Comprehensive genome data analysis establishes a triple whammy of carbapenemases, ICEs and multiple clinically-relevant bacteria

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Abstract

Carbapenemases inactivate most β-lactam antibiotics, including carbapenems and have been frequently reported among *Enterobacteriaceae*, *Acinetobacter* spp. and *Pseudomonas* spp. Traditionally, the horizontal gene transfer of carbapenemase-encoding genes (CEGs) has been linked to plasmids. However, given that integrative and conjugative elements (ICEs) are possibly the most abundant conjugative elements among prokaryotes, we conducted an *in-silico* analysis to ascertain the likely role of ICEs in the spread of CEGs among all bacterial genomes (n=107,887). We detected 7457 CEGs, of which 118 were located within putative ICEs among several clinically-relevant bacterial species (including *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, *Escherichia coli*, *Citrobacter freundii*, *Enterobacter hormaechei* and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*). We also identified a *Bacillus subtilis* strain with an NDM-1-encoding ICE. Most CEGs detected within ICEs belong to the KPC, IMP and NDM families and different mechanisms were likely responsible for acquisition of these genes. The majority of CEG-bearing ICEs belong to the MPF$_F$, MPF$_T$ and MPF$_G$ classes and often encode additional adaptive traits such as resistance to other antibiotics (e.g. aminoglycosides and fluoroquinolones), restriction-modification systems and bacteriocin production. This study provides a snapshot of the different CEGs associated with ICEs among available bacterial genomes and sheds light on the underappreciated contribution of ICEs to the spread of carbapenem resistance globally.

Introduction

Due to the importance of carbapenems for the treatment of severe infections in humans, the WHO has stated these antibiotics should be reserved for infections caused by multidrug resistant Gram-negative bacteria in humans [1]. Recently, the same agency presented a list of bacterial pathogens for which research and development of new antibiotics are urgently required, and the top priority pathogens were the carbapenem-resistant strains of *Acinetobacter baumannii*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and *Enterobacteriaceae* [2].

The evolution of carbapenem-resistance in bacteria is often driven by the horizontal gene transfer (HGT) of carbapenemase-encoding genes (CEGs) [3, 4]. Carbapenemases are beta-lactamases able to hydrolyze carbapenems as well as most of other beta-lactam antibiotics. The CEGs are often located on integrons or transposons that themselves target mobile genetic elements (MGEs) such as plasmids [3, 4], which makes the dissemination of these genes unpredictably complex within bacterial communities. Recently, we demonstrated that another type of MGE, the integrative and conjugative elements (ICEs), are likely to play a significant role as vehicles for the dissemination of CEGs among *P. aeruginosa* [5]. ICEs are self-transmissible MGEs that can integrate into and excise from the genome (as transposons and phages do) and can exist as circular, sometimes replicable, extrachromosomal elements and be transferred by conjugation (as some plasmids do) [4, 6–9]. ICEs appear to have a bipartite lifestyle that shifts between vertical and horizontal transmission [10, 11]. HGT by conjugation requires three main components: a relaxase, a mating pair formation system (MPF) and a type-IV coupling protein (T4CP), with the last two forming a spanning-membrane multi-

protein complex named Type-IV Secretion System (T4SS). Until now, eight MPF classes were proposed (B, C, F, FA, FATA, G, I and T), based on the phylogeny of VirB4, the only ubiquitous protein among the T4SS [6]. The MPF_T is widely distributed both in conjugative plasmids and ICEs, while MPF_F is more prevalent in plasmids and MPF_G on ICEs [12].

Given that ICEs were identified in most bacterial clades and were proposed to be more prevalent than conjugative plasmids [6], we conducted an *in silico* analysis to explore the distribution of CEG-bearing ICEs among all sequenced bacterial genomes. Our results demonstrate that CEG-bearing ICEs mainly belong to three MPF families and are primarily located in several bacterial pathogens. Our analysis highlights the importance of thoroughly investigating these elements as important vehicles for the spread of antibiotic resistance (AR), particularly to carbapenems.

Material and methods

Bacterial genomes and carbapenemases search

All RefSeq bacterial genomes available in NCBI (accessed on 02/03/2018), including complete and draft genome sequences, were downloaded and blasted against a local database of 688 carbapenemases (**Table S1**), adapted from AMRfinder (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pathogens/antimicrobial-resistance/AMRFinder/) [13], using diamond v0.9.25 (https://github.com/bbuchfink/diamond) [14] with the following parameters: 'diamond blastx –d DB.dmnd –o hits.txt --id 100 --subject-cover 100 -f 6 --

92   sensitive'. A workflow with all the analyses performed in the downloaded bacterial

93   genomes is presented in **Figure 1**.

Bacterial assemblies from NCBI

Step 1

Diamond blastx against DB of carbapenemases

Contigs with positive hits

Step 2

Prokka annotation

GenBank files

Step 3

ICEFinder and manual curation

AMRFinder
Bagel4
REBASE

CONJscan

AR genes
Bacteriocins
RM System
CC

Putative ICEs

ICEs with identified MPF

CRISPRCas Finder

Abbreviations: AR, Antibiotic Resistance; CC, CRISPR-Cas; DB, Database; ICEs, Integrative and Conjugative Elements; MPF, Mating-Pair Formation; RM, Restriction-Modification.

Figure 1. Overview of the workflow followed in this study. All complete and draft

genomes available in NCBI were downloaded and blasted against a database of

carbapenemases using diamond (Step 1). Hits with CEGs were annotated with prokka

(Step 2) and the resulting GenBank files were used as input in ICEfinder (Step 3).

CONJscan was used to identify the MPF family of each putative ICE. ICEs were then

mined for AR genes, bacteriocins, restriction-modification systems and CRISPR arrays

and their associated (Cas) proteins.

Tracing ICEs among the bacterial genomes

The CEG-bearing genomes were annotated with prokka v1.14.0

(https://github.com/tseemann/prokka) [15], and the GenBank files were used as input

to mine ICEs on the standalone version of ICEfinder [16]. Putative MGEs were annotated

as ICEs if complete conjugation and relaxase modules, plus an integrase or DDE

transposase superfamily were identified within the boundaries of the element (**Table**

S2). The translated coding sequences of extracted ICEs were analyzed on the standalone

CONJscan module of MacSyFinder v1.0.5 (https://github.com/gem-

pasteur/macsyfinder) [17, 18] to predict MPF families. Hits corresponding to putative

plasmids (**Table S3**) were identified by blasting the extracted nucleotide sequences

against NCBI and were excluded from the analyses. To identify the multi-locus sequence

type of each CEG-bearing ICE, we used mlst v2.16.1

(https://github.com/tseemann/mlst), which scans the genomes against PubMLST typing

schemes (https://pubmlst.org/) [19].

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Characterization of the CEG-bearing ICEs

119 Screening of AR genes among ICEs was performed using amrfinder v3.2.3

120 (https://github.com/ncbi/amr) [13]. Associated MGEs were annotated using Galileo™

121 AMR (https://galileoamr.arcbio.com/mara/) (Arc Bio, Cambridge, MA) [20]. Bagel4

122 (http://bagel4.molgenrug.nl/) was used to mine ICEs for bacteriocins and ribosomally

123 synthesized and posttranslationally modified peptides [21]. We ran our extracted ICEs

124 against REBASE (http://rebase.neb.com/rebase/rebase.html) to look for restriction-

125 modification systems [22]. We also used CRISPRCasFinder (https://crisprcas.i2bc.paris-

126 saclay.fr/CrisprCasFinder/Index) to look for CRISPR (clustered regularly interspaced

127 short palindromic repeats) arrays and their associated (Cas) proteins within ICE

128 sequences [23].

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Results

Carbapenemase-encoding genes are mainly found in Proteobacteria

132 We retrieved a total of 107,887 bacterial genomes from NCBI and we identified 7457

133 CEGs belonging to 33 beta-lactamase families among 7343 genomes (**Table S4**). Most

134 CEG-bearing genomes were detected in the USA, China and Europe (**Figure 2A** and **Table**

135 **S4**), where the majority of the bacterial genomes were sequenced. Our results show

136 that CEGs are present on 43 genera, with most of them belonging to Proteobacteria

137 (79%, n=34/43). We observed that CEGs are mainly associated with specific bacterial

138 genera, with some of them belonging to the ESKAPEEc pathogens *Klebsiella*

pneumoniae, Acinetobacter baumannii, Pseudomonas aeruginosa, Enterobacter spp.

and *Escherichia coli*. These genomes carry a wide diversity of CEG families, including the

most promiscuous OXA (58%, n=4292/7457), KPC (24%), NDM (9%), VIM (4%), IMP (3%)

and GES-types (0.4%) (**Figure 2B**). Exceptions included OXA-72 in *Staphylococcus aureus*

and NDM-1 in *Bacillus subtilis*. In addition, we observed that several CEGs (such as

bla$_{SPM-1}$) have a narrow host range and were only identified within strains belonging to

the same genus (**Figure 2C**).

A

B

C

Figure 2. Dispersion of CEGs in bacterial genomes. **A.** Worldwide distribution of carbapenemase families. The color on each circle graph represents the carbapenemases, and the size of the arc reflects the number of positive hits; **B.** Sankey diagram representing the distribution of the most frequent carbapenemases. The left and right axis represents the association between the identified carbapenemase and the bacterial genus, respectively, while the width of each connection is proportional to the number of positive hits; **C.** Chord diagram displaying relevant carbapenemases identified in only one bacterial genus. In each chord, the bacterial genera are shown on the right, and the carbapenemases are on the left. The width of each link represents the

number of positive hits in the association. For a complete list of all carbapenemases,

please refer to **Table S4**.

A large proportion of CEG-bearing ICEs belong to three families and target

clinically-relevant gram-negative bacteria

Our analysis with ICEfinder resulted in the identification of 121 CEGs within 118 putative

ICEs (**Table S2** and **Table S5**). The *Pseudomonas* spp. hits were described in a previous

publication [5]. The bla_{NDM-1} and bla_{SPM-1}-harboring ICEs in *P. aeruginosa* were identified

in clinical isolates from Singapore and Brazil, respectively [24–26]. Using the CONJscan

module of MacSyFinder we identified the MPF family for 107 hits and we noted that the

majority of the putative ICEs belong to three families: MPF_F (49%, n=53/107), MPF_T

(35%) and MPF_G (13%) (**Figure 3** and **Table S5**). ICEs of the MPF_F and MPF_T classes were

particularly promiscuous, being responsible for the spread of several CEGs such as bla_{KPC-}

$_{2/3}$, bla_{NDM-1} and bla_{VIM-1} among clinically-relevant pathogens as *K. pneumoniae*, *E. coli*

and species belonging to the *Enterobacter cloaceae* complex. The bla_{SPM-1} gene was

exclusively identified in ICEs of the MPF_T class.

The bacterial hosts housing these elements belong to several sequence types (STs), of

which the *K. pneumoniae* ST258 is the most frequently represented (**Table S5**). The

worldwide spread of carbapenemase-producing *K. pneumoniae* has been linked to some

high-risk clones, including ST258 and close relatives that were also identified in this

study, such as ST11 and ST512 [27, 28]. We also detected several *Enterobacter*

hormaechei strains belonging to ST78, recognized as a global driver of CEGs [29, 30].

Abbreviations: Ab, *Acinetobacter baumannii*; Bs, *Bacillus subtilis*; C, *Citrobacter*; Cf, *Citrobacter freundii*; Ea, *Elizabethkingia anophelis*; E, *Enterobacter*; Eh, *Enterobacter hormaechei*; Er, *Enterobacter roggenkampii*; Ec, *Escherichia coli*; Ka, *Klebsiella aerogenes* ; Km, *Klebsiella michiganensis*; Kp, *Klebsiella pneumoniae*; Kq, *Klebsiella quasipneumoniae*; Kv, *Klebsiella variicola*; Mm, *Morganella morganii*; Ps, *Pseudomonas*; Pa, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*.

184   **Figure 3 -** Sankey diagram showing the contribution of different MPF families for the spread of CEGs among several bacteria. The left, center and

185   right axis represents the association between the identified carbapenemases, MPF type and the bacterial genus, respectively, while the width of

186   each connection is proportional to the number of positive hits.

A variable repertoire of CEG-bearing integrons and transposons target ICEs

We identified 16 CEG variants among the 121 hits, dominated by bla_{KPC-2}, bla_{KPC-3}, bla_{IMP-13}, bla_{NDM-1} and bla_{SPM-1}, and rare descriptions of bla_{KPC-4}, bla_{IMP-1}, $bla_{VIM-1/2}$, bla_{DIM-1}, and $bla_{OXA-23/109/181}$. KPC-encoding ICEs although mostly observed in *Klebsiella* spp. were also identified in *E. coli*, *Enterobacter* spp. and *Citrobacter* spp. IMP-encoding ICEs were restricted to *P. aeruginosa* (**Figure 3** and **Table S5**).

The $bla_{KPC-2/3}$ genes were located mainly on ICEs belonging to MPF$_F$ and MPF$_T$ classes (**Figure 3**). We noted that insertion sequences (IS, e.g. ISCR4 and ISCR24) were frequently linked to the acquisition of bla_{SPM-1} and bla_{NDM-1} [24, 26], while bla_{IMP} and bla_{VIM} were found on class I integrons [3]. In addition, we observed that bla_{KPC} genes were frequently flanked by the ISs IS*Kpn7* and IS*Kpn6* within the Tn*4401* transposon, which is capable of conferring a high frequency of transposition [31]. Interestingly, we found a bla_{NDM-1} gene associated with a MPF$_T$ class ICE on a *B. subtilis* strain (**Figure 3** and **Table S5**). This is the only situation where we found a CEG-bearing ICE on Firmicutes.

Besides CEGs, the ICEs also harbor genes conferring resistance to other antibiotics, such as aminoglycosides, fluoroquinolones, macrolides, sulfonamides and trimethoprim (**Table S6**), widening the spectrum of transmissible AR genes selectable by carbapenems due to linkage.

Acquisition of additional traits by ICEs include competitive weapons as bacteriocins

Besides genes conferring antibiotic resistance, some of the CEG-bearing ICEs harbor

other cargo genes that may confer a selective advantage to the ICE host, as bacteriocins

and restriction-modification systems. We identified class III bacteriocins among $bla_{KPC-2/3}$-harboring MPF$_F$ ICEs in five *K. pneumoniae* strains belonging to ST258 (**Table S7**).

Additionally, our results show that some representatives of this ST258 as well as other

Enterobacteriaceae (e.g. *E. coli*, *Enterobacter* sp.) strains carry type I and II restriction-

modification systems or "orphan" methyltransferases (**Table S8**). No CRISPR-Cas

systems were identified within these elements.

Discussion

We have set out to comprehensively identify the CEGs among all bacterial genomes

deposited in NCBI and the CEG-bearing ICE sequences. Our study considerably expands

the knowledge of the repertoire of CEGs-bearing ICEs. We uncovered more than 100

putative ICEs that may be involved in HGT of CEGs amongst bacterial genomes. To

expand our predictions, we also used the CONJscan module of Macsyfinder to trace the

MPF families likely involved in HGT.

Even though CEGs might rapidly spread worldwide, local selection is likely required for

them to reach fixation, as can be seen for the clonal expansion of *K. pneumoniae* ST258

harboring $bla_{KPC-2/3}$ [27, 28]. The scenario observed for the acquisition of the most

important CEGs by ICEs (Tn*4401* for $bla_{KPC-2/3}$, ISs for bla_{NDM-1} and bla_{SPM-1} and class I

integrons for bla_{IMP} and bla_{VIM}) resembles that of plasmids [3] and provide additional

support to the notion that the line separating these elements is blurred [7–9]. We now

show that besides plasmids, this promiscuous repertoire of integrons and transposons

frequently targets ICEs of different MPF families. Surprisingly, we noted that bla_{SPM-1} was

unable to be detected beyond the same clonal lineage [26]. Indeed, all hits were

identified in *P. aeruginosa* ST277 strains from Brazil and within a MPF$_T$ ICE family,

indicating that these ICEs are only transferring vertically and/or horizontally within this

ST. Understanding the limitations on HGT of this family of ICE may be translatable to

other, more transferable, ICEs and could underpin a control strategy to prevent the

spread of these elements in the future.

CEGs are rarely identified in Firmicutes. Local selection and enriched metagenome might

have also contributed to the ICE encoding NDM-1 observed in a *B. subtilis* from a highly

polluted marine environment [32]. Despite the works on ICEs in Gram positive bacteria

[33, 34], this first report of a CEG-bearing ICE in ubiquitous and resilient bacterial groups

is of remarkable epidemiological interest as they may represent an as yet unappreciated

vector for CEGs within ICEs.

In addition to AR, ICEs can be involved in other adaptive traits such as carbon-source

utilization, symbiosis, restriction-modification and bacteriocin synthesis [9]. Since

bacteria commonly inhabit highly competitive environments, the production of toxins

(such as bacteriocins) confers a selective advantage to the host [35]. Class III bacteriocins

– bacteriolysins - consists of high-molecular-weight and heat-labile toxins [36]. We

speculate that the presence of these toxins within the ICEs of five *K. pneumoniae* ST258

strains can promote ICE stability by preferentially selecting for cells harboring the ICE.

Restriction-modification systems protect a bacterial host against the invasion of foreign

DNA through the action of a restriction enzyme that cuts DNA lacking the epigenetically

methylated DNA modified by the methyltransferase [37]. The presence of these systems

within ICEs may also allow their stable maintenance through postsegregational killing.

This has already been demonstrated for plasmids [38]. Additionally, these systems may

also prevent further infection of the bacterial host by another ICE or MGE lacking the

methylation.

One caveat of our studies is that these results do not yet expose the complete set of

CEG-bearing ICEs present in all bacteria. There is an inherent bias in the number of times

we detect a particular CEG in certain pathogen genomes as some are over represented

in the database compared to others. It is possible that certain observations will flatten

out as more genomes are analyzed. Less than 10% of the bacterial genomes currently

present on NCBI are complete. This is a major drawback since ICEfinder can only detect

ICEs within complete genomes or contigs with or without directed repeats as the tRNA-

distal boundaries, meaning that if the ICE was integrated into the 3' or 5' ends of protein-

encoding genes and/or split into several contigs, this tool may miss the element. Even

though ICEfinder uses the profile Hidden Markov Models (HMM) for signature proteins

coded by ICEs (**Table S2**), we identified putative plasmid hits among our data (**Table S3**).

Also, ICEfinder may not provide the accurate boundaries of ICEs. Indeed, the relaxase

and the T4SS encoded by ICEs resemble those of plasmids [6, 8, 12]. Plus, it is possible

that ICEs and plasmids have swapped conjugation modules throughout their

evolutionary history [6]. We believe that a more thorough exploration of this issue,

especially regarding the precise delimitation of ICEs, will be an important further step

toward an improved understanding of the contribution of these elements to bacterial

adaptation and evolution of AR.

While we have chosen to focus on CEG-bearing genomes, our computational approach

can be applied to trace other relevant AR genes and other cargo genes that may confer

a selective advantage to the ICE host. Leveraging knowledge linking the accurate

prediction of ICE sequences to the carriage of AR genes, will not only improve our

understanding of HGT, but may also uncover potential approaches to tackle the spread

of AR.

Conflicts of interest

The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest.

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