# Investigations on efflux pump and porin related genes in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* selected from clinical isolates of multidrug resistant gram-negative bacteria

*Thesis submitted to University of Calicut in partial fulfillment of the requirement for the award of* 

> **Doctor of Philosophy In Biotechnology**

> > By

**MANJU SURESH**



**DEPARTMENT OF BIOTECHNOLOGY UNIVERSITY OF CALICUT 2018**

# **DEPARTMENT OF BIOTECHNOLOGY UNIVERSITY OF CALICUT**



# **Certificate**

This is to certify that the Thesis entitled **"Investigations on efflux pump and porin related genes in** *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* **selected from clinical isolates of multidrug resistant gram-negative bacteria"** submitted to University of Calicut, as partial fulfillment of Ph.D. programme for the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Biotechnology by **Manju Suresh.,** embodies the results of bonafide research work carried out by her under my guidance and supervision at the Department of Biotechnology, University of Calicut. This Thesis has not previously formed the basis for the award of any degree, diploma, associateship, fellowship or other similar titles or recognition. The candidate has passed the course work of the Ph.D. programme in accordance with the UGC regulations.

C.U Campus **Dr. P. R. Manish Kumar** Date: **(Research Supervisor)** Professor, Head and Coordiantor Department of Biotechnology University of Calicut Kerala - 673635

# **DECLARATION**

I hereby declare that the work presented in the Thesis entitled **'Investigations on efflux pump and porin related genes in** *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* **selected from clinical isolates of multidrug resistant gram-negative bacteria'** submitted to the University of Calicut, as partial fulfillment of Ph.D. programme for the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Biotechnology, is original and carried out by me under the supervision of Dr. P. R. Manish Kumar, Department of Biotechnology, University of Calicut. This has not been submitted earlier either in part or full for any degree or diploma of any university.

Date :

C.U Campus **Manju Suresh**

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*Manju Suresh*

*Dedicated to All My Teachers*

# **CONTENTS**









# **LIST OF TABLES**





# **LIST OF FIGURES**





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# **ABBREVIATIONS**











# **INTRODUCTION**

Antibiotics - the 'miracle drugs' of the  $20<sup>th</sup>$  century - continue to play a major role in curing infectious diseases. The discovery of 'Salvarsan', an arsenic based drug for syphilis in 1909, development of natural antibiotic penicillin in 1928 and synthesis of a sulpha drug, Prontosil in 1935, opened a golden era of novel antibiotic inventions. Alexander Fleming - the discoverer of the first natural antibiotic, penicillin - was also among the first who warned about the potential resistance to penicillin if used too little or for too short a period during treatment (Aminov, 2010). The ability of microbes to grow or survive in the presence of a concentration of antibiotic that is usually sufficient to kill them or inhibit their growth is termed as antibiotic resistance. Although antibiotic resistance can be considered to be a natural phenomenon driven by the selection pressure of antimicrobial agent, indiscriminate use of antibiotics is a major factor facilitating the emergence of resistance worldwide (Sabtu et al., 2015). Emergence of multidrug resistance, which is defined as non-susceptibility of bacteria towards at least one agent in three or more antimicrobial categories, has become a significant public health threat (Allcock et al., 2017).

### **1.1 Molecular mechanisms of antibiotic resistance**

Bacteria can attain antibiotic resistance through intrinsic or acquired mechanisms. Intrinsic mechanisms are those specified by naturally occurring genes found on the host's chromosome and such resistance can be a result of impaired permeability of the bacterial envelope, efficient drug export systems, the absence or presence of low affinity antimicrobial target or the presence of enzymes which inhibit or destroy the antibiotics (Galán et al., 2013). Acquired resistance, can either be a consequence of *de novo* mutations or may arise due to acquisition of resistance determinants borne on plasmids, bacteriophages, transposons, and other mobile genetic elements by horizontal transfer. Acquisition of new genetic material is accomplished through the processes of conjugation, transformation, or transduction (Alekshun and Levy, 2007).

Mutations resulting in antibiotic resistance alter the antibiotic action via one of the following mechanisms, such as (i) antibiotic inactivation, (ii) changes in target site, (iii) active efflux and (iv) down regulation of outer membrane protein channel are all transferrable to subsequent generations - a phenomenon known as vertical evolution (Munita and Arias, 2016).

# **1.2 Role of porins and efflux pumps in multidrug resistant (MDR) gramnegative bacteria**

Antibiotic resistance in gram-negative bacteria is attributable to a synergetic interplay between reduced drug intake due to low permeability of outer membrane and an active drug export consequent to upregulation of efflux pumps. These two aspects reportedly play a critical role in the development of the MDR phenotype (Fernández and Hancock, 2012).

Gram-negative bacteria are intrinsically resistant to many antibiotics due to the permeability barrier provided by their multifaceted cell envelope comprising of an outer membrane embedded with channels of both specific and non-specific types. Porins are nonspecific, water-filled open channels which act as molecular filters for hydrophilic substances, mediate transport of nutrients and ions including antibiotics across the membrane into the periplasm (Fernández and Hancock, 2012; Galdiero et al., 2012).

Bacterial efflux pumps are transporting systems lodged in cell membrane which drive out various compounds such as physiological substrates, non-antibiotic substrates as well as antibiotics from the cell. Multidrug efflux pumps are encoded by bacterial genomes and commonly belong to various families on the basis of their sequence similarity, substrate specificity, number of components (single or multiple), number of transmembrane-spanning regions and energy source. Currently, these have been categorized into six families: (i) the adenosine triphosphate (ATP)-binding cassette (ABC) superfamily, (ii) the major facilitator superfamily (MFS), (iii) the small multidrug resistance (SMR) family, (iv) the multidrug and toxic compound extrusion (MATE) family (v) the resistancenodulation-cell division (RND) superfamily and (vi) proteobacterial antimicrobial

compound efflux (PACE) family (Masi et al., 2017). The RND efflux pumps play a key role in the development of both intrinsic and acquired multidrug resistance in gram-negative bacteria (Blair and Piddock, 2009; Vargiu et al., 2016; Alibert et al., 2017). These pumps are comprised of a characteristic tripartite complex formed of a cytoplasmic membrane transporter, a membrane fusion protein (MFP) and an outer membrane protein (OMP) channel (Symmons et al., 2009; Daury et al., 2016; Puzari and Chetia, 2017).

#### **1.3** *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*

*P. aeruginosa*, a 'priority pathogen' has now been included in a list of 12 families of bacteria which pose a serious health threat to man (WHO, 2017a). This opportunistic microbe is also held responsible for nosocomial infections worldwide. Known to possess a large number of virulence factors, it causes severe infections with high morbidity and mortality rate, particularly in immune-compromised patients or those with underlying disease (Poole, 2001; Strateva and Yordanov, 2009; Askoura et al., 2011; Porras-Gómez et al., 2012; Chatterjee et al., 2016). *P. aeruginosa* has now achieved a superbug status by acquiring multidrug-resistant phenotypes through (i) intrinsic resistance mechanisms such as those mediated by constitutive expression of AmpC beta-lactamase, efflux pumps and porin downregulation and (ii) acquired resistance caused by mutational changes or acquisition of resistance mechanisms via horizontal gene transfer. Together, these processes contribute toward development of overwhelming resistance against a variety of structurally unrelated antibiotics leading to difficulties or failure in therapy (Poole, 2011). Efflux pumps of clinical relevance in *P. aeruginosa* belong to the RND family, of which MexAB-OprM, MexCD-OprJ, MexEF-OprN, and MexXY represent the predominant sets of efflux systems, with a broad range of drug specificities. *P. aeruginosa* infections are commonly treated with carbapenems which belong to the beta-lactam class of antibiotics. Carbapenem-uptake mainly occurs through OprD porin proteins. However, the occurrence of carbapenemresistant strains is gradually increasing and recent studies indicate involvement of OprD down-regulation in combination with overexpression of efflux systems in the

development of resistance ( Lee and Ko, 2012; Ocampo-Sosa et al., 2012; Fang et al., 2014; Zeng et al., 2014; Kim et al., 2016).

# **1.4 Selection pressure and dissemination of antibiotic resistance as a global phenomenon**

Under the selective pressure of antibiotics, bacteria which are either resistant intrinsically or have acquired antibiotic resistant determinants possess a greater chance to survive and multiply. Overuse, inappropriate choices, inadequate dosing and poor adherence to treatment guidelines of antibiotics are the underlying causes of the widespread increased antibiotic resistance observed at a global level (Prestinaci et al., 2015). Antibiotics used in live stock and aquaculture for growth promotion, disease treatment and prophylaxis are considered to be the major contributors to the overall problem of resistance (Marshall and Levy, 2011). The majority of consumed antibiotics released into the environment through waste streams and wastewater treatment plants, are thought to be the evolutionary hotspots for antimicrobial resistance dissemination, since resistance genes, mobile genetic elements and antibiotic selection pressure from various sources are introduced to commensals and pathogens (von Wintersdorff et al., 2016).

### **1.5 Indian scenario of antibiotic resistance**

Antibiotic resistance is a stark reality across the world including the Indian subcontinent. In the country the challenges associated with controlling antibiotic resistance are various and multifaceted. Disease burden in India is among the highest in the world due to the inappropriate and irrational use of antimicrobial agents and reports in 2010 showed India as the world's largest consumer of antibiotics for human health. Multiple factors, such as high disease burden, poor public health infrastructure, rising incomes, unregulated sales of cheap antibiotics and poverty among the low-income strata of society result in large-scale selection and dissemination of resistance genes in India (Laxminarayan and Chaudhury, 2016). Health sector in India suffers from gross inadequacy of public finance leading to favourable conditions for development of drug resistance. Also, systematic nationwide surveillance programme of antibiotic resistant pathogens in

various sectors is inadequate or lacking in India. Paucity of national repository of resistant pathogens makes it difficult to understand the severity of the problem and the involvement of various factors responsible for emergence of antimicrobial resistance (Kumar et al., 2013). Several new initiatives have been launched by various agencies to address this problem including, i) IndiaClen - Indian Clinical Epidemiology Network, which has generated data on resistance in pathogens like *Pneumococcus, Haemophilus influenzae* across the country, ii) IIMAR - Indian Initiative for Management of Antibiotic Resistance launched in March 2008, with WHO support, by a consortium of NGOs to promote prudent use of antimicrobials, iii) INSAR - Indian Network for Surveillance of Antimicrobial Resistance, a network of 20 laboratories in the private as well as public sectors across the country to generate quality data on drug resistance, iv) organization by the ICMR of an expert group meeting in December 2009 and v) an Indo-Swedish workshop held at New Delhi on 2nd February, 2010 to discuss on a joint strategy for containment of antimicrobial resistance (WHO, 2010).

Studies and reports on the emergence of drug resistant bacteria including MDR in both hospital-based and other environments from Kerala State are sparse with very few reports available in published literature (Manjusha and Sarita, 2011; Ahmed et al., 2012; Krishna et al., 2014) including the reports from the laboratory where the present study was carried out (Narayanan et al., 2016 and Nithya et al., 2017). Recently, Kerala government has formulated a new antibiotic stewardship programme to control antibiotic resistance, which not only takes stock of the antibiotic resistance in the state but also builds awareness among doctors, hospital staff and patients as well as the larger community on this critical health issue of antibiotic resistance (IIMR, 2016). A detailed survey of available literature including internet resources failed to reveal a clear picture on the extent or prevalence of antibiotic resistance mediated by efflux pump - based mechanisms and role of porin down-regulation despite several studies carried out across the world and a few from within the Indian subcontinent. Hence, the doctoral work presented in this Thesis, though limited, focuses on the above mentioned aspects of antimicrobial resistance mechanisms.

# **1.6 About the Thesis**

## **1.6.1 Aims and objectives**

The present study was undertaken

- (i) to determine the prevalence of MDR gram-negative clinical bacterial isolates in Kerala
- (ii) to gain deeper molecular insights into efflux pump and porin related genes in *P. aeruginosa* selected from clinical isolates of MDR gram-negative bacteria.

Objectives of this study included :

- 1. Collection of MDR gram-negative bacterial isolates from various clinical laboratories in Kerala
- 2. Identification of bacteria, antibiotic profiling and phenotypic detection of efflux pump - mediated drug resistance therein
- 3. Phenotypic detection of various beta-lactamases in *P. aeruginosa* selected from clinical isolates of MDR gram-negative bacteria and their RAPD profiling
- 4. Expression analysis of efflux pump and porin genes in the selected isolates of MDR *P. aeruginosa*
- 5. Mutational variations and phylogenetic analyses of efflux pump regulatory genes from MDR *P. aeruginosa*
- 6. Mutational variations and phylogenetic analysis of porin *oprD* gene, molecular modelling of porin protein and
- 7. Restriction mapping of *oprD-*derived amplicons for potential diagnostics.

## **1.6.2 Work plan and parameters evaluated in the present study**

A flow chart summarizing the work plan and the parameters evaluated in the study is given below (Fig. 1.1) **:**



*Fig. 1.1. Work plan and the parameters (flowchart) evaluated in the study.*

### **1.6.3 Thesis layout**

The Thesis includes six major chapters. The first gives a brief introduction on the major theme of the doctoral research work. The second chapter deals with review of literature which covers the discovery and classification of antibiotics, antibiotic resistance mechanisms, factors contributing to the spread of antibiotic resistance along with a general account on the present global and Indian scenario of antibiotic resistance. Details of the 'Materials and Methods' used in the study form the third chapter whilst the Fourth chapter incorporates the experimental results (presented in tables and figures), their analyses followed by relevant and appropriate discussions. The final and the fifth chapter consists of 'Conclusions' and 'Future prospectives'. This chapter summarizes the highlights of the entire research work and also provides a brief perspective on future directions and implications of the present study. The 'References' section gives full bibliographic information of all citations quoted in the text. An 'Appendix' given at the end contains information on reagents, solutions and buffers used in the study. *Pre-pages* (v - x) show lists of all abbreviations, figures and tables included in the Thesis.

# **REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

### **2.1 Discovery of Antibiotics**

The discovery of weapon against bacterial diseases was one of the most significant medical achievements of the  $20<sup>th</sup>$  century. The beginning of modern 'antibiotic era' is usually associated with pioneer workers - Paul Ehrlich and Alexander Fleming. The idea of a 'magic bullet' to target bacterial pathogens led Ehrlich and his team discover, in 1909, the first antimicrobial agent 'Salvarsan', an arsenic-based chemical which proved to be an effective remedy for syphilis (Bosch and Laia, 2008). In 1935, Gerhard Domagk discovered that a synthetic red dye, a forerunner of sulfonamide, was effective in the therapeutics and management of bacterial infections which was later known commercially as Prontosil (Lesch, 2007). In 1928, Fleming serendipitously discovered the first natural antibiotic, penicillin, which was introduced into the market in 1945. Penicillin was an outstanding agent in terms of safety and efficacy and this drug saved the lives of many wounded soldiers during World War II (Saga and Yamaguchi, 2009; Aminov, 2010). The subsequent two decades became the 'Golden Age' of antibiotic discovery, both synthetic and naturally-occurring, including aminoglycoside, chloramphenicol, tetracycline, macrolide, glycopeptide and quinolone (Saga and Yamaguchi, 2009). Parallel to antimicrobial discovery, microbial resistance against antibiotics was also becoming evident, but modifications to the existing antibiotics, however, could produce active analogues to combat this obstacle (Lewis, 2013; Gould, 2016). A timeline of antibiotic discovery, deployment and emergence of antimicrobial resistance towards them is shown in Fig. 2.1. Evidently, most of the antibiotics were discovered only up to the 1970s period. The subsequent years witnessed the introduction of new functional groups for expansion of the existing scaffold with only a few new ones discovered in the past half-century (Das et al., 2017).

## **2.2 Antibiotic classification**

Antibiotics are mainly classified according to their principal mechanism of action (Fig. 2.2, Table 2.1) such as inhibition of cell wall, protein, nucleic acid synthesis and metabolic pathway(s) besides disruption of cell-membrane function (Tenover, 2006; Džidić et al., 2008; van Hoek et al., 2011; Fernandes et al., 2013; Lewis, 2013; Liwa and Jaka, 2015).



*Fig. 2.1. Timeline of discovery, deployment of antibiotics in clinical practice and emergence of antimicrobial resistance (Das et al., 2017)*



# **Table 2.1 Classification of antibiotics**



### **2.3 Antibiotic resistance**

Bacteria can survive in the presence of antimicrobial agents due to the existence of intrinsic, acquired or adaptive resistance mechanisms. Intrinsic resistance is an inherent attribute of a particular species to antibiotic agents as a result of (i) impaired permeability of the bacterial envelope, (ii) efficient drug export systems, (iii) absence or presence of low affinity antimicrobial target or (iv) presence of enzymes which inhibit or destroy antibiotics (Galán et al., 2013). Acquired resistance (Fig 2.2) can result from (i) mutations in chromosomal genes including those of spontaneous type, acquisition of hypermutability and adaptive mutations, (ii) acquisition and dissemination of antibiotic resistance determinants by horizontal transfer on plasmids, transposons, insertion sequences (IS), integrons ,

bacteriophages and genomic islands through processes such as transformation, bacteriophages and genomic islands through processes such as transformation, transduction and conjugation (Tenover, 2006; Alekshun and Levy, 2007; Džidić et al., 2008; Giedraitienė et al., 2011). Adaptive resistance is the ability of bacteria to alter gene or protein expression temporarily as a result of exposure to environmental triggers such as stress, nutrient conditions, state of growth and sub-inhibitory levels of antibiotics. Such resistance is transient in nature, non-transmissible generations and reversible upon removal of the inducing condition (Fernández and Hancock, 2012). he et al., 2011). Adaptive resistance is the ability of bacteria to expression temporarily as a result of exposure to environmental is, nutrient conditions, state of growth and sub-inhibitory levels esistance is transient

A single bacterial strain may possess various types of resistance mechanisms depending on its conditions of survival. Bacterial antibiotic resistance mechanisms of biochemical nature include (i) antibiotic inactivation, (ii) changes in target site and (iii) efflux pumps and outer membrane (OM) permeability changes (Fig 2.2).



*Fig. 2.2. Antibiotic resistance - pathways, mechanisms and targets in bacteria (Chellat et al., 2016).*

### **2.4 Antibiotic inactivation**

Bacteria can produce enzymes capable of degrading or modifying the antibiotic (s) by one or more of the following mechanisms:

#### **2.4.1 Antibiotic inactivation by hydrolysis**

Several enzymes are known to destroy antibiotic activity by cleaving the susceptible chemical bonds like esters and amides, before they reach their target. A classical example for amidases includes beta-lactamases that cleave the beta-lactam ring of the penicillin and cephalosporin antibiotics. The Ambler and the Bush-Jacoby-Medeiros are the two known classifications of beta-lactamases, where the Ambler classes are based on amino acid homology and the Bush-Jacoby-Medeiros classification is based on the substrates and inhibitors of the enzymes (Ambler, 1980; Bush and Jacoby, 2010). Extended spectrum beta-lactamases (ESBLs) are the mutant enzymes which hydrolyse penicillins, early and extended-spectrum cephalosporins, and aztreonam (but not cephamycins or carbapenems) and are susceptible to beta-lactamase inhibitors such as clavulanic acid, sulbactam and tazobactam. AmpC beta-lactamases hydrolyse broad and extended-spectrum cephalosporins but are not inhibited by beta-lactamase inhibitor (clavulanic acid). *Klebsiella pneumoniae* carbapenemase (KPC) enzymes are active against extendedspectrum cephalosporins, carbapenems and aztreonam. Metallo-beta-lactamases (MBLs) hydrolyse penicillins, cephalosporins, and carbapenems with the interaction of zinc ions in its active site and this is inhibited by EDTA. OXA (oxacillinase) group of beta-lactamases confer resistance to penicillins and carbapenems, except extended-spectrum cephalosporins (ceftazidime, ceftriaxone) and aztreonam (Fernandes et al., 2013; Munita and Arias, 2016). Other hydrolytic enzymes produced by bacteria include macrolide esterases and fosfomycin epoxidases. Erythromycin esterase encoded by *ereB* gene is prevalent in *Enterobacteriaceae* which inactivates erythromycin A and oleandomycin by hydrolyzing the lactone ring. Epoxidase hydrolyses reactive epoxide antibiotic, fosfomycin, through ring opening by either a thiol-containing co-substrate or water (Liwa and Jaka, 2015).

### **2.4.2 Antibiotic inactivation by group transfer**

The group transferases belong to the most diverse family of resistant enzymes. Such enzymes inactivate and impair target binding of antibiotics like aminoglycosides, chloramphenicol, streptogramin, macrolides or rifampicin, by chemical substitution of adenylyl, phosphoryl or acetyl groups. All the modified chemical strategies including *O*-acetylation and *N*-acetylation, *O*-phosphorylation, *O*-nucleotidylation, *O*-ribosylation, *O*-glycosylation, and thiol transfer, require a cosubstrate ATP, acetyl-CoA, NAD<sup>+</sup>,UDP-glucose, or glutathione for their activity. Hence, these enzymes are active only in the cytoplasm (Wright, 2005).

### **2.4.3 Antibiotic inactivation by redox process**

Antibiotic inactivation by the redox process has been occasionally exploited by pathogenic bacteria. There are a few examples of this strategy - oxidation of tetracycline antibiotics by the tetX enzyme and that of the protection of *Streptomyces virginiae* from endogenously produced type-A streptogramin antibiotic known as virginiamycin M1. In the latter case, this is achieved by reducing a critical ketone group into an alcohol at position 16 (Wright, 2005; Džidić et al., 2008).

### **2.5 Changes in target site**

Bacteria can alter the molecular targets of antimicrobial agents which decrease its affinity or prevent the antibiotic from binding to its target site (Debabov, 2013; Blair et al., 2015; Munita and Arias, 2016) by one of the following means:

### **2.5.1 Target protection**

Most of the clinically relevant genetic determinants coding for proteins that mediate target protection are carried by mobile genetic elements. Representative examples of this mechanism include, tetracycline resistant determinants Tet(M) and Tet(O) which act as homologues of elongation factors (EF-G and EF-Tu) in protein synthesis and interact with ribosome and dislodge tetracycline from its binding site.
Fluoroquinolone resistance determinant *Qnr* acts as a DNA homologue that competes for the DNA binding site of DNA gyrase and topoisomerase IV.

### **2.5.2 Target modification**

Bacterial antibiotic resistance via target site modifications affects almost all families of antimicrobial compounds. These modifications include (i) point mutations in the genes encoding the target site, (ii) enzymatic alterations of the binding site (iii) replacement or bypass of the original target, finally resulting in decreased affinity for the target site.

Well-characterized examples of mutational resistance involve the mechanism of rifampicin, fluoroquinolone and oxazolidinones resistance. Rifampicin blocks bacterial transcription by binding to a highly conserved structure located in the betasubunit of the DNA-dependent RNA polymerase which is encoded by *rpoB* gene. Mutations in the gene decreases affinity of the drug for its target thereby allowing transcription. Fluoroquinolone inhibits DNA replication by binding to DNA gyrase and topoisomerase IV. Mutations in the quinolone resistance determining region (QRDR) of the structural genes that sufficiently alter these enzymes result in less efficient binding of antibiotics. Oxazolidinones inhibit the formation of the initiation complex and interfere with translocation of peptidyl-tRNA from the A site to the P site. Mechanisms of resistance include mutations in the 23S rRNA resulting in decreased affinity for binding.

Target site modification by enzymatic alteration is exemplified by macrolide resistance mediated by the *erm* gene (erythromycin ribosomal methylation) encoded ribosomal methylase enzyme. The enzyme methylates 23S rRNA and alters the drug-binding site. Since macrolides, lincosamides, and streptogramin B antibiotics have overlapping binding sites in the 23S rRNA, methylation on these sites also result in cross-resistance to the lincosamide and streptogramin B class of antibiotics.

Bacteria can acquire genes homologous to the original target that carry out similar biochemical functions but are not inhibited by the antimicrobial molecule. In methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA), resistance is conferred by acquisition of the staphylococcal cassette chromosome *mec* (SCC*mec*) element with three genes *mecRl-metf-mecA*. The *mecA* gene is responsible for methicillin resistance, which encodes penicillin binding protein- PBP2a, a bifunctional transglycosylase/transpeptidase with reduced affinity to beta-lactams. Some resistant bacteria can avoid antimicrobial action by bypassing the metabolic pathway they inhibit by overproducing the antibiotic target. Many trimethoprim (TMP) and sulfamethoxazole (SMX) resistant bacteria show this type of resistance mechanism. Trimethoprim and sulfonamide prevent folic acid production by inhibiting DHFR and DHPS respectively. In such bacteria, mutations occur in the promoter region of the DNA encoding DHFR or DHPS enzymes which leads to overproduction of these enzymes, prevent the ability of TMP-SMX to inhibit folate production thereby permitting bacterial survival.

# **2.6 Reduced uptake and active efflux**

Reduced uptake and active efflux are the bacterial strategies for drug resistance that limit the intracellular access of antibiotics. Notably, alterations that restrict influx of antibiotics through outer membrane act in synergy with increased levels of antibiotic efflux (Fernández and Hancock, 2012).

### **2.6.1 Reduced permeability**

The OM of gram-negative bacteria is an asymmetric bilayer of phospholipids and glycolipids mainly lipopolysaccharides (LPS) embedded with nonspecific porins and specific uptake channels (Zgurskaya et al., 2015). By modifying its lipid or protein composition, OM provides the first line of protection to the organism, without compromising the exchange of materials required for their survival.

# **2.6.1.1 Lipid-mediated resistance**

LPS is composed of three components: (i) hydrophobic fatty acid chain bearing lipid A, a glucosamine disaccharide (ii) a heterogeneous core polysaccharide which is branched and consists of6-10 sugars and two 3-deoxy-D-manno-oct-2 ulosonic acid (Kdo) and (iii) highly variable O antigen with 1-40 repeating units. The core polysaccharide is covalently bound to the lipid A through an acidic sugar, Kdo. Many hydrophobic antibiotics gain access to the cell interior by diffusion through the lipid components of the outer membrane, but the core region of LPS acts as a barrier to hydrophobic antibiotics and other compounds and thereby provide intrinsic resistance (Delcour, 2009; Miller, 2016).

### **2.6.1.2 Porin-mediated resistance**

Porins are membrane proteins which form water-filled pores with various grades of selectivity. They consist of transmembrane antiparallel beta-strands with alternating hydrophobic and hydrophilic amino acids facing outwards and inwards respectively and connected by short periplasmic turns and longer surface-exposed extracellular loops. They also act as molecular filters for hydrophilic substances and mediate transport of nutrients and ions across the membrane into the periplasm (Fernández and Hancock, 2012; Galdiero et al., 2012). Mechanisms of porinmediated antibiotic resistance are achieved by three general processes : (i) shift of one or two major porins by another (ii) altered function due to specific mutations and (iii) change in porin expression levels, including loss or severe reduction. Resistance acquired through loss or functional changes of porins are reported in organisms like *Escherichia coli*, *P. aeruginosa*, *Neisseria gonorrhoeae*, *Enterobacter aerogenes, Enterobacter cloacae, K. pneumonia, Klebsiella oxytoca, Serratia marcescens*, *Salmonella enterica, Vibrio cholera* and *Acinetobacter baumannii*. Classical examples involving such resistance in major proteins produced by *E. coli* - OmpF, OmpC and PhoE, *P. aeruginosa* - OprD (protein D2) and *K. pneumonia* - OmpK35, OmpK36, have been included in Table 2.2 (Delcour, 2009; Fernández and Hancock, 2012; Munita and Arias, 2016).

<b>Bacteria</b>	Porin	<b>Antibiotics</b>	
P. aeruginosa	OprD	carbapenems	
E. coli	OmpC, OmpF,	beta-lactams	
	PhoE		
S. marcescens	OmpC, OmpF	beta-lactams	
K. pneumoniae	OmpK35	cephalosporins, carbapenems, fluoroquinolones	
		and chloramphenicol	
	OmpK36	carbapenems	
E. cloacae	OmpF	carbapenems	
E. aerogenes	OmpC, OmpF	carbapenems	
	Omp36	imipenem, cefepime, and cefpirome	
K.oxytoca	OmpK36	carbapenems	
N. gonorrhoeae	<b>PIB</b>	beta-lactams, tetracycline and fluoroquinolones	
S. enterica	OmpC	cephalosporins	
	OmpF	chloramphenicol and imipenem	
V. cholerae	OmpU	Cephalosporins	
A.baumannii	CarO	Carbapenems	

**Table 2.2 Porins related to antibiotic resistance in different bacterial species**

### **2.6.1.2.1** *P. aeruginosa***: OprD-mediated antibiotic resistance**

The *P. aeruginosa* porin-OprD is a 45-49 kDa substrate-specific outer membrane protein that facilitates the diffusion of basic amino acids, small peptides and carbapenems into the cell and also functions as a serine protease (Li et al., 2012). DNA and amino acid sequence identities of OprD range from 91 to 93% and 88 to 93% respectively among individual strains of *P. aeruginosa*. Despite the genetic variability of OprD among different strains, this aqueous porin shares close homology to the nonspecific *E. coli* porin OmpF (Pirnay et al., 2002; Lister et al., 2009). In 2007, X-ray crystal structure of OprD was determined by Biswas et al (Fig 2.3). The OprD crystallizes as a monomeric 18-stranded beta-barrel comprising 9 loops forming an outer membrane-spanning channel with a positively charged basic ladder on one side and an electronegative pocket on the other side. The presence of the two short beta-strands S5 and S6 in the OprD structure suggests that the latter may exist as a labile trimer in the outer membrane. The interior of the barrel consist of two long loops, L3 and L7, which fold inward to form a very narrow, roughly circular constriction with a diameter of  $\sim$ 5.5 A $\textdegree$  (Biswas et al., 2007). The external loops 2 and 3 serve as binding sites for specific substrates like basic amino acids and imipenem, and serve as a passage channel within OprD. Mutation or deletion within loops 2 and 3 result in conformational changes of OprD causing imipenem resistance. Deletion of loops 5, 7 and 8 lead to enhanced susceptibility to beta-lactams, quinolones other than fluoroquinolones, chloramphenicol and tetracycline, revealing that these three loops are involved in restricting the intracellular accumulation of certain antibiotics. Also, it was found that amino acid substitutions within loop 7 subsequently increased meropenem susceptibility (Huang and Hancock, 1996; Li et al., 2012).



*Fig. 2.3. Structure of P. aeruginosa OprD. Cartoons of OprD: a1, viewed from the side and a2, from extracellular environment. Colors denote : green - betastrands, gray - loops and turns, red – alpha helices, orange and blue - poreconstricting loops L3 and L7 respectively. E, extracellular space; OM, outer membrane; P, periplasmic space; dotted line represents the segment of loop L7 and b) Side view of the pore showing the basic ladder (Biswas et al., 2007).* 

It is imperative to note here that the structural domains of the porin protein of the reference *P. aeruginosa* strain PAO1, according to the different published reports harbor contradictions. The structural representation of the channel protein based on amino acid sequence alignments or crystallographic data do not appear fully congruent essentially with regard to the number and positions of the loops. For instance, whilst Epp et al. (2001) and Sanbongi et al. (2009) show the presence of 8 loops based on amino acid sequence alignments, Biswas et al (2007), however, report the presence of 9 loops based on crystallographic data. Kos et al (2016), also

show the  $9<sup>th</sup>$  loop, but the positions of almost all loops within the channel protein differ from the earlier versions mentioned.

Expression of OprD is linked to both carbon and nitrogen metabolism of *P. aeruginosa* and it is induced by arginine (mediated through regulatory protein ArgR), histidine, glutamate, or alanine (Ochs et al., 1999). OprD-mediated resistance pathway can involve mechanisms that decrease the transcriptional expression of *oprD* and/or mutations that disrupt the translational production of a functional porin. OprD transcription can interfere by characterized mechanisms including (i) disruptions of the *oprD* promoter as a result of deletions or insertions of IS elements within the upstream region of *oprD*. (ii) premature termination of transcription, (iii) negative regulation-mediated through the regulatory proteins CzcR and CopR in presence of zinc and copper, respectively, (iv) salicylatemediated repression, (v) negative regulation by MexT, a regulatory protein of MexEF-OprN efflux pump, and (vi) repression by two-component regulatory system playing critical roles in multidrug resistance named ParR-ParS (Fig. 2.4). Mechanisms of OprD deficiency at translation level include (i) frameshifts and premature stop codons due to mutations, insertions, and/or deletions, and (ii) disruption of the structural gene by insertion of large IS elements (Lister et al., 2009).



*Fig. 2.4. Regulation of OprD expression and factors affecting carbapenem penetration into bacteria (Li et al., 2012).* 

## **2.6.2 Active efflux**

Efflux systems are transport proteins which pump out toxic substrates including almost all classes of clinically relevant antibiotics from bacteria in an energy-dependent manner, without alteration or degradation of the drugs. Efflux pumps may be specific for one substrate or may transport a range of structurally unrelated compounds including antibiotics of multiple classes and can be associated with MDR (Webber and Piddock, 2003; Fernández and Hancock, 2012). Generally, antibiotic-specific efflux pumps are harboured on mobile elements, like transmissible plasmids and transposons, while MDR pumps are chromosomally encoded (Lomovskaya and Watkins, 2001). Multidrug transporters contribute significantly to bacterial intrinsic and acquired resistance. Although drug efflux systems are found in gram-negative and gram-positive bacteria, efflux-mediated resistance is more complex in gram-negative bacteria due to the molecular

architecture of the cell envelope. Efflux transporters may consist of single or multiple-component pumps. Efflux systems in gram-positive bacteria always comprise a single-component pump which transports their substrates across the cytoplasmic membrane. However, in gram-negative bacteria, many pumps have a tripartite organization to efflux substrates across the entire cell envelope (Moreira et al. 2004; Kumar and Schweizer, 2005). Bacterial efflux pumps are classified into various families based on their amino acid sequence homology, on the energy source that the pump uses, the number of components that the pump has (single or multiple), the number of transmembrane-spanning regions and the types of substrates that the pump exports (Fig 2.5). Families of transporter proteins include, (i) the adenosine triphosphate (ATP)-binding cassette (ABC) superfamily, (ii) the major facilitator superfamily (MFS), (iii) the small multidrug resistance (SMR) family, (iv) the multidrug and toxic compound extrusion (MATE) family and (v) the resistance-nodulation-cell division (RND) superfamily (Piddock, 2006a, b). Recently, a sixth MDR family was identified and designated as proteobacterial antimicrobial compound efflux (PACE).



*Fig. 2.5. Schematic illustration of efflux pump families (Mousa and Bruner, 2016).*

# **2.6.2.1 ABC transporters**

ABC efflux pumps are the members of primary active transporters found in both prokaryotes and eukaryotes. They utilize ATP hydrolysis for the export of a wide array of substrates. The ABC superfamily consists of two highly conserved nucleotide-binding domains (NBDs) which bind and hydrolyze ATP and two highly diverse transmembrane domains (TMDs) containing 6 transmembrane helices. Sav1866 from *S. aureus* which served as the model for the study of ABC-mediated multidrug efflux mechanism is a structural homologue of the human MDR Pglycoprotein. Other ABC transporters have been listed as LmrA and LmrCD from *Lactococcus lactis*, BmrA protein from *Bacillus subtilis*, SmdAB of *S. marcesens*, EfrAB pump from *Enterococcus faecalis*, PatAB from *Streptococcus pneumoniae*, and MsbA from *E. coli* (Lewis et al. 2012; Du et al., 2015; Spengler et al., 2017).

# **2.6.2.2 MFS transporters**

MFS is the largest known superfamily of secondary transporters which are widely distributed in both gram-positive and gram-negative bacteria. Efflux proteins transport structurally diverse compounds such as ions, sugars, amino acids, nucleic acids, intermediary metabolites, phosphate esters, oligosaccharides, antimicrobial agents (such as tetracycline, fluoroquinolone) and other small molecules across membranes via facilitated diffusion, symport, or antiport. The MFS transporters have 12 or 14 transmembrane-spanning segments (TMS) and most of their members are 400–600 amino acid residues in length. In gram-positive bacteria multidrug efflux members of the MFS include NorA, QacA, QacB, MdeA and SdrM of *S. aureus*, PmrA from *S. pneumoniae*, LmrP of *L. lactis*, whilst gram-negative bacteria can form tripartite efflux pump systems with an adaptor and an outer membrane protein, for example EmrAB-TolC of *E. coli* (Ranaweera et al., 2015; Spengler et al., 2017).

# **2.6.2.3 SMR and PACE transporters**

The SMR transporters are the smallest known pumps which belong to the drug/metabolite transporter (DMT) superfamily and are energized by the protonmotive force. These proteins are  $\sim$  110 amino acids in length and contain 4 TMS. Some of the examples for the characterized pumps of SMR family which export dyes, drugs and cations include the Smr pump of *S. aureus* and the EmrE pump of *E. coli* (Kumar and Schweizer, 2005; Li et al., 2015).

The PACE multidrug efflux system is the latest of the bacterial transporters to be described. This was identified in AceI (*Acinetobacter* chlorhexidine efflux) protein from *A. baumannii*, which shows resistance to the biocide chlorhexidine by active efflux mechanism. Also, many of the AceI homologs display resistance to chlorhexidine, benzalkonium, dequalinium, proflavine and acriflavine (Hassan et al., 2015; Mousa and Bruner, 2016).

### **2.6.2.4 MATE transporters**

The MATE family of transporters is 400-700 amino acids in length and consists of 12 alpha-helical TMS. Members of this family are capable of extruding compounds such as norfloxacin, chloramphenicol, ciprofloxacin, kanamycin, ampicillin, metformin, cimetidine, ethidium bromide, benzalkonium chloride, and acriflavine. They use a gradient of  $Na<sup>+</sup>$ ,  $H<sup>+</sup>$ , or both as the energy source. The NorM proteins described in *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* are well-studied representatives of MATE transporters which use a  $Na<sup>+</sup>$ -coupled gradient for extruding compounds. Other multi-drug transporters of the MATE family include PfMATE from *Pyrococcus furiosus*, DinF from *Bacillus halodurans*, MepA from *S. aureus*, YdhE from *E. coli*, HmrM from *H. influenzae*, PmpM from *P. aeruginosa*, CdeA from *Clostridium difficile* and AbeM from *A. baumannii* (Kumar et al., 2013; Li et al., 2015; Spengler et al., 2017).

#### **2.6.2.5 RND transporters**

RND family of efflux pumps are widely distributed among bacteria, archaea and eukaryotes. These are the most clinically significant transporters associated with both intrinsic and acquired antibiotic resistance in gram-negative bacteria (Blair and Piddock, 2009) [Table 2.3]. In gram-negative bacteria, RND efflux pump is essentially a tripartite system composed of a cytoplasmic membrane transporter, a membrane fusion protein (MFP) and an outer membrane protein (OMP) channel, that ensures transportation of antimicrobial agents to the extracellular environment by receiving energy from the proton-motive force (Poole, 2004; Symmons et al., 2009; Daury et al., 2016). RND transporter protein consists of 12 TMS, with two large periplasmic loops between TMS 1 and 2 and TMS 7 and 8. AcrAB–TolC of *E. coli* (Fig 2.6) and the MexAB-OprM of *P.aeruginosa* are the best-studied members of RND pumps (Putman et al., 2000; Kumar and Schweizer, 2005). Such structural studies have revealed that the RND pumps capture their substrates directly from the periplasm or from the outer leaflet of the cytoplasmic membrane (Nikaido and Pagès, 2012).



*Fig. 2.6. Structure of E. coli RND efflux pump-AcrAB-TolC system (Alvarez-Ortega et al., 2013).* 

These transporters promote the extrusion of a wide range of compounds such as disinfectants, dyes, detergents, organic solvents, structurally unrelated antimicrobial agents and also play a role in virulence including colonization, evasion of host defense mechanisms, and biofilm formation (Fernando and Kumar, 2013). RND transporter is almost always chromosomally encoded and multiple pumps may occur in the same organism which often exhibit complex patterns of regulation independent of antibiotic exposure. Expression of RND encoding genes may also be triggered by ribosome disruption, the presence of reactive oxygen species, bile salts, or other membrane damaging agents and stress conditions (Poole, 2008; Poole, 2012).

<b>Bacteria</b>	<b>Efflux</b> pump	
A. baumannii	AdeABC, AdeFGH, AdeIJK	
Aeromonas hydrophila	AheABC	
Burkholderia cenocepacia	CeoAB-OpcM	
Burkholderia pseudomallei	AmrAB-OprA, BpeAB-OprB, BpeEF-OprC	
Campylobacter jejuni	CmeABC	
E. aerogenes	AcrAB-TolC, EefABC	
E. cloacae	AcrAB-TolC	
E. coli	AcrAB-TolC, AcrAD-TolC, AcrEF-TolC,	
	MdtABC-TolC, YhiUV-TolC	
H. influenzae	AcrAB-TolC	
K. pneumoniae	AcrAB	
N. gonorrhoeae	<b>MtrCDE</b>	
P. aeruginosa	MexAB-OprM, MexCD-OprJ, MexEF-OprN, MexXY, MexPQ-OpmE, MexVW, MexMN, MexJK, TriABC-OpmB, MexGHI-OpmD, MuxABC-OpmB and CzcCBA.	
Proteus mirabilis	AcrAB-TolC	
S. marcescens	SdeAB, SdeCDE, SdeXY	
Stenotrophomonas maltophilia	SmeDEF, SmeABC, SmeIJK, SmeYZ	
Salmonella typhimurium	AcrAB, MdtABC, MsdABC/TolC	
V. cholerae	VexAB-TolC, VexEF-TolC	

**Table 2.3 Examples of RND efflux systems involved in antibiotic resistance**

(*Fernández and Hancock, 2012; Sun et al., 2014*)

# **2.6.2.5.1** *P. aeruginosa-***RND transporters**

A total of 12 RND efflux pumps (Table 2.4) have been recognized and identified in *P. aeruginosa* which include MexAB-OprM, MexCD-OprJ, MexEF-OprN, MexXY, MexPQ-OpmE, MexVW, MexMN, MexJK, TriABC-OpmB, MexGHI-OpmD, MuxABC-OpmB, and CzcCBA (Lister et al., 2009; Li et al., 2015). Among such pumps MexAB-OprM, MexCD-OprJ, MexEF-OprN, and

MexXY contribute most significantly to antibiotic resistance (Dreier and Ruggerone, 2015). MexAB-OprM and MexXY are constitutively expressed in wildtype strains at a basal level and account for innate resistance. However, MexCD-OprJ and MexEF-OprN efflux pumps are induced by their substrates (Zavascki et al., 2010).







\* *MexXY may utilize OpmB, OpmG, OpmH, and/or OmpI as OMFs.*

# **2.6.2.5.1.1 MexAB-OprM**

The MexAB-OprM pump was the first RND efflux system identified in *P. aeruginosa* (Poole et al., 1993). It displays wide substrate specificity, exports disinfectants, dyes, solvents, detergents, structurally unrelated antibiotics such as beta-lactams, beta-lactamase inhibitors, carbapenems except imipenem, fluoroquinolones, tetracyclines, chloramphenicol, macrolides, novobiocin, trimethoprim and sulfonamides (Li et al., 2015; Pourakbari et al., 2016). It also pumps out quorum-sensing mediators, acylhomoserine lactones (AHSLs), which induce the production of cell density-dependent virulence factors and quorum sensing inhibitors of nonnative *N*-acylated L-homoserine lactones (Minagawa et al., 2012; Moore et al., 2014).

Expression of the MexAB-OprM is governed mainly by regulatory loci such as *mexR*, *nalC* and *nalD* amongst several others (Fig. 2.7). The *mexR* gene, encoding a repressor protein of MarR family, is located upstream of the *mexAB-oprM* operon. An intergenic region with divergently oriented genes on either sides, *mexR* and *mexAB-oprM*, controls their transcription. MexR binds to this intergenic region as a stable homodimer and represses transcription from the *mexAB-oprM* operon. Mutations in *mexR* (*nalB* mutants), resulting in loss of dimerization and binding capacity of MexR protein, lead to hyperexpression of MexAB-OprM. MexR protein is also endowed with oxidation-sensing mechanism which regulates virulence and antibiotic resistance in *P. aeruginosa* (Chen et al., 2008; Lister et al., 2009; Choudhury et al., 2016). The *nalC* encodes a protein, NalC, of TetR family which acts as a repressor of a divergent two-gene operon comprising of *PA3720* and *PA3719* (renamed *armR*). ArmR acts as an anti-repressor by allosterically inhibiting the dimeric MexR repressor resulting in derepression of *mexAB-oprM* (Cao et al., 2004; Braz et al., 2016). Another member of the TetR family of transcriptional regulators, NalD, acts as a secondary repressor of the tripartite MexAB-OprM multidrug efflux system by binding to a sequence between *mexAB-oprM* and the *mexR* binding site proximal to the *mexA* promoter. Hence, impairment of NalD in *nalD*-type mutants, leads to MexAB-OprM overexpression (Morita et al., 2006; Chen et al., 2016).



# *Fig. 2.7. Schematic diagram of transcriptional regulatory mechanisms controlling MexAB-OprM (Li et al., 2015).*

It has been reported that MexAB-oprM expression reaches it maximum level at the onset of the stationary phase. At this phase, cell-to-cell quorum-sensing signal, *N*-3-oxo-dodecanoyl-L-homoserine lactone (3-oxo-C12-HSL) turns on and induces the expression of *mexAB-oprM* operon directly, independent of *mexR* gene. MexT, local activator of the MexEF-OprN system exerts a negative regulatory effect on MexAB-OprM expression through an uncharacterized mechanism in MexEF-OprN-overexpressed *nfxC* mutants (Maseda et al., 2004). RocA2, which is a

response regulator of pilus assembly machinery cluster *cupC* involved in adherence/ microcolony formation, exerts a negative regulatory effect on MexAB-OprM expression (Sivaneson et al., 2011). A biofilm-specific MerR-type regulator-BrlR, can activate MexAB-OprM expression by binding to promoter region of *mexAB-oprM* operon (Liao et al., 2013). By modulating expression of the MexR repressor, AmpR, a LysR-type regulator of AmpC beta-lactamase also can positively regulate MexAB-OprM efflux pump (Balasubramanian et al., 2012). Recently, Tian et al. (2016) reported that CpxR, a regulator of the cell envelope stress response in *E. coli* can directly involved in activation of MexAB-OprM in *P*. *aeruginosa*.

### **2.6.2.5.1.2 MexCD-OprJ**

MexCD–OprJ pump normally quiescent in wild-type strain of *P. aeruginosa* does not contribute to intrinsic antimicrobial resistance. It can extrude a variety of antimicrobial agents, including fluoroquinolones, beta-lactams – preferentially, fourth-generation cephalosporins (cefepime, cefpirome, and cefozopran), chloramphenicol, tetracycline, novobiocin, trimethoprim, macrolides and tigecycline. It also exports biocides (triclosan and chlorhexidine), organic solvents, dyes and detergents (Lister et al., 2009; Purssell and Poole, 2013).

The *mexCD*-*oprJ* operon is regulated by repressors such as the NfxB and EsrC (Fig.2.8). The *nfxB* gene encoding repressor protein NfxB is located upstream of *mexCD*-*oprJ* but transcribed divergently from the operon. NfxB shows similarity to proteins of the LacI-GalR family. It binds to a site composed of two 39 bp repeats within the *nfxB*-*mexC* intergenic region and negatively regulates *mexCD*-*oprJ* as well as its own expression. Mutations within *nfxB gene* negatively impact NfxB repressor activity leading to hyperexpression of *mexCD*-*oprJ,* and strains harbouring such defects are known as *nfxB*-type mutants (Lister et al., 2009; Purssell and Poole, 2013). EsrC, a second regulator of MexCD-OprJ, is encoded by a gene *PA4596* which is located downstream of *mexCD-oprJ* operon. EsrC represses the transcription of *mexCD-oprJ* only under 'envelope stress' (membrane-damaged) condition and is dependent on NfxB (Purssell et al., 2015). MexCD–OprJ is

inducible in response to non-antibiotic compounds like benzalkonium chloride, chlorhexidine gluconate, tetraphenylphosphonium chloride, ethidium bromide, rhodamine 6G, and acriflavine. Agents such as chlorhexidine disrupt cell membrane leading to production of membrane lipid derivatives which stimulate membraneassociated Muc proteins. This in turn activates stress response sigma factor AlgU resulting in hyper-expression of MexCD-OprJ. Overexpression of the latter protein complex in *nfxB* type mutants is also dependent on AlgU (Morita et al., 2003; Fraud et al., 2008).



*Fig. 2.8. Schematic diagram of transcriptional regulatory mechanisms controlling MexCD-OprJ (Li et al., 2015).*

# **2.6.2.5.1.3 MexEF-OprN**

MexEF-OprN is expressed at very low levels in wild-type and does not significantly contribute to intrinsic resistance against antibiotics. The *mexEF-oprN* operon is overexpressed in *nfxC*-type mutants of *P. aeruginosa* which confers resistance to fluoroquinolones, chloramphenicol, trimethoprim, and carbapenems (Köhler et al., 1997). This efflux pump is positively controlled by the transcriptional regulator MexT, a LysR family protein, encoded by *mexT* gene located upstream of the *mexEF-oprN* operon. MexT protein binds to the upstream nod box in *mexEFoprN* promoter region and causes the hyperexpression of MexEF-OprN (Fig. 2.9). A concurrent downregulation of the outermembrane protein-OprD was reported in *nfxC*-type mutants leading to decreased imipenem susceptibility (Köhler et al., 1999). The *nfxC*-type mutants also show hypersusceptibility to various beta-lactams and aminoglycosides because of the reduced expression of *mexAB-oprM* (Maseda et

al., 2004). Interestingly, three types of *mexT* variations have been reported in wildtype strains and *nfxC* mutants, which possess inactive and active forms of MexT, respectively. Type I variation shows an additional mutation in *mexT* of *nfxC*-type mutant derived from wild type parent leads to the production of active MexT. In type II variation *mexT* gene in the *nfxC*-type mutants from wild type parent had a deletion of the 8-bp insert producing active form of MexT. In the case of type III variation, both the wild type strain and its *nfxC*-type derivative produced identical and active MexT (Maseda et al., 2000). The *nfxC* mutants with type III variations possess an additional mutation in *mexS* gene, located immediately upstream of *mexT* which encodes a putative oxidoreductase/dehydrogenase homologue. Inactivation of MexS protein eventually leads to intracellular accumulation of toxic metabolites that serve as effector molecules for MexT, which in turn upregulates *mexEF-oprN* expression to export the noxious intermediates (Sobel et al., 2005).



*Fig. 2.9. Schematic diagram of transcriptional regulatory mechanisms controlling MexEF-OprN (Li et al., 2015).*

Expression of *mexEF*-*oprN* is also controlled by histone-like nucleoid structuring family protein, MvaT, which acts as a global regulator affecting the expression of hundreds of genes including *mexEF-oprN,* biofilm formation, housekeeping, quorum sensing, and virulence. MvaT binds preferentially to ATrich regions of DNA with a high affinity and silences the expression of certain genes. Inactivation or mutation of *mvaT* leads to MexEF-OprN hyperexpression independent of *mexT* or *mexS* and a reduction of OprD protein level (Westfall et al., 2006; Castang et al., 2008). Mutations in the ParSR system downregulate the expression of both *mexS* and *mexEF-oprN* while genetic inactivation of AmpR leads to overexpression of MexEF-OprN with an MDR phenotype. BrlR regulator also plays a role in MexEF-OprN hypper-expression (Lister et al., 2009; Li et al., 2015).

### **2.6.2.5.1.4 MexXY**

Unlike other operons encoding the MexAB–OprM, MexCD–OprJ and MexEF–OprN systems, *mexXY* operon lacks the gene encoding outermembrane protein. Instead, the MexXY system primarily utilizes OprM as its outer membrane component and possibly other outer membrane proteins, such as OpmB, OpmG, OpmH, and OpmI to form a functional tripartite (Lister et al., 2009). In MDR clinical isolate designate PA7 and its relatives, the *mexXY* operon contains gene encoding an OprM-like protein known as OprA, which is absent in other *P. aeruginosa* strains. OprA protein displays a higher level of sequence similarity with OM channels of *Burkholderia* efflux pumps than with those of *P. aeruginosa* (Roy et al., 2010; Morita et al., 2012a)*.* The MexXY-OprM multidrug efflux system is considered as a significant determinant of aminoglycoside resistance in clinical strains of *P. aeruginosa*, particularly those isolated from the patients with cystic fibrosis. MexXY-OprM contributes to resistance towards a wide range of antibiotics such as cephalosporins (cefepime, cefpirome), macrolides (erythromycin), fluoroquinolones (ciprofloxacin), tetracyclines and tigecycline in addition to aminoglycosides (Morita et al., 2012b). Its contribution to intrinsic resistance is restricted to those antimicrobial agents like tetracycline, erythromycin, and gentamicin which are able to induce *mexXY* expression (Masuda et al., 2000).

Expression of the *mexXY operon* is negatively regulated by the *mexZ* gene product, located upstream of the operon and transcribed divergently (Fig. 2.10). Yet another member of TetR family of proteins, MexZ contains a DNA-binding helix– turn–helix motif at its N-terminal. Three types of MexXY-overproducing mutants have been described and they are classified as *agrZ, agrW1* and *agrW2*. The *agrZ* mutants harbour mutations inactivating *mexZ* gene including those caused by single amino acid substitutions in the DNA-binding, dimerization or other structural domains of the encoded repressor.In *agrW1* mutants, impaired protein synthesis occurs due to a variety of defects in ribosomal proteins such as L1, L25, L21 and L27, or components of the Fmt bypass (methionyltRNA fMet formyltransferase) FolD). It was reported that the induction of *mexXY by* protein synthesis inhibitors is dependent on ArmZ. The *armZ* (*PA5471*) transcription is also induced by the same ribosome inhibitors which induce *mexXY*. Induction of ArmZ indirectly or directly alters MexZ activity which results in *mexXY* upregulation. Activation of MexXY expression also occurs through AmgRS system regulating pathway where th *mexXY*  expression occurs via its positive effect on the expression of the *htpX* (encoding an IM-associated protease) and PA5528 genes (encoding a modulator of FtsH protease). The *agrW2* mutants hyperexpress MexXY, with alterations in the sensor ParS or the response regulator, ParR - a two-component ParRS system - known to play critical roles in multidrug resistance. The ParRS system downregulates *oprD*  with a concomitant upregulation of *mexXY* and the LPS modification operon, *arnBCADTEF-ugd*, which leads to active drug efflux and reduced OM permeability (Lister et al. 2009; Morita et al. 2012b; Li et al. 2015).



*Fig. 2.10. Schematic diagram of transcriptional regulatory mechanisms controlling MexXY-(OprA) (Li et al., 2015).*

# **2.7 Factors contributing to spread of antibiotic resistance**

Antimicrobial selection pressure and spread of resistant organisms are the main leading factors for the emergence of resistance. Poor infection control, inadequate sanitary conditions, inappropriate food-handling, travel, indiscriminate use of antibiotics in medical-veterinary practice, communities, agriculture and aquaculture has encouraged the spread of antimicrobial resistance (Sharma, 2011; von Wintersdorff et al., 2016) [Fig. 2.11]. Activities such as indiscriminate antimicrobial use by physicians and the community, use of broad-spectrum antimicrobials, unskilled clinical practitioners, direct availability of medicines to patients without prescription, self medication, lack of frequent monitoring of antibiotic therapy, lack of awareness of the problem of antibiotic resistance in the general public, ultimately cause improper antibiotic dosage. These factors lead to exposure of antibiotics in sub-inhibitory or prolonged concentration resulting in the persistence of enough selective pressure for the development of antibiotic resistance by genetic alterations, such as changes in gene expression, horizontal gene transfer, and mutagenesis (Laxminarayan and Brown, 2001; Ventola, 2015).

Antibiotics used in agriculture have several different applications which can promote selection of resistant bacteria. These possibly affect humans by their release in the environment. Animals receive antibiotics in their food, water, or parenterally for the treatment of infectious diseases or non-therapeutic purposes such as growth promotion and prophylaxis, which may be responsible for carrying antibiotic resistant strains. Food chain as well as direct or indirect contact can be the route of transmission of antibiotic-resistant bacteria between animal and human populations (Paphitou, 2013; Zaman et al., 2017). The majority of consumed antibiotics are introduced into the environment through wastewater treatment plant effluents, hospital and processing plant effluents, application of agricultural waste and biosolids to fields, leakage from waste-storage containers and landfills, pharmaceutical waste and industrial effluent. Due to such antibiotic pollution, antibiotic resistance genes and mobile genetic elements can be co-released into the environment with sub-inhibitory concentrations of antibiotic compounds which can provide stable selection pressure and favourable conditions for horizontal gene exchange and spread of resistance (Tello et al., 2012; Choudhury et al., 2012; von Wintersdorff et al., 2016).



*Fig. 2.11. Dissemination of antibiotics and antibiotic resistance (Davies and Davies, 2010).*

# **2.8 Current global scenario of antimicrobial resistance**

Antimicrobial resistance is an increasingly serious threat to global public health and therapy for common infectious diseases, leading to prolonged illness, disability, and death. WHO's first release of surveillance data on antibiotic resistance reveals that high levels of resistance towards a number of serious bacterial infections are present in both high and low-income countries. Notably, WHO's Global Antimicrobial Surveillance System (GLASS) has recently revealed the

widespread occurrence of antibiotic resistance among five lakh people with suspected bacterial infections across 22 countries (WHO, 2018a). Further, WHO has categorized 12 families of bacteria which pose a serious health threat to man as antibiotic-resistant "priority pathogens", as critical, high and medium priority according to the urgency of need for new antibiotics. The most critical group includes carbapenem-resistant *A. baumannii*, carbapenem-resistant *P. aeruginosa*, carbapenem-resistant, ESBL-producing *Enterobacteriaceae*, which pose health threat in hospitals, nursing homes, and among patients whose care requires devices such as ventilators and blood catheters. This critical group of bacteria can cause severe and often deadly infections such as bloodstream infections and pneumonia. High priority group comprise vancomycin-resistant *Enterococcus faecium*, methicillin-resistant/ vancomycin intermediate and resistant *S. aureus,*  clarithromycin-resistant *H. pylori*, fluoroquinolone-resistant *Campylobacter* spp., fluoroquinolone-resistant *Salmonellae*, 3<sup>rd</sup> generation cephalosporin and fluoroquinolone-resistant *N. gonorrhoeae.* Third category of medium priority pathogens consist of penicillin-non-susceptible *S. pneumonia*, ampicillin-resistant *H. influenza* and fluoroquinolone-resistant *Shigella* spp (WHO, 2017a).

The *global rise* of carbapenem-resistant gram-negative bacteria over the past decade is *alarming* and is associated with high morbidity and mortality. Reports show that in United States, the overall disease burden and impact on survival was greatest among *A. baumannii* and *P. aeruginosa* followed by *K. pneumoniae* and *E. coli* (Cai et al., 2017). Studies from South Korea have reported that 32 -56% of patients hospitalized were infected with carbapenem resistant *Acinetobacter* spp*.*  Among *P. aeruginosa* isolates, carbapenem resistance rates in most countries range from 10 to 50% (Gniadek et al., 2016). In 2015, the population-weighted mean percentage of carbapenem resistant isolates from Europe was 17.8% for *P. aeruginosa*, 8.1% for *K. pneumoniae* and 0.1% for *E. coli.* During the period 2012-2015, an increasing trend of carbapenem-resistance was observed in *K. pneumoniae* particularly in Croatia, Portugal, Romania and Spain (WHO, 2017b). In 2013, 17 out of 22 European countries reported 85-100 % prevalence of ESBL- producing *E. coli.* During the period of 2009-2010, 28% of the *E. coli* from 11 Asian countries was reported to be ESBL producers (Chaudhary, 2016).

Globally, *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* is already considered as an established priority pathogen for which innovative new treatments are urgently needed. In 2016, as much as 45% of new tuberculosis (TB) cases reported were in Asia followed by 25% of them reported from Africa. Seven countries, namely, India, Indonesia, China, Philippines, Pakistan, Nigeria, and South Africa, account for 64% of the new TB cases. MDR-TB remains a public health crisis and there were six lakh new cases with resistance to the most effective first-line drug, rifampicin, with about 4.9 lakh cases of MDR type (WHO, 2018b). Among grampositive bacteria, MRSA especially is considered as a widely recognized pathogen causing worldwide hospital and community acquired infections. More than 50% of MRSA hospital cases were reported from Asia, Malta, North and South America (Sit et al., 2017). The proportion of MRSA has declined in US, Europe, Canada and South Africa over the past few years. But in sub-Saharan Africa, Australia, Latin America and India, increased MRSA prevalence has been observed (Gelband et al., 2015). Emergence of vancomycin-intermediate *S.aureus* (VISA) and vancomycin resistant *S.aureus* (VRSA) has also been reported from various countries following introduction of vancomycin for MRSA treatment (Molton et al., 2013). Notably, vancomycin resistance in *E. faecium* showed a significantly increasing trend from 2011 to 2014, which remains a major infection control challenge. In case of *S. pneumoniae* percentages of resistance remained stable during the period 2011-2014, and it remained less susceptible to macrolides than penicillin (Chaudhary, 2016).

# **2.9 Current national scenario of antimicrobial resistance**

Emergence of antimicrobial resistance is a major public health concern in India. Disease burden in India was among the highest in the world in 2010 with nearly 3.6 million episodes of severe pneumonia and 0.35 million pneumonia deaths reported in children less than 5 years of age (Farooqui et al., 2015). The Center for Disease Dynamics, Economics and Policy (CDDEP) report showed that occurrence of MRSA increased from 29% to 47% during the period of 2008-2014. According to Indian Network for Surveillance of Antimicrobial Resistance (INSAR) reports, based on data from 15 tertiary care centres, there is incidence of 41% MRSA and a high rate of resistance towards ciprofloxacin, gentamicin, cotrimoxazole, erythromycin, and clindamycin. Another study reported occurrence of community acquired MRSA in 10% and reduced susceptibility to vancomycin in about 12% of *E. fecalis* isolates (WHO-Govt. of India Ministry of Health and Family Welfare Report, 2016; NAP-AMR, 2017). India continues to carry the largest estimated burden of TB including MDR-TB with nearly 1.3 lakh patients detected annually in the country including 79000 pulmonary MDR-TB patients. India accounts for the second highest number of estimated HIV-associated TB in the world. Around 1.1 lakh HIV-associated TB occurred in 2015 culminating in 37,000 deaths (TB India, 2017).

ESBL-producing *Enterobacteriaceae* have emerged as a challenge in India among both hospitalized patients and in the community. The 61% of ESBLproducing *E. coli,* 31–51% carbapenem-resistant *Klebsiella* species, 65% ceftazidime resistant *Pseudomonas* species and 42% imipenem-resistant *Pseudomonas* species were reported in the multicentric study conducted from seven tertiary care hospitals in Indian cities (NAP-AMR, 2017). Resistance to the broadspectrum antibiotics such as fluoroquinolones and  $3<sup>rd</sup>$  generation cephalosporins was observed in more than 70% bacteria including *A. baumannii*, *E. coli*, and *K. pneumoniae*, and above 50% in *P. aeruginosa* strains. Carbapenem resistance was reported in ~70% of A*. baumannii*, 57% of *K. pneumonia*, above 40% in *P. aeruginosa*, and more than 10% in *E. coli* (CDDEP. 2017). In India, plasmidencoding carbapenem-resistant MBL (Singh, 2011; Nithya et al., 2017) earlier known as New Delhi metallo-beta-lactamase-1 (NDM-1) has been reported as the predominant gene encoding for carbapenem resistance in *Enterobacteriaceae* (Logan and Weinstein, 2017). Increasing use of colistin for treatment of carbapenem-resistant gram-negative bacterial infections has resulted in the emergence of colistin resistance which poses additional challenges for treatment and health management (Manohar et al., 2017).

# **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

### **3.1 Bacterial isolates**

MDR gram-negative bacterial isolates were collected from various clinical laboratories in Kerala during the period 2012 - 2016. Isolates were received after primary identification in pure line form as stab cultures. On reaching the laboratory, the isolates were then streaked on Luria Bertani (LB) and McConkey agar plates and their identities were reconfirmed by gram staining, motility testing and biochemical reactions essentially as described by Baron et al., 1994. Except *P.aeruginosa*, all other isolates were stored as glycerol stock cultures kept at -20ºC. *P.aeruginosa* isolates were maintained as stab cultures at 4ºC since they showed impaired revival capacity from glycerol stocks for reasons which continue to remain unclear. Microbial Type Culture Collection (MTCC) strains obtained from IMTECH (Chandigarh), India, used in this study included *P. aeruginosa* - PAO, *P. aeruginosa* -2453 and *E.coli* - 41.

# **3.2 Gram staining**

Heat fixed smears of individual bacterial suspensions were prepared on clean glass slides. These slides were then flooded with primary stain, crystal violet solution and allowed to stain for a minute. The crystal violet was gently rinsed out with tap water and the smear was then flooded with the mordant, gram's iodine solution and incubated for a minute. The mordant was rinsed off with tap water and the smear was decolorized with alcohol or acetone until the blue colour disappeared completely. The slide was then rinsed with water and flooded with the counter stain, safranin for 30 s followed by a rinse with tap water. The air-dried preparation was then observed under oil immersion objective of microscope.

### **3.3 Biochemical reactions**

**3.3.1 Indole test:** This test is used to determine the ability of an organism to produce tryptophanase enzyme. For this, tryptophan containing media was

inoculated with bacterial culture and incubated for 24 h. To this, 0.5ml of Kovac's reagent was added and gently shaken. A pink to wine colored ring at the interface between the broth and reagent indicated tryptophan degradation.

**3.3.2 Methyl red (MR) test:** Ability of an organism to produce and maintain stable acid end products from glucose fermentation was determined by MR test. To 5.0 ml of bacterial suspension, 5 drops of MR reagent was added. A bright red colour was indicative of acids produced by mixed acid fermentation of glucose.

**3.3.3 Voges-proskauer (VP) test:** This test detects the ability of bacteria to convert the acid products to acetoin and 2,3-butanediol. To 2.0 ml of bacterial suspension, 12 drops of VP reagent-A was added followed by 4 drops of VP reagent-B. The mixture was then shaken and incubated at room temperature for 30 min. A red colour indicated acetoin production.

**3.3.4 Citrate utilization test:** This test determines the ability of bacteria to utilize sodium citrate and inorganic ammonium salts as the sole sources of carbon and nitrogen respectively. Bacterial suspensions were inoculated onto the slant agar containing Simmon's citrate medium and incubated at 37ºC for 24 h. Bacterial growth followed by a change in colour from green to blue indicated the presence of alkaline end products of citrate utilization.

**3.3.5 Mannitol motility test:** Bacterial stab cultures were prepared in semi-solid, mannitol motility media and incubated at 37ºC for 24 h. The presence of motile bacteria was observed as diffused growth throughout the medium in comparison to growth only along the line of inoculation in the case of non-motile bacteria. A change in the colour of the medium from red to yellow indicated mannitol fermentation.

**3.3.6 Oxidase test:** This test determines the presence of cytochrome oxidase activity in bacteria. Using wooden or platinum wire loop, a bacterial colony was taken and smeared on a filter paper soaked with the substrate - tetramethyl-pphenylenediamine dihydrocholride. A colour change of the inoculated area to deep blue or purple within 10 s due to the production of indophenol indicated a positive result.

### **3.4 Antimicrobial susceptibility testing**

Antibiotic sensitivity test was done by standard disc diffusion method (Kirby-Bauer Method) on Mueller–Hinton agar (MHA) plates. For the test, 3-5 isolated colonies were selected from an agar plate culture, inoculated into LB broth and incubated at 37ºC. The density of bacterial suspension was compared and adjusted to 0.5 McFarland standard (1.5 x  $10^8$  CFU/ml). A sterile cotton swab was soaked in the bacterial culture and swabbed on MHA plates to generate a bacterial lawn. Pre-determined batteries of antimicrobial discs (purchased from Himedia, Mumbai, India) were placed over the lawn culture and incubated for 24 h at 37ºC. The zone diameters were recorded and interpreted as sensitive, intermediate and resistant as per the Kirby-Bauer chart (CLSI, 2012).

# **3.5 Phenotypic detection of efflux pump - mediated drug resistance**

**3.5.1 Ethidium bromide (EtBr)-agar cartwheel method (screening method):**  Bacterial isolates were grown in 5.0 ml of LB medium at 37ºC with agitation (220 rpm) until they reached an optical density (OD) of 0.6 at 600 nm. Tryptic soy agar (HiMedia, Mumbai, India) plates containing EtBr concentrations ranging from 0 to 2.5 mg/l were prepared on the same day of the experiment and protected from light. The plates were divided into sectors by radial lines. Cultures were then swabbed onto EtBr agar plates starting from the center of the plate towards the edges and incubated at 37º C for 16 h in dark. The cultures were placed on an UVtransilluminator and photographed using a gel documentation system (AlphaImager 2200, USA). The minimum concentration of EtBr that produced fluorescence of the bacterial mass was recorded, taking corresponding MTCC strains as negative controls (Martins et al., 2010).

**3.5.2 Efflux pump inhibitor (EPI)-based microplate assay (confirmatory method):** MDR isolates were grown in LB medium until they reached an OD of 0.6 at 545 nm. One ml each of Mueller-Hinton broth was added into 24-well microtiter plate which also included control wells. Antibiotic discs to be tested were distributed into the wells of the plate and incubated for 1 h at 37ºC. Following the incubation, the efflux pump inhibitor, phenylalanine-arginine beta-naphthylamide (PAN) [Sigma Aldrich Chemicals. Pvt. Ltd.] was dispensed at a concentration of 20 mg/l to the corresponding wells of the microplate. Bacterial suspension (0.1 ml) was inoculated into all the wells and the plates were incubated at 37ºC for 16-18 h. The determination of the effect of PAN was made by comparing the growth of bacterium in the well containing a given antibiotic disc with that of the corresponding well containing the antibiotic disc plus PAN. The contents of the wells with no growth or poorer growth along with the controls were then plated on MHA plates to determine the number of colony forming units (CFU) [Martins et al., 2010].

# **3.6 Detection of ESBL, MBL and AmpC beta-lactamase production**

 AmpC-producing phenotypes were detected by AmpC disc test as described by Black et al., 2005. A lawn of *E. coli* MTCC- 41 was made on MHA plate and a cefoxitin (30μg) disc was placed. A sterile disc was rehydrated with 20 μl of sterile saline and inoculated with several colonies of the test organism and placed adjacent to cefoxitin disc. Flattening or indentation of the cefoxitin zone of inhibition in the vicinity of the test organism disc was taken as positive and the undistorted zone was considered as negative.

ESBL status was phenotypically established by combined disc diffusion method using ceftazidime (30μg) disc alone and in combination with clavulanic acid (CAC, 30/10μg discs). The test organism was considered to produce ESBL if the zone of inhibition of CAC disc was  $\geq$  5 mm in comparison to that produced by ceftazidime disc alone (Easwaran et al., 2016).

Phenotypic MBL production was detected by imipenem-EDTA (IPM-EDTA) combined disc method as described by Yong et al., 2002*.* Two 10 μg imipenem (IPM) discs were placed on the plate inoculated with the test organism and 10 μl of 0.5 M EDTA solution was added to one of them to obtain a concentration of 750 μg. A zone of inhibition  $\geq$  7 mm around imipenem with

EDTA disc, when compared to that of imipenem disc alone, indicated MBL production.

#### **3.7 Isolation of genomic DNA**

Genomic DNA was isolated from individual bacterial cultures essentially as described by Ausubel et al., 1995. Briefly, 1.5 ml of each bacterial culture at the mid to late-log phase was spun in a microcentrifuge until a compact pellet was formed. The supernatant was discarded and pellet was resuspended in 567μl TE buffer. To this, 30μl of 10% SDS and 3μl of 20mg/ml proteinase K was added, mixed and incubated at 37ºC for 1 h following which 100μl of 5 molar NaCl was added to the solution and mixed thoroughly. Following the addition of 80μl of CTAB/NaCl solution, the mixture was shaken and incubated for 10 min at 65ºC. Equal volume of CIA was added to the solution, mixed and microcentrifuged for 4-5 min. The supernatant was then transferred to a fresh tube and extracted once with phenol-CIA. To the supernatant, 0.6 volume of isopropanol was added and inverted gently to precipitate out the DNA. The DNA pellet was washed with 70% ethanol and the semi-dried pellet was redissolved in 100 µl of TE buffer.

### **3.8 Isolation of total RNA and synthesis of complementary DNA (cDNA)**

Bacterial cultures were grown to mid-exponential phase  $(OD_{600} = 1.5-2.0)$  in LB medium and spun briefly to pellet the cells. The pellet was then homogenized thoroughly in 1 ml of TRI reagent® (Sigma Aldrich Chemicals. Pvt. Ltd) and allowed to stand for 5 min at room temperature. To the homogenate 0.2 ml of chloroform was added, mixed vigorously for 15 s and incubated at room temperature for 15 min. The solution was then centrifuged at 12000*g* for 5 min at 4ºC. The supernatant was transferred to fresh tube and RNA was precipitated by mixing with 0.5 ml isopropanol. Following a 5-10 min incubation at room temperature the RNA pellet was recovered by centrifugation at 12000*g* for 10 min at 4ºC. The pellet was then washed with 75% ethanol and the semi-dried pellet was dissolved in sterile double distilled water for subsequent analysis. The residual DNA was removed by adding DNase I (Promega, Madison) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

For cDNA synthesis, a 5  $\mu$ l reaction containing 0.5  $\mu$ l of a random hexamer (100 ng/  $\mu$ l) and 1  $\mu$ l of 0.5  $\mu$ g/  $\mu$ l RNA was incubated at 65°C for 10 min and placed on ice. To this, added 1 µl of 10mM dNTP mix, 2 µl of 10x M-MLV reverse transcriptase buffer, 1 µl of M-MLV reverse transcriptase, 0.5 µl of RNasin, 0.5 µl DTT (20 mM) and made upto 10 µl with sterile nuclease-free water. The reaction mixture was incubated at 37ºC for 1 h and then heated to 95ºC for 10 min. The reaction was stored at -20ºC until use.

## **3.9 Spectrophotometric quantification of DNA and RNA**

The concentration of DNA/RNA was quantified spectrophotometrically by taking absorbance at 260 nm (an OD value of 1 at 260 nm was taken as equal to 50 μg double stranded DNA or 38 μg single stranded RNA). The purity of nucleic acid was determined by taking the ratio of 260/280 nm absorbance.

#### **3.10 Agarose gel electrophoresis**

Agarose gel electrophoresis was carried out in 0.5x TBE as the electrode buffer. Agarose was melted in 1x TBE to cast gels at concentrations ranging from 0.8 to 1.5% (*w/v*). DNA samples were mixed with 6x gel-loading dye and loaded into the wells along with appropriate molecular weight DNA size markers. Electrophoresis was carried out at 100 volt. For visualization the gel was stained with ethidium bromide at a final concentration of 0.25 μg/ml followed by and transferred to the UV- transilluminator for photography (Sambrook et al., 1989).

#### **3.11 Random Amplified Polymorphic DNA (RAPD)**

Initial screening of DNA samples was carried out with a set of 25 different decameric oligonucleotide primers - RBa-D (Bangalore Genei, Pvt. Ltd.) to check the reproducibility of the fingerprints. Of them, RBa-D5 primer with the sequence 5'AGGGGCGGCA3' (GenBank accession. no. AM911680) produced different fingerprints for each isolate of *P. aeruginosa* which were consistently reproducible. RAPD reactions were performed according to manufacturer's instructions. Conditions for amplification were as follows: Initial denaturation at 94ºC for 5 min, followed by 8 cycles of 94°C for 45 s,  $35$ °C for 1 min, and  $72$ °C for 1.5 min, 30 cycles of 94ºC for 45 s, 38ºC for 1 min, and 72ºC for 1 min and a final extension step at 72ºC for 10 min. Images of DNA banding patterns obtained after agarose gel electrophoresis were analyzed using the PyElph software (Pavel and Vasile, 2012) to prepare dendrograms using unweighed pair-group method arithmetic mean (UPGMA) method.

# **3.12 Quantification of gene expressions related to efflux pumps and porin in** *P. aeruginosa*

The cDNAs were subjected to semiquantitative/quantitative reverse transcription (RT)-PCR using primers (Eurofins Genomics India Pvt. Ltd., Bangalore) described previously (Table 3.1) under the thermal cycling conditions accomplished after 5 min activation and denaturation step at 95ºC, followed by 40 cycles of 10 s at 98ºC, 30 s at 60ºC and 45 s at 72ºC for specific genes such as *rpsL*, *mexB* , *mexY*, *mexD*, *mexF* and *oprD*.

**3.12.1 Semi-quantitative RT-PCR:** The RT-PCR reactions were performed using a minicycler (MJ Research, USA) in a reaction volume of 25 μl containing 12.5μl of 2x Emerald GT master mix (TaKaRa Inc., Japan), 0.25 μM of each primer and 0.5 μl of cDNA. Amplification products were analysed on 1% (*w/v*) agarose gels to detect the presence of the expected amplicons and compare the band intensities with those from the reference strain *P. aeruginosa* MTCC- PAO.

**3.12.2 Quantitative RT-PCR:** The transcript levels of individual mRNA types were determined using SYBR Green PCR Master Mix (TaKaRa Inc., Japan) in an Illumina  $Eco<sup>TM</sup>$  Real-Time PCR system. The relative gene expressions were evaluated using the CT method (Pfaffl, 2001) taking the constitutively expressed *rpsL* gene transcript, encoding ribosomal protein RpsL as representative of housekeeping function. *P. aeruginosa* MTCC-PAO was used as a reference for normalization of relative mRNA levels. The assays were performed in triplicate along with appropriate controls such as reactions containing RNA without reverse transcriptase.

<b>Genes</b>	<b>Primers</b>	Primer sequences $(5' – 3')$	Reference	
rpsL	F <b>GCAAGCGCATGGTCGACAAGA</b>		(Dumas et al., 2006)	
	$\mathbf{R}$	CGCTGTGCTCTTGCAGGTTGTGA		
mexB	F <b>GTGTTCGGCTCGCAGTACTC</b>			
	R	AACCGTCGGGATTGACCTTG	(Yoneda et al., 2005)	
mexY	F	<b>CCGCTACAACGGCTATCCCT</b>	(Yoneda et al., 2005)	
	R	AGCGGGATCGACCAGCTTTC		
mexD	F	CGAGCGCTATTCGCTGC		
	R	GGCAGTTGCACGTCGA	(Xavier et al., 2010)	
mexF	F	CGCCTGGTCACCGAGGAAGAGT	(Xavier et al., $2010$ )	
	R	TAGTCCATGGCTTGCGGGAAGC		
oprD	F <b>TCCGCAGGTAGCACTCAGTTC</b> R AAGCCGGATTCATAGGTGGTG			
			(Savli et al., 2003)	

**Table 3.1. Details of gene-specific RT- PCR primers**

# **3.13 Amplification of genomic DNA for sequencing of efflux pumps and porin related genes in** *P. aeruginosa*

The PCR reactions were performed essentially as already described in section 3.12.1 but with 100 ng of genomic DNA as template. The regulatory genes associated with different RND pumps taken up for amplification were *mexR, nalC* and *nalD* for MexAB-OprM; *mexZ* for MexXY; *nfxB* for MexCD-OprJ; *mexT* for MexEF-OprN. Additionally, the *oprD* gene encoding porin channel protein was also amplified. Primers used for DNA amplifications and sequencing (Eurofins Genomics India Pvt. Ltd., Bangalore) are listed in Table 3.2 and thermal cycling conditions are given in Table 3.3. PCR products were cloned using CloneJET PCR cloning kit in accordance with the manufacturer's instructions and then transformed into *E.coli* DH5α strain. Recombinant plasmids were isolated using alkaline lysis method and sequenced at commercial facilities (Eurofins Genomics India Pvt. Ltd., Bangalore; SciGenom Labs Pvt. Ltd., Kochi). The amplicon sequences were analyzed with BLAST tool of NCBI (www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov) by comparison with sequences of the reference strain, *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 retrieved from the GenBank database. The translation of the nucleic acid sequences into amino acids was performed using ExPasy Bioinformatics Resource Portal (http://web. expasy.org/translate) and ORF Finder (www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/orffinder/). The resulting protein sequences were aligned and analysed using Clustal Omega (www.ebi.ac.uk/Tools/msa/clustalo/).

# **3.13.1 Preparation of** *E.coli* **DH5α competent cells and their transformation**

A single *E.coli* DH5α bacterial colony was inoculated into 5.0 ml of LB medium and grown in an incubator shaker at 37ºC overnight. A subculture of the *E.coli* DH5 $\alpha$  (1/100<sup>th</sup> volume) in 50 ml of growth medium was grown for 3 h at 37°C with vigorous shaking. Competent cells were then prepared using 100 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub> solution and aliquoted at 100 µl per eppendorf tube (Sambrook and Russell, 2001). For transformation 2.0 µl each of the ligated plasmids, carrying the genespecific amplicons as inserts, was added to 100 µl of the competent cells and kept on ice for 30 min. Then a heat shock at 42ºC was given for exactly 90s followed by a quick chill for 2.0 min. To this 900 µl of prewarmed (37ºC) LB medium was added and incubated at 37ºC for a period of 45 min - 1 h.

### **3.13.2 Isolation of recombinant plasmid DNA by alkaline lysis method**

1.5 ml of each of the transformed clones taken in microfuge tubes were pelleted after 10 min centrifugation. The pellets were then resuspended in 0.5 ml of STE (Sodium Chloride Tris EDTA) and centrifuged for 10 min and supernatant was removed. The pellet was kept on ice, to which 100 µl of ice-cold Solution I (GTE-Glucose Tris EDTA) was added and mixed thoroughly. Then 200 µl of freshly prepared solution II (0.2 N sodium hydroxide in 1.0% *v/v* SDS) was added, mixed gently and incubated the tube on ice for 10-15 min. After incubation, 150 µl of solution III (5 M Potassium acetate in glacial acetic acid) was added, mixed and kept on ice for 5 min. The tube was then centrifuged at 10000*g* and the supernatant was carefully transferred to new tubes. Equal volume of phenol-CIA was added to the supernatant, mixed and centrifuged at 10000*g* for 5 min at 4ºC. This step was repeated till the aqueous phase became clear. To the supernatant, equal volume of CIA was added, mixed and recentrifuged at 10000*g* for 5 min at 4ºC. The plasmid DNA was then precipitated by the addition of two volumes of ice-cold distilled

ethanol. Following a 70% ethanol wash the semi-dried pellet was dissolved in TE buffer ( pH 8.0) and stored at -20ºC (Sambrook and Russell, 2001).



<b>Genes</b>	<b>Primers</b>	Primer sequences $(5' – 3')$	Reference	
mexR	F	TGTTCTTAAATATCCTCAAGCGG		
	R	<b>GTTGCATAGCGTTGTCCTCA</b>	(Quale et al., 2006)	
nalC	$\mathbf{F}$	<b>TCAACCCTAACGAGAAACGCT</b>	(Quale et al., 2006)	
	R	<b>TCCACCTCACCGAACTGC</b>		
nalD	$\mathbf F$	GCGGCTAAAATCGGTACACT		
	R	ACGTCCAGGTGGATCTTGG	(Sobel et al., 2005)	
mexZ	F	ATTGGATGTGCATGGGTG		
	R	TGGAGATCGAAGGCAGC	(Sobel et al., 2003)	
nfxB	$\mathbf F$	ACGCGAGGCCAGTTTTCT		
	R	ACTGATCTTCCCGAGTGTCG	(Vaez et al., 2014)	
mexT	F	AAAACCACCCGTCGTTATTG		
	R	CAGTTCGTCGGTGTAGCTGA	(Quale et al., 2006)	
oprD	F	<b>CTACGCAGATGCGACATGC</b>	(Wolter et al., 2004)	
	R	CCTTTATAGGCGCGTTGCC		

**Table 3.3. Gene-specific thermal cycling conditions**



### **3.14 Phylogenetic Analysis**

The DNA sequences of efflux pump and porin related genes in *P. aeruginosa*  obtained in the present study were compared with similar sequences of *P. aeruginosa* available in the NCBI database. Minimal 'E' values, maximum query coverage, including geographical location of the source organisms, were the factors considered for sequence selection. All sequences were aligned using default configuration of multiple sequence comparison by clustalW embedded in MEGA6 software (http://www.megasoftware.net). Nucleotide sequence evolution with respect to each gene was carried out using the software, jModelTest (Posada, 2008) based on Akaike Information Criterion (AIC). The phylogram was constructed by Bayesian inference using Markov Chain Monte Carlo method (Huelsenbeck and Ronquist, 2001).

## **3.15 Molecular modelling of OprD protein**

The 3D molecular model of the OprD porin channel protein was built by homology modelling approach employing Modeller 9.18 (2018 Version) software. The chain-A of OprD from *P.aeruginosa*, Protein Data Bank (PDB): 4FOZ was identified as the best template for comparative modelling. Stereochemical analysis of the structure was evaluated using Ramachandran plot generated by PROCHECK (Laskowski et al., 1993). Energy minimization of the modelled protein was refined and validated by three different molecular dynamic force fields named ANOLEA (Melo et al., 1997), QMEAN (Benkert et al., 2009), GROMOS (Christen et al., 2005) and secondary structure by DSSP(Kabsch and Sander, 1983). Energy minimized modelled structure was visualized by PyMOL software (Seeliger and de Groot, 2010).

# **3.16 Restriction digestion**

Restriction digestion reactions were set up in a total reaction volume of 10 μl containing 5μl of the initial 25 μl *oprD* gene amplification reaction. Three such reaction sets were separately restricted (1.0 unit of enzyme / μg DNA) with each of *Hinc II, Pst I and Pvu II restriction enzymes in the corrosponding 1x restriction*
buffers (Bangalore Genei, Pvt. Ltd.). The reaction mixtures were then incubated at the prescribed temperature  $(37^{\circ}C)$  for 1 h. The restriction digests were electrophoresed on 1% agarose gels followed by visualization and photography as described in section 3.10. For detection of the putative restriction sites within the PCR amplicons obtained from the *oprD* gene, NEB cutter V2.0 (Vincze et al., 2003) was utilized.

#### **3.17 Statistical analysis**

Categorical variables were compared by  $\chi^2$  test using SPSS software version 20.0. A significant difference between two proportions was checked by *Z-*test using MedCalc Statistical Software Version 17.9.7. A two-tailed P value of <0.01 or <0.05 was considered significant.

# **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

## **4.1 Identification of bacterial isolates**

A total of 144 MDR gram-negative bacterial isolates were collected from A total of 144 MDR gram-negative bacterial isolates were collected from<br>various clinical laboratories in Kerala. These bacterial isolates were received in pure line form following preliminary identifications already carried out in the respective laboratories. The identity of each isolate was then reconfirmed by gram staining, motility testing and biochemical reactions (Table 4.1). The belonged to 4 genera comprising of *Klebsiella* spp. (n=50), *E. coli* (n=46), *P. aeruginosa* (n=33) and *Acinetobacter* spp. (n=15). Fig 4.1 shows the overall percentage distribution of bacterial isolates used in the present study. percentage distribution of bacterial isolates used in the present study. s already carried out in the<br>vas then reconfirmed by gram<br>fable 4.1). The tested isolates

**Table 4.1. Bacterial identification - Gram staining and biochemical reactions**

<b>Isolates</b>	Gram reaction	<b>Indole</b>	<b>MR</b>	<b>VP</b>	<b>Citrate</b> utilization	<b>Mannitol</b> fermentation	<b>Motility</b>	Oxidase
E.coli				-				
Klebsiella spp.	$\overline{\phantom{0}}$			+			$\overline{\phantom{0}}$	$\overline{\phantom{0}}$
P. aeruginosa				-				
Acinetobacter spp.				-	┿		$\overline{\phantom{0}}$	



*Fig. 4.1. Overall percentage distribution of MDR gram-negative clinical isolates.* 

#### **4.2 Antibiotic sensitivity**

Antibiotic sensitivity of the 144 bacterial isolates were detected by Kirby-Bauer disc diffusion method based on the recommended guidelines (CLSI, 2012). *E. coli* and *Klebsiella* spp. were tested with 14 antibiotic discs such as amikacin-30μg (AK), ampicillin-10 μg (AMP), aztreonam-30μg (AT), cefotaxime-30μg (CTX), ceftazidime- 30μg (CAZ), cefepime-30μg (CPM), chloramphenicol-30μg (C), ciprofloxacin-5μg (CIP), gentamicin-10μg (GEN), meropenem-10μg (MRP), nalidixic acid-30μg (NA), ofloxacin-5μg (OF), piperacillin/tazobactam-100/10μg (PIT) and tetracycline-30μg (TE). For *P. aeruginosa* and *Acinetobacter* spp., antibiotic sensitivity assay was performed with 16 antibiotic discs including colistin-10μg (CL) and polymyxin B-300 units (PB) in addition to the above mentioned antibiotics.

The antibiotic resistance profiles of isolates are given in Figs. 4.2 and 4.3. All isolates were found to be ampicillin-resistant. Of these, *E. coli* isolates also exhibited complete resistance to  $3<sup>rd</sup>$  generation cephalosporins (CTX, CAZ) and to CIP, a quinolone antibiotic. Prevalence of resistance against antibiotic C was, however, observed to be comparatively lowest in *Klebsiella* spp. and *E. coli* at 52% and 22% respectively. Incidentally, all *P. aeruginosa* isolates showed resistance against the quinolone, NA with only 48% of them being PB-resistant. The 15 *Acinetobacter* spp. were also found to display resistance against monobactam  $(AT)$ ,  $CTX$ ,  $4<sup>th</sup>$  generation cephalosporin  $(CPM)$ ,  $CIP$ , betalactam/beta-lactam inhibitor combination (PIT), TE and CL.



*Fig. 4.2. Overall antibiotic resistance profile of E. coli and Klebsiella spp. against 14 antibiotics used in the study***.**



*Fig. 4.3. Overall antibiotic resistance profile of P. aeruginosa and Acinetobacter spp. against 16 antibiotics used in the study.*

## **4.2.1 Multiple Antibiotic Resistance (MAR) index**

MAR indexing has been shown to be a cost effective and valid method for tracking bacterial source and spread of resistance in a given population. The MAR index value was determined for each isolate by dividing the number of antibiotics to which the isolate was resistant with the total number of antibiotics evaluated for susceptibility assay (Krumperman, 1983). MAR index values greater than 0.2 indicated that bacteria originated from an environment where several antibiotics were used (Hora and Ali, 2012; Sandhu et al., 2016) and the index value of 1.0 denoted resistance to all the antibiotics tested. The MAR index of the isolates *Klebsiella* spp.*, E. coli, P. aeruginosa* and *Acinetobacter* spp. ranged from 0.29 to 1.0, 0.36 to 1.0, 0.50 to 1.0 and 0.56 to 1.0 respectively (Figs. 4.4 and 4.5). A MAR index value of 1.0 was observed in 37% (n=17) of *Klebsiella* spp., 9% (n=4) of *E. coli,* 24% (n=8) of *P. aeruginosa* and 53% (n=8) of *Acinetobacter* spp. Overall, the majority of the isolates of *Klebsiella* spp. (n=17)*, E. coli* (n=14)*, P. aeruginosa*  (n=10) and *Acinetobacter* spp. (n=8) displayed a MAR index of 1.0, 0.79, 0.94 and 1.0 respectively.



*Fig. 4.4. MAR index profiling of Klebsiella spp. and E. coli.*



*Fig. 4.5. MAR index profiling of P.aeruginosa and Acinetobacter spp.*

## **4.3 Analysis of efflux pump-mediated drug-resistance by phenotypic methods**

Efflux pump-mediated drug-resistance was detected in MDR isolates (n=144) by two simple phenotypic methods, namely, i) ethidium bromide (EtBr) agar cartwheel method and ii) efflux pump inhibitor (EPI)-based microplate assay.

#### **4.3.1 EtBr-agar cartwheel method**

A preliminary screening of the bacterial cultures resulted in detection of efflux pump activity in 31 isolates  $(P<0.01)$  as evidenced by fluorescence of EtBr (Fig. 4.6, Table 4.2). The minimum detectable limit of fluorescence as obtained in the presence of 0.5mg/l of EtBr in the MTCC strain (negative control) served as an indication of the absence of efflux pump activity. Based on this criterion, clinical isolates without efflux pump activity were found to be represented in all 4 genera. Fluorescence, detectable in the presence of EtBr, at or above1.0 mg/l concentration was considered as positive for efflux pump activity (Martins et al., 2010 and 2011). At 1.0 mg/l EtBr concentration, a few isolates from all 3 genera, namely, *E. coli*, *Acinetobacter* spp. and *Klebsiella* spp., were found to fluoresce. Interestingly, *P. aeruginosa* isolates showed much higher efflux pump activity in comparison to isolates from other genera. Out of 33 *P. aeruginosa* isolates, as many as 17 effectively effluxed the fluorochrome dye at concentrations which were many folds higher reaching upto 2.5mg/l (Table 4.2).



*Fig. 4.6. EtBr-agar cartwheel method. Tryptic soy agar petri-plates containing varying concentrations of EtBr were swabbed with P. aeruginosa isolates. A schematic representation of a Petri-plate on the left of the figure denotes the position of bacterial isolates swabbed outwards from the centre - (1) P. aeruginosa MTCC 2453 (negative control),(2) P. aeruginosa clinical isolate positive for efflux pump activity-based fluorescence detectable in the presence of EtBr at 1.0 mg/l, (3) and (4) P. aeruginosa clinical isolates without efflux pump activity.* 

**Table 4.2. Determination of efflux-pump activity in the presence of varying concentrations of the fluorochrome – ethidium bromide** 



 *'+ and –' represent presence and absence of efflux pump activity respectively*

Efflux systems play a key mechanistic role in the development of drug resistance in gram-negative bacteria. On the basis of literature scan, incidentally, this is the first report from the State of Kerala on efflux pump-mediated drugresistance among MDR gram-negative bacteria. The EtBr-agar cartwheel screening method revealed efflux activity in 21.5% of the isolates used in the study. It is relevant to point out the likelihood of recording false positives during such type of screening, since bacterial permeability to EtBr may also be influenced by downregulation of porins leading to decreased influx of EtBr. This view is supported by the observation that porin mutants show reduced entry of EtBr. In other words, this implies that these channels might be involved in the passive influx of the molecule (Rodrigues et al., 2011).

#### **4.3.2 EPI -based microplate assay for confirming efflux pump activity**

The 31 isolates identified to possess efflux pump activity by the cartwheel method were subjected further to an EPI-based microplate assay employing selected antibiotics against which resistance was observed (Fig. 4.7). In the presence of the efflux pump inhibitor, PAN, some isolates displaying efflux pump activity completely reverted to a phenotype sensitive to the antibiotic(s) concerned (denoted as 'reversal' in Table 4.3). In other words, resistance to specific antibiotics in these isolates was solely due to efflux pumping activity. Isolates with reduced growth compared to controls were indicative of only a partial contribution of efflux pump activity towards antibiotic resistance (denoted as 'reduction' in Table 4.3). Based on the above mentioned criteria, only 19 isolates tested positive for efflux pump activity. Of these, 7 isolates displayed efflux pump activity against more than one antibiotic (Table 4.3). Further, efflux pump-mediated drug-resistance was found to be most prevalent in *P. aeruginosa* (27.3%, n=9), followed by that in *E. coli* (17.4%, n=8), *Acinetobacter* spp. (6.7%, n=1) and *Klebsiella* spp. (2%, n=1).



*Fig. 4.7. Efflux pump inhibitor (EPI)-based microplate assay. Control-wells containing bacterial culture with (*+*EPI) or without (-EPI) inhibitor; columns (1-5) contain antibiotic discs such as ampicillin, cefotaxime, chloramphenicol, ciprofloxacin and meropenem respectively; first row (A) contains only antibiotic discs; second row (B)contains EPI along with antibiotic discs.*

In respect of the results mentioned above, it is to be noted that according to the standard Kirby Bauer chart, the criterion used to define resistance includes consideration of diameter of zone of inhibition ranging from zero to a few millimeters as specified for the respective antibiotic. In the present study, unambiguous and reproducible results were obtained only when bacterial isolates exhibiting zero zone of inhibition against the respective antibiotics were used.





	AK	7700	0.001	Reduction		
Ec12	TE	20	0.001	Reduction		
	<b>AK</b>	13400	$\boldsymbol{0}$	Reversal		
Ec13	PIT	148	$\boldsymbol{0}$	Reversal		
	TE	36	$\boldsymbol{0}$	Reversal		
Ec19	<b>NA</b>	4500	73	Reduction		
Ec <sub>25</sub>	$\mathcal{C}$	85	9.1	Reduction		
	TE	6000	$\boldsymbol{0}$	Reversal		
Ec26	TE	1600	$\boldsymbol{0}$	Reversal		
Ec30	TE	2.33	$\boldsymbol{0}$	Reversal		
Ec33	<b>NA</b>	40000	12	Reduction		
		P. aeruginosa				
Pa1	$\mathcal{C}$	3400	$\boldsymbol{0}$	Reversal		
Pa <sub>2</sub>	<b>CTX</b>	24000000	92	Reduction		
	<b>MRP</b>	11500	$\boldsymbol{0}$	Reversal		
	<b>CTX</b>	30800000	23800	Reduction		
Pa5	$\mathcal{C}$	642000	$\boldsymbol{0}$	Reversal		
	<b>NA</b>	1382000	$\overline{2}$	Reduction		
	TE	5820000	$\boldsymbol{0}$	Reversal		
Pa <sub>6</sub>	<b>CTX</b>	1970000	$\boldsymbol{0}$	Reversal		
	$\mathcal{C}$	15300	$\boldsymbol{0}$	Reversal		
Pa7	$\mathcal{C}$	450000	$\boldsymbol{0}$	Reversal		
	<b>MRP</b>	4100000	0.002	Reduction		
Pa13	OF	387000000	74000	Reduction		
	TE	37200	0.006	Reduction		
Pa16	$\ensuremath{\mathsf{TE}}$	151000000	6.5	Reduction		
Pa <sub>25</sub>	$\mathcal{C}$	37300	0.002	Reduction		
Pa <sub>29</sub>	TE	262000	$\boldsymbol{0}$	Reversal		
Acinetobacter spp.						
Ac <sub>6</sub>	TE	23500	1.09	Reduction		

*AK- amikacin, CTX- cefotaxime, C- chloramphenicol, MRP- meropenem, NA- nalidixic Acid, OF- ofloxacin, PIT- piperacillin/tazobactam, TE- tetracycline, CFU- colony forming units, EPI- efflux pump inhibitor. E. coli and P. aeruginosa isolates were found to efflux more than one antibiotic.*

## **4.4 Phenotypic and molecular investigations for characterization of MDR clinical isolates of** *P. aeruginosa*

Phenotypic analysis of efflux pump activity, described in section 4.3.2, revealed a relatively higher incidence of efflux pump based antibiotic resistance mechanism in the genus *P. aeruginosa* compared to isolates belonging to other genera. *P. aeruginosa* is now categorized as a 'superbug' due to the acquisition of multidrug-resistant phenotypes through (i) intrinsic resistance mechanisms such as those mediated by constitutive expression of AmpC beta-lactamase, efflux pumps and porin down-regulation and (ii) acquired resistance caused by mutational changes or acquisition of resistance mechanisms via horizontal gene transfer. Together, these processes contribute toward development of overwhelming resistance against a variety of structurally unrelated antibiotics leading to difficulties in therapy or its failure (Poole, 2011).

All further investigations including phenotypic detection of various betalactamases, RAPD analysis, efflux pump and porin-related gene expression/mutation studies were focused on MDR clinical isolates of *P. aeruginosa.* Of the 33 isolates of *P. aeruginosa*, barring 4 which failed to revive during subculturing, the remaining 29 designated as Pa1-Pa29 were subjected to phenotypic and molecular characterizations.

## **4.4.1 Phenotypic prevalence of AmpC beta-lactamase, ESBL and MBL**

The results of antibiotic sensitivity assay presented in section 4.2 revealed that *P. aeruginosa* isolates possessed >80% resistance against cephalosporins and MRP. Several mechanisms such as overexpression of chromosome-mediated AmpC-cephalosporinases, acquisition of transferable beta-lactamase genes, overproduction of efflux pump systems and reduced permeability due to porin downregulation are held responsible for beta-lactam antibiotic resistance (Livermore, 2002). Beta-lactamases encoded by both chromosomal and plasmid genes hydrolyze and destroy broad-spectrum beta-lactam antibiotics and pathogens harbouring them are thus considered a serious health threat due to limited treatment options (Ansari et al., 2016). Effective therapeutic regimens heavily rely on strainspecific knowledge on the status of different types of beta-lactamase (s) production either singly or in combination since the gene (s) concerned are highly likely to be acquired or can undergo mutations under variations of antibiotic pressure (Cabot et al.,2016; López-Causapé et al., 2017). Hence, in this study phenotypic detection of the enzymes AmpC beta-lactamase, ESBL and MBL production were also ascertained.

AmpC disc test was used for the detection of AmpC beta-lactamase production as described by Black et al. (2005). A cefoxitin disc and a sterile disc inoculated with several colonies of the test organism were placed adjacent to each other on a MHA with a lawn of *E. coli* MTCC 41 and incubated. Flattening or indentation of the cefoxitin zone of inhibition in the vicinity of the test organism disc was interpreted as a 'positive' result whilst the presence of an undistorted zone was considered 'negative'(Fig 4.8-a). Analysis of the results revealed the incidence of *P. aeruginosa* with AmpC-producing phenotypes to be 31% (n=9; Table 4.4). ESBL activity was determined by combined disc diffusion method using CAZ disc alone and in combination with clavulanic acid (CAC). Zone of inhibition around CAC disc was found to increase in diameter  $(> 5 \text{ mm})$  than that around CAZ in case of *P. aeruginosa* and the incidence in this case was observed to be 13.8% (n=4; Fig 4.8-b and Table 4.4). The presence or overexpression of inducible chromosomal AmpC beta-lactamase in *P. aeruginosa* is likely to interfere with or even hide the detection of ESBLs by phenotypic tests (Laudy et al., 2017). Phenotypic detection of ESBL was also found to be difficult in isolates producing both carbapenemases and ESBLs simultaneously (Ellappan et al., 2018). The MBL enzymes which hydrolyze carbapenems, the major anti-pseudomonal antibiotic, were detected by the imipenem-EDTA combined disc test. MBL-positive isolates which showed a zone of inhibition  $\geq$  7 mm around imipenem with EDTA disc comparable to that of imipenem (IPM) disc alone amounted to 44.8% (n=13; Fig 4.8-c and Table 4.4). AmpC and MBL co-producers constituted 27.6% (n=8) with only a single isolate coproducing ESBL and MBL. About 41.4 % (n=12) of the isolates were found lacking in the expression of any of the three enzymes tested. Percentage distribution of beta-lactamases is given in Fig. 4.9.



 *Fig. 4.8. MHA plates showing AmpC, ESBL and MBL activity.*



*Fig. 4.9. Percentage distribution of various beta-lactamase producers in clinical isolates of P. aeruginosa (P<0.05).*

<b>Isolates</b>	AmpC	<b>ESBL</b>	<b>MBL</b>	<b>Isolates</b>	AmpC	<b>ESBL</b>	<b>MBL</b>
Pa1				Pa16	$+$		$+$
Pa <sub>2</sub>	$^{+}$			Pa17			
Pa <sub>3</sub>	$+$		$+$	Pa18			$+$
Pa4		$^{+}$		Pa19		$^{+}$	$+$
Pa5				Pa <sub>20</sub>			
Pa6				Pa <sub>21</sub>			$+$
Pa7	$^{+}$		$^{+}$	Pa <sub>22</sub>			
Pa8	$+$		$+$	Pa <sub>23</sub>		$+$	
Pa <sub>9</sub>				Pa <sub>24</sub>			
Pa10			$+$	Pa <sub>25</sub>	$+$		$^{+}$
Pa11				Pa <sub>26</sub>			
Pa12		$+$		Pa <sub>27</sub>			
Pa13	$^{+}$		$^{+}$	Pa <sub>28</sub>			
Pa <sub>14</sub>			$+$	Pa <sub>29</sub>			
Pa15	$\overline{+}$		$+$		$^{+}$		$^{+}$

**Table 4.4. Beta-lactamase production in** *P. aeruginosa* **clinical isolates**

*ESBL, extended-spectrum beta-lactamase; MBL, metallo-beta-lactamase; '+ and –' represent beta-lactamase and non-beta-lactamase producers, respectively.*

#### **4.4.2 RAPD typing and analysis of clonally related isolates**

Given the fact that certain DNA sequences, also known as 'hot spots' show differential propensity in accumulating mutations, RAPD typing was carried out in an attempt to gauge genetic diversity amongst the bacterial clinical isolates of MDR *P. aeruginosa* under study (Couce et al., 2016). This technique is relatively faster, inexpensive and technically less demanding with low turnaround time as compared to the other typing methods (Podder et al., 2014). RAPD profiles in this study produced from *P. aeruginosa* isolates employing random decameric primer - RBa-D5 (GenBank accession no. AM911680) generated reproducible and distinctive patterns (Fig. 4.10). These profiles were analyzed using open source Python-based software, PyElph to estimate the genetic similarity by Dice coefficients of correlation and generate a dendrogram by the UPGMA clustering (Pavel and Vasile, 2012). The dendrogram showed two major clusters - *A* and *B*, in which major cluster *A* was found to be subdivided into two sub-clusters *A1* and *A2* (Fig. 4.11). Most of the isolates with efflux pump activity were found to be included in the same sub-cluster *A1*. Of them Pa1, Pa5, Pa7 and Pa13 belonged to a single clade whilst strains such as Pa2 and Pa6 were found grouped into another clade. Majority of the

isolates (Pa15, Pa16, Pa20, Pa23, Pa24 and Pa25) possessing MAR index 1.0 fell under sub-cluster *A2*. Among them similarities were observed in isolates including Pa15, Pa25, Pa20 and Pa23. Non-ESBL producers such as Pa16 and Pa24 were found to align into a single clade.



*Fig. 4.10. RAPD profiles of reference strain PAO (MTCC) and MDR P. aeruginosa clinical isolates. Lane denoted M represents 100bp DNA ladder.*



*Fig. 4.11. RAPD dendrogram showing clonal relatedness amongst P. aeruginosa.* 

# **4.4.3 Expression of efflux pumps,** *mexB***,** *mexY* **,** *mexD, mexF* **and porin,** *oprD* **genes**

Relative expression levels of transcripts from *mexB*, *mexY* and *mexD* genes were studied by semi-quantitative and real-time RT-PCR technique. For semiquantitative and quantitative assessment, all mRNA transcripts were normalized against the housekeeping gene *rpsL* transcript encoding 30S ribosomal protein S12. For semiquantitative analysis, band intensities of expected amplicons in clinical isolates were compared with those from the reference strain *P. aeruginosa* MTCC-PAO (Fig. 4.12). Expected amplicon sizes with respect to *rpsL*, *mexB*, *mexY* and *mexD* genes are 201, 244, 250 and 165 bp respectively (Yoneda et al., 2005; Dumas et al., 2006; Xavier et al., 2010). However, *mexB* was significantly overexpressed in three (Pa6, Pa13 and Pa16), *mexY* in six (Pa5, Pa6, Pa13, Pa16, Pa25 and Pa29) and *mexD* in three isolates (Pa6, Pa7 and Pa13). These results were correlated with those obtained with quantitative RT-PCR, wherein the target genes were considered overexpressed when their transcriptional levels were at least three folds higher than those of the reference strain (Islam et al. 2004). Gene expression analysis of *P. aeruginosa* revealed that  $10.3\%$  (n=3),  $20.7\%$  (n=6) and  $10.3\%$  (n=3) of isolates displayed increased transcription of *mexB*, *mexY* and *mexD* respectively (Table 4.5), corroborating the results of semi-quantitative RT-PCR. The overexpression ranged from 5.02 - 11.08 folds for *mexB*, 3.61 - 26.17 for *mexY* and 4.08 - 14.42 for *mexD* in comparison with those of PAO. Notably, simultaneous expression of MexY was observed in MexB over-producer Pa16, a co-expression previously reported (Llanes et al., 2004). Two isolates, Pa6 and Pa13, simultaneously expressed *mexB*, *mexY* and *mexD.* The presence of *mexB* transcript in Pa18, Pa28 and *mexD* transcript in Pa1, Pa14, Pa21, Pa22 and Pa24 could not be detected either due to extremely low amounts or absence of expression of the respective pumps in these two sets of isolates (Singh et al., 2017).

Semi-quantitative RT-PCR results for *mexF* and porin *oprD* genes as evidenced by the observation of bands on agarose gel were hardly discernible and therefore, difficult to interpret even in the reference strain. Hence, their relative transcriptional levels were evaluated using real time RT-PCR (Table 4.5). The levels of expression of *mexF* in all of the isolates were comparatively far lower than that obtained for the reference strain. In the case of *oprD*, a previous study reported reduced transcriptional levels of the gene to be considered significant when it was  $\leq$ 70% compared to that of their reference strain (Xavier et al., 2010). In the present study, *oprD* remained downregulated in as many as 89.7% (n=26) of the isolates. Gene expression of *oprD* in Pa1, Pa11 and Pa19 were nearly comparable to that found in PAO strain.



*Fig. 4.12. Semi-quantitative RT-PCR. Lane denoted M represents 100bp DNA ladder. Other lanes show P. aeruginosa MTCC reference strain PAO and clinical isolates. a) Expression of housekeeping gene, rpsL in PAO and six isolates, Pa5, Pa16, Pa6, Pa13, Pa25, Pa29 and Pa7. b) Expression of mexB in PAO and three isolates, Pa6, Pa13 and Pa16. c) Expression of mexY in PAO and six isolates, Pa5, Pa16, Pa6, Pa13, Pa25 and Pa29. d) Expression of mexD in PAO and three isolates, Pa7, Pa6 and Pa13.*

<b>Isolates</b>	Relative expression*					
	mexB	mexY	mexD	mexF	<i>oprD</i>	
Pa1	1.31	2.08	<b>ND</b>	0.01	0.77	
Pa <sub>2</sub>	0.14	1.36	0.98	0.02	0.12	
Pa <sub>3</sub>	0.21	0.75	0.13	0.0	0.08	
Pa <sub>4</sub>	0.35	1.65	0.12	0.13	0.07	
Pa5	1.19	24.42	0.15	0.23	0.10	
Pa6	11.08	9.65	14.42	0.45	<b>ND</b>	
Pa7	0.42	0.61	4.08	0.01	0.05	
Pa8	0.12	2.04	0.94	0.01	<b>ND</b>	
Pa <sub>9</sub>	0.13	2.01	0.35	0.01	0.02	
Pa10	0.22	1.97	0.85	0.13	0.29	
Pa11	1.14	2.51	1.30	0.23	1.43	
Pa12	0.12	1.34	0.27	0.04	0.16	
Pa13	5.02	26.17	8.17	0.0	<b>ND</b>	
Pa14	0.72	0.89	<b>ND</b>	0.0	<b>ND</b>	
Pa15	0.65	0.66	0.03	0.0	0.05	
Pa16	5.46	3.61	0.02	0.0	<b>ND</b>	
Pa17	0.29	0.27	0.29	0.01	0.03	
Pa18	ND	0.15	0.66	0.0	<b>ND</b>	
Pa19	2.11	2.17	1.42	0.15	1.05	
Pa <sub>20</sub>	1.49	1.72	0.59	0.04	0.21	
Pa21	0.11	1.58	ND	0.23	0.09	
Pa <sub>22</sub>	0.56	1.99	ND	0.03	<b>ND</b>	
Pa <sub>23</sub>	0.82	0.80	2.12	0.03	0.13	
Pa <sub>24</sub>	1.36	1.30	ND	0.01	<b>ND</b>	
Pa <sub>25</sub>	0.28	11.79	0.06	0.57	<b>ND</b>	
Pa <sub>26</sub>	0.25	0.13	2.11	0.23	0.48	
Pa <sub>27</sub>	0.56	1.49	0.08	0.03	0.08	
Pa <sub>28</sub>	<b>ND</b>	0.21	0.0	0.04	0.09	
Pa <sub>29</sub>	0.34	4.08	0.81	0.03	0.06	

**Table 4.5. Relative quantification of mRNA from** *mexB, mexY***,** *mexD, mexF* **and** *oprD*

*ND, not detected.* **\****Relative to expression level in the reference strain PAO, assigned with a value of 1.0. Expression of efflux pump and porin encoding genes >3 and ≤0.7 fold respectively as compared to reference are indicated in boldface*

The 26 isolates with downregulated porin expression were found to possess a MAR index of 1.0 or less. Of these, seven isolates were found to show efflux pump activity, but only three, Pa7 (MexD overproducer), Pa16 (co-producer of both MexB and MexY) and Pa25 (MexY overproducer), were found to display a MAR index of 1.0. Notably, among the porin downregulators, three isolates, Pa20, Pa24 and Pa26,

failed to express both beta-lactamase and efflux pump activity but still had a MAR index of 1.0. Interestingly, the isolates Pa1, Pa11 and Pa19 where porin expression levels were found comparable to that of the reference strain, displayed a MAR index less than 1.0. Taken together, this clearly indicates that in these isolates, as expected, other drug resistance mechanisms are operational.

 Incidentally, the present study also revealed that all isolates hyperexpressing Mex efflux pump systems were found to be devoid of ESBL production. AmpC and MBL production were observed in Mex efflux pump overproducers - Pa7, Pa13, Pa16, Pa25, and Pa29, whilst Pa6 (coproducer of MexB, MexY and MexD) and Pa5 (MexY overproducer) were devoid of beta-lactamase enzymes such as AmpC and MBL. Notably, two isolates Pa1 and Pa2, wherein efflux pump activity was phenotypically confirmed by EPI-based microplate assay, tested negative for the presence of efflux pump-related transcripts under study. This perhaps may be due to the presence of efflux pumps other than the ones studied here or may result from antibiotic-induced oxidative stress (Dridi et al., 2015; Van Acker et al., 2016). MexR repressor which negatively regulates MexAB-OprM efflux pump has been reported to function as an oxidative stress sensor. Under conditions of oxidative stress, including that induced by the antibiotic itself, MexR protein is known to dissociate from the promoter thereby inducing the operon leading to expression of efflux pump proteins (Chen et al., 2008).

## **4.4.4 Mutational variations and phylogenetic analyses of regulatory genes**  *mexR***,** *nalC* **and** *nalD* **of** *mexAB-oprM* **operon**

Regulatory gene sequences *mexR*, *nalC* and *nalD* of isolates with overexpressed *mexB* gene were analysed for mutations. Table 4.6 includes a complete list of mutations encountered in the present study. Genomic-PCR was carried out to amplify *mexR*, *nalC* and *nalD* genes individually producing amplicons of 729 bp, 813 bp and 788 bp respectively (Fig. 4.13).



*Fig. 4.13. Agarose gel (0.8%) showing mexR, nalC and nalD gene-specific amplicons from genomic-PCR of P. aeruginosa clinical isolates. Lane denoted M represents 100bp DNA ladder; other lanes show amplicons from P. aeruginosa clinical isolates Pa6, Pa13 and Pa16. a) Red arrowhead indicates the 729 bp mexR amplicon whilst orange in b) marks the 813bp nalC amplicon and blue in c) denotes the 788 bp nalD amplicon.*

MexAB overproducers designated Pa13 and Pa16 were found to harbour mutations in their repressor genes - *mexR*, *nalC* and *nalD*. A combination of both transitional and transversional point mutations, either silent or leading to changes in amino acid substitutions were observed in *mexR* and *nalC* of Pa13 and Pa16 and in *nalD* of Pa16. However, *nalD* of Pa13 displayed only silent mutations, whilst Pa6 was conspicuous by the absence of mutations of either type. Pa13 isolate was found to possess a transversional point mutation, T→A at 377<sup>th</sup> position (<sup>126</sup>valine→ glutamic acid substitution) in *mexR* gene which has already been reported previously and was considered as insignificant (Ziha-Zarifi et al., 1999; Quale et al., 2006; Choudhury et al., 2016). Two non-synonymous mutations,  $C \rightarrow T$  at 20<sup>th</sup> position (<sup>7</sup>proline→leucine substitution) and C→A at 427<sup>th</sup> position (<sup>143</sup>proline→threonine substitution), were observed in *mexR* of Pa16 isolate, which are novel and have not yet been reported in NCBI database. This study also recorded yet another interesting novel alteration, in *mexR* of Pa16 at the 443-444 position, of an *ochre* codon to that for serine, followed by a triplet insertion for cysteine and a stop codon of *opal* type. Mutation at the  $7<sup>th</sup>$  amino acid position of MexR in Pa16 was close to the N- terminal while other mutations were confined to the extreme end of the C-

terminal region of the repressor protein (Lim et al., 2002; Suman et al., 2006; Wilke et al., 2008). Mutations at  $71^{st}$  (glycine→glutamic acid) and  $209^{th}$ (serine→arginine) amino acid positions of *nalC* gene were reported as 'nonsense' with no effect on MexAB-OprM pump expression by Pan et al. (2016); a similar mutation was detected in *nalC* of Pa13. A transition of  $G \rightarrow A$  at 212<sup>th</sup> nucleotide position (71glycine→glutamic acid) was also found in *nalC* of Pa16. The *nalD* of Pa16 was found to harbour a mutation at 153<sup>rd</sup> amino acid position (leucine→glutamine). Mutation was detected within the ligand binding domain of NalD (Chen et al., 2016). Pa6 was noticeable by the absence of mutations of either type. It would be pertinent to note here that MexAB overexpression is reported to be regulated by various factors other than *mexR, nalC* and *nalD* (Maseda et al., 2004; Tian et al., 2016). The *mexR, nalC* and *nalD* gene-encoding DNA sequences of Pa6, Pa13 and Pa16 are given in Table 4.7 with the non-synonymous mutations highlighted in green colour.





*'-' represents no amino acid change.*

**Table 4.7. DNA sequences***\****of** *mexR***,** *nalC* **and** *nalD* **genes from three isolates Pa6, Pa13 and Pa16**

<b>Isolates</b>	<i>mexR</i> sequences				
Pa6	<b>Partial sequence</b> ATGAACTACCCCGTGAATCCCGACCTGATGCCCGCGCTGATGGCGGTCTTCCAGCATGTG CATGTATTGAAGCTTATCGACGAACAACGCGGGCTGAACCTGCAGGACCTGGGACGCCAG ATGTGCCGCGACAAGGCACTGATCACCCGGAAGATCCGCGAGCTGGAGGGAAGAAACCTG GTCCGCCGCGAGCGCAACCCCAGCGACCAGCGAGCTTCCAGCTCTTCCTCACCGACGAG GGGCTGGCCATCCACCAGCATGCGGAGGCCATCATGTCACGCGTGCATGACGAGTTGTTT GCCCCGCTCACCCCGGTGGAACAGGC	60 120 180 240 300 360 386			
Pa13	<b>Partial sequence</b> ATGAACTACCCCGTCAACCCCGACCTGATGCCTGCGCTGATGGCGGTCTTCCAGCATGTG CATGTATTGAAGCTTATCGACGAACAACGCGGGCTGAACCTGCAGGACCTGGGACGCCAG ATGTGCCGCGACAAGGCACTGATCACCCGGAAGATCCGCGAGCTGGAGGGAAGAAACCTG GTCCGCCGCGAGCGCAACCCCAGTGACCAGCGCAGCTTCCAGCTCTTCCTCACCGACGAG GGGCTGGCCATCCACCAGCATGCGGAAGCCATCATGTCACGCGTGCATGACGAGTTGTTT GCCCCGCTCACCCCGG <mark>A</mark> GGAACAAGCCACCCTGGTGCATCTCCTCGACC	60 120 180 240 300 360 409			
<b>Pa16</b>	<b>Complete sequence</b> ATGAACTACCCCGTGAATC <mark>T</mark> CGACCTGATGCCCGCGCTGATGGCGGTCTTCCAGCATGTG CATGTATTGAAGCTTATCGACGAACAACGCGGGCTGAACCTGCAGGACCTGGGACGCCAG ATGTGCCGCGACAAGGCACTAATCACCCGGAAGATCCGCGAGCTGGAGGGAAGAAACCTG GTCCGCCGCGAGCGCAACCCCAGCGACCAGCGAGCTTCCAGCTCTTCCTCACCGACGAG GGGCTGGCCATCCACCAGCATGCGGAGGCCATCATGTCACGCGTGCATGACGAGTTGTTT GCCCCGCTCACCCCGGTGGAACAGGCCACCCTGGTGCATCTCCTCGACCAGTGCCTGGCC GCGCAA <mark>A</mark> CGCTTGAGGATATAT <mark>CT</mark> TGCTGA	60 120 180 240 300 360 420 450			
<b>Isolates</b>	$nalC$ sequences				
Pa6	<b>Complete sequence</b> GACGCCGCTACCCAGGCCTTTCTCGAACACGGTTTCGAAGGCACCACCCTGGACATGGTG ATAGAACGGCCCGGTGGTTCACGGGGGACCCTGTACAGCTCCTTCGGCGGCAAGGAGGC CTGTTCGCCGCGGTGATCGCCCACATGATCGGGGAAATCTTCGACGACAGCGCCGATCAG AGCCTGCTCGATCCCCGCTGCCAGAGCCTCTATCGCCTGGTGGTGGCGGAATCCCCGCGG TTTCCGGCGATCGGCAAGTCCTTCTACGAGCAGGGGCCGCAGCAGAGCTATCTGCTGCTC AGCGAGCGACTGGCCGCGGTCGCTCCTCACATGGACGAGGAAACGCTCTACGCGGTGGCC TGCCAGTTTCTCGAGATGCTCAAGGCCGACCTGTTCCTCAAGGCCCTCAGCGTGGCCGAC TTCCAGCCGACCATGGCGCTGCTGGAAACCCGCCTCAAGCTGTCGGTGGACATCATCGCC TGCTACCTGGAACACCTGTCGCAGAGCCCCGCGCAGGGCTGA	60 120 180 240 300 360 420 480 540 600 642			
Pa13	<b>Complete sequence</b> GACGCCGCTACCCAGGCCTTTCTCGAACACGGTTTCGAAGGCACCACCCTGGACATGGTG ATAGAACGGGCCGGTGGTTCACGGGGGACCCTGTACAGCTCCTTCGGCGGCAAGGAGGGC CTGTTCGCCGCGGTGATCGCCCACATGATCGAGGAAATCTTCGACGACAGCGCCGATCAG AGCCTGCTCGATCCCCGCTGCCAGAGCCTCTATCGCCTGGTGGTGGCGGAATCCCCGCGG TTTCCGGCGATCGGCAAGTCCTTCTACGAGCAGGGGCCGCAGCAGAGCTATCTGCTACTC AGCGAGCGACTGGCCGCGGTTGCTCCCCACATGGACGAGGAAACGCTCTACGCGGTGGCC TGCCAGTTTCTCGAGATGCTCAAGGCCGACCTGTTCCTCAAGGCCCTCAGCGTGGCCGAC TTCCAGCCGACCATGGCGCTGCTGGAAACCCGCCTCAAGCTGTCGGTGGACATCATCGCC TGCTACCTGGAACACCTGTCGCAGCGCCCCGCGCAGGGCTGA	60 120 180 240 300 360 420 480 540 600 642			



*\*Non-synonymous mutations are highlighted with green colour and insertion mutation in silver colour.*

Sequences obtained from *mexR*, *nalC*, and *nalD* of three MexB overproducing isolates, Pa6, Pa13 and Pa16, were concatenated as a prelude to the phylogenetic study. The resultant composite sequence was then subjected to Bayesian phylogenetic analysis along with a select group of nine closely related sequences deposited in the NCBI database. The nine sequences were chosen on the basis of differences in geographical areas of their report, highest query coverage and minimum 'E' values, when subjected to BLASTN analysis with the sequences obtained from PCR amplicons in this study. *P. aeruginosa* strain, PAO1 (GenBank accession no. AE004091.2), was taken as the outgroup for the purpose (Jochumsen et al., 2016). The best fit model of sequence evolution based on AIC was detected as HKY for *mexR* and *nalC* and as HKY+I for *nalD*. Potential scale reduction factor (PSRF) value assessed by MrBayes was observed to be 1.0 and the estimated sample size (ESS) was above 100. Phylogenetic analysis of three loci - *mexR*, *nalC* and *nalD -* concatenated, composite sequence (Fig. 4.14) revealed that the sequences from isolate Pa6 formed a distinct lineage. Interestingly, the sequence from Pa13 showed genetic similarity with that of MDR *P. aeruginosa* -VRFPA04 (GenBank accession no. CP008739.2), obtained from a keratitis patient from a tertiary eye care center in Tamil Nadu, India (Murugan et al., 2016) and the homology was also evident with the sequences deposited from Taiwan (GenBank accession no. CP004061.1). Interestingly, the concatenated sequence of Pa16 isolate exhibited similarity with the sequence of *P. aeruginosa* first reported with *bla*NDM-1 in North America (GenBank accession no. CP012901.1) which was colistin nonsusceptible, isolated from an elderly Canadian patient who was directly transferred to Calgary hospital, Alberta, Canada, following a prolonged hospital stay in New Delhi, India (Mataseje et al., 2016). The two sequences reported from Brazil (GenBank accession no. CP021380.1) and Malaysia (GenBank accession no. CP007147.1) were found to be clustered into a distinct clade.



*Fig. 4.14. Bayesian phylogenetic tree reconstructed from three loci of P.aeruginosa – mexR, nalC and nalD. Concatenated alignment drawn to scale with the branch lengths representing evolutionary distance. Scale bar denotes probability of nucleotide change. Analysis was run for 1,000,000 generations. Clade credibility values are shown at each node. P.aeruginosa, PAO1, was used as the outgroup.*

## **4.4.5 Mutational variations and phylogenetic analysis of regulatory gene-** *mexZ* **of** *mexXY* **operon**

Genomic-PCR was carried out to amplify the *mexZ* gene producing an amplicon of 1000 bp in isolates with overexpressed *mexY* gene (Fig. 4.15). Sequences obtained from these amplicons showed a variety of silent/point mutations (Table 4.8 and 4.9)*.* However, two isolates, Pa16 and Pa29, were found to display point mutations in *mexZ* gene, leading to substitution of alanine by threonine at the  $2<sup>nd</sup>$  and cysteine for tyrosine at the  $52<sup>nd</sup>$  amino acid position respectively. These isolates showed mutations in the DNA binding domain at the N-terminal of MexZ



*Fig.* 4.15. Agarose gel (0.8%) showing mexZ gene-specific amplicons from genomic-PCR of P. aeruginosa clinical isolates. Lane denoted M represents 100bp DNA ladder; other lanes show amplicons from P. aeruginosa clinical isolates Pa5, *Pa13, Pa16, Pa25 and Pa29. amplicon. , Yellow arrowhead indicates the 1000bp mexZ*

Table 4.8. Summary of genetic analyses of mutations in  $mexZ$  gene of *P. aeruginosa* **clinical isolates** 

(Alguel et al., 2010; Jahandideh, 2013). It may be noted that point mutations in							
	<i>mexZ</i> gene of the two isolates, which perhaps might be responsible for upregulation						
	of MexXY observed in this study were found to be identical positionally to those						
	reported in GenBank accession nos. CP012901.1 (Mataseje et al. 2016) and						
	WP 023123846.1 respectively. PCR amplification of mexZ in Pa6, which showed						
	a 9.65 fold higher level of MexY compared to that of PAO strain, was unsuccessful						
	despite several attempts with different primer sets and cycling conditions. A similar						
	case of amplification failure has also been reported by Poonsuk et al. (2014).						
	Pans $88^{\circ}$ M	Pa29					
	1500						
	1000						
	700 500						
Fig. 4.15. Agarose gel (0.8%) showing mexZ gene-specific amplicons from							
	genomic-PCR of P. aeruginosa clinical isolates. Lane denoted M represents 100bp DNA ladder; other lanes show amplicons from P. aeruginosa clinical isolates Pa5,						
	Pa13, Pa16, Pa25 and Pa29. Yellow arrowhead indicates the 1000bp mexZ						
<i>amplicon.</i>							
<b>Table 4.8.</b>	Summary of genetic analyses of mutations in mexZ gene of P. aeruginosa clinical isolates						
<b>Isolates</b>	mexZ mutation						
	<b>Nucleotide</b>	Aminoacid					
Pa5	$^{93}C \rightarrow T$ , $^{210}C \rightarrow T$ , $^{357}C \rightarrow T$ , $^{367}T \rightarrow C$ , $^{438}A \rightarrow G$						
Pa13	$^{93}C \rightarrow T$ , $^{231}C \rightarrow T$						
Pa16	${}^4G \rightarrow A$	${}^{2}$ Alanine $\rightarrow$ Threonine					
Pa <sub>25</sub>	$^{93}C \rightarrow T$ , $^{438}A \rightarrow G$ , $^{576}C \rightarrow T$ , $^{585}C \rightarrow A$						
Pa <sub>29</sub>	${}^{155}\text{A}\rightarrow\text{G}$	<sup>52</sup> Tyrosine→Cysteine					
	$382C \rightarrow T$ , $438A \rightarrow G$						

# **Table 4.9. DNA sequences***\****of** *mexZ* **gene from five isolates Pa5, Pa13, Pa16, Pa25 and Pa29**



*\*Non-synonymous mutations are highlighted with green colour*

The *mexZ* sequences from five MexY overproducer strains - Pa5, Pa13, Pa16, Pa25 and Pa29 were clubbed together with a set of nine other similar sequences retrieved from the GenBank database for construction of a phylogram using *P. aeruginosa* strain, PAO1 (GenBank accession no. AE004091.2) as the outgroup. The best fit model of sequence evolution based on AIC was detected as GTR+I. PSRF value assessed by MrBayes was observed to be 1.0 and the ESS was above 100. But the phylogram generated employing mexZ sequence resulted in low clade credibility values  $( $0.3$ ) and hence was considered to be non-significant$ (Figure not shown).

# **4.4.6 Mutational variations and phylogenetic analysis of regulatory gene** *nfxB* **of** *mexCD-oprJ* **operon**

Genomic-PCR was carried out to amplify *nfxB* gene producing amplicons of 750 bp in three MexCD-OprJ overproducers - Pa6, Pa7 and Pa13 (Fig. 4.16). DNA sequences obtained from these showed various synonymous and non-synonymous mutations (Table 4.10 and 4.11). Mutation analysis revealed point mutation,  $T \rightarrow C$ at 239<sup>th</sup> position (<sup>80</sup>leucine  $\rightarrow$  serine substitution) in Pa6, T $\rightarrow$ C at 349<sup>th</sup> position  $(117)$ serine→proline substitution) in Pa7 and C→T at 14<sup>th</sup> position (<sup>5</sup>serine→ phenylalanine substitution) in Pa13. Notably, mutations detected in Pa6 and Pa7 isolates have been found to be novel and have not yet been reported in GenBank data base, whilst the mutation present in Pa13 was found to be similar to that already reported by Murugan et al. (2016).



*Fig. 4.16. Agarose gel (0.8%) showing nfxB gene-specific amplicons from genomic-PCR of P. aeruginosa clinical isolates. Lane denoted M represents 100bp DNA ladder and other lanes show amplicons from isolates Pa6, Pa7and Pa13. Yellow arrowhead indicates the 750 bp nfxB amplicon.* 

	<i>nfxB</i> mutation				
<b>Isolates</b>	<b>Nucleotide</b>	Aminoacid			
Pa <sub>6</sub>	<sup>239</sup> T $\rightarrow$ C <sup>555</sup> T $\rightarrow$ G	<sup>80</sup> Leucine $\rightarrow$ Serine			
Pa7	<sup>39</sup> G $\rightarrow$ A, <sup>183</sup> A $\rightarrow$ G, <sup>423</sup> G $\rightarrow$ A, <sup>480</sup> T $\rightarrow$ C, <sup>486</sup> A $\rightarrow$ T, <sup>537</sup> T $\rightarrow$ C, $543C \rightarrow T$ , $555T \rightarrow G$ $349T \rightarrow C$	$117$ Serine $\rightarrow$ Proline			
	${}^{14}C \rightarrow T$	${}^{5}$ Serine $\rightarrow$ Phenylal			
Pa <sub>13</sub>	$135C \rightarrow T$ , $141G \rightarrow A$ , $555T \rightarrow G$	nine			

**Table 4.10. Summary of genetic analyses of mutations in** *nfxB* **gene of** *P. aeruginosa* **clinical isolates**

*'-' represents no amino acid change.*

## **Table 4.11. DNA sequences***\****of** *nfxB* **gene from three isolates Pa6, Pa7 and Pa13**



*\*Non-synonymous mutations are highlighted with green colour*

Phylogram (Fig. 4.17) was constructed using three *nfxB* gene sequences of MexCD-OprJ overproducers - Pa6, Pa7 and Pa13 and nine other selected sequences of *P. aeruginosa* isolates retrieved from the GenBank database including the reference strain, *P. aeruginosa* - PAO1(GenBank accession no. AE004091.2). For this analysis, *Pseudomonas chlororaphis* (GenBank accession no. CP011110.1) was taken as the outgroup as this sequence showed better sequence similarity with a higher query coverage - unlike that carried out with respect to regulatory genes of m*exAB-oprM* operon using PAO1 sequence as the outgroup. GTR was selected as the best fit model of sequence evolution on the basis of AIC. PSRF and ESS value were observed as 1.0 and above 100 respectively. Analysis was run for 1,000,000 generations and clade credibility values represented at each node were found to be > 0.5. Bayesian phylogenetic analysis revealed that the sequence from Pa6 was found to exhibit similarity with isolates from Taiwan (GenBank accession no. CP004061.1), Mexico (GenBank accession no. CP021999.1) and Brazil (GenBank accession no. CP021380.1). Pa13 isolate showed similarity with that reported from Tamil Nadu (CP008739.2) whilst Pa7 was found to be similar to *P. aeruginosa* sequences deposited from North America (CP012901.1).



*Fig. 4.17. Bayesian phylogenetic tree reconstructed employing nfxB ampliconic sequences from P.aeruginosa isolates. Scale bar denotes probability of nucleotide change. Analysis was run for 1,000,000 generations. Clade credibility values are shown at each node. P. chlororaphis (GenBank accession no. CP011110.1) was used as the outgroup.*

# **4.4.7 Mutational variations and phylogenetic analysis of regulatory gene** *mexT* **of** *mexEF-oprN* **operon and** *oprD*

The gene *mexT* encodes a LysR-type transcriptional activator protein, MexT, which mediates hyperexpression of MexEF-OprN efflux pump in *nfxC*-type mutants resistant to quinolones (Maseda et al., 2000). Expression of MexEF-OprN is usually linked with OprD porin down regulation mediated by the regulatory action of the MexT (Köhler et al., 1997). However, in this study involving 29 selected isolates (section 4.4.3), 26 strains with downregulated OprD failed to amplify the *mexF*  transcript beyond the levels of the MTCC reference strain as evidenced by the results obtained with real time RT-PCR analyses. Hence, *mexT* was amplified in all of the 26 isolates as it also serves as the regulatory gene of the *oprD* operon. Amplicons were obtained in 24 out of 26 isolates except in Pa2 and Pa6. Primers used for amplification were confined to the N-terminal portion encoded by the 5' end of the *mexT* gene, which included the 8 bp insert involved in inactivating the transcriptional activator. The amplicon size was found to be 650 bp (Fig. 4.18).



*Fig. 4.18. Agarose gel (0.8%) showing mexT gene-specific amplicons from genomic-PCR of P. aeruginosa clinical isolates. Lane denoted M represents 100bp DNA ladder. Other lanes show amplicons from representatives of P. aeruginosa isolates Pa3, Pa4, Pa5, Pa7, Pa8 and Pa9. Yellow arrowhead indicates the 650 bp amplicon.* 

Interestingly, a comparative analysis of DNA sequences of the amplicons with that of *P. aeruginosa-*PAO1 revealed occurrence of an 8-bp deletion (GGCCAGCC) at nucleotide position 235 within a 14-bp direct repeat in all isolates including reference *P. aeruginosa* MTCC- PAO strain (Table 4.12 and 4.13). A similar type of deletion at identical genomic locations in different *P.aeruginosa*  strains have been reported previously by many researchers (Morita et al., 2015; Wright et al., 2015; Mataseje et al., 2016; Murugan et al., 2016). Likewise, Ocampo–Sosa *et al.* (2012) discovered an 8-bp deletion (GCCGGCCA) at position 240; still another 8-bp deletion (CGGCCAGC) at  $226<sup>th</sup>$  nucleotide position has also been reported in other independent studies (Maseda et al., 2000; Singh et al., 2017).

<b>Isolates</b>	$mexT$ mutation	
	<b>Nucleotide</b>	Aminoacid
Pa <sub>3</sub>	<sup>235</sup> GGCCAGCC deletion $\frac{(^{321}G \rightarrow A, ^{444}C \rightarrow A, ^{514}T \rightarrow A)*}{^{235}GGCCAGCC}$ deletion	Frameshift
Pa <sub>4</sub>	$514$ T $\rightarrow$ A*	Frameshift
Pa5	<sup>235</sup> GGCCAGCC deletion $\frac{(^{472}T \rightarrow C, ^{501}G \rightarrow A, ^{514}T \rightarrow A)^{*}}{^{178}C \rightarrow T}$	Frameshift
Pa7	<sup>235</sup> GGCCAGCC deletion $({}^{372}\text{T}\rightarrow\text{C},{}^{472}\text{T}\rightarrow\text{C}, {}^{501}\text{G}\rightarrow\text{A}, {}^{514}\text{T}\rightarrow\text{A} )^*$	${}^{60}$ Proline $\rightarrow$ Serine Frameshift
Pa8	<sup>235</sup> GGCCAGCC deletion $(^{321}G \rightarrow A, ^{444}C \rightarrow A, ^{514}T \rightarrow A)$ *	Frameshift
Pa <sub>9</sub>	<sup>235</sup> GGCCAGCC deletion $\frac{(^{472}T \rightarrow C, ^{501}G \rightarrow A, ^{514}T \rightarrow A) *}{^{178}C \rightarrow T}$	Frameshift
Pa10	<sup>235</sup> GGCCAGCC deletion $\frac{(^{321}G \rightarrow A, ^{468}C \rightarrow T, ^{514}T \rightarrow A) *}{^{178}C \rightarrow T}$	$60$ Proline $\rightarrow$ Serine Frame shift
Pa12	<sup>235</sup> GGCCAGCC deletion $(^{372}T \rightarrow C, ^{393}T \rightarrow C, ^{514}T \rightarrow A)$ *	${}^{60}$ Proline $\rightarrow$ Serine Frameshift
Pa13	$235$ GGCCAGCC deletion $(^{252}\text{C}\rightarrow\text{T}, ^{427}\text{G}\rightarrow\text{A}, ^{514}\text{T}\rightarrow\text{A})^*$	Frameshift
Pa14	$178C \rightarrow T$ <sup>235</sup> GGCCAGCC deletion $\frac{(^{472}T \rightarrow C, ^{501}G \rightarrow A, ^{514}T \rightarrow A)^*}{^{178}C \rightarrow T}$	${}^{60}$ Proline $\rightarrow$ Serine Frame shift
Pa15	<sup>235</sup> GGCCAGCC deletion $\frac{(^{321}G \rightarrow A, ^{472}T \rightarrow C, ^{501}G \rightarrow A, ^{514}T \rightarrow A) *}{^{178}G \rightarrow T}$	$60$ Proline $\rightarrow$ Serine Frameshift
Pa16	<sup>235</sup> GGCCAGCC deletion $(^{278}T \rightarrow C, ^{321}G \rightarrow A, ^{468}C \rightarrow T, ^{514}T \rightarrow A)$ *	${}^{60}$ Proline $\rightarrow$ Serine Frameshift
Pa17	<sup>235</sup> GGCCAGCC deletion $\frac{(^{472}T \rightarrow C, ^{501}G \rightarrow A, ^{514}T \rightarrow A)^*}{^{197}G \rightarrow A}$	Frameshift
Pa18	<sup>235</sup> GGCCAGCC deletion $514$ T $\rightarrow$ A*	$66$ Arginine $\rightarrow$ Histidine Frame shift
Pa <sub>20</sub>	<sup>235</sup> GGCCAGCC deletion $(^{252}\text{C}\rightarrow\text{T}, ^{372}\text{T}\rightarrow\text{C}, ^{393}\text{T}\rightarrow\text{C}, ^{465}\text{C}\rightarrow\text{T},$ $5^{14}T \rightarrow A$ )*	Frameshift

**Table 4.12. Summary of mutations observed in** *mexT* **amplicons from** *P. aeruginosa* **clinical isolates**



*\*Due to change in the reading frame consequent to 8 bp deletion, changes in amino acids occurring past the frameshift mutation are not listed* 

## **Table 4.13. DNA sequences***\****of** *mexT* **gene from twenty four isolates of**  *P. aeruginosa*












*\*Non-synonymous mutations are highlighted in green and the 8 bp deletion in cyan colour* 

Further, the results of BLASTN analyses of all *mexT* amplicon sequences against the GenBank deposits of *P. aeruginosa* have been summarized in (Table 4.14). The sole exceptions were isolates Pa16 and Pa18, which displayed only 99% similarity with *P. aeruginosa* - GenBank accession nos. CP012901.1 (Mataseje et al., 2016) and CP025051.1 respectively. Pa16 showed a novel mutation -  $^{278}T\rightarrow C$ whilst Pa18 was found to harbour another mutation,  $^{197}$ G $\rightarrow$ A.

<b>Isolates</b>	GenBank accession nos. showing 100% similarity with	
	$mexT$ amplicon sequence	
Pa3, Pa8	CP026680.1, CP016955.1, CP008857.1	
Pa <sub>4</sub>	CP028584.1, CP017306.1, CP022002.1	
Pa5, Pa9, Pa17, Pa24, Pa28	CP008872.2, CP013113.1, AP014651.1	
Pa7, Pa26	CP022526.1, CP022525.1, CP017099.1, AP017302.1	
Pa10, Pa23	CP012901.1 (Mataseje et al., 2016)	
Pa <sub>12</sub>	CP028162.1, CP027166.1, CP027171.1	
Pa13, Pa21	CP008739.2 (Murugan et al. 2016)	
Pa14	CP015377.1	
Pa15, Pa29	CP015650.1, CP008869.2,	
	HG974234.1 (Wright et al., 2015)	
Pa20, Pa22	CP027172.1, CP021775.1, CP020704.1	
Pa25, Pa27	CP027174.1, CP027165.1, CP017293.1	

**Table 4.14. Summary of BLASTN analyses of** *mexT* **ampliconic sequences against the GenBank deposits of** *P. aeruginosa* 

The *mexT* sequences from 24 *P. aeruginosa* isolates along with a set of nine other similar sequences retrieved from the public database including reference *P. aeruginosa* strain, PAO1 (GenBank accession no. AE004091.2) were subjected to Bayesian phylogram construction (Fig. 4.19). The best fit model of nucleotide sequence evolution with respect to *mexT* gene based on AIC was found to be HKY+I+G. PSRF was observed to be 1.0 and the ESS value was above 100. Phylogenetic analysis was run for 1,000,000 generations and clade credibility values were found to be >0.5. *Pseudomonas citronellolis* (GenBank accession no. CP014158.1) was taken as out group. Sequences from Pa10, Pa16 and Pa23 were found to be similar to those isolates reported from North America (GenBank accession no. CP012901.1). Pa12, Pa20 and Pa22 exhibited similarity with those from Taiwan (GenBank accession no. CP004061.1), whilst Pa13 and Pa21 were related to isolates from Tamil Nadu (GenBank accession no. CP008739.2).



*Fig. 4.19. Bayesian phylogenetic tree reconstructed employing mexT ampliconic sequences from P.aeruginosa isolates. Scale bar denotes probability of nucleotide change. Analysis was run for 1,000,000 generations. Clade credibility values are shown at each node; P. citronellolis (GenBank accession no. CP014158.1) was used as the outgroup.*

### **4.4.8 Mutational variations and phylogenetic analysis of** *oprD* **gene**

To detect mutations in the *oprD* gene encoding porin channel protein, the 1500 bp amplicons derived from the 26 isolates exhibiting porin down regulation were sequenced (Fig. 4.20). DNA sequences and the corresponding amino acids encoded were then compared with the sequences of the reference strain PAO1 (GenBank accession no. AE004091.2). On the basis of mutational patterns of the *oprD* gene, the isolates were classified into several types such as A, B1- 2, C1-4, D1-6, E1-2 and F (Table 4.15 and 4.16). An alignment of the nucleotide and the aminoacid sequences of porin genes from the isolates (OprD types) with those of the reference strain PAO1 are given in Table 4.16, wherein the various mutations are highlighted in different colours as mentioned in the footnotes. Isolates - Pa2, Pa6, Pa15 and Pa18 grouped under OprD type-A were categorized as wild type, in which both the nucleotide and amino acid sequences were found to be identical with the reference strain. Types B1 and B2 bore full length amino acid sequences except a change due to single amino acid substitution. Pa9 categorized under B1 type was found to exhibit an amino acid substitution of valine  $\rightarrow$  leucine at 127<sup>th</sup> position (V127L) which showed resemblance to *P. aeruginosa* VRFPA06 isolate (GenBank accession no. ETD93478.1; Murugan et al., 2014). Pa29, a representative of B2 type, showed glycine  $\rightarrow$ aspartic acid substitution at 316<sup>th</sup> position (G<sub>316</sub>D); a similar mutation was detected in *P. aeruginosa* GenBank accession no. WP\_101516673.1. C1 - 4 OprD types displayed full length OprD amino acid sequences with several polymorphisms at the amino acid level. Pa4 isolate (C1 OprD type) carried 3 amino acid substitutions at 103, 115 and  $170<sup>th</sup>$  position by serine, threonine and leucine respectively (Ocampo-Sosa et al., 2012; Schiavano et al., 2017). Three isolates Pa12, Pa20 and Pa22 categorized as C2- type possessed amino acid alterations at 9 different locations of the OprD protein (Ocampo-Sosa et al., 2012; Kim et al., 2016). C3 and C4 types were found to harbour 11 substitutions with a variety of amino acids. Among these, C3 (Pa13) and C4 (Pa21) differed by amino acid changes at 2 positions – <sup>299</sup>glycine →serine (G<sub>299</sub>S) and <sup>396</sup>glutamic acid→ glycine (E<sub>396</sub>G) in Pa13; <sup>65</sup>tryptophan→arginine (W<sub>65</sub>R) substitution and <sup>205</sup>lysine→glutamine (K<sub>205</sub>O) in Pa21. D1-6, OprD types showed a wide range of amino acid substitutions along with nucleotide deletions and amino acid changes at 372 - 383 positions. This divergent sequence of 10 amino acid residues at 372<sup>nd</sup> (VDSSSS-YAGL-) to 383<sup>rd</sup> displayed by D types have been reported previously (Epp et al., 2001; Hammami et al., 2009; Rodríguez-Martínez et al., 2009; Ocampo-Sosa et al., 2012; Kao et al., 2016; Kim et al., 2016; Schiavano et al., 2017). Porin protein of D3 type exhibited similarities with several *P. aeruginosa* strains in the GenBank with accession nos. -ID4365 strain - KAJ07311.1 (Grosso-Becerra et al., 2014), HB15 strain - ESQ66005.1 (Soares-Castro et al., 2011) and VRFPA07 - ETD51009.1 (Murugan et al., 2014). OprD proteins of D5 type exhibited similarity to *P. aeruginosa* GenBank accession nos. KAJ11220.1 (Grosso-Becerra et al., 2014), KSC 28238.1 (Van Belkum et al., 2015) and AAS18314.2 (Edalucci et al., 2008). E1-2 types were found to exhibit several amino acid changes and presence of premature stop codons which resulted in truncated porin proteins. Pa25 isolate, representative of E1 type, carried a point mutation at the  $708^{\text{th}}$  nucleotide (T→G) position leading to formation of a premature stop codon, whilst premature termination was found to occur in Pa10 of E2 type by a point mutation at 1016 nucleotide position  $(G \rightarrow A)$ . The only isolate designated as F-type (Pa27) also displayed a premature stop codon.



*Fig. 4.20. Agarose gel (0.8%) showing oprD gene-specific amplicons from genomic-PCR of P. aeruginosa clinical isolates. Lane denoted M represents medium range DNA ruler. Other lanes show amplicons from representatives of P. aeruginosa isolates Pa7, Pa10, Pa12,Pa25 and Pa27. Yellow arrowhead indicates 1500 bp oprD amplicon.* 

OprD types	<b>Isolates</b>	<b>Classification of OprD</b> types	Alterations/mutations*	<b>Location of the</b> structural alterations**
$\mathbf{A}$	Pa2, Pa6, Pa15, Pa18	Wild type	None	None
B1	Pa <sub>9</sub>	Full length type with single amino acid substitution	$V_{127}L$	# $b/w''$ L2 and L3
B2	Pa <sub>29</sub>		G <sub>316</sub> D	L7
C1	Pa <sub>4</sub>	Full length type with several polymorphisms	$T_{103}S, K_{115}T, F_{170}L$	L2, $b/w L3$ and L4
C <sub>2</sub>	Pa12, Pa20, Pa <sub>22</sub>		$T_{103}S, K_{115}T, F_{170}L, E_{185}Q,$ $P_{186}G, V_{189}T, R_{310}E,$ $A_{315}G_{,}G_{425}A$	L2, $b/w$ L3 and L4, L4, L7, L9
C <sub>3</sub>	Pa13		$T_{103}S_{,}K_{115}T_{,}F_{170}L_{,}E_{185}Q_{,}$ $P_{186}G, V_{189}T, G_{299}S,$ $R_{310}E, A_{315}G, E_{396}G, G_{425}A$	L2, $b/w L3$ and L4, L4,L7, $b/w$ L8 and L9, L9
C <sub>4</sub>	Pa <sub>21</sub>		$W_{65}R_{,T_{103}S_{,K_{115}T_{,F_{170}L_{,T}}$ $E_{185}Q_{,}P_{186}G_{,}V_{189}T_{,}$ $K_{205}Q,R_{310}E,A_{315}G,G_{425}A$	$b/w L1$ and L2, L2, $b/w L3$ and $L4, L4$ , L7, L9
D1	Pa16	Several polymorphisms along with deletions and substitutions	$F_{26}L, V_{127}L, E_{185}Q, P_{186}G,$ $V_{189}T,E_{202}Q_{1210}A$ $E_{230}K$ , $S_{240}T$ , $N_{262}T$ , $T_{276}A$ , $A_{281}G_{,}K_{296}Q_{,}Q_{301}E_{,}$ $R_{310}E, G_{312}R, A_{315}G, L_{347}M,$ $S_{403}A_{,}Q_{424}E$ $372$ (VDSSSS -YAGL-) $383$	Prior to L1, b/w L2 and L3, L4, $b/w$ L4 and L5, L5, b/w L5 and $L6$ , $L6$ , $b/w L6$ and L7, L7, b/wL7and L8, $L8, b/w L8$ and $L9,$ L <sub>9</sub>
D <sub>2</sub>	Pa <sub>26</sub>		$S_{57}E$ , $S_{59}R$ , $W_{65}R$ , $V_{127}L$ , $E_{185}Q_{,}P_{186}G_{,}V_{189}T_{,}E_{202}Q_{,}$ $I_{210}A,E_{230}K,S_{240}T,N_{262}T,$ $A_{281}G_{1}K_{296}Q_{1}Q_{301}E_{2}$ $R_{310}E, A_{315}G, L_{347}M,$ $S_{403}A, W_{417}R, Q_{424}E$ $372$ (VDSSSS-YAGL-) $383$	L1, $b/w$ L1 and L2, $b/w L2$ and L3, L4, $b/w$ L4 and L5, L5, $b/w$ L5 and L6, L6, $b/w$ L6 and L7, L7, $b/w L7$ and L8, L8, $b/w$ L8 and L9, L9

**Table 4.15. Different OprD types detected among** *P. aeruginosa* **isolates**

D <sub>3</sub>	Pa7, Pa14, Pa17, Pa24, Pa <sub>28</sub>		$S_{57}E$ , $S_{59}R$ , $V_{127}L$ , $E_{185}Q$ , $P_{186}G, V_{189}T, E_{202}Q, I_{210}A,$ $E_{230}K$ , $S_{240}T$ , $N_{262}T$ , $T_{276}A$ , $A_{281}G_{,}K_{296}Q_{,}Q_{301}E_{,}$ $R_{310}E, A_{315}G, L_{347}M,$ $S_{403}A_{,}Q_{424}E$ $372$ (VDSSSS-YAGL-) $383$	L1, $b/w$ L2 and L3, L4, $b/w$ L4 and L5, L5, $b/w$ L5 and L6, L6, $b/w$ L6 and L7, L7, $b/w$ L7 and L8, L8, $b/w$ L8 and L9, L <sub>9</sub>
D <sub>4</sub>	Pa <sub>8</sub>		$V_{127}L, E_{185}Q, P_{186}G, V_{189}T,$ $E_{202}Q, I_{210}A, E_{230}K, S_{240}T,$ $N_{262}T_{1}T_{276}A_{281}G_{1}K_{296}Q_{2}$ $Q_{301}E, R_{310}E, G_{312}R, A_{315}G,$ $W_{339}R$ , L <sub>347</sub> M, S <sub>403</sub> A, Q <sub>424</sub> E $_{372}$ (VDSSSS-YAGL-) $_{383}$	$b/w$ L2 and L3, L4, $b/w$ L4 and L5, L5, $b/w L5$ and L6, L6, $b/w$ L6 and L7, L7, $b/w L7$ and L8, L8, $b/w$ L8 and L9, L9
D <sub>5</sub>	Pa5, Pa <sub>23</sub>		$V_{127}L, E_{185}Q, P_{186}G, V_{189}T,$ $E_{202}Q, I_{210}A, E_{230}K, S_{240}T,$ $N_{262}T$ , $T_{276}A$ , $A_{281}G$ , $K_{296}Q$ , $Q_{301}E$ , $R_{310}E$ , $G_{312}R$ , $A_{315}G$ , $L_{347}M$ , $S_{403}A$ , $Q_{424}E$ $_{372}$ (VDSSSS-YAGL-) $_{383}$	$b/w$ L2 and L3, L4, $b/w$ L4 and L5, L5, $b/w L5$ and L6, L6, $b/w$ L6 and L7, L7, b/w L7 and L8, L8, $b/w$ L8 and L9, L9
D <sub>6</sub>	Pa <sub>3</sub>		$V_{127}L, E_{185}Q, P_{186}G, V_{189}T, E_{202}$ $Q, I_{210}A, E_{230}K, S_{240}T, N_{262}T,$ $T_{276}A, A_{281}G, K_{296}Q, Q_{301}E,$ $G_{312}R, A_{315}G, L_{347}M, S_{403}A,$ $Q_{424}E$ 372(VDSSSS-YAGL-)383	$b/w$ L2 and L3, L4, $b/w$ L4 and L5, L5, $b/w L5$ and L6, L6, $b/w$ L6 and L7, L7, $b/w L7$ and L8, L8, $b/w$ L8 and L9, L9
E1	Pa <sub>25</sub>	Several polymorphisms and premature stop codon	$D_{43}N$ , $S_{57}E$ , $S_{59}R$ , $E_{202}Q$ , $I_{210}A$ , $E_{230}K$ $TAT708 \rightarrow TAG$ (stop codon)	Prior to $L1,L4$ , $b/w$ L4 and L5, L5 Truncated porin
E2	Pa10		$V_{127}L, E_{185}Q, P_{186}G, V_{189}T,$ $E_{202}Q, I_{210}A, E_{230}K, S_{240}T,$ $N_{262}T$ , $T_{276}A$ , $A_{281}G$ , $K_{296}Q$ , $Q_{301}E,R_{310}E,G_{312}R,A_{315}G$ $T\underline{G}_{1016}G \rightarrow T\underline{A}G(\text{stop codon})$	$b/w$ L2 and L3, L4, $b/w$ L4 and L5, L5, $b/w$ L5 and L6, L6, $b/w$ L6 and L7, L7 Truncated porin
$\mathbf{F}$	Pa <sub>27</sub>	Premature stop codon	$_{511}GAA \rightarrow TAA$ (stop codon)	Truncated porin

*<sup>\*</sup> Mutational alterations are denoted by single letter codes of amino acids with subscript number denoting its position in protein – the first represents the original while the second letter following the subscripted number denotes the altered one (G- Glycine, A –Alanine, L- Leucine, M- Methionine, F-Phenylalanine, W- Tryptophan, K- Lysine, Q- Glutamine, E -Glutamic Acid, S-Serine, P- Proline, V-Valine, I-Isoleucine, Y –Tyrosine, R- Arginine, N- Asparagine, D- Aspartic Acid, T –Threonine).* 

*<sup>\*\*</sup> Loop regions (L) in the porin protein structure have been denoted according to Kos et al., 2016.* 

**<sup>#</sup>** *b/w is used here as an abbreviation for 'between'.* 

**Table 4.16. DNA and amino acid sequences***\** **of** *P. aeruginosa* **OprD types aligned with that of the reference strain -** *P. aeruginosa* **PAO1** 











 $\mathbf{I}$ 





# **C2- OprD type**









**T** 



**PAO1 421** ATGCAACCGACCGCCCCGGTCTTCGCCGCTGGCGGCAGCCGCCTGTTCCCGCAGACCGCG **480**















 $\mathbf{r}$ 



**PAO1 361** AGCCGCGCCGGCGGCGCCGTGAAGGTGCGCATCTCCAAGACCATGCTGAAGTGGGGCGAG **420**





#### **D6- OprD type**

**Nucleotide sequence**

## **D6 1** ATGAAAGTGATGAAGTGGAGCGCCATTGCACTGGCGGTTTCCGCAGGTAGCACTCAGTTC **60 PAO1 1** ATGAAAGTGATGAAGTGGAGCGCCATTGCACTGGCGGTTTCCGCAGGTAGCACTCAGTTC **60 D6 61** GCCGTGGCCGACGCATTCGTCAGCGATCAGGCCGAAGCGAAGGGGTTCATCGAAGACAGC **120 PAO1 61** GCCGTGGCCGACGCATTCGTCAGCGATCAGGCCGAAGCGAAGGGGTTCATCGAAGACAGC **120 D6 121** AGCCTCGACCTGCTGCTCCGCAACTACTATTTCAACCGTGACGGCAAGAGCGGCAGCGGG **180 PAO1 121** AGCCTCGACCTGCTGCTCCGCAACTACTATTTCAACCGTGACGGCAAGAGCGGCAGCGGG **180 D6 181** GACCGCGTCGACTGGACCCAAGGCTTCCTCACCACCTATGAATCCGGCTTCACCCAAGGC **240 PAO1 181** GACCGCGTCGACTGGACCCAAGGCTTCCTCACCACCTATGAATCCGGCTTCACCCAAGGC **240 D6 241** ACCGTGGGCTTCGGCGTCGATGCCTTCGGCTACCTCGGCCTGAAGCTCGACGGCACCTCG **300 PAO1 241** ACTGTGGGCTTCGGCGTCGATGCCTTCGGCTACCTGGGCCTGAAGCTCGACGGCACCTCC **300 D6 301** GACAAGACCGGCACCGGCAACCTGCCGGTGATGAACGACGGCAAGCCGCGCGACGACTAC **360 PAO1 301** GACAAGACCGGCACCGGCAACCTGCCGGTGATGAACGACGGCAAGCCGCGCGATGACTAC **360 D6 361** AGCCGCGCTGGCGGCGCCCTGAAGGTGCGCATTTCCAAGACCATGCTGAAGTGGGGCGAA **420 PAO1 361** AGCCGCGCCGGCGGCGCCGTGAAGGTGCGCATCTCCAAGACCATGCTGAAGTGGGGCGAG **420 D6 421** ATGCAACCTACCGCGCGGTCTTCGCCGCCGGCGGCAGCCGCCTGTTCCCGCAGACCGCG 480 **PAO1 421** ATGCAACCGACCGCCCCGGTCTTCGCCGCTGGCGGCAGCCGCCTGTTCCCGCAGACCGCG **480 D6 481** ACCGGCTTCCAACTGCAGAGCAGTGAATTCGAAGGGCTCGATCTCGAAGCGCCACTTC 540 **PAO1 481** ACCGGCTTCCAGCTGCAGAGCAGCGAATTCGAAGGGCTCGACCTCGAGGCAGGCCACTTC **540 D6 541** ACCGAAGGCAAGCAGGGCACCACCACCAAGTCGCGCGGCGAACTCTACGCAACCTATGCA **600 PAO1 541** ACCGAGGGCAAGGAGCCGACCACCGTCAAATCGCGTGGCGAACTCTATGCCACCTACGCA **600 D6 601** GGTCAGACCGCCAAGAGCGCGGACTTCGCCGGCGGCCGCTACGCGATCACCGACAATCTC **660 PAO1 601** GGCGAGACCGCCAAGAGCGCCGATTTCATTGGGGGCCGCTACGCAATCACCGATAACCTC **660 D6 661** AGCGCCTCCCTGTATGGCGCCGAATTGAAAGACATCTATCGCCAGTATTACCTGAACACC **720 PAO1 661** AGCGCCTCCCTGTACGGCGCCGAACTCGAAGACATCTATCGCCAGTATTACCTGAACAGC **720 D6 721** AACTACACCATCCCGCTGGCATCCGACCAGTCGCTGGGCTTCGACTTCAACATCTACCGC **780 PAO1 721** AACTACACCATCCCACTGGCATCCGACCAATCGCTGGGCTTCGATTTCAACATCTACCGC **780 D6 781** ACCACCGATGAAGGCAAAGCCAAGGCCGGCGACATCAGCAACACCGCCTGGTCCCTGGCC **840 PAO1 781** ACAAACGATGAAGGCAAGGCCAAGGCCGGCGACATCAGCAACACCACTTGGTCCCTGGC− **839 D6 841** GGC−GCGTACACCCTGGACGCGCACACCTTCACCCTGGCCTACCAGCAGGTGCATGGCGA **899 PAO1 840** GGCAGCCTACACTCTGGATGCGCACACTTTCACCTTGGCCTACCAGAAGGTCCATGGCGA **899 D6 900** CGAGCCGTTCGACTACATCGGCTTCGGCCGCAACCGTTCCGGCGGCGGCGGTGACTCGAT **959 PAO1 900** TCAGCCGTTTGATTATATCGGCTTCGGCCGCAACGGCTCTGGCGCAGGTGGCGACTCGAT **959 D6 960** TTTCCTCGCCAACTCCGTGCAGTACTCCGACTTCAACGGCCCGGGCGAGAAATCCTGGCA **1019 PAO1 960** TTTCCTCGCCAACTCTGTCCAGTACTCCGACTTCAACGGCCCTGGCGAGAAATCCTGGCA **1019**











 $\mathbf{r}$ 



*\* Point mutations are highlighted in magenta, deletions in cyan, insertions in silver and amino acid changes in green colour. Nucleotide sequences highlighted in yellow denote additional point mutations (silent) shown by individual isolates Pa20 and Pa22 (C2- oprD type), Pa14 (D3- OprD type) and Pa23 (D5-OprD type). Nucleotide sequences highlighted in olive denote additional point mutations (silent) shown by individual isolates Pa12 (C2 oprD type) and Pa17,Pa14, Pa24, Pa28 (D3- OprD type). Nucleotide sequence in black denotes additional point mutation (silent) shown by Pa7 (D3-OprD type) and in blue by*  *Pa14, Pa24 and Pa28 (D3-OprD type). Nucleotide sequences highlighted in red colour denote premature stop codons.*

*\*\*The loop regions as determined by the crystal structure of the porin protein have been superimposed as a blue coloured line over the amino acid sequences in A-OprD type ( Kos et al., 2016).*

Sequences of *oprD* gene derived from amplicons of 26 isolates with down regulated porins were subjected to Bayesian phylogenetic analysis along with a select group of nine closely related sequences of *P. aeruginosa* isolates deposited in the NCBI database including the reference strain *P. aeruginosa* strain, PAO1 (GenBank accession no. AE004091.2). *P. citronellosi* ( GenBank accession no. CP014158.1) was taken as the outgroup for the purpose. The sequences were chosen based on geographical location of microbial collection, highest query coverage and minimum 'E' values which were then subjected to BLASTN analysis with the sequences from PCR amplicons obtained in this study. The best fit model of sequence evolution based on AIC was detected as GTR+I+G. PSRF value was observed to be 1.0 and the ESS was above 100. Analysis was run for 3,000,000 generations and clade credibility values shown at each node were found to be  $>0.5$ . Phylogenetic analysis (Fig. 4.21) revealed that isolates categorized as A-OprD type identical to wild type such as Pa2, Pa6, Pa15 and Pa18 along with Pa29 of B2-OprD type with single amino acid change were found to exhibit similarity with PAO1 reference strain and with another strain reported from France (GenBank accession no. LT673656.1). OprD types with several polymorphisms, Pa4 (C1 type) showed similarity with the isolate from Brazil (GenBank accession no. CP021380.1), Pa13 (C3 type) and Pa21 (C4 type) similar to that from Taiwan (GenBank accession no. CP004061.1) whilst Pa20 and Pa22 (C2 type) bore similarity to those from Singapore (GenBank accession no. CP020704.1). Pa23 which belonged to D5- OprD type displayed several polymorphisms and sequence divergence between amino acid position 372 (VDSSSS-YAGL-) to 383 was found to be similar to the *P.aeruginosa* isolate from North America (GenBank accession no. CP012901.1); Pa25 isolate (E1 type) with truncated porin protein displayed similarity with those isolated from Malaysia (GenBank accession no. CP007147.1).



*Fig. 4.21. Bayesian phylogenetic tree reconstructed from employing oprD ampliconic sequences from P.aeruginosa isolates. Scale bar denotes probability of nucleotide change. Analysis was run for 3,000,000 generations. Clade credibility values are shown at each node. P. citronellolis (GenBank accession no. CP014158.1) was used as the outgroup.*

### **4.4.9 Molecular modelling of OprD protein**

The outer membrane porin protein OprD of *P.aeruginosa,* which facilitates the uptake of carbapenem antibiotics, consists of 443 amino acids. Crystal structure of the protein revealed the presence of a monomeric 18-strand transmembrane betabarrel comprising 9 loops. The protein is thought to assemble into a trimeric form due to the occurrence of two shorter beta-strands S5 and S6 (Biswas et al., 2007). Using a homology modelling approach, 3D models of the OprD were built and validated (Figs. 4.22-4.26) deploying the bioinformatics tools mentioned in section 3.15 (Materials and Methods). The mutation-induced structural variations in four selected mutants Pa12, Pa7, Pa25 and Pa27 of different OprD types were compared with the wild type OprD of the reference strain PAO1(Figs. 4.27-4.30). Pa12 represented C2-OprD type mutants harbouring several amino acid polymorphisms whilst Pa7 symbolized mutants displaying typical deletions-substitutions such as  $372(VDSSSS - YAGL-)383$  [Table 4.15 and 4.16] in addition to amino acid polymorphisms. The remaining two Pa25 and Pa27 were illustrative of mutants bearing protein truncations at different regions. For comparative modelling the crystal structure of A-chain of OprD (PDB ID: 4FOZ) was identified as the best template. The query coverage with target was 94% and the E value was 0.0. Identity and similarity percentage was 99% each and the alignment score was found to be 852. Mutations in the modelled proteins of Pa12 were confined to L2, b/w L3 and L4, L4, L7 loops and those of Pa7 were located in L1, b/w L2 and L3, L4, b/w L4 and L5, L5, b/w L5 and L6, L6, b/w L6 and L7, L7, b/w L7 and L8, L8, b/w L8 and L9, L9 loops (Kos et al., 2016). Structurally the modelled mutant proteins of Pa12 and Pa7, however, cannot be visually differentiated from that of the wild type, PAO1. The structure of the truncated mutant proteins from Pa25and Pa27 is strikingly conspicuous and discernible visually due the loss of substantial portions of the polypeptide.



### *Fig. 4.22. Refinement and validation of modelled OprD (reference-P. aeruginosa PAO1).*

*a) Stereo chemical validation by Ramachandran plot indicted that 90.4% residues are in most favoured region (A, B, L) and 8.2% residues are in additional allowed region [a, b, l, p]. b) Energy minimization of the modelled protein was refined and validated by ANOLEA, QMEAN, GROMOS and secondary structure by DSSP. c) Energy Features of the final model.*


*Fig. 4.23. Refinement and validation of modelled OprD (P. aeruginosa mutant-Pa12).*

*a)Stereo chemical validation by Ramachandran plot indicted that 90.4% residues are in most favoured region (A, B, L) and 8.8% residues are in additional allowed region [a, b, l, p]. b) Energy minimization of the modelled protein was refined and validated by ANOLEA, QMEAN, GROMOS and secondary structure by DSSP. c) Energy Features of the final model.*



## *Fig. 4.24. Refinement and validation of modelled OprD (P. aeruginosa mutant-Pa7).*

*a) Stereo chemical validation by Ramachandran plot indicted that 90.6% residues are in most favoured region (A, B, L) and 7.5% residues are in additional allowed region [a, b, l, p]. b) Energy minimization of the modelled protein was refined and validated by ANOLEA, QMEAN, GROMOS and secondary structure by DSSP. c) Energy Features of the final model.*



*Fig. 4.25. Refinement and validation of modelled OprD (P. aeruginosa mutant-Pa25).* 

*a) Stereo chemical validation by Ramachandran plot indicted that 92.9% residues are in most favoured region (A, B, L) and 4.6% residues are in additional allowed region [a, b, l, p]. b) Energy minimization of the modelled protein was refined and validated by ANOLEA, QMEAN, GROMOS and secondary structure by DSSP. c) Energy Features of the final model.*



# *Fig. 4.26. Refinement and validation of modelled OprD (P. aeruginosa mutant-Pa27).*

*a) Stereo chemical validation by Ramachandran plot indicted that 91.5% residues are in most favoured region (A, B, L) and 6.4% residues are in additional allowed region [a, b, l, p]. b) Energy minimization of the modelled protein was refined and validated by ANOLEA, QMEAN, GROMOS and secondary structure by DSSP. c) Energy Features of the final model.*



*Fig. 4.27. 3D model of porin OprD of P. aeruginosa PAO1 wild type strain (reference)and four mutants, Pa12, Pa7, Pa25 and Pa27. Pa12 mutant harbours several amino acid polymorphisms; Pa7 displays the typical 372(VDSSSS-YAGL-)383 amino acid deletions-substitutions in addition to amino acid polymorphisms; Pa25 mutant truncated protein along with several amino acid changes; Pa27 mutant truncated protein.* 





*Fig. 4.28. Enlarged view of the molecular model of Pa12 OprD protein. a) Side view; b) Top view- looking through the channel. Mutations are depicted in red colour, labeled with capitalized three-letter amino acid codes and their position (SER-Serine, THR-Threonine, LEU-Leucine, GLN-Glutamine, GLY-Glycine, GLU-Glutamic acid and ALA-Alanine).*





*Fig. 4.29. Enlarged view of the molecular model of Pa7 OprD protein. . a) Side view of OprD; b) Top view- looking through the channel. Mutations are depicted in red colour, labeled with capitalized three-letter amino acid codes and their position (ARG-Arginine, GLU-Glutamic acid, ALA-Alanine, GLN-Glutamine, THR-Threonine, GLY-Glycine, LEU-Leucine, LYS-Lysine and MET-Methionine).*





*Fig. 4.30. Enlarged view of the molecular model of Pa25 truncated OprD protein. (a) and (b) represent two different views. Mutations are depicted in red colour, labeled with capitalized three-letter amino acid codes and their position (ASN-Asparagine, GLU-Glutamic acid, ARG-Arginine, GLN-Glutamine, ALA-Alanine and LYS-Lysine).*

### **4.4.10 Restriction mapping of** *oprD* **gene**

The amplicons of *oprD* genes obtained from the mutants were found to be about 1500 bp (section 4.4.8, Fig. 4.20) in size as expected. The gene length for reference strain PAO1 has been reported as 1332 bp (Winsor et al., 2016). In an attempt to further characterize the DNA fragment, the *oprD* sequence of the reference PAO1 strain retrieved from GenBank and the mutant sequences obtained in the study were together subjected to a scan with the NEB cutter V2.0 (Vincze et al., 2003) to detect the presence of restriction sites therein. Reproducible restriction patterns were obtained with restriction endonucleases, *Hinc* II, *Pst* I and *Pvu* II. With respect to the wild type porin gene of PAO1, *Hinc* II enzyme was found to restrict the cognate sequence  $5'GT(C/T)$ .  $(A/G)AC3'$  at  $189<sup>th</sup>$  and  $1308<sup>th</sup>$  position whilst *Pst* I restricted the sequence 5'CTGCA<sub>⊥</sub>G3' at 497<sup>th</sup> position and *Pvu* II at 492<sup>nd</sup> position of the recognition sequence 5'CAG↓CTG3'. The restriction profiles are shown in Figs 4.31-4.33 and the details of the restriction analysis are given in Table 4.17.



*Fig. 4.31. Restriction profile of oprD amplicons from P. aeruginosa reference strain - MTCC-PAO and clinical isolates digested with HinC II.*



*Fig. 4.32. Restriction profile of oprD amplicons from P. aeruginosa reference strain - MTCC-PAO and clinical isolates digested with Pst I.*



*Fig. 4.33. Restriction profile of oprD amplicons from P. aeruginosa reference strain - MTCC-PAO and clinical isolates digested with Pvu II.*

<b>Isolates</b>	$\mathop{\text{Hin}}\nolimits$ $\mathop{\text{II}}$		PstI		$Pvu$ II	
of OprD types	<b>Bands</b> (bp)	<b>Specified</b> mutations	<b>Bands</b> (bp)	Specified mutations	<b>Bands</b> (bp)	<b>Specified</b> mutations
A-Pa2	1500, 1185, >1000,400		1000, 700		1000,700	
A-Pa6	1185, >1000,400		1500,1000 700		1500, 1000,700	
A-Pa15	1500, 1185, >1000, 500, 400		1000,700		1000,700,500	
A-Pa18	1500, 1185, 400	$\overline{\phantom{a}}$	1000,700	$\overline{\phantom{a}}$	1000,700,500	
B1-Pa9	1500,1185,400		1000,700		1500	$492^{\frac{4}{7}}$
<b>B2-Pa29</b>	1500		1000,700		1500,1000, 700	
$C1-Pa4$	1500, 1185, 400		1000,700		1000,700	
$C2-Pa12$	1500, 1185, >1000,400		1000,700		1500	$492^{\#}$
$C2-Pa20$	1500		1500	$\overline{\phantom{0}}$	1500	$492^{\frac{1}{2}}$
$C2-Pa22$	1500, 1185, >1000,400		1000,700		1500	$492^{\#}$
$C3-Pa13$	1500, 1185, >1000,400		1500	$493^{\#}$	1500	$492^{\#}$
$C4-Pa21$	1500, 1185, >1000, 500, 400		1500	$493^{\#}$	1500	$492^{\#}$
$D1-Pa16$	1500, >1185, 1185, >1000,900 500,400	$(\Delta T \text{ at }$ $1118)*$	1000,700, 500		1500,500	$492^{\#}$
$D2-Pa26$	1500	$192^{\frac{\mu}{2}}$ $(\Delta T \text{ at }$ $1118$ <sup>*</sup>	1000,700		1500	$492^{\#}$
D3-Pa7	$1500 \ge 1185$	$192^{\frac{\pi}{2}}$ $(\Delta T \text{ at }$ $1118)*$	1000,700		1500,500	$492^{\frac{4}{3}}$
$D3-Pa14$	1500, > 1185, 1185,400	$192^{\frac{\mu}{2}}$ $(\Delta T \text{ at }$ $1118$ <sup>*</sup>	1000,700		1500	$492^{\#}$
$D3-Pa17$	1185	$192^{\frac{\pi}{2}}$ $(\Delta T \text{ at }$ $1118)*$	1000,700		1500,700	$492^{\#}$
D3-Pa24	1500, > 1185,700, 400,200	$192^{\frac{\mu}{7}}$ $(\Delta T \text{ at }$ $1118)*$	1000,700		1500,700	$492^{\#}$
$D3-Pa28$	1500, > 1185	$192^{\frac{\mu}{7}}$ $(\Delta T)$ $at1118)*$	1000,700		1500	$492^{\#}$
D <sub>4</sub> -Pa <sub>8</sub>	1500,1185	$(\Delta T \text{ at }$ $1118)*$	1000,700		1500	$492^{\#}$
D5-Pa5	1500, > 1185,	$(\Delta T \text{ at }$	1000,700		1500	$492^{\#}$

**Table. 4.17 Details of restriction analysis of** *oprD* **amplicons from** *P. aeruginosa* **clinical isolates employing restriction endonucleases –** *Hinc***II,** *Pst* **I and** *Pvu* **II**

	1185,400	$1118$ <sup>*</sup>				
$D5-Pa23$	1500, >1185, 1185, >1000,900 400,300	$(\Delta T \text{ at }$ $1118)*$	1000,700		1500	$492^{\#}$
$D6-Pa3$	1500, 1185,500	$(\Delta T \text{ at }$ $1118)*$	1000,700	-	1500	$492^{\#}$
$E1-Pa25$	1500,500	$192^{#}$	1000,700		1000,700	
$E2-Pa10$	ND	$(\Delta T \text{ at }$ $1118)*$	<b>ND</b>	-	1500	$492^{\#}$
$F-Pa27$	1500, 1185, 500, 4 00		1000,700	-	1000,700	

*# Denotes Restriction Fragment Length Polymorphism ( RFLP) generated at the specified positions due to mutations resulting in loss of restriction site; \* denotes RFLP generated at the specified position due to mutations resulting in the creation of a restriction site; ND - restriction fragments were not detected in Pa10 due to extremely low, undetectable quantities of DNA; '-' represents no mutations.*

The loss and gain of restriction sites were clearly evident with respect to the three selected enzymes in the majority of the isolated mutants. In other words, the results demonstrated that the *oprD* amplicons from the clinical isolates exhibited Restriction Fragment Length Polymorphism (RFLP) and this could be used as a tool for detecting *P. aeruginosa* porin mutants. Since the oprD gene plays a key role in antibiotic resistance, the discovery of this RFLP in this study can be exploited to characterize clinical isolates without taking recourse to DNA sequencing.

#### **CONCLUSIONS**

The present study has enabled a better assessment and understanding of the status of drug resistance in clinical isolates of MDR gram-negative bacteria in the State of Kerala. Bacteria can attain antibiotic resistance through intrinsic or acquired mechanisms. Intrinsic resistance can be a result of impaired permeability of the bacterial envelope, efficient efflux pump systems, the absence or presence of low affinity antimicrobial target or the presence of enzymes which inhibit or destroy the antibiotics. Acquired resistance can either be a consequence of *de novo* mutations or may arise by horizontal gene transfer. A synergetic interplay between reduced uptake due to low permeability of outer membrane and active drug export through efflux pump activity limits the intracellular access of antibiotics in gramnegative bacteria which results in the development of MDR phenotype. Hence, the focus of this doctoral research was to gain deeper molecular insights into the regulation and expression of efflux pump and porin-related genes in clinical isolates of MDR *P. aeruginosa*. This study showcases the genotypic variations prevalent among the nosocomial pathogenic population of *P. aeruginosa* collected during the 2012-2016. The highlights of this research work have been summarized below:

- A total of 144 MDR gram-negative bacterial isolates collected from various clinical laboratories in Kerala were included in this study, which were found to represent four genera comprising of *Klebsiella* spp*.* (n=50), *E. coli* (n=46), *P. aeruginosa* (n=33) and *Acinetobacter* spp. (n=15).
- All 144 isolates were analysed for their resistance against pre-determined batteries of antibiotics. All strains were found to be ampicillin-resistant. Of these, *E. coli* strains also exhibited complete resistance to CTX, CAZ and CIP. Relatively low resistance was exhibited by *Klebsiella* spp. and *E. coli* against antibiotic C which was found to be 52% and 22% respectively. Notably, all *P. aeruginosa* isolates showed resistance against NA with only 48% of them being PB-resistant. All the 15 *Acinetobacter* spp. were also

found to display resistance against AT, CTX, CPM, CIP, PIT, TE and CL. The percentage of isolates resistant to all tested antibiotics, that is with a MAR index value of 1.0, was found to be 37% (n=17) of *Klebsiella* spp., 9% (n=4) of *E. coli,* 24% (n=8) of *P. aeruginosa* and 53% (n=8) of *Acinetobacter* spp.

- A preliminary screening of efflux pump-mediated drug-resistance using EtBr-agar cartwheel method revealed efflux activity in 21.5% (n=31, out of 144) of the isolates. Incidentally, on the basis of a thorough literature scan, this is the first report from the State of Kerala on efflux pump-mediated drug-resistance among MDR gram-negative bacteria. Of these, *P. aeruginosa* isolates showed much higher efflux pump activity in comparison to isolates from other genera. Among the 33 *P. aeruginosa* from a total of 144 isolates, as many as 17 effectively effluxed the fluorochrome dye (EtBr). Of the 31 isolates identified with efflux pump activity by the EtBr-agar cartwheel procedure, only 19 were confirmed to possess efflux pumps using an EPI-based microplate assay employing selected antibiotics against which resistance was observed. Of these, 7 isolates displayed efflux pump activity against more than one antibiotic. Further, efflux pumpmediated drug-resistance was found to be most prevalent in *P. aeruginosa* (27.3%, n=9), followed by that in *E. coli* (17.4%, n=8), *Acinetobacter* spp. (6.7%, n=1) and *Klebsiella* spp. (2%, n=1).
- All further investigations including phenotypic detection of various betalactamases, RAPD analysis, efflux pump and porin related gene expression/mutation studies were focused on 29\* MDR *P. aeruginosa* designated as Pa1-Pa29 ( \* 4 out of 33 isolates failed to revive)
- Beta-lactamases such as AmpC, ESBL and MBL positive *P. aeruginosa* isolates amounted to  $31.0\%$  (n=9),  $13.8\%$  (n=4) and  $44.8\%$  (n=13) respectively; 27.6% (n=8) were co-producers of AmpC and MBL with only a single isolate co-producing ESBL and MBL. About 41.4  $\%$  (n=12) of the

isolates were found lacking in the expression of any of the three enzymes tested.

- The dendrogram generated from RAPD profile of *P. aeruginosa* showed two major clusters - *A* and *B*, in which major cluster *A* was subdivided into *A1* and *A2* sub-clusters. Majority of the isolates expressing efflux pump activity phenotypically were found to be included in the sub-cluster *A1*. Isolates Pa15, Pa16, Pa20, Pa23, Pa24 and Pa25 possessing MAR index 1.0 fell under sub-cluster *A2*.
- Gene expression analysis of MDR *P. aeruginosa* in comparison to that of reference strain *P. aeruginosa* MTCC-PAO revealed that 10.3% (n=3), 20.7% (n= 6) and 10.3% (n=3) of isolates displayed increased transcription of efflux pump genes - mexB  $(\sim 5{\text -}11 \text{ folds})$ ,  $mexY$   $(\sim 4{\text -}26 \text{ folds})$  and  $mexD$ (~4-14 folds) respectively. Simultaneous expression of MexB and MexY was observed in Pa16 whilst Pa6 and Pa13 simultaneously expressed *mexB*, *mexY* and *mexD.* Expression of efflux pump gene - *mexF* in all of the 29 isolates was comparatively far lower than that obtained for the reference strain. The porin gene- *oprD* remained downregulated in 89.7% (n=26) of the isolates in comparison to the transcript levels of the reference strain.
- All isolates hyperexpressing Mex efflux pump systems were found to be devoid of ESBL production. AmpC and MBL production were observed in Mex efflux pump overproducing isolates Pa7, Pa13, Pa16, Pa25, and Pa29. Pa6 (coproducer of MexB, MexY and MexD) and Pa5 (MexY overproducer) were devoid of beta-lactamase enzymes such as AmpC and MBL. Strikingly, two isolates Pa1 and Pa2 in which efflux pump activity was confirmed by phenotypic EPI-based microplate assay tested negative for the presence of efflux pump related transcripts. This suggested that the efflux pumps other than the ones tested were operational. Alternatively, this could be due to the triggering of MexAB-OprM efflux pump under the experimental condition of antibiotic-induced oxidative stress. All the 26 porin down regulators were found to possess a MAR index of 1.0 or less.

Among them, seven isolates were found to show efflux pump activity, but only three, Pa7 (MexD overproducer), Pa16 (co-producer of both MexB and MexY) and Pa25 (MexY overproducer) showed a MAR index of 1.0. Of the porin down regulators, Pa20, Pa24 and Pa26 failed to express both betalactamase and efflux pump activity but still had a MAR index of 1.0. Notably, in Pa1, Pa11 and Pa19 where porin expression levels were found comparable to that of the reference strain, displayed a MAR index less than 1.0. As expected, these isolates are apparently equipped with other drug resistance mechanisms which needs further probing.

 MexAB overproducers Pa13 and Pa16 were found to harbour mutations in their repressor genes - *mexR*, *nalC* and *nalD*. Both transitional and transversional point mutations, either silent or leading to changes in amino acid substitutions were observed in *mexR* and *nalC* of Pa13 and Pa16 and in *nalD* of Pa16. The *nalD* of Pa13 displayed only silent mutations, whilst Pa6 was conspicuous by the absence of mutations of either type. The *mexR* of Pa16 isolate was found to harbour novel point mutations,  $\frac{7}{1}$ proline→leucine substitution, 143proline→threonine substitution and a substitution of an *ochre*  codon with that for serine. The gene also displayed a novel mutation involving insertion of a cysteine at the  $444<sup>th</sup>$  base position, followed by an *opal* codon. The *nalD* of Pa16 was found to harbour a mutation at 153rd amino acid position (leucine→glutamine). Phylogenetic analysis of *mexR*, *nalC* and *nalD* concatenated sequence revealed that the sequence from Pa13 strain showed genetic similarity with those reported from Tamil Nadu (India) and Taiwan. Interestingly, the concatenated sequence of Pa16 isolate showed similarity with the sequence of *P.aeruginosa* first reported with *bla*NDM-1 in North America (GenBank accession no. CP012901.1) isolated from an elderly Canadian patient who was directly transferred to Calgary hospital, Alberta, Canada, following a prolonged hospital stay in New Delhi, India. High mobility of people thus provides ample scope for widespread dissemination of drug-resistant microbes with extensive phylogenetic divergence.

- Sequences obtained from the *mexZ* gene amplicons of MexXY overproducers showed a variety of silent/point mutations. Point mutations in  $mexZ$  gene of two isolates, Pa16 (<sup>2</sup>alanine→threonine) and Pa29  $($ <sup>52</sup>tyrosine  $\rightarrow$  cysteine) which might be responsible for upregulation of MexXY.
- DNA sequences obtained from *nfxB* gene amplicons of three MexCD-OprJ overproducers Pa6, Pa7 and Pa13 showed various synonymous and nonsynonymous mutations. Mutation analysis revealed  $^{80}$ leucine  $\rightarrow$  serine substitution in Pa6,  $^{117}$ serine→proline substitution in Pa7 and <sup>5</sup>serine→ phenylalanine substitution in Pa13. Notably, mutations in Pa6 and Pa7 isolates have been found to be novel and have not yet been reported in GenBank data base. Phylogenetic analysis revealed that the sequence from Pa6 showed similarity with isolates from Taiwan, Mexico and Brazil. Pa13 isolate displayed similarity with that reported from Tamil Nadu whilst Pa7 was found to be similar to *P.aeruginosa* sequences deposited from North America.
- Occurrence of an 8-bp deletion (GGCCAGCC) at nucleotide position 235 within a 14-bp direct repeat was found in all 24 out of 26 porin down regulators except in Pa2 and Pa6 and the reference strain MTCC- PAO. Phylogram constructed using 24 isolates tested in this study along with those retrieved from public data base showed genetic relatedness. Pa10, Pa16 and Pa23 were found to be similar to those isolates reported from North America. Pa12, Pa20 and Pa22 exhibited similarity with those from Taiwan and Pa13 and Pa21 were related to isolates from Tamil Nadu.
- On the basis of mutational patterns of the *oprD* gene, all 26 isolates displaying porin down regulation were classified into several types such as A, B1- 2, C1-4, D1-6, E1-2 and F. Isolates - Pa2, Pa6, Pa15 and Pa18 grouped under OprD type-A were found to be identical with the reference strain PAO1. Types B1 and B2 bore full length amino acid sequences except a change due to single amino acid substitution. C1 - 4 OprD types

showed full length OprD amino acid sequences with several polymorphisms at the amino acid level. Isolates of D1-6, OprD types showed a wide range of aminoacid substitutions along with nucleotide deletions and amino acid changes at  $372 - 383$  positions  $[372<sup>nd</sup> (VDSSSS-YAGL-)$  to  $383<sup>rd</sup>$  ]. E1-2 types displayed several amino acid changes but were conspicuous due to the presence of premature stop codons which resulted in truncated porin proteins. Pa25 isolate, representative of E1 type, carried a point mutation at the 708<sup>th</sup> nucleotide ( T 
ightarrow  $\overline{G}$  ) position leading to formation of a premature stop codon, whilst premature termination was found to occur in Pa10 of E2 type by a point mutation at  $1016<sup>th</sup>$  nucleotide position (G→A). The only isolate designated as F-type (Pa27) also displayed a premature stop codon.

- Phylogenetic analysis of *oprD* genes from *P. aeruginosa* isolates studied revealed similarities with those reported from France, Brazil, Taiwan, Singapore and North America. Interestingly, the *oprD* mutant Pa25 producing truncated porin protein was epidemiologically related to a strain reported from Malaysia.
- 3D models of the four selected OprD porin protein mutants Pa12, Pa7, Pa25 and Pa27 along with that of the control strain PAO1were built by using homology modelling approach, and validated using bioinformatics tools. The molecular modelling of the truncated porin proteins from Pa25 and Pa27 are visually dramatic due to the loss of substantial portions of the polypeptide.
- The *oprD* amplicons from majority of the clinical isolates were found to exhibit restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP) with respect to the three selected enzymes *Hinc* II, *Pst* I and *Pvu* II*.* Since the oprD gene plays a key role in antibiotic resistance, this RFLP discovered in this study has future potential to be used as a diagnostic tool for detection of *P. aeruginosa* porin mutants in clinical laboratories.

# **FUTURE PROSPECTIVES**

An estimated 10% of the 30 million Kerala populations live overseas resulting in high mobility of people breaching geographical boundaries. Kerala State is also a well known tourist destination including medical tourism. High mobility of people thus provides ample scope for widespread dissemination of drugresistant microbes.

The present study has been successful in unraveling vital information on the molecular biology of multidrug resistance in clinically relevant gram-negative bacteria, especially with respect to MDR *P. aeruginosa* isolates from within the State of Kerala. This study happens to be the first of its kind to provide molecular evidence and an insightful understanding of a tripartite protein nanomachine – the efflux pump which actively pumps out the antibiotics even before they start their destructive activity. The genes encoding the protein components of the efflux pumps and the regulatory genetic circuitry have been studied in detail. Of the various routes of drug entry into bacteria, membrane-bound protein channels such as porins play a pivotal role in facilitating influx of antibiotics. This study also sheds light on molecular mechanisms critical to porin gene expression and its regulation.

Given the fact that the multidrug resistant clinical isolates were collected from various clinical laboratories in Kerala State, this investigation clearly provides a window view of the present scenario of drug resistance linked with efflux pump mechanism and its relation to porin downregulation. From this perspective, the current situation clearly warrants the urgent need for advanced molecular studies to determine the contributions of other resistance mechanisms as well. For instance this study clearly showed that the overall percentage of multidrug resistance was least represented in the genera of *Acinetobacter* spp., but they were found to display potent antibiotic resistance. This necessitates further expansion in terms of larger sampling followed by a critical analysis of multiple relevant loci in clinical isolates of *Acinetobacter* spp. including other nosocomial pathogens. Further, docking studies in efflux pump proteins may pave the way for the discovery of bacterial resistance modifiers such as efflux pump inhibitors. Detailed studies on efflux pump inhibitors derived from natural bioresources including plants are an attractive option. Their potential to work in synergy with the existing regimes of antibiotics may open new avenues for extensions of the present study. Such approaches may thereby facilitate re-introduction of therapeutically ineffective antimicrobial agents into clinical use and may prove beneficial to effectively control and check emergence of multi-drug resistance.

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# **APPENDIX**





### **5x Tris Borate EDTA (TBE) – pH 8.0:**



# **Tris EDTA (TE) – pH 8.0:**



# **Voges-Proskauer reagent:**

VP Reagent  $A - \alpha$ -Naphthol in ethyl alcohol.

VP Reagent B – 40% KOH

### **PUBLICATIONS (PEER - REVIEWED) FROM THE DOCTORAL THESIS**

**Manju Suresh**, Nithya N, Jayasree PR, Manish Kumar PR. Detection and prevalence of efflux pump-mediated drug resistance in clinical isolates of multidrugresistant gram-negative bacteria from North Kerala, India. *Asian Journal of Pharmaceutical and Clinical Research* 9(3): 324–327, 2016 (**Innovare Academic Sciences**; Impact factor: **IPP-0.588**).

**Manju Suresh**, *Nithya N,* Jayasree PR, Vimal KP, Manish Kumar PR. Mutational analyses of regulatory genes, *mexR, nalC, nalD* and *mexZ* of *mexAB-oprM* and *mexXY* operons, in efflux pump hyperexpressing multidrug-resistant clinical isolates of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. *World Journal of Microbiology and Biotechnology* 34: 83, 2018 (**Springer Nature**; Impact factor: **Thomson Reuters** – **2.1**).

**Manju Suresh**, Sinosh Skariyachan, Nithya N, Jayasree PR, Manish Kumar PR. Mutational variations, restriction fragment length polymorphism in *oprD* porin gene and molecular modelling of the mutant protein in multidrug resistant *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (**communicated**).

**Manju Suresh**, Nithya N, Jayasree PR, Manish Kumar PR. Mutational and phylogenetic analysis of *nfxB* gene in multidrug-resistant clinical isolates of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* hyperexpressing MexCD-OprJ efflux pump (**communicated**).

### **CONFERENCE PAPERS**

**Manju Suresh**, Nithya N, Dr. P.R. Jayasree, Dr. P.R. Manish Kumar. Prevalence and RAPD Analysis of various beta-lactamases - ESBL, AmpC and MBL - among multidrug resistant clinical isolates of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* from North Kerala. 28<sup>th</sup> Kerala Science Congress held at University of Calicut. 28-30 January, 2016.

**Manju Suresh**, Jayasree P. R, Manish Kumar P. R. Prevalence of MexAB-OprM and MexXY efflux systems in multidrug- resistant clinical isolates of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*: A threat to environment. Indian Science Congress Association (ISCA) Coimbatore chapter held at Kongunadu arts and science college, Coimbatore. 09-11 October 2017 (**Best paper award**).

**Manju Suresh** , Jayasree P. R. & Manish Kumar P. R. Contribution of porins and beta-lactamases in carbapenem resistance among multidrug resistant *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and their genetic relatedness.  $27<sup>th</sup>$  Swadeshi Science Congress held at Amrita Viswa Vidyapeetham, Amrita University, Kollam. 07-09 November 2017.

#### **OTHER RELATED PUBLICATION**

Nithya Narayanan, **Manju Suresh**, Jayasree Pullampara Rajamma, Manish Kumar Panickassery Ramakrishnan. Detection of blaNDM-1 and genetic relatedness in clinical isolates of *Escherichia coli* producing extended spectrum β-lactamase from tertiary care centres in South India. *Advances in Microbiology* 6(3): 125-132, 2016 (**Scientific Research Publishing**; Impact Factor: **Google-based Journal - 1.07**)

#### **ACCESSION NUMBERS OF DNA SEQUENCES DEPOSITED IN GENBANK , NCBI**

#### **GenBank accession numbers – 14**

**Manju,S**., Nithya,N., Jayasree,P.R. and Manish Kumar,P.R. (2018) *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* strain Pa6 NalD (nalD) gene, complete cds. GenBank accession no. MG744560.

**Manju,S**., Nithya,N., Jayasree,P.R. and Manish Kumar,P.R. (2018) *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* strain Pa13 NalD (nalD) gene, complete cds. GenBank accession no. MG757449.

**Manju,S**., Nithya,N., Jayasree,P.R. and Manish Kumar,P.R. (2018) *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* strain Pa16 NalD (nalD) gene, complete cds. GenBank accession no. MG757450.

**Manju,S**., Nithya,N., Jayasree,P.R. and Manish Kumar,P.R. (2018) *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* strain Pa6 NalC (nalC) gene, complete cds. GenBank accession no. MG757451.

**Manju,S**., Nithya,N., Jayasree,P.R. and Manish Kumar,P.R. (2018) *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* strain Pa13 NalC (nalC) gene, complete cds. GenBank accession no. MG757452.

**Manju,S**., Nithya,N., Jayasree,P.R. and Manish Kumar,P.R. (2018) *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* strain Pa16 NalC (nalC) gene, partial cds. GenBank accession no. MG757453.

**Manju,S**., Nithya,N., Jayasree,P.R. and Manish Kumar,P.R. (2018) *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* strain Pa6 MexR (mexR) gene, partial cds. GenBank accession no. MG757454.

**Manju,S.,** Nithya,N., Jayasree,P.R. and Manish Kumar,P.R. (2018) *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* strain Pa13 MexR (mexR) gene, partial cds. GenBank accession no. MG757455.

**Manju,S**., Nithya,N., Jayasree,P.R. and Manish Kumar,P.R. (2018) *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* strain Pa16 MexR (mexR) gene, complete cds. GenBank accession no. MG757456.

**Manju,S**., Nithya,N., Jayasree,P.R. and Manish Kumar,P.R. (2018) *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* strain Pa5 MexZ (mexZ) gene, complete cds. GenBank accession no. MG757457.

**Manju,S**., Nithya,N., Jayasree,P.R. and Manish Kumar,P.R. (2018) *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* strain Pa25 MexZ (mexZ) gene, complete cds. GenBank accession no. MG757458.

**Manju,S**., Nithya,N., Jayasree,P.R. and Manish Kumar,P.R. (2018) *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* strain Pa29 MexZ (mexZ) gene, partial cds. GenBank accession no. MG757459.

**Manju,S**., Nithya,N., Jayasree,P.R. and Manish Kumar,P.R. (2018) *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* strain Pa16 MexZ (mexZ) gene, partial cds. GenBank accession no. MG757460.

**Manju,S**., Nithya,N., Jayasree,P.R. and Manish Kumar,P.R. (2018) *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* strain Pa13 MexZ (mexZ) gene, partial cds. GenBank accession no. MG757461

#### **ACCESSION NUMBERS OF DNA SEQUENCES DEPOSITED IN GENBANK, NCBI (YET TO BE RELEASED)**

#### **GenBank accession numbers –53**

The *oprD* gene sequences of MDR *P. aeruginosa* : MH122946-MH122954, MH135303-MH135311, MH142581-MH142588 (**26 nos.**)

The *nfxB* gene sequences of MDR *P. aeruginosa* : MH346508 - MH346510 (**3 nos.**)

The *mexT* gene sequences of MDR *P. aeruginosa* : MH397275-MH397298 (**24 nos.**)

# **OTHER RELATED ACCESSION NUMBERS OF DNA SEQUENCES DEPOSITED IN GENBANK , NCBI**

#### **GenBank accession numbers - 9**

Nithya,N., **Manju,S**., Jayasree,P.R. and Kumar,P.R.M. (2016) *Escherichia coli* strain E7 New Delhi metallo-beta-lactamase (blaNDM) gene, blaNDM-1 allele, partial cds. GenBank accession no. KX100581.

Nithya,N., **Manju,S**., Jayasree,P.R. and Kumar,P.R.M. (2016) *Escherichia coli* strain E8 New Delhi metallo-beta-lactamase(blaNDM) gene, partial cds. GenBank accession no. KX100582.

Nithya,N., **Manju,S.**, Jayasree,P.R. and Kumar,P.R.M. (2016) *Escherichia coli* strain E10 New Delhi metallo-beta-lactamase(blaNDM) gene, partial cds. GenBank accession no. KX100583.

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Nithya,N., Remitha,R., **Manju,S**., Jayasree,P.R. and Kumar,P.R.M. (2016) *Escherichia coli* strain EGE14 class 1 integron, partial sequence. GenBank accession no. KU751767.

Nithya,N., Remitha,R., **Manju,S.,** Jayasree,P.R. and Kumar,P.R.M. (2016) *Escherichia coli* strain EGE20 class 1 integron, partial sequence. GenBank accession no. KU751768.

Nithya,N., Remitha,R., **Manju,S**., Jayasree,P.R. and Kumar,P.R.M. (2016) *Klebsiella sp*. EGE5 class 1 integron, partial sequence. GenBank accession no. KU751769.

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Nithya,N., Remitha,R., **Manju,S**., Jayasree,P.R. and Kumar,P.R.M. (2016) *Escherichia coli* strain EGE26 class 1 integron, partial sequence. GenBank accession no. KU751771.