
No		110 (85.9)
Yes		13 (10.2)
Median time in days stayed in the hospital before survey (IQR)	8 (6.3)	8 (4-11.5)

144   SD, standard deviation; ICU, intensive care unit; IQR, interquartile range; Missing [a], were the missing values

145   in each variable.

Proportion of bacterial species carrying plasmids

A total of 283 whole genome bacterial sequences were analyzed. One hundred fifty-nine (56.2%) bacterial isolates were detected to carry plasmids. Out of 159 plasmids, 94 non-repetitive plasmids were predicted. Of 94 plasmids, 48 (51.1%) were single plasmids and 46 (48.9%) were combined plasmids (two or more recombined plasmids). *K. pneumoniae* isolates were the most carriers of combined plasmids (17, 28.3%), followed by *S. aureus* (15, 25.0%) and *E.coli* (15, 25.0%). *E.coli* isolates were the most single plasmid carriers (23, 23.2%), followed by *S. aureus* (15, 15.2%) and *P. mirabilis* (14,14.4%) (Table 2).

165 **Table 2. Proportion of bacterial isolates carrying plasmids**

| | | | Plasmids | |
| | | Isolates | Single | Combined [b] |
Species	N	%	N	N
Enterobacter asburiae	1	0.6	1	0
Enterobacter cloacae	3	1.9	1	2
Enterobacter hormaechei	10	6.3	6	4
Enterobacter kobei	1	0.6	0	1
Enterobacter roggenkampii	1	0.6	1	0
Enterobacter soli	1	0.6	1	0
Enterobacter sp. n18-03635	1	0.6	1	0
Enterococcus faecalis	7	4.4	5	2
Enterococcus faecium	3	1.9	2	1
Enterococcus gallinarum	1	0.6	1	0
Escherichia coli	38	23.9	23	15
Klebsiella Michiganensis	2	1.3	1	1
Klebsiella oxytoca	2	1.3	1	1
Klebsiella pneumoniae	25	15.7	8	17
Klebsiella variicola	2	1.3	2	0
Micrococcus sp. Kbs0714	1	0.6	1	0
Morganella morganii	4	2.5	4	0
Proteus columbae	1	0.6	1	0
Proteus mirabilis	14	8.8	14	0
Proteus penneri	1	0.6	1	0
Proteus vulgaris	1	0.6	1	0
Pseudomonas aeruginosa	2	1.3	2	0
Shewanella algae	1	0.6	1	0
Staphylococcus aureus	30	18.9	15	15
Staphylococcus capitis	1	0.6	1	0
Staphylococcus epidermidis	1	0.6	1	0
Staphylococcus haemolyticus	3	1.9	3	0
Staphylococcus hominis	1	0.6	0	1

166 N, total number of isolates/plasmids; combined [b], two or more plasmids merged or fused together.

Plasmids concurrently mediating resistance and virulence genes

A total of 31 plasmids were identified to carry both resistance and virulence genes, of which 27

(87.1%) were combined plasmids and 4 (12.9%) were single plasmids (Tables 3 and 4). All four

single plasmids were carried by *E. coli*. Resistance gene *Sul1* was found the most common across

three single plasmids IncFII, IncQ1 and IncFII(pRSB107). Virulence genes iucC *and iutA* were also

seen the most common across three single plasmids such as IncQ1, IncFII(pRSB107) and IncFIA

(Table 3).

Among the 27 combined plasmids, 12 (44.4%) were carried by *E.coli* isolates, 10 (37.1%) by *K.*

pneumoniae isolates, 2 (7.4%) by *E. hormaechei* isolates, 1 (3.7%) by *E. cloacae* isolate, 1(3.7%)

by *K. oxytoca* isolate and 1 (3.7%) by *K. michiganensis* isolate. Virulence gene *traT* was seen in 19

(70.4%) of the 27 combined plasmids, followed by *terC* which was identified in 7 (25.9%)

plasmids. Resistance genes in combined plasmids, *sul2* was observed in 17 (62.9%) plasmids,

followed by *blaTEM-1B* in 15 (55.6%) plasmids, followed by *blaCTX-M-15* in 14 (51.9%)

plasmids and *blaOXA-1* in 13 (48.1%) plasmids (Table 4).

185   Table 3. Single plasmids mediating both virulence and resistance genes

Single plasmids	Resistance genes	Virulence genes
IncFII	*aac(3)-IIa,aadA5,blaCTX-M-15,dfrA17,qacE,sul1,tet(B)*	*traT*
IncQ1	*aph(3")-1b,aph(6)-Id,blaTEM-1B,dfrA7,qacE,sul1,sul2*	*cea,focCsfaE,focG,focI,iha,ireA,iucC,iutA,mchB,mchC,mchF,mcmA,papA_F48,papC,sat*
IncFIA	*sitABCD,tet(A)*	*iucC,iutA,sitA*
IncFII(pRSB107)	*dfrA5,qacE,sul1,sul2*	*capU,iroN,iss,iucC,iutA,mchB,mchC,mchF,mcmA,vat*

Table 4. Combined plasmids mediating both virulence and resistance genes

Combined plasmid	Resistance genes	Virulence genes
IncFIB(K),IncFII(pKP91),IncR	*ARR-2,aac(3)-IIa,aac(6')-Ib-cr,aadA1,aph(3'')-Ib,aph(6)-Id,blaCTX-M-15,blaOXA-1,catB3,cmlA1,dfrA14,ere(A),qacE,sul1,sul2,tet(A)*	*traT*
IncFIB(K)(pCAV1099-114),IncHI2,IncHI2A,IncX3	*aac(6')-Ib-cr,aadA5,aph(3'')-Ib,aph(6)-Id,blaCTX-M-15,blaOXA-1,blaTEM-1B,catB3,dfrA17,qacE,qnrB1,sul1,sul2,tet(A),tet(B)*	*terC*
Col156,IncFIA,IncFIB(AP001918),IncFII(pRSB107)	*aac(3)-IIa,aac(6')-Ib-cr,aadA5,aph(3'')-Ib,aph(6)-Id,blaCTX-M-15,blaOXA-1,catB3,dfrA17,mph(A),qacE,sul1,sul2,tet(A)*	*hra,iha,iucC,iutA,sat,senB,traT*
IncFIB(K),IncFII(K),IncQ1,IncR	*ARR-2,aac(3)-IIa,aadA1,aph(3'')-Ib,aph(3')-Ia,aph(6)-Id,blaCTX-M-15,blaTEM-1B,cmlA1,ere(A),qacE,qnrB1,sul1,sul2*	*traT*
IncFIA(HI1),IncFIB(K),IncFII(Yp),IncHI2,IncHI2A,IncN3,pKP1433	*aac(3)-IIa,aac(6')-Ib-cr,aph(3'')-Ib,aph(6)-Id,blaCTX-M-15,blaOXA-1,blaTEM-1B,catB3,qacE,qnrB1,sul1,sul2,tet(A)*	*terC*
IncFIB(K),IncFII(K)	*aac(3)-IIa,aac(6')-Ib-cr,aph(3'')-Ib,aph(6)-Id,blaCTX-M-15,blaOXA-1,blaTEM-1B,catB3,dfrA14,qnrB1,sul2,tet(A)*	*traT*
IncHI2,IncHI2A	*aac(3)-IIa,aac(6')-Ib-cr,aph(3'')-Ib,aph(6)-Id,blaCTX-M-15,blaOXA-1,blaTEM-1B,catB3,dfrA14,qnrB1,sul2,tet(A)*	*terC*
Col156,IncFIA,IncFIB(AP001918),IncFII	*aac(3)-IIa,aac(6')-Ib-cr,aadA5,blaCTX-M-15,blaOXA-1,catB3,dfrA17,mph(A),qacE,sitABCD,sul1,tet(A)*	*capU,fyuA,irp2,iucC,iutA,senB,sitA,traT*
IncFIB(pECLA),IncFII(pECLA),IncHI2,IncHI2A	*aac(3)-IIa,aac(6')-Ib-cr,aph(3'')-Ib,aph(6)-Id,blaCTX-M-15,blaOXA-1,catB3,dfrA14,qnrB1,sul2,tet(A)*	*terC*
Col156,IncFIA,IncFIB(AP001918)	*aac(6')-Ib-cr,aadA5,blaCTX-M-15,blaOXA-1,catB3,dfrA17,mph(A),qacE,sitABCD,sul1,tet(A)*	*iucC,iutA,senB,sitA,traT*
IncFIA,IncFIB(AP001918)	*aac(3)-IIa,aac(6')-Ib-cr,aadA5,blaCTX-M-15,blaOXA-1,catB3,dfrA17,qacE,sitABCD,sul1*	*fyuA,irp2,iucC,iutA,sitA,traT*
IncFIA,IncFII	*aac(6')-Ib-cr,aadA5,blaCTX-M-15,blaOXA-1,catB3,dfrA17,mph(A),qacE,sul1,tet(A)*	*afaA,afaC,afaD,iha,iucC,iutA,nfaE,papA_F43,sat,traT*
IncFIA,IncFIB(AP001918),IncFII(pAMA1167-NDM-5)	*aac(3)-IId,aadA2,blaTEM-1B,catA1,dfrA12,mph(A),qacE,qepA4,sul1*	*traT*

IncFIA(HI1),IncFIB(K),IncFII(pKP91),IncR	*aac(6')-Ib-cr,aph(3'')-Ib,aph(6)-Id,blaCTX-M-15,blaOXA-1,blaTEM-1B,catB3,dfrA14,sul2*	*traT*
IncFIA,IncFIB(AP001918),IncFII	*aac(6')-Ib-cr,aadA5,blaOXA-1,catB3,dfrA17,qacE,sul1,tet(B)*	*traT*
IncFIB(K),IncFII(K),IncQ1	*aph(3'')-Ib,aph(3')-Ia,aph(6)-Id,blaTEM-1B,dfrA14,mph(A),sul2*	*traT*
Col156,IncFIB(AP001918),IncFII	*aph(3'')-Ib,aph(6)-Id,blaTEM-1B,catA1,dfrA7,sul2,tet(D)*	*afaA,afaB,afaC,afaD,afaE,hra,iha,iss,iucC,iutA,papA_F43,sat,senB,traT*
Col156,IncFIA,IncFIB(AP001918),IncQ1	*aph(3'')-Ib,aph(6)-Id,blaTEM-1B,dfrA17,sul2,tet(B)*	*iha,iucC,iutA,papA_F43,sat,senB*
IncFIB(K)(pCAV1099-114),IncHI1B(pNDM-MAR)	*aph(3'')-Ib,aph(6)-Id,dfrA15,qacE,sul1,sul2*	*terC*
IncFIB(K),IncFII(K),IncR	*aac(3)-IId,blaCTX-M-15,blaTEM-1B,dfrA30,sul2*	*traT*
IncFIB(K)(pCAV1099-114),IncHI1B(pNDM-MAR),IncR	*blaTEM-1B,dfrA5,qacE,sul1,tet(D)*	*fyuA,irp2,traT*
IncFII(K),IncR	*aac(3)-IId,blaCTX-M-15,blaTEM-1B,dfrA30,sul2*	*traT*
IncFIB(AP001918),IncFII,IncQ1	*aph(3'')-Ib,aph(6)-Id,blaTEM-1B,dfrA5,sul2*	*cia,cvaC,etsC,hlyF,ireA,iroN,iss,iucC,iutA,mchF,ompT,papA_F11,papC,traT*
IncFIB(K)(pCAV1099-114),IncY	*sul2,tet(D)*	*terC*
IncFIB(AP001918),IncFII	*dfrA5*	*cia,cvaC,etsC,hlyF,ireA,iroN,iss,mchF,ompT,papA_F11,papC,traT*
IncFIB(pHCM2),IncHI2,IncHI2A	*blaTEM-1B*	*terC*
IncFIB(pB171),IncFII(pCoo)	*mdf(A)*	*eae,espA,espF,nleB,nleC,perA,tir,traT*

Correlation between antimicrobial resistance and virulence genes

213   We explored the relationship between the number of antibiotic resistance genes and virulence genes

214   in 27 combined plasmids using Pearson correlation. There was an inconclusive negative

215   relationship between antibiotic resistance and virulence genes existence in plasmids ($r = -0.25$, $p >$

216   0.05).

Discussion

In the present study a high proportion of clinical bacterial isolates from inpatients at KCMC

hospital were found to carry plasmids. The present findings are in concordance with previous

studies elsewhere [18]. The observed high carriage of plasmids by the analyzed isolates might

plausibly be a reflection of resistance selection pressure due to high antibiotic exposure in hospital

settings [19].

E. coli isolates were the most prevalent carriers of single plasmids followed by *S. aureus* and *P.*

mirabilis. On other hand, *K. pneumonia* were the most prevalent carriers of combined plasmids,

followed by *S. aureus* and *E. coli*. The present study findings are in line with a study results in a

tertiary care hospital in south India [18]. Possible explanation could be that the mentioned bacterial

species have great medical relevance and thus are relatively highly isolated in hospital settings

compared to other species [20,21]. However, the present study findings show a larger proportion of

P. mirabilis carrying plasmids than the study in south India. This difference might be due to the fact

that majority of the present study isolates were from wound specimens in *P. mirabilis* were

identified [22,23].

This study identified bacterial species with low plasmid prevalence including *Enterobacter sp. n18-*

03635, Enterobacter kobei, Klebsiella variicola and *Klebsiella oxytoca.* The study findings are

consistent with other studies conducted in Canada, Greece and Mexico. The study findings are

consistent with other studies conducted in Canada, Greece and Mexico [24–26]. Interestingly, the

study observed other low plasmid prevalence species that were reported elsewhere in soil samples,

fish flesh samples [27–29] and pigeon flesh specimens [30] such as *Micrococcus sp. Kbs0714,*

Enterobacter soli and *Proteus columbae*. The observed species with low plasmid prevalence might

be due to rarity and in most cases misidentification [31,32]. However, reports of bacterial species

with low plasmid indicates the possible emerging and transmission of bacterial pathogens in

humans both in community and hospital settings [33].

Contrary to previous studies reporting IncF plasmid group in *E.coli* to carry resistance and

virulence genes often [34] the present study, however shows IncQ1 carried the highest number of

both resistance and virulence genes in *E.coli*. But the finding is in line with study conducted in

Brazil [35,36]. This is possibly due to the fact that IncQ1 plasmids have high-level mobility,

stability, replication at high copy number and transferred in wide range of bacterial species through

conjugative plasmids [37–40].

In this study it was also identified that there are a different combined plasmids ranging from two to

seven plasmids. This is probably an indicative of bacterial evolution to adapt and thrive in hospitals

where they are excessively exposed to antimicrobials, antiseptics and disinfectants [41–43]. A

similar distribution some combined plasmids in other regions carrying similar or different antibiotic

resistance and virulence genes was noted in the present study. This suggests resistant bacteria

arising in one geographical area can spread countrywide/worldwide either by direct exposure or

through the food chain or climate change and the environment [6].

There was no significant relationship found in the present study between numbers of antibiotic

resistance and virulence genes in plasmids (r = -0.25, p > 0.05), indicating acquisition of antibiotic

resistance can induce the loss of virulence factors. Previous studies support this study finding [44],

but does not agree with a study by [45]. This discordance might be due to the fact that in other

studies the relationship between resistance and virulence genes was determine at species level and

were from gut and environmental samples [34].

Limitations

We acknowledge there are a number of limitations in the present study that warrant careful

interpretation. Bioinformatics analysis was performed on Illumina short reads, which limited the

ability to assemble completed plasmid genomes, and consequently the ability to 'tease out'

individual plasmids from assembled contigs. Assembly graphs were classified by Gplas+PlasFlow

for plasmid prediction. As for any machine learning-based approach or indeed any method based on

inference from similarity with known sequences, including tools such as PlasmidFinder, the

predictive ability of the model is strongly dependent on the data in its reference database or training

set. A bias toward plasmids in well-studied organisms is therefore likely.

Conclusion

271 There is a high proportion of isolates carrying resistance and virulence plasmids. This shows a

272 significant concern of AMR development and spread in Tanzanian health settings and other LMIC

273 settings. With limited resources and health service capacities, the increasing AMR trends are

274 expected to high impact on bacterial-associated mortalities and morbidities.

Acknowledgements

The parent study whose data we analyzed in this study was funded by DANIDA with grant number DFC No. 12-007DTU. We would like to express our sincere gratitude to study participants whose specimens yielded the bacterial isolates analyzed.

Authors' contributions

LP, MvZ, HK, FMA and TS conceived the initial idea. LP, TS, KK and ES developed the study protocol. TS, MvZ and LP analyzed the data. LP wrote the first draft of the manuscript. TS, MvZ, KK, ES, HK and FM reviewed and edited drafts of the manuscript. LP, TS, MvZ, KK and ES, HK and FMA wrote the final Manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Funding

This study was supported by the Ifakara Health Institute (Training and Capacity Building Department) as part of the Master scholarship to Lameck Pashet Sengeruan. The funder and the data providers had no role in the design, analysis, interpretation of the results, and preparation of manuscript or decision to publish.

Availability of data

All relevant data are within the manuscript and its Supporting Information files.

Consent for publication

Not applicable

References

1. Dionisio F, Zilhão R, Alves J. Plasmid Interactions between plasmids and other mobile genetic elements affect their transmission and persistence ☆. 2019;102: 29–36.

2. Smillie C, Garcilla MP, Francia MV, Rocha EPC, Cruz F De. Mobility of Plasmids †. 2010;74: 434–452. doi:10.1128/MMBR.00020-10

3. Brown SP, Cornforth DM, Mideo N. Evolution of virulence in opportunistic pathogens : generalism , plasticity , and control §. Trends Microbiol. 2014;20: 336–342. doi:10.1016/j.tim.2012.04.005

4. Foley SL, Kaldhone PR, Ricke SC, Han J. Incompatibility Group I1 (IncI1) Plasmids: Their Genetics, Biology, and Public Health Relevance. 2021;1.

5. Neill et al. TACKLING DRUG-RESISTANT INFECTIONS GLOBALLY : FINAL REPORT AND RECOMMENDATIONS THE REVIEW ON. 2016.

6. Iskandar K, Molinier L, Hallit S, Sartelli M, Catena F, Coccolini F, et al. Drivers of Antibiotic Resistance Transmission in Low- and Middle-Income Countries from a " One Health " Perspective — A Review. 2020.

7. Sonda et al. Whole genome sequencing reveals high clonal diversity of Escherichia coli isolated

309  from patients in a tertiary care hospital in. 2018; 1–12.

310 8. Kumburu HH, Sonda T, Mmbaga BT, Alifrangis M, Lund O, Kibiki G, et al. Patterns of

311  infections, aetiological agents and antimicrobial resistance at a tertiary care hospital in northern

312  Tanzania. Trop Med Int Heal. 2017;22: 454–464. doi:10.1111/tmi.12836

313 9. Sonda T, Kumburu H, van Zwetselaar M, Alifrangis M, Mmbaga BT, Lund O, et al. Prevalence

314  and risk factors for CTX-M gram-negative bacteria in hospitalized patients at a tertiary care

315  hospital in Kilimanjaro, Tanzania. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis. 2018;37: 897–906.

316  doi:10.1007/s10096-018-3196-8

317 10. Souvorov A, Agarwala R, Lipman DJ. Open Access SKESA : strategic k-mer extension for

318  scrupulous assemblies. 2018; 1–13.

319 11. Chaumeil P, Mussig AJ, Parks DH, Hugenholtz P. Genome analysis GTDB-Tk : a toolkit to

320  classify genomes with the Genome Taxonomy Database. 2020;36: 1925–1927.

321  doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btz848

322 12. Wick RR, Judd LM, Gorrie CL, Holt KE. Unicycler : Resolving bacterial genome assemblies

323  from short and long sequencing reads. 2017; 1–22. doi:10.1371/journal.pcbi.1005595

324 13. Arredondo-alonso S, Bootsma M, Rogers MRC, Corander J, Willems RJL, Schu AC. Genome

325  analysis gplas : a comprehensive tool for plasmid analysis using short-read graphs. 2020;36:

326  3874–3876. doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btaa233

327 14. Krawczyk PS, Lipinski L, Dziembowski A. PlasFlow : predicting plasmid sequences in

328  metagenomic data using genome signatures. 2018; 1–14. doi:10.1093/nar/gkx1321

329   15.   Carattoli A, Zankari E, García-fernández A, Larsen V, Lund O, Villa L, et al. In Silico

330   Detection and Typing of Plasmids using PlasmidFinder and Plasmid Multilocus Sequence

331   Typing. 2014;58: 3895–3903. doi:10.1128/AAC.02412-14

332   16.   Bortolaia V, Kaas RS, Ruppe E, Roberts MC, Schwarz S, Cattoir V, et al. ResFinder 4.0 for

333   predictions of phenotypes from genotypes. J Antimicrob Chemother. 2020;75: 3491–3500.

334   doi:10.1093/jac/dkaa345

335   17.   Joensen KG, Scheutz F, Lund O, Hasman H, Kaas RS, Nielsen EM, et al. Real-time whole-

336   genome sequencing for routine typing, surveillance, and outbreak detection of verotoxigenic

337   Escherichia coli. J Clin Microbiol. 2014;52: 1501–1510. doi:10.1128/JCM.03617-13

338   18.   Devi Y, Mathur P, Pragasam AK. Plasmid profiles among some ESKAPE pathogens in a

339   tertiary care centre in south India. 2019. doi:10.4103/ijmr.IJMR

340   19.   Sonda T, Kumburu H, Zwetselaar M Van, Alifrangis M, Lund O, Kibiki G, et al. Meta-analysis

341   of proportion estimates of producing Enterobacteriaceae in East Africa hospitals. Antimicrob

342   Resist Infect Control. 2016. doi:10.1186/s13756-016-0117-4

343   20.   Malachowa N, Deleo FR. Mobile genetic elements of Staphylococcus aureus. 2010; 3057–3071.

344   doi:10.1007/s00018-010-0389-4

345   21.   Ramirez MS, Iriarte A, Reyes-Lamothe R, Sherratt DJ, Tolmasky ME. Small Klebsiella

346   pneumoniae Plasmids: Neglected Contributors to Antibiotic Resistance. Front Microbiol.

347   2019;10: 1–14. doi:10.3389/fmicb.2019.02182

348   22.   Mordi RM, Momoh MI. Incidence of Proteus species in wound infections and their sensitivity

349  pattern in the University of Benin Teaching Hospital. 2009;8: 725–730.

350 23. Endimiani A, Luzzaro F, Brigante G, Perilli M, Lombardi G, Amicosante G, et al. Proteus

351   mirabilis Bloodstream Infections : Risk Factors and Treatment Outcome Related to the

352   Expression of. 2005;49: 2598–2605. doi:10.1128/AAC.49.7.2598

353 24. Tsakris A, Poulou A, Markou F, Pitiriga V, Piperaki ET, Kristo I, et al. Dissemination of

354   clinical isolates of Klebsiella oxytoca harboring CMY-31, VIM-1, and a new OXY-2-type

355   variant in the community. Antimicrob Agents Chemother. 2011;55: 3164–3168.

356   doi:10.1128/AAC.00102-11

357 25. Boyd DA, Lefebvre B, Mataseje LF, Gagnon S, Roger M, Savard P, et al. Enterobacter sp. N18-

358   03635 harbouring blaFRI-6 class A carbapenemase, Canada. J Antimicrob Chemother. 2020;75:

359   486–488. doi:10.1093/jac/dkz438

360 26. Rodríguez-Medina N, Barrios-Camacho H, Duran-Bedolla J, Garza-Ramos U. Klebsiella

361   variicola: an emerging pathogen in humans. Emerg Microbes Infect. 2019;8: 973–988.

362   doi:10.1080/22221751.2019.1634981

363 27. Manter DK, Hunter WJ, Vivanco JM. Enterobacter soli sp. nov.: A lignin-degrading γ-

364   Proteobacteria isolated from soil. Curr Microbiol. 2011;62: 1044–1049. doi:10.1007/s00284-

365   010-9809-9

366 28. Bhassu S, brahim Eid II, Annie Tan GY. First report of Enterobacter soli associated with gastro-

367   hepato infection of farmed fish, Channa striatain Malaysia. Gastroenterol Hepatol Open Access.

368   2019;10: 61–65. doi:10.15406/ghoa.2019.10.00357

29.   Kuo et al. Whole-Genome Sequence of the Soil Bacterium Micrococcus sp. KBS0714. 2017;5:

23–24. Available: http://arxiv.org/abs/1303.2223

30.   Dai H, Wang Y, Fang Y, Xiao T, Huang Z, Kan B, et al. Proteus columbae sp. nov., isolated

from a pigeon in Ma'anshan, China. Int J Syst Evol Microbiol. 2018;68: 552–557.

doi:10.1099/ijsem.0.002541

31.   Potter et al. Population Structure, Antibiotic Resistance, and Uropathogenicity of. 2018;9: 1–17.

32.   Jousset et al. False-Positive Carbapenem-Hydrolyzing Confirmatory Tests Due to ACT-28, a

Chromosomally Encoded AmpC with Weak Carbapenemase Activity from Enterobacter kobei

Agnè. 2019;63: 1–11.

33.   Rodríguez-medina N, Barrios-camacho H, Duran- J, Garza-ramos U, Barrios-camacho H,

Duran-bedolla J. Klebsiella variicola : an emerging pathogen in humans. 2019.

doi:10.1080/22221751.2019.1634981

34.   Beceiro A, Tomás M, Bou G. Antimicrobial resistance and virulence: A successful or

deleterious association in the bacterial world? Clin Microbiol Rev. 2013;26: 185–230.

doi:10.1128/CMR.00059-12

35.   Cassiano I, Santos DO, Mattos R, Dutra M, Paula A, Carvalho-assef DA. Journal of Global

Antimicrobial Resistance Draft genome sequence of KPC-2-producing Pseudomonas

aeruginosa recovered from a bloodstream infection sample in Brazil. Integr Med Res. 2018;15:

99–100. doi:10.1016/j.jgar.2018.08.021

36.   Cerdeira LT, Lam MMC, Wyres KL, Ribas RM, Morais MM, Holt KE. Small IncQ1 and Col-

Like Plasmids Harboring blaKPC-2 and Non-Tn4401 Elements (NTEKPC-IId) in High-Risk

Lineages of Klebsiella pneumoniae CG258 Louise. 2019; 1–4.

37.   Mcmillan EA, Jackson CR, Frye JG, Thomas CM, Mcmillan EA. Transferable Plasmids of

Salmonella enterica Associated With Antibiotic Resistance Genes. 2020;11.

doi:10.3389/fmicb.2020.562181

38.   Erchia AMD, Pazzani C. A novel group of IncQ1 plasmids conferring multidrug resistance

Oliva. Plasmid. 2016. doi:10.1016/j.plasmid.2016.11.005

39.   Rawlings DE, Tietze E. Comparative Biology of IncQ and IncQ-Like Plasmids. 2001;65: 481–

496. doi:10.1128/MMBR.65.4.481

40.   Lima GJ De, Maria A, Scavuzzi L, Maria E, Beltrão B. Short Communication Identification of

plasmid IncQ1 and NTE KPC -IId harboring bla KPC-2 in isolates from Klebsiella pneumoniae

infections in patients from Recife-PE , Brazil. 2020; 1–5. doi:10.1590/0037-8682-0526-2019

41.   Xie M, Li R, Liu Z, Wai E, Chan C, Chen S. Recombination of plasmids in a carbapenem-

resistant NDM-5-producing clinical Escherichia coli isolate. 2018; 1230–1234.

doi:10.1093/jac/dkx540

42.   Donnell GMC. Antiseptics and Disinfectants : Activity , Action , and Resistance. 1999;12: 147–

179.

43.   Smalla K, Jechalke S, Top EM. HHS Public Access. 2015;3: 1–21.

doi:10.1128/microbiolspec.PLAS-0038-2014.Plasmid

44.   Pan Y, Zeng J, Li L, Yang J, Tang Z, Xiong W, et al. crossm Coexistence of Antibiotic

Resistance Genes and Virulence Factors Deciphered by Large-Scale Complete Genome

Analysis. 2020.

45.   Dionisio F. Antibiotic Resistance Gene Diversity and Virulence Gene Microbiomes. 2019.