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Genetic plurality of bla_{KPC-2} -harboring plasmids in high-risk clones of *Klebsiella pneumoniae* of environmental origin



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HIGHLIGHTS

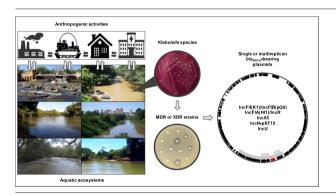
- Dispersion of XDR or MDR high-risk clones was observed in aquatic ecosystems.
- The coexistence of *bla*_{KPC-2} and *mer* operon (mercury tolerance) was found.
- Diversity of single and multireplicon plasmids bearing the bla_{KPC-2} gene was identified
- Comparative analysis revealed interspecies, intraspecies, and clonal transmission.
- The long persistence of plasmids at the human-animal-environmental interface is discussed.

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GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



ABSTRACT

International high-risk clones of Klebsiella pneumoniae are important human pathogens that are spreading to the environment. In the COVID-19 pandemic scenario, the frequency of carbapenemase-producing strains increased, which can contribute to the contamination of the environment, impacting the surrounding and associated ecosystems. In this regard, KPC-producing strains were recovered from aquatic ecosystems located in commercial, industrial, or agricultural areas and were submitted to whole-genome characterization. K. pneumoniae and Klebsiella quasipneumoniae subsp. quasipneumoniae strains were assigned to high-risk clones (ST11, ST340, ST307) and the new ST6325. Virulome analysis showed genes related to putative hypervirulence. Strains were resistant to almost all antimicrobials tested, being classified as extensively drug-resistant or multidrug-resistant. In this context, a broad resistome (clinically important antimicrobials and hazardous metal) was detected. Single replicon (IncX5, IncN-pST15, IncU) and multireplicon [IncFII(K1)/IncFIB(pQil), IncFIA(HI1)/IncR] plasmids were identified carrying the bla_{KPC-2} gene with Tn4401 and non-Tn4401 elements. An unusual association of bla_{KPC-2} and qnrVC1 and the coexistence of bla_{KPC-2} and mer operon (mercury tolerance) was found. Comparative analysis revealed that bla_{KPC-2} -bearing plasmids were most similar to plasmids from Enterobacterales of Brazil, China, and the United States, evidencing the long persistence of plasmids at the human-animal-environmental interface. Furthermore, the presence of uncommon plasmids, displaying the interspecies, intraspecies, and clonal transmission, was highlighted. These findings alert for the spread of high-risk clones producing bla_{KPC-2} in the environmental sector and call attention to rapid dispersion in a post-pandemic world.

1. Introduction

Carbapenem-resistant *Enterobacteriaceae* are critical-priority bacteria, making a threat primarily in hospitals (Tacconelli et al., 2018). The

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carbapenems are considered agents of last resort for severe bacterial infections, but now are threatened by widespread resistance caused mainly by plasmid-encoded carbapenemases (García-Betancur et al., 2021). In addition to carbapenem resistance, carbapenemase-producing strains often also exhibit resistance to other clinically important antimicrobials, highlighting polymyxins (Potter et al., 2016; Bonomo et al., 2018). In the environment, carbapenemase-positive strains have emerged, implying a risk of transmission for humans and animals in clinical and non-clinical settings, and more recently for fresh vegetables (Brilhante et al., 2021; Cherak et al., 2021; Lopes et al., 2022).

Klebsiella pneumoniae Carbapenemase (KPC), encoded by $bla_{\rm KPC}$ gene, is one of the most common carbapenemases worldwide and, to date (January 2023), there are >140 variants with the $bla_{\rm KPC-2}$ gene being the most reported (Munoz-Price et al., 2013; Naas et al., 2017). The transfer of carbapenemases is facilitated by mobile genetic elements (MGEs) and the $bla_{\rm KPC-2}$ gene with Tn4401 and non-Tn4401 elements (NTE_{KPC}) have been identified in different groups of plasmids (Brandt et al., 2019). In addition, high-risk clones of *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, especially those from clonal groups (CG) 258 and 307, contain a diverse repertoire of MGEs, contributing to the emergence of antimicrobial resistance (Shropshire et al., 2022).

Aquatic environments are vulnerable to the discharge of wastes, and hospital effluents strongly contribute to the occurrence of carbapenemases in this sector (Cahill et al., 2019). From a One Health perspective, the environment contributes to the expansion of antimicrobial resistance genes (ARGs) and their dissemination for different areas; however, indepth genomic analysis of the horizontal transfer of plasmids harboring carbapenemases to the environment remains limited. Therefore, this study aimed to perform a whole-genome sequence-based analysis of bla_{KPC-2}-positive *Klebsiella* species from surface waters of Brazil.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Sampling and bacterial strains

In February 2020, 44 sampling sites of rivers and streams located on São Paulo State, Brazil, were investigated for the presence of carbapenem-resistant *Klebsiella* species. One liter of each water sample was collected, transported, and processed by the membrane filtration technique (Forster and Pinedo, 2015) using cellulose nitrate filters with pore sizes of 0.45 μm (Sartorius, Germany). Subsequently, the filters were placed on plates of MacConkey agar (Oxoid, UK) supplemented with 4 mg/L of meropenem, which were incubated at 35 \pm 2 °C for up to 48 h. Finally, random mucoid and lactose fermenting colonies were selected, subcultured, and stocked. Genomic DNA was extracted using the PureLink Genomic DNA Mini Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA). Molecular identification was performed by conventional polymerase chain reactions using species-specific genes (Fonseca et al., 2017).

2.2. Antimicrobial susceptibility testing

Antimicrobial susceptibility was first determined by disk diffusion method to amoxicillin/clavulanate, piperacillin/tazobactam, cefazolin, cefoxitin, ceftazidime, ceftazidime/avibactam, ceftriaxone, ceftaroline, cefepime, aztreonam, imipenem, meropenem, nalidixic acid, ciprofloxacin, gentamicin, amikacin, tetracycline, minocycline, sulfamethoxazole/trimethoprim, chloramphenicol, and nitrofurantoin. Minimum inhibitory concentrations (MICs) for most of the above-mentioned antimicrobials with the addition of colistin and tigecycline were assessed by broth microdilution or *E*-test® methods. All results were interpreted according to Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute breakpoints (CLSI, M100, 30th, 2020), except for tigecycline, for which it was used the Brazilian Committee on Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing/European Committee on Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing breakpoints (BrCast/EUCAST, v.11.0, 2021). Strains were classified as multidrug-resistant (MDR) or extensively drug-resistant (XDR) according to Magiorakos et al. (2012).

2.3. Identification of carbapenemases

Phenotypic detection of carbapenemases was performed by Carbapenemase Detection Kit (Cecon, Brazil). Carbapenemase-encoding genes were screened using conventional polymerase chain reactions (PCR) and confirmed by Sanger sequencing (Pitout et al., 2005; Dallenne et al., 2010; Peirano et al., 2011).

2.4. Whole-genome sequencing and analysis

Whole-genome sequencing was performed using the Illumina MiSeq platform (Illumina Inc., USA). The reads trimming and filtering were carried out using BBDuk v.38.84 embedded in Geneious Prime® v.2022.2.2 (Biomatters Ltd., New Zealand). The genome was *de novo* assembled by SPAdes v.3.15.2 (Bankevich et al., 2012) and annotated using the RAST server (https://rast.nmpdr.org/rast.cgi). Resistome and plasmid replicons were identified using ResFinder v.4.1 and PlasmidFinder v.2.1, respectively, available at the Center for Genomic Epidemiology (http://www.genomicepidemiology.org/). Neutral or deleterious mutations in targets related to colistin resistance were determined in-house by Geneious Prime® v.2022.2.2 and PROVEAN (http://provean.jcvi.org/index.php) using *K. pneumoniae* MGH 78578 (GenBank accession number CP000647) as reference.

Virulome, multilocus sequence typing, serotyping, and metal tolerance genes were determined by Kleborate (https://github.com/katholt/ Kleborate) and BIGSdb-Pasteur (https://bigsdb.pasteur.fr/klebsiella/). Plasmid contigs were predicted using mlplasmids v.2.1.0 (https://sarredondo.shinyapps.io/mlplasmids/). The plasmid assembly was carried out using the hybrid strategy described by Cerdeira et al. (2011). Insertion sequences were analyzed using ISfinder (https://www-is.biotoul.fr/index.php). Circular and linear comparisons of plasmid sequences were performed using BRIG (https://brig.sourceforge.net/) and Geneious Prime® v.2022.2.2.

2.5. Plasmid transfer and stability

Plasmid transfer was performed by conjugation using *Escherichia coli* J53 resistant to sodium azide in MacConkey agar (Oxoid, United Kingdom) supplemented with sodium azide (200 mg/L) and meropenem (2 mg/L), and transconjugants were confirmed by PCR for the detection of $bla_{\rm KPC}$ gene. Plasmid stability was evaluated by daily serial passages of strains on Mueller Hinton agar (Kasvi, Spain) without antimicrobial at 35 \pm 2 °C (De Gelder et al., 2007). Then, random colonies were tested for the presence of the $bla_{\rm KPC}$ gene.

3. Results

3.1. Sampling sites and KPC-producing strains

Strains harboring the *bla*_{KPC} gene (EW666, EW775, EW671, EW608, EW606) were found in 9 % of the sampling sites studied (Supplementary Fig. S1) and were submitted to whole-genome characterization (Supplementary Table S1). The aquatic ecosystems (rivers and streams) where the *bla*_{KPC}-producing strains were recovered are located in commercial, industrial, or agricultural areas and there are records of high *E. coli* CFU counts in these aquatic ecosystems (up to 300,000 CFU/100 mL) according to the annual reports of CETESB (https://cetesb.sp.gov.br/aguas-interiores/publicacoes-e-relatorios/), suggesting the influence of anthropogenic activities in water contamination. Strains EW666, EW775, EW671, and EW608 were identified as *K. pneumoniae*, while EW606 strain was recognized as *K. quasipneumoniae* subsp. *quasipneumoniae*. Besides, strains EW608 and EW671 showed the mucoviscous phenotype, while EW666 strain presented the hypermucoviscous phenotype.

3.2. Antimicrobial resistance phenotype

In general, bla_{KPC} -producing strains were MDR or XDR since showed resistance to agents of the following antimicrobial classes: β -lactams,

Table 1 Genetic characteristics of $bla_{\mathrm{KPC-2}}$ -producing strains.

Strain	MLST ^a	Serotyping	Virulence determinants	Antimicrobial resistance genes	$bla_{\mathrm{KPC-2}}$ localization	Other plasmid replicons
EW666	ST11	O1/O2v1: KL64	entB, iutA, fyuA, irp1, irp2, ybtA, ybtE, ybtP, ybtQ, ybtS, ybtT, ybtU, ybtX, mrkA, mrkB, mrkC, mrkC, mrkD, mrkF, mrkH, mrkI, mrkI, clbA, clbB, clbC, clbD, clbE, clbF, clbG, clbH, clbI, clbL, clbM, clbN, clbO, clbP, clbQ, clbR	bla _{KPC-2} , bla _{OXA-2} , bla _{OXA-9} , bla _{TEM-1B} , bla _{SHV-11} , oqxA, oqxB, aac(6')-lb3, aac (3)-lIa, sul1, fosA	IncFII(K1)/IncFIB (pQil)	IncFIB(K), Col440I
EW775	ST340	O4:KL151	entB, iutA, mrkA, mrkB, mrkC, mrkD, mrkF, mrkH, mrkI, mrkJ	bla _{KPC-2} , bla _{CTX-M-15} , bla _{SHV-11} , qnrB1, oqxA, oqxB, aac(3)-IId, dfrA14, mph(A), catA2, fosA	IncFIA(HI1)/IncR	IncFII(K), IncFIB(K), Col440I
EW671	ST307	O1/O2v2: KL102	entB, iutA, $mrkA$, $mrkB$, $mrkC$, $mrkC$, $mrkD$, $mrkF$, $mrkH$, $mrkI$, $mrkJ$	bla _{KPC-2} , bla _{CTX-M-15} , bla _{TEM-1B} , bla _{SHV-28} , oqxA, oqxB, aac(3)-IV, aph(3")-Ib, aph(4)-Ia, aph(6)-Id, aadA1, aadA2b, tet(A), sul2, sul3, dfrA14, cmlA1, fosA	IncX5	IncFII(K), IncFIB(K), IncR, Col440I, Col440II, ColpVC, Col(pHAD28)
EW608	ST11	O1/O2v1: KL64	entB, iutA, fyuA, irp1, irp2, ybtA, ybtE, ybtP, ybtQ, ybtS, ybtT, ybtU, ybtX, mrkA, mrkB, mrkC, mrkD, mrkF, mrkH, mrkI, mrkJ, clbA, clbB, clbC, clbD, clbE, clbF, clbG, clbH, clbL, clbM, clbN, clbP, clbQ, clbR	bla _{KPC-2} , bla _{CTX-M-2} , bla _{TEM-1B} , bla _{SHV-11} , oqxA, oqxB, aac(6')-lb3, aac(3)-IIa, sul1, dfrA30, catA1, fosA	IncN-pST15	IncFII(K), IncFIB(K), IncFIB(pQil), ColRNAI
EW606	ST6325	O3/O3a: KL58	entB, kfuA, kfuB, kfuC, mrkB, mrkD, mrkF, mrkI, mrkJ	$bla_{\mathrm{KPC-2}}, bla_{\mathrm{OKP-A-5}}, qnrVC1, oqxA, oqxB, aac$ (6')- $lb3, aadA1, fosA$	IncU	IncFII(K), IncFIB(K), IncFIB (pQil), IncR, Col440I

^a Multilocus sequence typing, MLST; Sequence type, ST.

polymyxins, aminoglycosides, fluoroquinolones, folate pathway antagonists, tetracyclines, phenicols, and nitrofurans. In this regard, high MICs to clinically important antimicrobial agents (amoxicillin/clavulanate, ceftazidime, ceftriaxone, cefepime, aztreonam, imipenem, meropenem, ciprofloxacin, gentamicin, tetracycline, chloramphenicol, and colistin) were observed mainly in XDR strains. On the other hand, all strains were susceptible to ceftazidime/avibactam and most were susceptible to tigecycline, except the EW666 strain that was resistant (MIC 4 mg/L) (Supplementary Tables S2 and S3).

3.3. Molecular typing and serotyping

Strains were assigned to STs (ST11 O1/O2v1:KL64, ST340 O4:KL151, ST307 O1/O2v2:KL102 *K. pneumoniae* and ST6325 O3/O3a:KL58

K. quasipneumoniae). Amongst these, the new ST6325 was the single locus variant (new 336 allele of *gapA*) of ST144. Of highlight, *K. pneumoniae* strains belonged to the high-risk clones of CG258 and CG307. Curiously, strains EW608 and EW666 were isolated from different aquatic ecosystems and presented the same ST11 O1/O2v1:KL64, while strains EW608 and EW606 were obtained from the same sampling site and presented different species, STs, and serotypes (Table 1).

3.4. Resistome

In addition to the $bla_{\text{KPC-2}}$ gene, strains also carried intrinsic and acquired resistance genes to β -lactams ($bla_{\text{CTX-M-2}}$, $bla_{\text{CTX-M-15}}$, $bla_{\text{OXA-2}}$, $bla_{\text{OXA-9}}$, $bla_{\text{TEM-1B}}$, $bla_{\text{SHV-11}}$, $bla_{\text{SHV-2B}}$, and $bla_{\text{OKP-A-5}}$), aminoglycosides [aadA1, aadA2b, aac(3)-IIa, aac(3)-IId, aac(6')-Ib3, aac(3)-IV, aph(3'')-Ib,

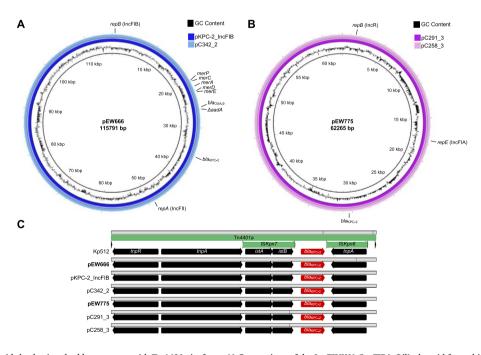


Fig. 1. Multireplicon plasmids harboring the $bla_{\text{KPC-2}}$ gene with Tn4401a isoform. A) Comparison of the IncFII(K1)/IncFIB(pQil) plasmid from this study (in bold) (pEW666, GenBank accession number JAQIIP010000001) with others from humans in China (pKPC-2_IncFIB, GenBank accession number CP050168), and the United States (pC342_2, GenBank accession number CP067726). B) Comparison of the IncFIA(HII)/IncR plasmid from this study (in bold) (pEW775, GenBank accession number JAQIIQ010000001) with others from humans in the United States (pC291_3, GenBank accession number CP067811; pC258_3, GenBank accession number CP067888). The colored rings of figs. A and B denote similarity between the plasmid sequences. C) Alignment of Tn4401a isoform found in the beforementioned plasmids with reference Kp512 strain (GenBank accession number KT378596). The gray lines represent shared regions of homology.

aph(4)-Ia, and aph(6)-Id], fluoroquinolones (qnrB1, qnrVC1, oqxA, and oqxB), folate pathway antagonists (sul1, sul2, and sul3), trimethoprim (dfrA14 and dfrA30), tetracyclines [tet(A)], phenicols (cmlA1, catA1, and catA2), fosfomycins (fosA), and macrolides [mph(A)] (Table 1). Known mutations in OmpK37, OmpK36, and AcrR/GyrA/ParC with a potential contribution to increased resistance for carbapenems, cephalosporins, and fluoroquinolones, respectively, were detected. In addition, deleterious mutations in MgrB (Q30*), PhoQ (W211R), and PmrB (R256G) were identified and may be related to colistin resistance (Supplementary Table S4). Furthermore, tolerance genes to silver (silESRCFBAGP), copper (pcoABCDRSE), arsenic (arsRABCD), and mercury (merRTPCADE) were detected in K. pneumoniae strains.

3.5. Virulence genotyping

Overall, genes related to siderophores, exotoxin, and biofilm formation were detected, which encoded enterobactin (entB), yersiniabactin (ybt), aerobactin (iutA), iron uptake (kfu), colibactin (clb), and type 3 fimbriae (mrk) (Table 1). In addition to putative hypervirulence, strains EW666 and EW608 carried the ICEKp10 structure.

3.6. Plasmid-mediated bla_{KPC-2} gene

Interestingly, the blaKPC-2 gene with different genetic contexts was located on distinct plasmids (Table 1). In general, bla_{KPC-2}-mediated plasmids harboring genes related to replication, partition, conjugation, maintenance, stability, and metal tolerance. Strain EW666 harbored a plasmid, named pEW666, co-carrying bla_{KPC-2} , bla_{OXA-9} , $\Delta aadA$ (111 bp), and mer genes. The pEW666 plasmid belonged to the IncFII(K1)/IncFIB(pQil) and was 115,791 bp in length, containing 54 % GC content. BLASTn analysis revealed that pEW666 was most related (100 % query coverage and 99.8 % nucleotide identity) to plasmids from K. pneumoniae strains of humans in China and the United States (Fig. 1A). Strain EW775 carried a 62,265 bplong multireplicon IncFIA(HI1)/IncR plasmid, named pEW775, with 53.4 % GC content. Comparative analysis showed that pEW775 was similar (100 % query coverage and 99.6 % nucleotide identity) only with plasmids from two clinical K. pneumoniae strains of the United States (Fig. 1B). The bla_{KPC-2} gene with Tn4401a isoform was identified in pEW666, pEW775, and their closely related plasmids (Fig. 1C).

Strain EW671 carried an IncX5 plasmid, named pEW671, with 41,872 bp in length and 45.7 % GC content. This plasmid was related (> 98 % query

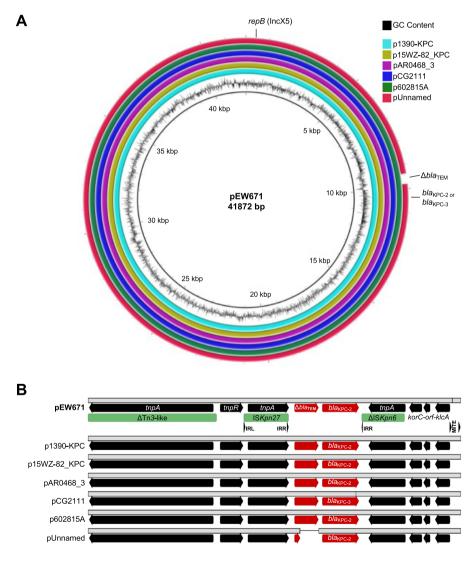


Fig. 2. IncX5 plasmids carrying the bla_{KPC-2} gene with a Tn3-family unit transposon. A) Comparison of the IncX5 plasmid from this study (in bold) (pEW671, GenBank accession number JAQIIR010000001) with others from K. pneumoniae (pP1390-KPC, GenBank accession number MF344555), K. variicola (p15WZ-82_KPC, GenBank accession number CP032355), E. asburiae (pAR0468_3, GenBank accession number CP083837), S. marcescens (pCG2111, GenBank accession number CP081510), R. ornithinolytica (p602815A, GenBank accession number MZ753458), and E. coli (pUnnamed, GenBank accession number KY062156) of humans in China. The colored rings of denote similarity between the plasmid sequences. B) Alignment of genetic environment of bla_{KPC-2} in the beforementioned plasmids. IRL, left inverted repeat. IRR, right inverted repeat. MITE, miniature inverted-repeat transposable element. The gray lines represent shared regions of homology.

coverage and 99.9 % nucleotide identity) to plasmids harboring $bla_{\rm KPC-2}$ or $bla_{\rm KPC-3}$ genes from Enterobacterales (K. pneumoniae, Klebsiella variicola, Enterobacter asburiae, Serratia marcescens, Raoultella ornithinolytica, and Escherichia coli) of humans in China (Fig. 2A). The region harboring the $bla_{\rm KPC}$ gene contained a Tn3-family unit transposon with the core sequence composed by ISKpn27- Δ bla_{TEM}- $bla_{\rm KPC}$ - Δ ISKpn6 linked to the gene cluster korC-orf-klcA (Fig. 2B).

An IncN-pST15 plasmid, name pEW608, was identified in EW608 strain. The pEW608 plasmid was 53,267 bp in length, containing 52.8 % GC content. Comparative analysis showed that pEW608 plasmid shared high nucleotide identity with various plasmids distributed worldwide. Furthermore, the pEW608 plasmid showed >99.8 % nucleotide identity with plasmids previously identified between 2009 and 2019 in strains of *K. pneumoniae* and *E. coli* at the human-animal-environment interface of southeastern Brazil (Fig. 3A). The $bla_{\rm KPC-2}$ gene with Tn4401b isoform was identified in these Brazilian plasmids (Fig. 3B).

A fragment of IncU plasmid (16,160 bp) co-harboring $bla_{\rm KPC-2}$, $\Delta bla_{\rm TEM}$ (189 bp), qnrVC1, and $\Delta dfrA31$ (138 bp) was identified in EW606 strain. The genetic context of $bla_{\rm KPC-2}$ and qnrVC1 were $\Delta lSKpn6-bla_{\rm KPC-2}-\Delta bla_{\rm TEM}-\Delta Tn3$ -like and $\Delta dfrA31$ -qnrVC1-IS21-like, respectively, and both

shared high nucleotide identity (>99%) with others available at public databases. Strikingly, IncU fragment was similar only to a recently described plasmids from *Enterobacter kobei* strains of coastal waters in Brazil (Fig. 4), evidencing an unusual association of $bla_{\rm KPC-2}$ and qnrVC1 in a same environmental strain. Finally, the sequence length of complete plasmids supported the plasmid sizes visualized after plasmid extraction. Plasmids transfer by conjugation was successful for all plasmids, except IncU, and all strains maintained the $bla_{\rm KPC-2}$ -harboring plasmids for 30 days in antimicrobial-free culture medium.

4. Discussion

Carbapenemase-positive ST11, ST340, and ST307 are international high-risk clones linked to the epidemiological success of $bla_{\rm KPC}$ in nosocomial settings, whereas, in veterinary settings and in the environment, they are adapting and progressing, respectively (Wyres and Holt, 2018; Schmidt et al., 2020; Arcari and Carattoli, 2022). The presence of these clones in surface waters, especially those affected vigorously by pollutants, accelerates the transmission of pathogenic strains and antimicrobial resistance, implicating the One Biosecurity (Larsson and Flach, 2022; Hulme,

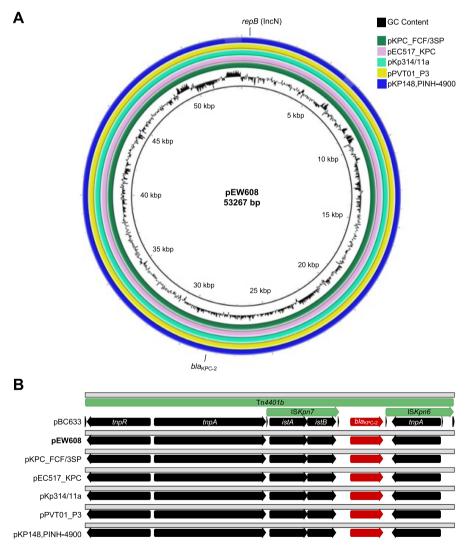


Fig. 3. IncN-pST15 plasmids harboring the $bla_{\rm KPC-2}$ gene with Tn4401b isoform. A) Comparison of the IncN-pST15 plasmid from this study (in bold) (pEW608, 2020, GenBank accession number JAQIIS010000001) with others from humans (pKPC_FCF/3SP, 2009, GenBank accession number CP004367; pEC517_KPC, 2011, GenBank accession number CP018963; pKp314/11a, 2011, GenBank accession number KX276209), animal (dog) (pPVT01_P3, 2019, GenBank accession number JABSUB010000003), and environmental (water) (pKP148,PINH-4900, 2011, GenBank accession number KX062091) in Brazil. The colored rings denote similarity between the plasmid sequences. B) Alignment of Tn4401b isoform found in the beforementioned plasmids with reference pBC633 plasmid (GenBank accession number EU176012). The gray lines represent shared regions of homology.

Fig. 4. Schematic representation of IncU fragments housing bla_{KPC-2} and qnrVC1 genes in K. quasipneumoniae subsp. quasipneumoniae strain EW606 (this study; in bold; GenBank accession number JAQIIT010000074) and E. kobei strains BT722 (IncP6/U) (GenBank accession number JANINA010000003) and BT221 (IncU) (GenBank accession number JANINB010000003) from Brazilian coastal waters. hp, hypothetical protein. IRR, right inverted repeat. The gray lines represent shared regions of homology.

2020). The transfer of these pathogens to humans occurs mainly through contact and consumption of contaminated water and food, resulting in difficult treatment, longer hospital stays, increased healthcare costs, and higher mortality rates (Santos and Secoli, 2019; UNEP, 2023). Besides, resistance to colistin and even tigecycline was observed in $bla_{\rm KPC-2}$ -positive strains, which raises concerns and creates a therapeutic challenge, as these antimicrobial agents are important against infections caused by carbapenem-resistant *Enterobacteriaceae* (Van Duin et al., 2013; Ni et al., 2016).

Worryingly, the advance of the COVID-19 pandemic has increased the frequency of MDR and carbapenemase-producing strains, further accelerating the spread mainly of carbapenem resistance and posing another major challenge for One Health (Polly et al., 2022; Thomas et al., 2022). In addition, the coexistence of different carbapenemases is emerging in the Caribbean and is becoming frequent in Latin America (García-Betancur et al., 2021; PAHO, 2021). In this context, the prevalence of $bla_{\rm KPC}$ in the sampling sites studied may be underestimated since the samples were collected in the initial period of COVID-19 cases.

Xenogenetic pollutants do not respect geopolitical boundaries and find in aquatic ecosystems the ideal configurations to harbor clinically relevant ARGs (Gillings et al., 2018). The $bla_{\rm KPC}$ gene is typically plasmid-borne in *Enterobacterales* and various $bla_{\rm KPC}$ -containing mobile elements have already been reported, with Tn4401, a Tn3-based transposon, being the most common (Carattoli, 2013; Chen et al., 2014). In this study, the $bla_{\rm KPC}$ gene was embedded within Tn4401a and Tn4401b isoforms on IncF, IncR, and/or IncN plasmids, corroborating with genetic data about $bla_{\rm KPC}$ -producing strains belonging to the CG258 (Conlan et al., 2014; Stohr et al., 2021). Multireplicon plasmids composed mainly of IncF backbones have emerged as important carriers of $bla_{\rm KPC}$ and have a greater capacity to carry multiple ARGs when compared to single replicons, endorsing our findings (Feng et al., 2019; Piccirilli et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2021).

IncX plasmids, especially IncX5, harboring the $bla_{\rm KPC-2}$ are infrequently found. In the Americas, these plasmids have only been reported in K. pneumoniae strains from humans (Chen et al., 2013; Souza et al., 2019). The $bla_{\rm KPC-2}$ was carried by NTE $_{\rm KPC}$ in IncX5 plasmids that appears to be related to IncX6 and IncP plasmids, showing the evolution of $bla_{\rm KPC}$ mobilization (Yao et al., 2017; Ghiglione et al., 2021; Hala et al., 2019). On the other hand, IncN-pST15 plasmids can play an important role in the transmission of carbapenem resistance in K. pneumoniae lineages (Rada et al., 2020). In the last decade in Brazil, $bla_{\rm KPC-2}$ /IncN-pST15 was identified in non-CG258 (ST442, ST437) from human and environmental origins (Pérez-Chaparro et al., 2014; Oliveira et al., 2014), and more recently in CG258 (ST11) from a dog, evidencing the long persistence of these plasmids in different sources and supporting the IncN-pST15 as a One-Health plasmid (Sellera et al., 2021).

The first description of the coexistence of $bla_{\text{KPC-2}}$ and qnrVC was in Citrobacter freundii of China (Zhu et al., 2020), while the two subsequent ones were in species of Klebsiella and Enterobacter from Brazilian coastal waters (Kraychete et al., 2022). Surprisingly, a fragment of IncU plasmid housing $bla_{\text{KPC-2}}$ and qnrVC1 was identified in a K. quasipneumoniae strain from surface water of this study. Although the qnrVC gene is commonly reported in Vibrio species (Pons et al., 2013), its presence on plasmids co-harboring β -lactamase-encoding genes in Enterobacterales seems to be advancing and deserves attention (Bado et al., 2018).

This study displayed how the high resolution provided by whole-genome sequencing allowed an in-depth understanding of the plasmid-mediated transmission of the $bla_{\rm KPC-2}$ gene to the environment. In this regard, whole-genome sequence-based analyzes should be implemented on a larger number of carbapenem-resistant strains in geographically distributed aquatic ecosystems. Consequently, it will be possible to monitor long-term national carbapenem resistance trends, as well as the evolution, prevalence, and transmission of antimicrobial resistance across different sectors.

5. Conclusions

Our findings highlight a diversity of plasmids harboring the $bla_{\rm KPC-2}$ gene embedded within Tn4401 or NTE_{KPC} in XDR or MDR K. pneumoniae complex strains from aquatic ecosystems. Furthermore, our results evidence the long persistence of plasmids in Brazil, as well as the presence of uncommon plasmids, displaying the interspecies, intraspecies, and clonal transmission of carbapenem-resistant strains. Therefore, these data reinforce the importance of aquatic ecosystems in the dissemination and evolution of plasmid-mediated ARGs and contribute to One Health genomic surveillance studies of antimicrobial resistance.

Ethical approval

Not required.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

João Pedro Rueda Furlan: Conceptualization, Methodology, Software, Formal analysis, Investigation, Data curation, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing. Rafael da Silva Rosa: Methodology, Formal analysis. Micaela Santana Ramos: Methodology, Formal analysis. Lucas David Rodrigues dos Santos: Methodology, Formal analysis. Ralf Lopes: Methodology, Formal analysis. Eduardo Angelino Savazzi: Conceptualization, Investigation. Eliana Guedes Stehling: Conceptualization, Investigation, Data curation, Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Project administration, Funding acquisition.

Data availability

No data was used for the research described in the article.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2023.163322.

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