Integrative and conjugative elements, the neglected drivers of carbapenemase-encoding genes

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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. We detected 7457 CEGs, of which 224 were located within putative ICEs among several clinically-relevant bacterial species (including *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, *Escherichia coli, Citrobacter freundii, Enterobacter hormaechei* and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*). 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_T, MPF_F, MPF_G and MPF_I classes and often encode additional adaptive traits such as resistance to other antibiotics (e.g. aminoglycosides and fluoroquinolones), metal and biocide tolerance and bacteriocin production. This study provides a snapshot of the different CEGs associated with ICEs among all 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 serious 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]. 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 unpredictable in complex bacterial communities. Recently, we demonstrated that another type of MGE, the integrative and conjugative elements (ICEs), 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 plasmids do) [6–9]. ICEs appear to have a bi-stable lifestyle that regulates the shift from vertical to horizontal transmission [7, 10]. Eight mating pair formation (MPF) classes were proposed (B, C, F, FA, FATA, G, I and T), based on the phylogeny of VirB4, the only ubiquitous protein in all known type-IV secretion systems (T4SS) involved in conjugation [11]. 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/),

using diamond v0.9.21 (https://github.com/bbuchfink/diamond) [13] with the following

parameters: 'diamond blastx –d DB.dmnd –o hits.txt --id 100 --subject-cover 100 -f 6 --

sensitive'.

Tracing ICEs among the bacterial genomes

The   CEG-bearing   genomes   were   annotated   with   prokka   v1.13

(https://github.com/tseemann/prokka) [14], and the GenBank files were used as input

to   mine   ICEs   on   the   standalone   version   of   ICEfinder

(http://202.120.12.136:7913/ICEfinder/ICEfinder.html). 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, and as

integrative and mobilizable elements (IMEs) if the elements contained all except genes

involved in conjugation. The translated coding sequences of extracted MGEs were

analyzed on the CONJscan module of MacSyFinder (https://github.com/gem-

pasteur/macsyfinder) [15, 16]. A MGE was classified as an ICE when a positive prediction

was verified by ICEfinder and/or the CONJscan module. To predict the multi-locus

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

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

schemes (https://pubmlst.org/) [17].

Characterization of the CEG-bearing ICEs

Screening of AR genes among ICEs was performed using ResFinder v3.1 (https://cge.cbs.dtu.dk/services/ResFinder/) [18]. Metal and biocides tolerance genes were blasted against a protein database downloaded from BacMet (http://bacmet.biomedicine.gu.se) [19] using the aforementioned diamond parameters. Associated MGEs were annotated using Galileo™ AMR (https://galileoamr.arcbio.com/mara/) (Arc Bio, Cambridge, MA) [20]. Bagel4 (http://bagel4.molgenrug.nl/) was used to mine ICEs for bacteriocins and ribosomally synthesized and posttranslationally modified peptides [21]. We ran our extracted ICEs against REBASE (http://rebase.neb.com/rebase/rebase.html) to look for restriction-modification systems [22]. We also used CRISPRCasFinder (https://crisprcas.i2bc.paris-saclay.fr/CrisprCasFinder/Index) to look for CRISPR (clustered regularly interspaced short palindromic repeats) arrays and their associated (Cas) proteins within ICE sequences [23].

Results

Carbapenemase-encoding genes are mainly found in Gram-negative bacteria

We retrieved a total of 107,887 bacterial genomes from NCBI and we identified 7457 CEGs belonging to 33 beta-lactamase families among 7343 genomes (**Table S2**). Most CEG-bearing genomes were detected in the USA, China and Europe (**Figure 1A** and **Table S2**). Also, the majority of the bacterial genomes were sequenced in these countries. A total of 43 genera were detected, although dominated by a limited number of bacterial genus. Our results show that CEGs are mostly present on Gram-negative bacteria. Exceptions included the report of OXA-72 in *Staphylococcus aureus* and NDM-1 in *Bacillus subtilis*. As suspected, we observed that the ESKAPEEc pathogens *K. pneumoniae*, *A. baumannii, P. aeruginosa, Enterobacter spp.* and *Escherichia coli* carry a wide diversity of CEG families including the most promiscuous OXA, KPC, NDM, IMP, VIM and GES-types (**Figure 1B**). 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 1C**). Even though carbapenemases of the DIM family were not identified

149   on bacterial genomes other than the *Pseudomonas* genus, a previous study has reported

150   the presence of *bla*$_{DIM-1}$ in *Enterobacteriaceae* [24].

151   **A**

B

C

Figure 1. Dispersion of carbapenemase-encoding bacterial genomes. **A.** Worldwide
distribution of carbapenemase families. The size of the circles reflects the number of
hits. **B.** Distribution of carbapenemases observed in more than one genus. The legend
for the most frequently identified carbapenemases and bacterial genus is present on the
left and right axis, respectively. **C.** Representation of carbapenemases identified in only
one bacterial genus. Only carbapenemases that were identified more than 4 times were
included on the map and on the graphs. For a complete list of all carbapenemases,
please refer to **Table S2**.

A large proportion of CEG-bearing ICEs belong to three MPF families and target
clinically-relevant gram-negative bacteria

Our analysis with ICEfinder resulted in the identification of 251 CEGs within 248 putative
MGEs (**Table S3 and Table S4**). Of these, 224 putative ICEs were predicted. The
remaining 24 MGEs were considered as IMEs or putative conjugative regions. The later
designation is attributed to regions where an integrase and a qualified T4SS but no
relaxase or a type-IV coupling protein were identified. Using the CONJscan module of

MacSyFinder, we noted that the majority of the ICEfinder hits belong to three MPF

families: MPF_T, MPF_F and MPF_G (**Figure 2** and **Table S3**). ICEs of the MPF_T class were

particularly promiscuous, being responsible for the spread of several CEGs such as $bla_{KPC-2/3}$,

bla_{NDM-1} and bla_{IMP-1} among clinically-relevant pathogens as *P. aeruginosa*, *E. coli* and

species belonging to the *Klebsiella* genus and 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 more than 70 sequence types

(STs), of which the *K. pneumoniae* ST258 is the most frequently represented (**Figure 3**

and **Table S3**). 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 [25, 26]. We also reported several strains

belonging to ST78 from the *Enterobacter hormaechei*, recognized as a global driver of

CEGs [27, 28].

Figure 2. Sankey diagram showing the contribution of different MPF families for the spread of CEGs among several bacteria. *Aci*sp stands for

Acinetobacter sp., *A*sp for *Achromobacter* sp., *Bs* for *Bacillus subtilis*, *Cf* for *Citrobacter freundii*, *C*sp for *Citrobacter* sp., *Ea* for *Elizabethkingia*

anophelis, *Ec* for *E. coli*, *Ecc* for *E. cloaceae* complex, *Ka* for *Klebsiella aerogenes*, *Km* for *Klebisella michiganensis*, *Ko* for *Klebsiella oxytoca, Kp* for

K. pneumoniae, Kq for *Klebsiella quasipneumoniae*, *Kv* for *Klebsiella variicola*, *Mm* for *Morganella morganii*, *Pa* for *P. aeruginosa* and Pm for

Proteus mirabilis.

Figure 3. Sequence types (STs) of the ICEfinder hits, including ICEs, IMEs and putative

conjugative regions. Only STs that were identified more than once were included on the

graph. For a complete list of all STs, please refer to **Table S3**.

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

We identified 20 CEG variants among the 251 hits, dominated by bla_{KPC-2}, bla_{KPC-3}, bla_{IMP-1}

$_1$ and bla_{NDM-1} (**Figure 4** and **Table S3**). The $bla_{KPC-2/3}$ genes were spread mainly by MPF_T

and MPF_G classes (**Figure 2**). We noted that composite transposons (e.g. ISCR4 and

ISCR24) were frequently linked to the acquisition of bla_{SPM-1}, bla_{NDM-1} and bla_{OXA-48} [29,

30], 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 insertion sequences (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 2** and **4** and **Table S3**). This is the only situation

where we found a CEG-bearing ICE on Gram positive bacteria. Besides CEGs, the ICEs

also harbor genes conferring resistance to other antibiotics, such as aminoglycosides,

fluoroquinolones, macrolides and trimethoprim (**Table S5**), widening the spectrum of

transmissible AR genes selectable by carbapenems due to linkage.

Figure 4. Distribution of carbapenemases among ICEfinder hits, including ICEs, IMEs and putative conjugative regions. Different colour links are related to the number of associations between a carbapenemase and a given bacterial species. The size of circles is proportional to the number of times each carbapenemase or bacterial strain was identified. *Acib* stands for *A. baumannii*, *Acip* for *Acinetobacter pittii*, *Aci*sp for *Acinetobacter* sp., *Aer*sp for *Aeromonas* sp., *Ah* for *Aeromonas hydrophila*, *A*sp for *Achromobacter* sp., *Bs* for *Bacillus subtilis*, *Cf* for *Citrobacter freundii*, *C*sp for *Citrobacter* sp., *Ea* for *Elizabethkingia anophelis*, *Ec* for *E. coli*, *Ecc* for *E. cloaceae* complex, *Ka* for *Klebsiella aerogenes*, *Km* for *Klebisella michiganensis*, *Ko* for *Klebsiella oxytoca*, *Kp* for *K. pneumoniae*, *Kq* for *Klebsiella quasipneumoniae*, *Kv* for *Klebsiella variicola*, *Mm* for *Morganella morganii*, *Pa* for *P. aeruginosa*, Pm for *Proteus mirabilis* and *P*sp for *Pseudomonas* sp.

238 **Acquisition of additional traits by ICEs include competitive weapons as bacteriocins**

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

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

241 and restriction-modification systems. We identified class III bacteriocins among 6 *K.*

242 *pneumoniae* ST258 strains and associated with MPF$_F$ and MPF$_T$ classes (**Figure S1** and

243 **Table S6**). Additionally, our results show that some representatives of this ST and other

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

245 modification systems or "orphan" methyltransferases (**Table S7**). Ammonium

246 quaternary compounds and metal tolerance genes, such as the *qac* (ammonium

247 quaternary), *mer* (mercury), *ars* (arsenic) and *cus/czc* (copper) operons were also found

248 in several genera, including *Enterobacter*, *Klebsiella* and *Pseudomonas* (**Table S8**). No

249 CRISPR-Cas systems were identified within these elements.

250

251 **Discussion**

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

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

254 the knowledge of the repertoire of CEGs-bearing ICEs. We uncovered more than 200

255 putative MGEs that may be involved in HGT of CEGs among all bacterial genomes. To

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

257 MPF families likely involved in spreading these genes.

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

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

260 *pneumoniae* ST258 harboring *bla*$_{KPC-2/3}$ [25, 26]. The scenario observed for the

261 acquisition of the most important CEGs by ICEs (Tn*4401* for *bla*$_{KPC-2/3}$, composite

262 transposons for *bla*$_{NDM-1}$ and class I integrons for *bla*$_{IMP}$ and *bla*$_{VIM}$) resembles that of

263 plasmids [3] and provide additional support to the notion that the line separating these

264 elements is blurring [8, 9, 32]. We now show that besides plasmids, this promiscuous

265 repertoire of integrons and transposons frequently targets ICEs of different MPF

266 families. Surprisingly, we noted that only *bla*$_{SPM-1}$ was unable to spread beyond the same

267 clonal lineage [30]. Indeed, all hits were identified in *P. aeruginosa* ST277 strains from

Brazil and within a MPF$_T$ ICE family, indicating that likely these ICEs are only transferring

vertically. Understanding the limitations on this family of ICE's horizontal gene transfer

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 Gram-positive bacteria. 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 [33]. Despite the works on ICEs in

Gram positive bacteria [34, 35], this first report of a CEG-bearing ICE in ubiquitous and

resilient bacterial groups is of remarkable epidemiological interest.

In addition to AR, ICEs can be involved in other traits such as heavy metal resistance,

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 [36]. Class III

bacteriocins – bacteriolysins - consists of high-molecular-weight and heat-labile toxins

[37]. We speculate that the presence of these toxins within the ICEs of six *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 [38]. The presence of

these systems within ICEs may also allow their stable maintenance through

postsegregational killing. This has already been demonstrated for plasmids [39].

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. This analysis also underestimates the extent of host

range because we only used assembled genomes. 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, we identified some plasmid hits

among our data using PlasmidFinder (**Table S9**) [40]. 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, 11]. Plus, it is possible that ICEs and plasmids have

swapped conjugation modules along 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 halt the spread of

AR.

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