

DEVELOPMENT AND PILOT VALIDATION OF A NOVEL PCR-BASED REPLICON TYPING SCHEME FOR PLASMID FAMILIES ASSOCIATED WITH ANTIBIOTIC RESISTANCE IN *PSEUDOMONAS SPP.*

I. Stoikov^{1,2}, I. N. Ivanov¹, E. Dobрева¹,
D. Donchev¹, S. Sabtcheva², R. Hristova¹

¹ National Reference Laboratory for Control and Monitoring of Antimicrobial Resistance, National Center of Infectious and Parasitic Diseases, Sofia, Bulgaria

² Laboratory for Clinical Microbiology, University specialized hospital for active treatment in oncology (National Oncology Center), Sofia, Bulgaria

ABSTRACT

Background. *Pseudomonas* species are ubiquitous environmental Gram-negative bacteria increasingly associated with difficult to treat healthcare-associated infections. Along with their substantial intrinsic antimicrobial resistance, the ability to acquire additional resistance and pathogenicity determinants contributes to increased morbidity and mortality. Plasmids represent the major vehicles of gene transfer among hospital strains. Accumulation and dissemination of resistance genes through horizontal gene transfer is exceptionally problematic since it leads to the emergence of multi-resistant and stable phenotypes highlighting the importance of novel tools for studying plasmid epidemiology.

Materials and Methods. In this study we introduce a novel PCR-based replicon typing (PBRT) scheme for differentiation of various *Pseudomonas* spp. plasmid

families requiring only two multiplex PCR (mPCR) assays. mPCR 1 is composed of previously published primer sets for IncP-1, IncP-7, IncP-9, IncQ, A/C, N, W, IncU. Primers for multiplex PCR 2 were designed after an in-depth *in-silico* bioinformatic analysis of the *repA* gene of more than 50 reference IncP-2, IncP-6, IncP-10, pKLC102-like and pMOS94-like plasmids some of which studied for the first time as a group.

Results. The scheme was tested on a set of 90 previously genotyped multi-resistant clinical *Pseudomonas* spp. isolates. The detection rate of the target plasmid families was low in our strain collection. Replicons were registered in only 3/90 isolates from the IncP-7 (n=1), IncP-10 (n=1), and pMOS94-like (n=1) families.

This pilot study demonstrates a novel PBRT scheme applicable to *Pseudomonas* spp. targeting plasmids of incompatibility groups known to harbour genes associated with antibiotic resistance.

Keywords:

Pseudomonas, PCR-based replicon typing (PBRT), plasmids, resistance

INTRODUCTION

Pseudomonas aeruginosa is a Gram-negative bacterium commonly associated with healthcare-associated infections. Intrinsic and acquired resistance mechanisms make infections caused by this opportunistic pathogen difficult to treat, resulting in increased morbidity and mortality. In *P. aeruginosa*, acquired resistance phenotypes are often associated with the acquisition of metallo-beta-lactamases (MBLs), of which VIM-type enzymes are most common, and extended-spectrum-beta-lactamases which are often co-transferred with aminoglycoside resistance determinants [1,2]. *bla*_{VIM} and *bla*_{IMP} MBL genes are usually located in mobile gene cassettes embedded in integron structures [3]. MBL-encoding integrons in *Enterobacterales* are mostly found on plasmids from IncN, IncI1 and IncHI2-incompatibility groups/types [4,5]. On the other hand, knowledge on beta-lactamase carrying plasmid lineages in *Pseudomonas* spp. is still scarce as only a limited number of plasmids have been completely sequenced and available through in genomic databases.

Plasmids are self-replicating extra-chromosomal circular fragments of DNA found in almost all

ADDRESS FOR CORRESPONDENCE:

Ivan N. Ivanov
National Reference Laboratory for Control and Monitoring of Antimicrobial Resistance,
National Center of Infectious and Parasitic Diseases,
26 Yanko Sakazov blvd 1504 Sofia, Bulgaria
Phone: +359 2 9446999 ext. 208
e-mail: ivanoov@gmail.com

bacterial, but also in some fungal and plant species. They have the ability to acquire and lose genes and to be transferred horizontally between bacterial species by mobilization and conjugation. They are involved in the maintenance of bacterial genetic diversity and genomic plasticity. Plasmids carry genes for initiation and control of replication and may contain genes encoding beneficial traits such as antimicrobial resistance and virulence factors [6]. They also possess systems that maintain their stability and copy number in the host cell.

The functions associated with initiation and control of plasmid replication are encoded by loci called replicons. The first PCR-based replicon typing (PBRT) scheme was by Carattoli proposed in 2005 and consists of multiplex PCRs targeting replicons of the major plasmid families among members of the *Enterobacteriales* [6]. Initially, the scheme was able to detect 18 replicons belonging to 18 major incompatibility (Inc) groups (FIA, FIB, FIC, HI1, HI2, I1-Ig, L/M, N, P, W, T, A/C, K, B/O, X, Y, F, and FIIA) [7]. Incompatibility between plasmids results from the dependence on the same replication machinery, i.e., two related plasmids cannot exist stably within the same cell line [4].

Another scheme for plasmid detection and classification is based on relaxase protein phylogenies, which target only transmissible plasmids. Conjugative plasmids carry the entire genetic machinery required for their transfer. These include origin of transfer (*oriT*), relaxase, coupling protein (T4CP) and type IV secretion system (T4SS). Mobilizable plasmids only encode only *oriT*, relaxase and the nicking accessory protein. They are not self-transmissible and their transfer is dependent on conjugative helper plasmids. Relaxases are the only common component of all transmissible plasmids. They are multidomain proteins with relaxase activity derived from their N-terminal domain. This scheme, called degenerate primer MOB typing (DPMT), utilizes the conserved N-terminal sequence of the relaxase proteins, on the basis of which plasmids are classified into six MOB families: MOB_F, MOB_P, MOB_Q, MOB_H, MOB_C and MOB_V [8].

The acquisition of additional resistance determinants by horizontal gene transfer is of particular importance to healthcare, as it leads to the emergence of highly resistant phenotypes that are difficult to treat [9], emphasizing the importance of methods to track the

distribution of plasmids in the environment and in different hosts.

This study aims to introduce a novel PBRT scheme applicable to *Pseudomonas* spp. focusing on resistance plasmids as well as those potentially capable of carrying antimicrobial resistance genes.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Detailed *in silico* analysis was performed on reference plasmid sequences downloaded from the NCBI GenBank (Table 1). Primer design was performed using Primer 3 software, implemented in Geneious Prime 2020.2.4 (<https://www.geneious.com>) and the pairs were additionally analyzed with Oligo7 [10]. The specificity of the designed primers was analyzed using publicly available database (nr/nt) of NCBI through Primer-BLAST software (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/tools/primer-blast/>). The diversity and comparison of nucleotide composition at replicon-containing regions was investigated using Geneious Prime 2020.2.4 and NCBI Blast. Finally, the scheme was tested on a set of 90 *P. aeruginosa* isolates selected from the collection of the National Reference Laboratory of Control and Monitoring of Antibiotic Resistance at the National Centre of Infectious and Parasitic Diseases in Sofia, Bulgaria. Bacterial DNA was extracted by boiling for 10 min in 10% Chelex 100 resin (Bio-rad) in TE buffer pH=8. Real-time multiplex touchdown PCRs were carried out in a final volume of 20 µl with the following reagents: 1x PCR buffer (EURx) containing 2mM MgCl₂ and 40 mM tetraethylammonium chloride, 0.35mM of each dNTP, 0.85x EvaGreen (Biotium), 0.03U/µl Perpetual Taq polymerase (EURx) and 1,5 µl (~45ng) DNA. The optimal primer concentrations for multiplex PCR 1 and 2 were experimentally determined and are listed in Table 2. The thermal conditions were: 95°C initial denaturation for 3 min followed by 10 cycles of touchdown (with initial annealing temperature 10°C above primer T_m and decreasing by 1°C after each cycle), 20 cycles of 97°C for 10s, 55°C for 30s and 72°C for 60s (fluorescence detection at extension step), final extension at 72°C for 3 min followed by melting, starting with 10s at 72°C and then increasing by 0.4°C every 10s to 96°C. Positive PCR products were confirmed on a high-resolution QIAxcel capillary gel electrophoresis system (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). Multiple alignments and phylogenetic trees were

Table 1. Reference plasmids and their replicon types used in the study

| Plasmid | Replicon type | Accession no. |
|--|---------------|-------------------------------|
| pCR1 | IncP-10 | NZ_CP020561 |
| p14057-KPC | IncP-10 | NZ_KY296095.1 |
| p1011-KPC2 | IncP-10 | MH734334.1 |
| R91-5 replication region DNA | IncP-10 | X54695.1 |
| p727-IMP | IncP-2 | NZ_MF344568.1 |
| RW109 | IncP-2 | NZ_LT969519.1 |
| pSY153-MDR | IncP-2 | NZ_KY883660.1 |
| pJB37 | IncP-2 | KY494864.1 |
| p12969-DIM | IncP-2 | NZ_KU130294.1 |
| pOZ176 | IncP-2 | NC_022344.1 |
| pBM908 | IncP-2 | NZ_CP040126.1 |
| pPABL048 | IncP-2 | CP039294.1 |
| unnamed2 | IncP-2 | NZ_CP029096.1 |
| unnamed3 | IncP-2 | NZ_CP029094.1 |
| p1 | IncP-2 | CP027478.1 |
| unnamed2 | IncP-2 | NZ_CP027170.1 |
| pBM413 | IncP-2 | NZ_CP016215.1 |
| pRBL16 | IncP-2 | NZ_CP015879.1 |
| pTTS12 | IncP-2 | CP009975.1 |
| pJBCL41 | IncP-2 | NZ_MK496050.1 |
| pR31014-IMP | IncP-2 | NZ_MF344571.1 |
| pA681-IMP | IncP-2 | NZ_MF344570.1 |
| p12939-PER | IncP-2 | NZ_MF344569.1 |
| pCOL-1 | IncP-6(IncG) | KC609323.1 |
| pPA-2 | IncP-6(IncG) | KC609322.1 |
| pJB12 | IncP-6(IncG) | KX889311.1 |
| pD5170990 | IncP-6(IncG) | NZ_KX169264.1 |
| pMRVIM0713 | IncP-6(IncG) | NZ_KP975076.1 |
| p1 | IncP-6(IncG) | NZ_CP040685.1 |
| unnamed | IncP-6(IncG) | NZ_CP033834.1 |
| pMATVIM-7 | IncP-6(IncG) | NC_009739.1 |
| Rms149 | IncP-6(IncG) | NC_007100.1 |
| p10265-KPC | IncP-6(IncG) | NZ_KU578314.1 |
| pKLC102 | pKLC102-like | AY257539.1 |
| pROUE1 | pKLC102-like | MK047608.1 |
| pJB35 | pKLC102-like | NZ_MF168945.1 |
| pCOOP-101 | pKLC102-like | NZ_MF141039.1 |
| pAMBL1 | pKLC102-like | NZ_KP873172.1 |
| pNOR-2000 | pKLC102-like | KC189475.1 |
| <i>Pseudomonas</i> sp. MRSN12121 plasmid | pKLC102-like | CP010894.1 |
| plasmid pAER57 | pMOS94-like | NZ_MK671726.1 |
| pMOS94 | pMOS94-like | NZ_MK671725.1 |
| pTROUS1 | pMOS94-like | NZ_MK047610.1 |
| pCB58 | pMOS94-like | NZ_KY630469.1 |
| pAMBL2 | pMOS94-like | NZ_KP873171.1 |
| pCT14 | pMOS94-like | NC_010891.1 |
| unnamed2 | pMOS94-like | NZ_CP029092.1 |
| unnamed1 | pMOS94-like | NZ_CP027168.1 |
| pIEC33019 | pMOS94-like | NZ_CP016446.1 |
| pPC9 | pMOS94-like | NC_019906.1 |

Table 2. Primer concentrations in mPCR1 and mPCR2

| Primer (F/R) | Concentration in 20 μ l reaction (μ M) | mPCR |
|-----------------------------------|---|------|
| IncP-1 (a, β , ϵ) | 0,3 | 1 |
| IncP-1 γ | 0,3 | 1 |
| IncP-1 γ -like | 0,3 | 1 |
| IncP-1 δ | 0,3 | 1 |
| IncP-1 ζ | 0,3 | 1 |
| IncP-7 | 0,35 | 1 |
| IncP-9 | 0,4 | 1 |
| IncQ | 0,3 | 1 |
| IncA/C (IncP-3) | 0,2 | 1 |
| IncN | 0,25 | 1 |
| IncW | 0,2 | 1 |
| IncU (IncG/IncP-6) | 0,3 | 1 |
| IncP-2 | 0,3 | 2 |
| IncP-10 | 0,3 | 2 |
| pKLC102-like | 0,3 | 2 |
| pMOS94-like | 0,3 | 2 |

constructed after performing BLAST through the NCBI.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Plasmids in *Pseudomonas* spp. were found to belong to at least 13 incompatibility groups (IncP-1 to IncP-7 and IncP-9 to IncP-14). IncP-2 plasmids tend to be large with a typical size of >300kb. Plasmids of IncP-2, IncP-5, IncP-7, IncP-10, IncP-12, and IncP-13 are characterized by a narrow host range. The rest, especially those belonging to IncP-1, IncP-4, and IncP-6 are described as broad-host range plasmids [11].

Analysis of primer characteristics and *in silico* defined product lengths led to the design of two multiplex PCRs. Previously published primer sets for IncP-1 (*trfA*) [12,13], IncP-7 (*rep*) [14], IncP-9 (*oriV-rep*) [15], IncQ (*oriV*) [16], IncA/C (*repA*), IncN (*repA*), IncW (*repA*) [6] and a newly designed primer pair for IncU (IncG/IncP-6) were grouped in **mPCR1 (Table 3)**. Previously published primers for IncU targeting the *repA* gene within pRA3 plasmid from *Aeromonas hydrophila* [17] were aligned to the reference plasmids shown in Table 1. Comparison of primer binding sites and analysis with Primer BLAST showed that the primers were unable to cover most of the reference templates. Therefore, a new primer pair containing degenerate bases for IncU (*repA*) was designed and tested *in silico*. As a result, all the reference plasmid

replicons were covered and the new primers were incorporated into mPCR1.

The IncP-1 incompatibility group corresponds to IncP in *E. coli*. Plasmids of this group have a wide host range and can be transferred and maintained in all Gram-negative bacteria [18]. They have a modular structure which that allows self-replication, stable maintenance, mating pair formation and DNA transfer. Most of these plasmids tend to carry at least one mobile genetic accessory element associated with antibiotic/metal resistance or xenobiotic degradation enzymes [19,20]. Based on the high diversity of the accessory elements, they are divided into subgroups: a, β , γ , δ , ϵ , ζ [12,21]. IncP-1 plasmids can confer resistance to carbenicillin, kanamycin, streptomycin, gentamicin, tobramycin, tetracyclines and sulfonamides [22]

IncP-9, IncP-7 and IncP-2 plasmids are involved in the catabolism of naphthalene and other aromatic hydrocarbons [23]. IncP-2 plasmids may be associated with resistance to carbenicillin, gentamicin, streptomycin, kanamycin, chloramphenicol, tetracycline and sulfonamides. IncP-7 plasmids have been reported to confer resistance to carbenicillin, gentamicin, streptomycin, tobramycin and sulfonamides. IncP-9 plasmids associated with resistance to carbenicillin, gentamicin, kanamycin, streptomycin, tobramycin, tetracycline and sulfonamide have also been reported in *Pseudomonas* spp. [22].

A plasmid of IncP-6 incompatibility group from *P. aeruginosa* was found to be capable of maintenance in *E. coli* where it was assigned to a new group called IncG. However, the two groups were considered to be the identical and were combined into the IncU incompatibility group [24]. IncU have broad-host range and have been reported to confer resistance to streptomycin, sulfanilamide, gentamicin, and carbenicillin [25]. A novel resistance plasmid (p10265-KPC) belonging to the IncP-6 incompatibility group was recently reported to harbor the *bla*_{KPC-2} gene, associated with resistance to almost all β -lactams [11].

IncQ plasmids have been reported to carry genes mainly associated with streptomycin and sulfonamide resistance. They are small, multicopy, nonconjugative and have a broad-host range [26].

Table 3. Primers used in PBRT multiplex PCR 1

| Replicon type | Primers | Fragment Length (bp) | Reference |
|-----------------------------------|---|----------------------|------------|
| IncP-1 (a, β , ϵ) | Forward: TTCACSTTCTACGAGMTKTGCCAGGAC Reverse: GWCAGCTTGC GG TACTTCTCCC | 281 | [12] |
| IncP-1 γ | Forward: TTCACTTTTTACGAGCTTTGCAGCGAC Reverse: GTCAGCTCGCGGTACTTCTCCCA | 281 | [12] |
| IncP-1 γ -like | Forward: TTCACCTTCTACGAACTGTGTAAT Reverse: GTCAAGGCCCGATACTTCTCCCA | 281 | [13] |
| IncP-1 δ | Forward: TTCACGTTCTACGAGCTTTGCACAGAC Reverse: GACAGCTCGCGGTACTTTTCCCA | 281 | [12] |
| IncP-1 ζ | Forward: TTCACTTTCTACGAAATCTGCAAAGAC Reverse: GATAGCTTCCGATACTTTTCCCA | 281 | [13] |
| IncP-7 | Forward: CCCTATCTCACGATGCTGTA Reverse: GCACAAACGGTCGTCAG | 524 | [14] |
| IncP-9 | Forward: GAGGGTTTGGAGATCATWAGA Reverse: GGTCTGTATCCAGTTRTGCTT | 610-637 | [15] |
| IncQ | Forward: CTCCCGTACTA ACTGTCACG Reverse: ATCGACCGAGACAGGCCCTGC | 436 | [16] |
| IncA/C (IncP-3) | Forward: GAGAACCAAAGACAAAGACCTGGA Reverse: ACGACAAACCTGAATTGCCTCCTT | 465 | [6] |
| IncN | Forward: GTCTAACGAGCTTACCGAAG Reverse: GTTTCAACTCTGCCAAGTTC | 559 | [6] |
| IncW | Forward: CCTAAGAACAACAAAGCCCCCG Reverse: GGTGCGCGGCATAGAACCGT | 242 | [6] |
| IncP-6 (IncU) | Forward: ACSGTGAAYASCAAGAGCGG Reverse: TGCTGCATCCGCTCGCCYTC | 302 | This study |

IncA/C plasmids are often found in multi-drug resistant members of the *Enterobacteriales*. They are self-mobilizing and have a broad host range. Their size usually varies between 131 and 195kb. Plasmids of this group often carry genes encoding ESBL, AmpC beta-lactamases and carbapenemases [27]. IncA/C plasmids from *E.coli* are equivalent to IncP-3 in *Pseudomonas* spp. [28].

IncN plasmids have been detected in clinical samples and various animal hosts. They are mostly associated with carbapenem and third generation cephalosporin resistance in *K. pneumoniae*, *K. oxytoca* and *E. coli*

strains. In addition an IncN plasmid carrying *bla*_{NDM-1} was described in a multi-drug resistant *E. coli* isolate [29].

IncW incompatibility group consists of small, broad-host range plasmids with a wide spectrum of antibiotic resistance. Observations suggest that conjugation of these plasmids is only possible on a solid media [30]. One of the best-known members of this group is R388 with a size of 33kb. This plasmid is known to harbor genes encoding resistance to trimethoprim and sulfonamides [31].

For this study a total of 50 reference plasmid

Table 4. Primers used in multiplex PCR 2

| Replicon type | Primers | Fragment Length (bp) | Reference |
|---------------|--|----------------------|------------|
| IncP-2 | Forward: TCGTGAGGAGTTCGTTGAAG Reverse: TTCTGCGACTGAAGCTCTTT | 126 | This study |
| IncP-10 | Forward: CAGCGAACAAATCATGGTGG Reverse: TGAGGTAGTCAAGCGTCAAC | 325-332 | This study |
| pKLC102-like | Forward: GACCCSGACAAGGATTTC AA Reverse: TTSGCSTKCGGATAGACG | 74 | This study |
| pMOS94-like | Forward: GTTGTGCTCGTAGSTGATCT Reverse: CGCAATCAACATCGACAAGT | 304 | This study |

Figure 1. Representative capillary electrophoresis image of the replicons detected in this study

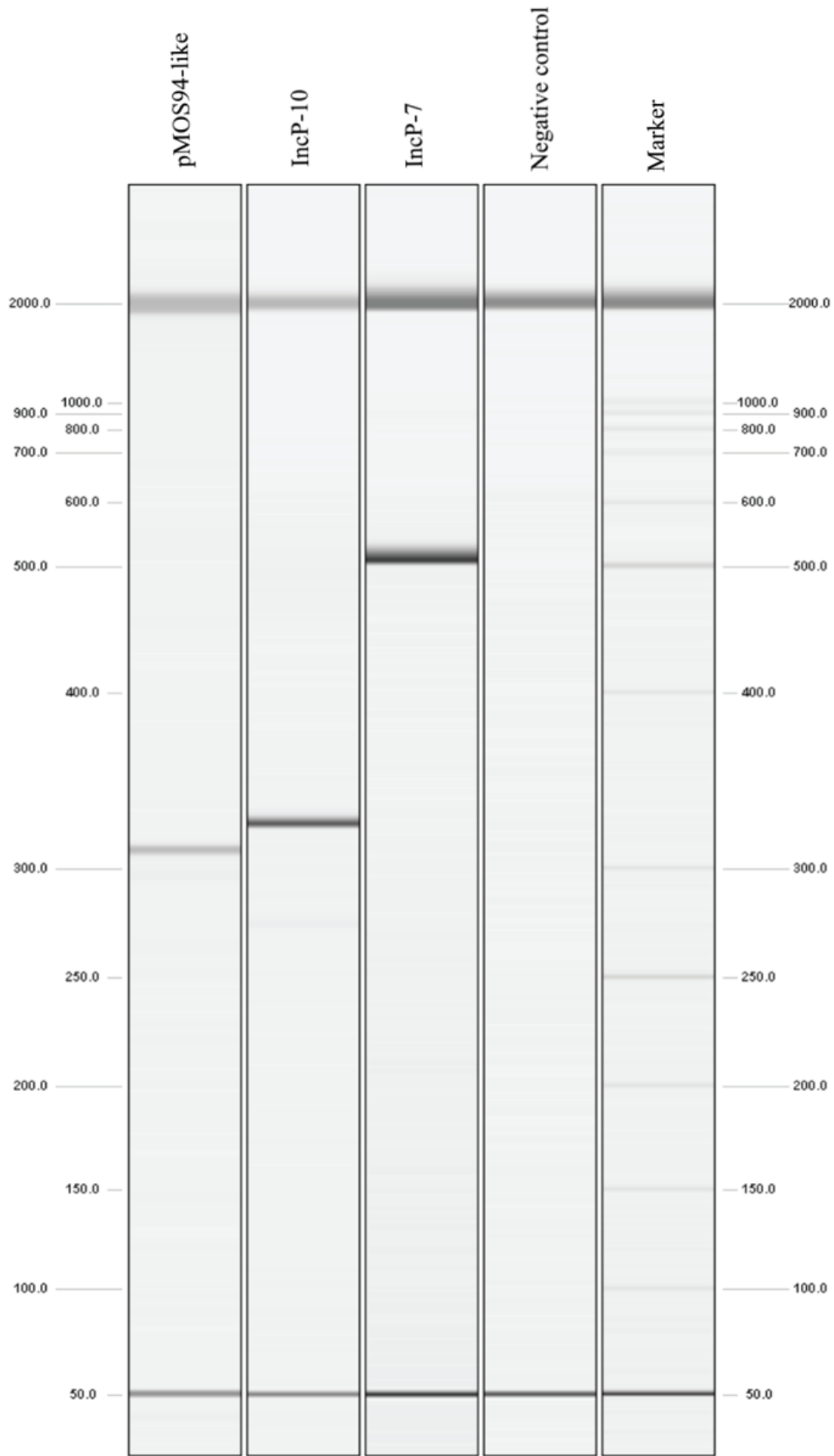


Figure 2. Phylogenetic tree (Neighbour-joining) generated by NCBI BLAST by querying a 304bp fragment from the *repA* gene of pMOS94 plasmid. A distinct cluster of pMOS94-like plasmids is shown forming a lineage.



sequences were downloaded from NCBI Genbank. Regions containing the replication initiation genes were extracted and analyzed by sequence alignment in *Geneious Prime 2020.2.4*. For several plasmid families primer design was performed directly on the aligned sequences taking into account and avoiding primer binding sites within regions of high diversity (Table 3 and 4).

Multiplex PCR 2 was designed with primers for IncP-2 (repA), IncP-10 (repA), pKLC102-like (repA) and pMOS94-like (repA) replicons (Table 4).

The plasmid pKLC102 is one of the few known examples of a mobile DNA coexisting simultaneously as a plasmid and as a genomic island in *P. aeruginosa* clone C strains [32]. Genomic islands are integrated into the genome at the 3' end of a tRNA gene. They are flanked by direct repeats and contain a transposase or integrase involved in the integration and excision processes. The genomic islands, also known as pathogenicity islands are clone- or strain-specific and are usually easily recognized by their atypical G+C content. They are related to the virulence of pathogenic strains by augmenting cell fitness, metabolic versatility and general adaptability [33].

A total of 90 *P. aeruginosa* isolates with known MLST and MLVA types were selected to test the scheme to achieve maximum heterogeneity. Amplification was observed in one isolate from multiplex PCR 1 and two isolates from multiplex PCR 2. Replicons were present in 3/90 (3,33%) isolates. Capillary electrophoresis analysis revealed three distinct products of 305bp, 327bp and 526bp, corresponding to pMOS94-like, IncP-10 and IncP-7, respectively (Fig. 1).

IncP-10 is known to confer resistance to carbenicillin, gentamicin, kanamycin, tobramycin and sulfonamides [22]. However, there are very few sequenced plasmids of this group and their properties are not fully understood.

Recently, pMOS94 was described as a *bla*_{VIM-1}-carrying plasmid [34]. The resolution and analysis of its structure led to the definition of a novel plasmid lineage associated with the spread of MBL genes among *Pseudomonas* spp. pMOS94 has been found to be untypable by the currently existing replicon typing schemes [34]. Our BLAST analysis of a 304bp fragment from the *repA* of the originally described pMOS94 (from *P. montelii*) showed that at least 11 additional plasmids could be classified into this

lineage (**Figure 2**)

One of the limitations of this study was the lack of reference plasmid controls to confirm the *in silico* results *in vitro*. Therefore, the presence of plasmids and their corresponding replicons in the positive isolates will be further confirmed by S1-nuclease analysis and Southern blot hybridization which will also provide their approximate sizes. Based on the results from these analyses, plasmid DNA will be isolated and subjected to next-generation sequencing. In addition, the same subset of isolates is planned to be subjected to MOB typing in order to compare and evaluate the specificity and discriminatory power of the two assays.

CONCLUSIONS

Plasmids play an essential role in the dissemination of antibiotic resistance among bacterial communities. While this has become a serious threat for both human and animal healthcare, the need for reliable methods for detection, monitoring and control of antibiotic resistance is growing. The primary aim of this study was to develop a PBRT scheme which is able to detect plasmids of incompatibility groups known to harbor genes associated with antibiotic resistance dissemination among *Pseudomonas* spp. The scheme comprises of two multiplex PCRs including newly designed and previously published primer sets targeting known and recently reported replicons. The assay is affordable, easily implemented and could be used for tracking origins and routes of resistance plasmids across various settings, animal or hospital associated.

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