

Detection of Ampicillin Transposon in *Klebsiella pneumoniae*

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بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ

قالوا سبحانك لا علم لنا

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الخلاصة

تكون بكتريا *Klebsiella pneumoniae* No. ١٠ غير مستقرة وراثياً وتمتلك بلازميد كبير منفرد غير اقتراني حجمه ١٢٠ kbp يحتوى على جينات مقاومة الامبسلين والنتراسايكلين والستربتومييسين والكاناميسين والترايثيرونم والكلورامفينيكول وحمض النالدكس وكذلك يشفر عن الصفة المخاطية في البكتريا.

تم اشتقاق أربعة مجاميع من ضروب *K. pneumoniae* I, *K. pneumoniae* G, *K. pneumoniae* K, *K. pneumoniae* L) من هذه العزلة بواسطة الزرع المتكرر في وسط M₉ المزود بـ ١٥٠ مايكروغرام/مل من حامض السالسليك. تتباينت مجاميع ضروب بالنسق البلازميدي ونمط المقاومة للمضادات الحيوية مقارنة بالعزلة البرية *K. pneumoniae* No. ١٠. تكون ضرب *K. pneumoniae* I حساسة لترايثيرونم والستربتومييسين والريفاميسين لذلك تم استعمالها كخلايا مستقبلة للبلازميد الاقتراني R٧٥١ غير المتوافق (Inc P).

تمكن الامبسلين بتركيز ١٥٠ مايكروغرام/مل من حث عدم الاستقرار الوراثي للبكتريا *K. pneumoniae* I عند تكرار زرعها ٥٤٠ جيل في وسط الامبسلين. ويتأثر الاستقرار الوراثي أيضاً بانخفاض درجة الحرارة (٣٠م). وجد بأن العزلة تقاوم تراكيز عالية أكثر من ١٠٠٠ مايكروغرام/مل من الامبسلين مقارنة بمضادات أخرى مثل الكلورامفينيكول والنتراسايكلين والنوفوبايسين والاموكسيلين. وتقترح هذه النتائج احتمال وجود عنصر قافز يشفر إلى مقاومة الامبسلين في هذه العزلة.

تم حث العنصر القافز Ap::Tn على الانتقال من البلازميد *PKPI* في خلايا المقترنة (*K. pneumoniae* TR_١) (المحتوية على البلازميد *PKPI* و R٧٥١) إلى البلازميد الاقتراني R٧٥١ بواسطة تكرار زرعها في وسط زرعي مزود بـ ١٥٠ مايكروغرام امبسلين وفي درجة حرارة ٣٠ و ٣٧م.

أظهر الترحيل الكهربائي في هلام الاكاروز لمحتوى DNA للخلايا الناتجة من عملية الانتقال وجود حزم بلازميدية ذات حجم إضافي مقارنة بالبلازميد الأصلي R٧٥١ وأدى من حجم البلازميد *PKPI*. وتقترح هذه النتائج احتمال حدوث انتقال العنصر القافز Ap-Tn من البلازميد *PKPI* إلى R٧٥١. تم الحصول على ثلاثة أنواع من الخلايا المقترنة *E. coli* TR_٢ و TR_٣ و TR_٤ بعد عملية الاقتران بين الخلايا الناتجة من عملية الانتقال والخلايا المستقبلة من بكتريا *E. coli* MM٢٩٤ المقاومة للريفاميسين والخالية من البلازميدات. وأظهر الترحيل الكهربائي في هلام الاكاروز لمحتوى الـ DNA لأنواع الخلايا المقترنة بأنها تحتوي على البلازميد الاقتراني R٧٥١ ذو حجم إضافي مقارنة بحجم البلازميد الأصلي R٧٥١. تبين هذه النتائج احتمال احتواء البلازميد الاقتراني على العنصر القافز المشفر لامبسلين.

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List of Abbreviations

<i>Bla</i> genes	β-lactamase genes
ESBL	Extended spectrum β-lactamase
Kbp	Kilo base pairs
<i>IRS</i>	Internal Resolvase sites
ICU	Intensive care unite
OXA.....	Oxacillin
<i>R</i> plasmid.....	Resistance plasmid
SHV.....	Sulphydryl variable
TGE.....	Transposable Genetic Elements

TEM..... Temoniera
Tn.....Transposon
s.....Transfer genes *tra* gene

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Conclusions

١. The detection of transposon encoding an extended-spectrum β -lactamase (ampicillin) on large plasmid *pKpl* in *K.pneumoniae* isolate No.١٠ from patients suffer from upper respiratory inflammation in hospital where large quantities of extended-spectrum β -lactam antibiotic are used , raises concern for the increased spread of resistance to this group of antibiotics.
٢. It has been concluded that gene responsible for conferring resistance to ampicillin reside in a ٥.٠٠٠ bp mobile DNA segment or transposon which have ability to translocated themselves by both Intramolecular and intermolecular transposition.
٣. We deduced that transposon which conferring ampicillin resistances in *K.pneumoniae I* and transposed via co-integrate formation is belonging to Tn γ family.
٤. Translocation of ampicillin transposon accompanied with disturb of regular or structural genes function due to insertion inactivation of this transposon to those genes.
٥. Transposition of transposon that carry ampicillin determinant was more in ٣٠C° than ٣٧C°, consequently the total change in antibiotic susceptibility pattern for *K.pneumoniae I* that grew at ٣٠C° was more than *Klebsiella pneumoniae I* that grew at ٣٧C°.

Chapter one

1.1: Introduction

Bacteria belonging to genus *Klebsiella* frequently cause human nosocomial infections. In particular, the medically most important *Klebsiella* species, *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, account for significant proportion of hospital acquired urinary tract infection, pneumonia, septicemia, and soft tissue infection (Emori and Gaynes 1993). *K.pneumoniae* is frequently found in many different geographical locations, with beta-lactamase resistance becoming a growing problem (Matthew, 1979).

The wide spread use of antimicrobial agents in the treatment of infections in the tropics has led to serious problems of antimicrobial resistance. The emergence and spread of antibiotic resistance in bacteria of medical importance imposes serious constraint on the option available for treatment of many infections (Nikadio, 1998). Li and Lim (2000) mentioned that in the last 10 years, the extensive spread of multiple antibiotic –resistant *Klebsiella pneumoniae* strains, especially the extended-spectrum beta lactamase producing strains (ESBLs), has become a major threat to the ever-increasing number of immunocompromised patients; the ESBLs are usually plasmid mediated (R plasmid) offer resistance to antibiotics and are transmissible from one cell to another by direct cell contact (conjugation).

Conjugative plasmids are thought to be responsible for the rapid spread of beta-lactamase resistance in Gram –negative bacteria (Reed, 1981).

Another factor believed to be involved in the increasing of resistance is the presence of transposon carried beta-lactamase, which leads to spread of beta-lactamase resistance among different plasmids (Sander and Sander, 1992).

Transposons are widespread in nature, having been identified in the genomes of numerous organisms, from bacteria to humans. Transposition can alter the genome functionality. It is obvious that transposition of a mobile element into particular gene inactivates it. However, insertion of a transposon can also activate the expression of neighboring normally cryptic genes (Hörak and Kivisaar, 2001).

Transposition can promote large DNA rearrangements including deletions, inversions and replicon fusions. Additionally, capability of transposons to transmit genetic information between cells makes transposons important tools in horizontal gene transfer. Thus, it is

evident that mobile genetic elements have important roles in genome organization and reorganization and as a consequence in the genome evolution (Moghaddam, ۲۰۰۱).

Many transposons code only for factors that are needed for propagation of their DNA. Using functions of the host they can spread in the genome in a replicative mode being able to overreplicate their host. Therefore, the transposons are often viewed as molecular parasites or as selfish DNA-s (Doolittle and Sapienza, ۱۹۸۰, Orgel *et al.*, ۱۹۸۰). However, the idea that mobile elements are primarily parasitic is one-sided. Transposons often code for genes, for example antibiotic resistance conferring genes that could be useful for host under certain conditions. Really, the relationship between the transposable element and host genome may be highly variable ranging from parasitism to mutualism (Kidwell and Lisch, ۲۰۰۱). Mobility of bacterial transposons is strictly regulated to low levels (10^{-7} to 10^{-4} per element per generation (Kleckner, ۱۹۹۰) in order to maintain the balance between their propagation and potential destructive mutagenic effects to their hosts. Actually, transposable elements stay mostly in the quiet state and translocate only in a narrow window of host cell cycle or solely in response to certain stimuli. Barbara McClintock, the discoverer of transposable elements, has suggested that transposition activity could be a response to challenges to the genome (McClintock, ۱۹۸۴). Indeed, it has been shown that different stresses such as carbon starvation, temperature effects and UV light can enhance transposition of bacterial mobile elements. Moreover, it has been hypothesized that activation of transposition due to stress might serve as an adaptive response to overcome stress and to evolve the new traits (Wessler, ۱۹۹۶; Capy *et al.*, ۲۰۰۰).

This study included an attempt to

- ۱- Derive variants from *K.pneumoniae* No. ۱۰ using salicylic acid, in order to serve as recipient host for *Inc P* plasmid R^{Y۵۱}.
- ۲- Induction of transposition of transposable element that confers ampicillin resistance using ampicillin stresses on *K.pneumoniae* No. ۱۰.
- ۳- Study of transposition frequency and their effect on genes that encoding antibiotic resistance in both ۳۰ and ۳۷C°.
- ۴-

Finally isolation of ampicillin transposon on *Inc P* plasmid R^{Y۵۱} Tp^f.

2: Literature Review

2.1: Genus *Klebsiella*:

Klebsiella is straight rod, 0.5-1.0 µm in diameter and 0.6-6.0 µm in length, arranged singly in pairs, or in short chains. Cells are capsulated, Gram negative non motile, facultatively anaerobic, chemoorgano-trophic, having both a respiratory and fermentative type of metabolism. Optimal temperature is 37 C°. D-Glucose and other carbohydrates are catabolized with the production of acids and gas. Oxidase negative and catalase positive. Indole, methyl red, Voges-proskauer, and Simmons citrate reactions vary among species. Several species hydrolyze urea. grow on KCN. H₂S is not produced. Reduces Nitrates. Most species ferment all tested carbohydrates except dulcitol and erythritol (Holt *et al.*, 1994).

Morphologically *Klebsiella* species simulate *Escherichia coli* except that they are non motile and possess polysaccharide capsule. They are widely distributed in nature, occurring both as commensals in human and animal intestine as well as Saprophytes in soil, water and vegetations (Chakraborty, 1999).

The taxonomy of *Klebsiella* is characterized by nomenclature reflecting its colorful taxonomic history. Originally the medical importance of genus *Klebsiella* (family Enterobacteriaceae) led to its being subdivided into three species corresponding to disease they caused: *K.pneumoniae*, *K.ozaenae*, and *K.rhinoscleromatis*. As the taxonomy became increasingly refined due to development of new methods such as numeric taxonomy, the species classification in this genus was continually revised (Bascomb *et al.*, 1971).

In the early 1980s, *Klebsiella* isolated from the environment, which had been classified as "Klebsiella-like organism" were increasing being classified into provisional taxa. This group gave rise to four new species: *Klebsiella terrigena*, *Klebsiella orinthoinolytica*, *Klebsiella planticola*, and *Klebsiella trevisanii* (Ferragut *et al.*, 1983). In 1986, the last two species were combined in to one species, *Klebsiella planticola*, because of their extensive DNA sequence homology (Gavini *et al.*, 1986).

The vast majority of *Klebsiella* infections, however, are associated with hospitalization, as opportunistic pathogens. *Klebsiella* spp. Primarily attack immunocompromised individuals who are hospitalized and suffer from severe underline disease such as diabetes mellitus or chronic pulmonary obstruction. Nosocomial *Klebsiella* infections are caused mainly by *K.pneumoniae*, the medically most important species of the genus. To a much lesser degree, *K.oxytoca* has been isolated from human clinical specimens (Horan *et al.*, 1988).

Klebsiella are fairly common cause of urinary tract infection and occasionally give rise to severe bronchopneumonia, some times with chronic destructive lesions and multiple abscess formation in the lung (Friedländer's pneumonia). In many cases there is also bacteraemia and mortality is high (Gross *et al.*, 1992).

2.2: *Klebsiella pneumoniae*:

This microorganism was first isolated by Friedländer (1883) from patients suffering from lobar pneumonia. These are short plump Gram-negative bacilli non motile and capsulated. They ferment sugar (glucose, lactose, sucrose, and mannitole) with production of acid and gas and split urea by means of urease. They do not produce indole usually MR carbohydrate-rich medium. This characteristic distinguish them from other Enterobacteriaceae, except from some strains of *Enterobacter aerogenes* and *E.coli* (Holt *et al.*, 1994).

Klebsiella spp., particularly *K. pneumoniae*, is an important cause of nosocomial infection. *K.pneumoniae* infection may occur at almost all body sites but the highest incidence is found in the urinary and respiratory tracts. The main populations at risk are neonates, Immunocompromised hosts, and patients predisposed by prior surgery, diabetes, malignancy, etc. (Emori and Gaynes, 1993). The member of genus *Klebsiella* especially *K.pneumoniae* have also been linked to epidemics of diarrhea, because some strains appear to have acquired plasmid from *E. coli* (that code for heat labile and heat stable enterotoxins) (Ewing, 1986).

The wide spread use of antimicrobial agents has failed to eradicate microbial infection despite their benefits. Antibiotic resistance bacteria have been a source of ever increasing therapeutic problem continued mismanaged selective pressure that has been regarded as an inevitable genetic response to antimicrobial therapy (Cohen and Auxe 1992). The antibiotic resistant mutants that arise spontaneously are generally resistant to only one antibiotic. However, *Klebsiella* spp., exhibit simultaneous resistance to multiple drugs (Gutmann *et al.*, 1980). The R plasmid offer resistance to antibiotics and are transmissible from one cell to another by direct cell contact. Conjugation of transferring drug resistance genetic determinants among intra and intergeneric bacterial population. A surveillance study has demonstrated the emergence of highly resistant *K.pneumoniae* in urinary and respiratory tract infections (Bonafed and Lois, 1997).

The existences of multiple antibiotics -resistant *K.pneumoniae* strains are notorious and have complicated therapy. Mortality rates at up to 90% have been found in respiratory tract infection as an alternative to antibiotic treatment, prevention and / or treatment of *Klebsiella* infections by immunotherapy has received more attention in recent years (Donta *et al.*, 1996).

2.3: Genetic contents of *K. pneumoniae*

The genetic material in bacteria is carried on double - stranded circular DNA molecule, folded multiple times to fit inside the cell and attached to the plasma membrane. This DNA molecule is generally referred to as the bacterial genome. It contains all the information for controlling the development and metabolic activities important for bacterial survival. The typical bacterial genome is a single chromosome, about 4.1 mm, containing up to 4000 kbp of DNA, folded into a tight mass, often less than 0.2 mm in diameter, and complexed with small amounts of protein and RNA (Cano *et al.*, 1986).

Numerous bacteria contain, in addition to their genome, one or multiple copies of small self-replicating pieces of circular double stranded DNA, called plasmids. The molecular mass of the plasmid is between 1.0 - 300 MD and it contains 1-30 kbp. Small plasmids contain only a few genes, while the larger one may consist hundreds of genes (up to 300 genes) (Jawetz *et al.*, 1995). After division of the bacterial cell, all the following generations will have the same plasmid profile, belonging to a same bacterial clone. The transfer of the plasmid between cells can be accomplished by conjugation or transformation. Genetic information, required for transfer by conjugation, is supplied by the so-called *tra*-genes, carried on the other side, by self-transmissible plasmids. Plasmids transferred by conjugation, continue to multiply once they have entered the new host. Some of their genes can even be transferred to the chromosome as transposons leading to the acquisition of functions not normally encoded in the chromosome (Zajcek, 1994).

In general, the plasmid's genetic information is not necessary for the survival of the cell. However, they can supply the bacterial cells with new features, important for their survival in new and extraordinary conditions. Depending on what kind of a function the plasmid determinates, there are different types of plasmids: F-plasmids -

which contain genes for production of F-pills, Col-plasmids - determine a production of bacteriocines, Vir-plasmids - closely related with the pathogen potential of different bacteria, Ent-plasmids - with genes for exotoxine production determination. There are plasmids that often carry genetic information that makes the bacterium resistant to certain antibiotics and heavy metals, able to synthesize or break down unusual compounds, resistant to ultraviolet light or able to produce bacteriocines and toxins. For example, antibiotic resistance genes may be carried on plasmids (so called R-plasmids) and the plasmids are the structures that code for enzymes that acetylate adenylate or phosphorylate various antibiotics (Cano *et al.*, 1986).

Nowadays, nosocomial infections are an important cause of morbidity and mortality. Predominant pathogens are *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Enterococcus*, *E.coli*, *K.pneumoniae* and *Candida* spp (Haur *et al.*, 1996). Among Gram-negative bacilli, which comprise the majority of nosocomial pathogens, *K. pneumoniae*, has considerably big role (Horan *et al.*, 1988).

The genus *Klebsiella*, as a member of the family Enterobacteriaceae, encloses two medical significant species: *K.pneumoniae* (with four variations-*K.pneumoniae* var. *aerogenes*, var. *pneumoniae*, var. *rhinoscleromatis* and var. *ozaenae*) and *K. oxytoca*. *K.pneumoniae* is a member of the normal intestinal microflora and it can be found in minority as a part of the microflora of the upper respiratory tract. It becomes pathogenic only when will reach tissues outside of its normal flora site. *K. pneumoniae* often colonizes the skin and mucosae of hospitalized patients in intensive care units, with risk of invasive infection and septicemia. The colonization of the host's gastrointestinal tract by multi-antibiotic resistant *K. pneumoniae* strains is thought to be an essential step in nosocomial *K.pneumoniae* infections. The most frequent sites of clinically important infections are the urinary, billiary and lower respiratory tract, but it can also play a role in septicaemia, meningitis and osteomyelitis (Seldon *et al.*, 1991).

2.4.:Antimicrobial resistance:

Antimicrobial resistance is defined as “a property of bacteria that confers the capacity to inactivate or exclude antibiotics, or a mechanism that blocks the inhibitory or killing effects of antibiotics, leading to survival despite exposure to antimicrobials” (Ingli *et al.*, 1994.).

Bacteria can exhibit resistance in different ways, antimicrobial resistance can occur as a result of random genetic mutations in bacteria, leading to variation in susceptibility within any bacterial population. Single-step mutation in the SHV-1 β -lactamase enzyme makes SHV-2 which rendered *K.pneumoniae* resistance to extended spectrum cephalosporins (Barthèlèmy *et al.*, 1988). More commonly, resistance is not due to a chromosomal event, but due to the presence of extrachromosomal DNA (plasmids) acquired from another bacteria. Different mechanisms that render antibiotics ineffective have evolved in bacteria. One of the most common mechanisms is the production of enzymes that degrade antibiotics. Resistance to aminoglycosides, beta-lactam (penicillin and cephalosporins), and chloramphenicol is by enzyme inactivation (Davies, 1994). Bacteria have also developed the ability to modify their cell surfaces to have reduced affinity for antibiotics (Spratt, 1994). Resistance to fluoroquinolones is chromosomally encoded and involves mutation in the target genes including DNA gyrase and topoisomerase (Chen and Lo, 2003). Active efflux of antibiotics as a resistance mechanism was first described for resistance to tetracycline in *E. coli* by McMurry *et al.*, (1980). Some types of efflux pumps are responsible for multiple antibiotic resistances. These pumps cover a relatively wide spectrum of antibiotics, chemotherapeutic agents, detergents, dyes, and other inhibitors (Nikaido, 1998).

2.4.1: Beta-Lactams:

The beta-lactam-based antibiotics inhibit bacterial growth by blocking the final stage in cell wall synthesis that relates to cross-linking of peptidoglycan polymers by transpeptidation. The peptidoglycan polymer is an important constituent of the bacterial cell wall and is composed of alternating residues of N-acetylglucosamine and N-acetylmuramic acid. The N-acetylmuramic acid residues are substituted by peptide chains which are cross-linked to form a mesh-like character and provide structural integrity to the cell wall (Weidel and Pelzer, 1964). The cross linking is carried out with the help of transpeptidases through a catalytic process. After each catalytic cycle, one free alanine amino acid is released and the transpeptidase enzyme is regenerated which can then participate in another catalytic cycle (Sawant, 2000). The transpeptidation step of cell-wall biosynthesis is blocked by beta-lactams. Inhibition of transpeptidase activity by penicillins occurs through the formation of covalent acyl enzyme intermediates. The transpeptidase gets depleted by irreversible binding with penicillin, which prevents normal cross linking and eventually results in loss of integrity of the cell wall structure, which leads to cell death (Blumberg and Strominger, 1974; Sawant, 2000).

The penicillins (G and V) were the first beta-lactams to be introduced and were effective against Gram-positive bacteria but had poor activity against Gram-negative bacteria. Within a few years of their introduction, penicillinase producing *Staphylococcus aureus* strains showed resistance to penicillin (Rammelkamp and Maxon, 1942). This propelled search for new forms of beta-lactams that were not inhibited by penicillinase and had a wider spectrum of activity against both Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria. By the early 1960s, semi-synthetic penicillins such as ampicillin and carbencillin were introduced. These antibiotics were more effective against Gram-negative bacteria than penicillins. In 1960, a plasmid-borne beta-lactamase (TEM-1) was first reported in *E. coli*, which conferred resistance to ampicillin. The enzyme was rapidly disseminated among species and was spread to *P. aeruginosa* in 1969, to *Vibrio cholerae* in 1973, and to *Haemophilus* and *Neisseria* species in 1974 (Matthew, 1979).

Later on, more plasmid-borne beta-lactamases, notably SHV-1, TEM-2, and OXA-1 were disseminated widely in the bacterial populations (Livermore 1987 and 1990; Sanders and Sanders, 1992).

The first generation cephalosporins were developed with the objective of combining the broad-spectrum activity of ampicillin and achieving stability to staphylococcal penicillinase. However, like ampicillin they lacked activity against strains that had plasmids encoding TEM and SHV enzymes (Livermore, 1990). The emergence of resistance to ampicillin and first generation cephalosporins fostered the search for newer versions of beta-lactams that were stable to beta-lactamases of Gram-negative species, especially TEM-1. This resulted in the development and introduction of second generation cephalosporins, such as cefoxitime, cefuroxime, and cefamandole. These antibiotics were able to achieve acceptable stability to TEM-1 enzymes (O'Callaghan, 1979).

The third generation of cephalosporins included cefotaxime, ceftriaxone, ceftizoxime, ceftazidime, and cefoperazone, which were more resistant to beta-lactamases including TEM-1, TEM-2, SHV-1, and to chromosomal Class A enzymes of *Klebsiella* spp. Activity against chromosomally encoded *AmpC*-inducible species was also observed (O'Callaghan, 1979; Livermore, 1990).

2.4.2: *K.pneumoniae* and extended –spectrum β-lactamase:

Clinical isolates of *K.pneumoniae* are generally resistant to a wide range of antibiotic than most *Escherichia coli* strain. They are resistant to Ampicillin and amoxicillin, but usually sensitive cephalosporins, especially the newer derivatives such as cefuroxime and cefotaxime. Resistance to chloramphenicol and tetracycline varies from strain to strain, they are often sensitive to gentamicine but transferable enzyme resistance to gentamicine and various cephalosporins has become common in strains found in some hospital (Gross, 1992).

K.pneumoniae expressing extended spectrums β - lactamase conferring resistance to ceftazidime and other cephalosporins and derived from TEM-1 or SHV-1 enzyme has become an increasing problem the past two decades (Jacoby and Medeiros, 1991).

The SHV-1 β -lactamase is most commonly found in *K.pneumoniae* and responsible for up to 20% of plasmid mediated Ampicillin resistance in this species (Bradford, 2001). The first extended –spectrum SHV-1 enzyme was described in 1983 in clinical isolate of *K.pneumoniae*, *K. ozaenae*, and *Serratia marcescens* (Knothe *et al.*, 1983).

TEM-type β -lactamase is most often found in *K.pneumoniae* and *E. coli*. Up to 90% of Ampicillin resistance in *E. coli* is due to production of TEM-1 (Bradford, 2001).

In 1983, the extended-spectrum β -lactamases (ESBLs), which confer resistance to broad-spectrum cephalosporins, were first observed in Germany (Medeiros, 1993). The number and variety of these β -lactamases have increased rapidly and their distribution is now worldwide. Moreover, due to the increasing use of various kinds of antibiotics, especially the third generation cephalosporins and aminoglycosides, Enterobacteriaceae, particularly *Klebsiella* species, have become resistant to broad-spectrum β -lactams, as well as to aminoglycosides. *Klebsiella* species are now the most common Gram-negative bacteria exhibiting multiple resistances (Sirot *et al.*, 1991). Many different multidrug resistance patterns of *Klebsiella* species have been documented in Europe, North-America, Africa and Asia (Arlet *et al.*, 1990; Payne and Amyes, 1991; Bauernfeind *et al.*, 1993; Arlet *et al.*, 1994; Urban *et al.*, 1994; Venezia *et al.*, 1990; Wallace *et al.*, 1990; Marchese *et al.*, 1996). In the United States, during the mid-1980s, nosocomial infections due to aminoglycoside-resistant *K.pneumoniae* were prevalent in the ICUs. From 1987 onwards, the third-generation cephalosporins were introduced in an attempt to control the spread of aminoglycoside-resistant *K. pneumoniae*. Subsequently, there was a marked increase in the incidence of cephalosporin resistance among *Klebsiella* species. In 1990, over 60% of *Klebsiella* isolates were resistant to both cephalosporins and aminoglycosides. Multiple antibiotic resistances in *K.pneumoniae* was also found in Australia, with an increasing resistance to a range of

unrelated antibiotics, including chloramphenicol, tetracycline, nalidixic acid, ampicillin, norfloxacin, trimethoprim and puromycin (George *et al.*, 1990).

In France, *K.pneumoniae* was also regarded as an opportunistic Gram-negative pathogen involved in outbreaks of nosocomial infections in intensive care units. About 10-30% of the multiple antibiotic resistant strains of *Klebsiella pneumoniae* are also resistant to the broad-spectrum cephalosporins via plasmid-encoded ESBLs (Di-Martino *et al.*, 1997).

In Singapore, it has been observed that 38% of all *K.pneumoniae* isolated from septicaemia patients were resistant to the third generation cephalosporins, aminoglycosides and quinolone (Inglis *et al.* 1994). A common pattern of multiple antibiotic resistance noted in bacteria was found, namely resistance to ampicillin, ceftazidime, cefuroxime, and other third generation cephalosporins, aztreonam, gentamicin and other aminoglycosides. The bacterial species with this pattern of resistance are *Klebsiella* and other Enterobacteriaceae. From 1986, multiple antibiotic resistances in *Klebsiella* species and the *Enterobacter* species increased significantly. They exceeded 30% in resistance to all the commonly used antimicrobials under study (Kumarasinghe *et al.*, 1992; Inglis *et al.*, 1994).

2.0: Spread of genes conferring resistance to β -lactam antibiotics:

Throughout the 1960s and 1970s there was a relentless rise in reports of resistance to β -lactams as a consequence of the selection of bacteria that produce β -lactamases. This increase in the level of resistance was due, at least in part, to the spread of self-transmissible plasmids that encode multiple resistance phenotypes. Furthermore, the first prokaryotic transposon carried a *bla_{TEM}* gene (Hedges and Jacob, 1974). Transposons that encode extended-spectrum β -lactamases have also been described. The occurrence of *bla* genes on mobile genetic elements undermines attempts to classify these elements by genetic location: transposons may jump between plasmids and the bacterial chromosome (Heritage *et al.*, 1992).

2.0.1: Plasmids:

Plasmids form a vital part of the bacterial genome and can constitute up to 10% or more of the DNA in a bacterial cell. Plasmids can transfer by a variety of means including

conjugation and transformation. Most bacteria are capable of becoming hosts to a large array of different plasmids commonly found in other strains, other species or even other genera. Plasmids thus represent a large genetic resource for diversity and adaptation of bacteria (Thorsted *et al.*, 1998).

Resistance to β -lactam antibiotics is mediated by plasmid with variations of the SHV and TEM-type β -lactamase genes (Barthelemy *et al.*, 1988). Most of these plasmid-mediated β -lactamases from *Klebsiella* species have been grouped as TEM or SHV-related β -lactamases (Horii *et al.*, 1993). Furthermore, *K.pneumoniae* is the species in which plasmid-encoded ESBLs are commonly reported (Jacoby and Medeiros, 1991). The threat of an increase in multiple resistances to antibiotics in *K. pneumoniae* is shown by French *et al.* (1996) with hyperproduction of SHV- α β -lactamase. Nevertheless, it has been reported that the majority of ESBL-producing isolates of *E.coli* and *Klebsiella* species are also resistant to gentamicin and other aminoglycosides (Jones *et al.*, 1994). All these multiple resistance genes are usually carried on large transferable plasmids. Large plasmid profiles from *K.pneumoniae* associated with multiple resistances have been documented in Europe (Montgomerie *et al.*, 1993; Reed *et al.*, 1990; Marchese *et al.*, 1996), United States (Wallace *et al.*, 1990; Schiappa *et al.* 1996) and Asia (Wang *et al.*, 1990). Prodingler *et al.* (1996) mentioned that there was R plasmid with 80 kbp responsible for conferring resistance to SHV- α in *K.pneumoniae* isolates. This R plasmid transfer between species of family Enterobacteriaceae in nosocomial out break stresses the need plasmid typing, especially because SHV- α beta-lactamase seems to regionally spread predominately via plasmid transfer. Shannan *et al.* (1998) showed that 70 to 160 kbp of conjugative plasmid responsible for encoding the SHV- ξ , TEM-10 and TEM-16 in *K.pneumoniae*. Li and Lim (2001) showed novel large plasmid (97~140Kbp) carrying multiple β -lactamase resistance genes isolated from *K.pneumoniae* strain.

2.5.2: Broad host range IncP plasmid R¹⁰¹:

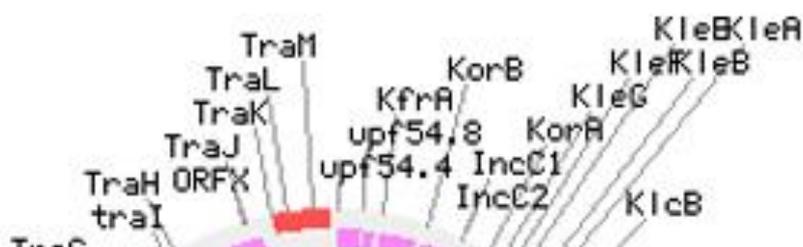
Plasmids of IncP group have interest because of their extraordinary large host range among gram-negative bacteria (Meyer and Shapiro, 1980). The IncP plasmids are the most intensively studied self-transmissible plasmids (Thomas and Smith 1987; Pansegrau *et al.* 1994). The plasmid R¹⁰¹ is IncP type β ranged between 52,000 to 53 Kbp. The overall G+C content of R¹⁰¹ is 64% (RP ξ approx. 60%). Certain regions average well over 70%. The R¹⁰¹ genome reveals a family of repeated sequences in these regions which may form the basis of a hot spot for insertion of foreign DNA. Sequence analysis of the cryptic transposon Tn ξ 221 revealed that it is a composite transposon defined by inverted repeats of a 1347 bp

IS element belonging to a recently discovered family which is distributed throughout the prokaryotes. The central unique region of Tn ϵ^{22} encodes two predicted proteins, one of which is a regulatory protein while the other is presumably responsible for an as yet unidentified phenotype (Thorsted *et al.*, 1998).

2.9.3: Transposons:

Transposons, or Transposable Elements (TE), or "Jumping Genes", are lengths of DNA capable of transposition that is movement, from a plasmid to a chromosome (or another Plasmid) and vice-versa in prokaryotes, and from one part of a chromosome to another (or to another chromosome) in eukaryotes. In prokaryotic organisms such as *E.coli*, it is possible for transposons to be transferred along with plasmid or chromosomal DNA, either independently or as a cointegrate, from one organism to another during conjugation. Some plasmids, such as *pMB1*, can become mobilized during conjugation, moving along with chromosomal or other plasmid DNA, into a recipient cell, without having instigated the conjugation (Moghaddam, 2001).

A transposon consisting of genes that code not only for its transposition, but also for unrelated activities such as antibiotic and heavy metal resistance is known as a complex transposon (Singleton and Sainsbury, 1993). It is this additional coding that differentiates complex transposons from simple insertion sequences. Insertion sequences (IS) are TEs consisting only of the genes necessary for transposition of the sequence, using the enzyme transposase and inverted base pair repeats.



০৩ Kbp

Fig. (2-1) illustrates the Molecular weight of pR^{101} (Meyer and Shapiro, 1980).

Inverted repeats have the same DNA sequence at either end with opposite orientations as illustrated in fig (2-2) A and B below:

Genes for Transposition

5' --TTCGAG-----CTCGAA-- 3'

3' --AAGCTC-----GAGCTT-- 5'

Inverted repeats

(A)

Many transposons also have inverted repeats at either end, although some have direct repeats where the ends are identical as below:

Genes for transposition and other proteins

5' --TTCGAG-----TTCGAG-- 3'

3' --AAGCTC-----AAGCTC-- 5'

Direct repeats

(B)

Fig. (2-2) A&B: (The terminal repeats are important for transposition, acting as recognition points for transposase) Hettle, (1995).

2.2.3.1: Discovery:

Transposable elements were first suspected to exist in the 1940's by geneticist Barbara McClintock while carrying out experiments on maize. It was found that breakages were being

caused at a specific site on chromosome ⁹ due to the insertion of new genetic material (Fedoroff, 1980).

In prokaryotes, transposons were not discovered until the 1960's when a mutant *E.coli* was found that unable to ferment galactose (Gal⁻). This *E.coli* was found to have DNA (insertion sequences) unrelated to the galactose gene inserted within the gene, causing its inactivation. At the same time study was being undertaken into the spread of bacterial antibiotic resistance. Sections of DNA were found with the ability to move within the genome, and between related bacterial species, that carried genes conferring antibiotic resistance. It was originally thought that these genes were rare and carried on plasmids, and it was not until 1974 that actual antibiotic resistance transposons were discovered (Hedges and Jacob, 1974).

2.5.3.2: Types of prokaryotic transposon:

Prokaryotic transposons fall into three groups:

Class I are mainly short insertion sequences, and carry only the genes required for the production of the enzymes responsible for their transposition. Class I elements demonstrate both basic, direct, transposition (that is transposition directly from one molecule to another without the formation of any intermediate structure, i.e. cointegrate) and cointegrate formation. In general, direct transposition is more common, type and frequency depending on the TGE. With Tn⁹ direct transposition is five times more likely to occur than co integrate formation, while Tn^{9.3} seems to use both methods with equal frequency (Kleckner, 1981). During insertion, from 3 or 4 to 9 base pair repeats are made on the ends of the recipient DNA molecule, that is a short DNA sequence produced immediately before the production of DNA on the inserted transposon, joining the target DNA to the transposon.

Class I elements are further subdivided into two groups: Classes IA and IB (fig. 2-3). Class I A elements are the simplest, being simple insertion sequences, having only the genes for transposition and transposition regulation, i.e. IS₁; IS₂; etc. Class I B are composite transposons, also containing genes coding for antibiotic resistance and other products, e.g. Tn¹⁸¹, genes for an enterotoxin; Tn²³⁰⁰, genes for kanamycin resistance (kan^r); Tn²⁹¹, genes for arginine biosynthesis; etc. (Hettle, 1990).

The Class II elements are typified by Tn γ . Class II transposons all bear a strong resemblance to one another and to the Tn γ . Transposition is via cointegrate formation followed by resolution. In all Class II elements insertion generates σ base pair repeats at the ends of the insertion point in the target DNA.

Class III elements are bacteriophages Mu and D λ , these bacteriophages share 90% homology in their genetic make-up (Singleton and Sainsbury, 1993). Mu (short for Mutator) is capable of causing mutations in host cells due to its ability to insert randomly in any part of the bacterial genome. Random insertion means that it can insert into a key part of a gene causing its inactivation. Unlike Class I and II elements, there are no terminal inverted repeats in Mu. There are non-symmetrical homologies between the ends and other regions within the bacteriophage, e.g. between one end of the bacteriophage and a region approximately λ bp in from the opposite end, and

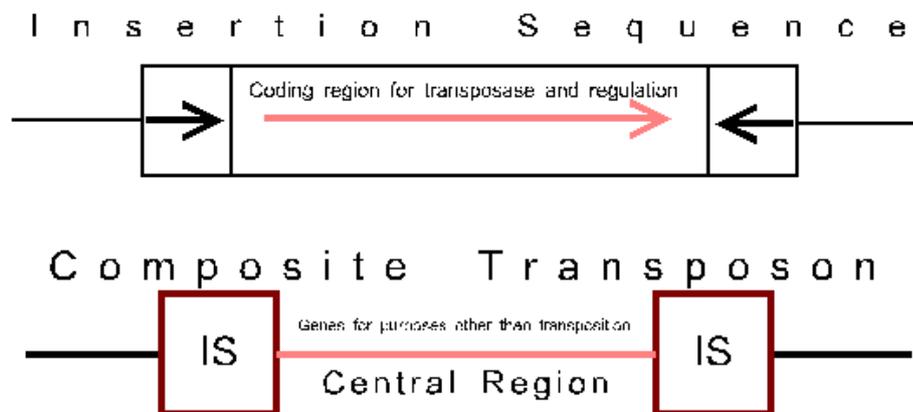


Fig. (2-2) Layout of Class I TGE's Class I A, top; Class I B, bottom. (Hettle, 1990)

a sequence of 7-9 bp in the vicinity of one end which occurs again five times near the opposite end (Kleckner, 1981).

Replicative transposition is a compulsory part of the life cycle of Mu and D λ whether the life cycle is lysogenic or lytic (Kleckner, 1981; Bétermier *et al*, 1992).

2.5.3.3: Transposon Tn³ (and relatives):

Tn³ is a 4907 base pair class II transposon. At each end it has identical 28 base pair inverted repeats. The transposon also contains the genes for transposase (*tnp A*), resolvase (*tnp R*), and β -lactamase (*bla*).

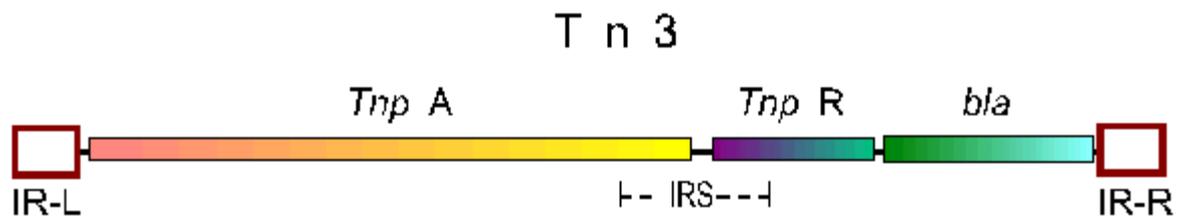


Fig. (2-4) The general layout of Tn³, the area marked IRS is the internal resolution site, without this site the resolution of the co integrate can not take place. IR-L and IR-R are inverted repeats - left and right respectively. Heffron *et al*, (1979)

The β -lactamase is responsible for the transposons ability to confer antibiotic resistance on the bacteria in which it is present. β -Lactamase is able to hydrolyze the β -lactam ring present on -lactam antibiotics such as penicillin. The hydrolysis of the ring renders the antibiotic innocuous to the organism, allowing growth and reproduction. Tn³ provides resistance to ampicillin (Ap). Ampicillin can therefore be used in growth media to screen for the presence of Tn³ in a bacterial colony (Kretschmer and Cohen, 1979; Heffron *et al*, 1979).

2.5.3.4: Mechanisms of Transposition in Tn³:

Transposition can occur directly, by transfer of a transposable element from one plasmid to another plasmid or chromosomes with no intermediate or, via the formation of cointegrate followed by resolution. The latter always yields two transposons on separate plasmids or plasmid/chromosome. Transposition is a rare event, depending on the physicochemical conditions within the cell and the element involved, in general occurring at around 10^{-8} - 10^{-7} times per element per generation (Kleckner, 1981).

Concentrating on Tn γ , cointegrate formation requires the action of the enzyme transposase, encoded by the *tnpA* gene, and resolution requires resolvase, encoded by the *tnpR* gene, and also the presence on the transposon of a resolution site and intact terminal inverted repeats. The terminals and the resolution site act as recognition sites and points of reference for the enzymes and are involved in binding the enzymes to the transposon; this is particularly true of the resolution site/resolvase complex (Heffron, 1983).

The mechanics of the operation for Tn γ (and other Class II elements) can be broken down into the two steps: cointegrate formation and resolution of the cointegrate. Step 1 requires the action of transposase, the presence of intact terminal inverted repeats, and suitable insertion sites on a target DNA molecule, preferably without another intact Tn γ . Tn γ does not show great insertion site specificity but seems to prefer "hot-spots" where insertion is more likely. Regions of high A and T concentration seem to be preferred for insertion although preference also seems to depend on other factors such as the DNA secondary structure (Heffron, 1983; Davies and Hutchison, 1990). Step 2 requires the action of resolvase and an intact internal resolution site.

The process of transposition is still not fully understood. For Tn γ , transposition is believed to begin when transposase cleaves the target DNA at the insertion site (fig. 2-2). The synthesis of five bp repeats by DNA polymerase I join the ends of the target molecule to the transposon and new DNA is synthesized along the lengths of the two strands of transposon DNA. Eventually, when replication is complete, there are two identical copies of the transposon which link the donor and recipient molecules as a cointegrate.

Fig (2-1) in previous page illustrates two possible routes for transposition. Route 1 is the obligatory pathway taken by Class II elements (e.g. Tn γ). This pathway includes cointegrate formation followed by resolution generating two copies of the transposon on two separate molecules. Route 2 illustrates the direct insertion of a transposon from a donor into a recipient molecule, resulting in the breakdown of the donor DNA. Both of these routes are symmetrical, that is the DNA is being synthesized via replication forks from both ends of the transposon. In figure (2-3), the detail of replication is more clearly illustrated with the replication forks clearly shown. The full cointegrate is also illustrated in both isometric and topological view to show the relationship of the two transposons to the overall conformation of the cointegrate. Resolution involves the recombination of the DNA making up the two transposons at the internal resolution site. The IRS consists of three internal sites: I, II and III. Sites II and III are used for binding the resolvase and site I is the point of cleavage.

Within the *IRS* are also sited the promoter regions for both *tnpA* (within the region of site I) and *tnpR* (between the regions of sites I and II) genes. The transposons are cleaved and

recombined in the manner illustrated at the end of route 1 in Figure (1-1), leaving both strands with a combination of both original and new DNA, joined at the *res* site. An asymmetric model has also been proposed in which DNA synthesis is carried out only at one end of the transposon. Instead of cutting strands at both ends, the transposase cuts recipient and donor strands at one end only and a replication fork moves from one end to the other. In this model both cointegrates and simple insertions can be carried out as per the symmetrical model, resolution would be unaffected (Kleckner, 1971; Grindley and Reed, 1970).

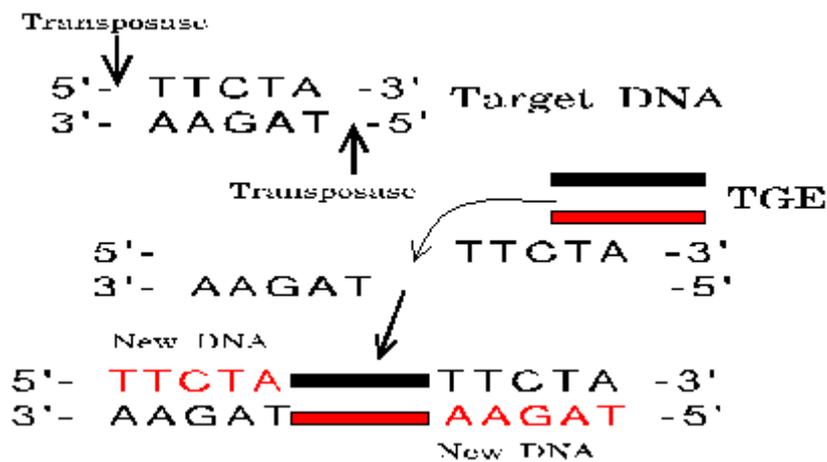


Fig. (2-5) Transposase Cleaves the Target DNA at the Insertion Site (Hefforn *et al*, 1979)

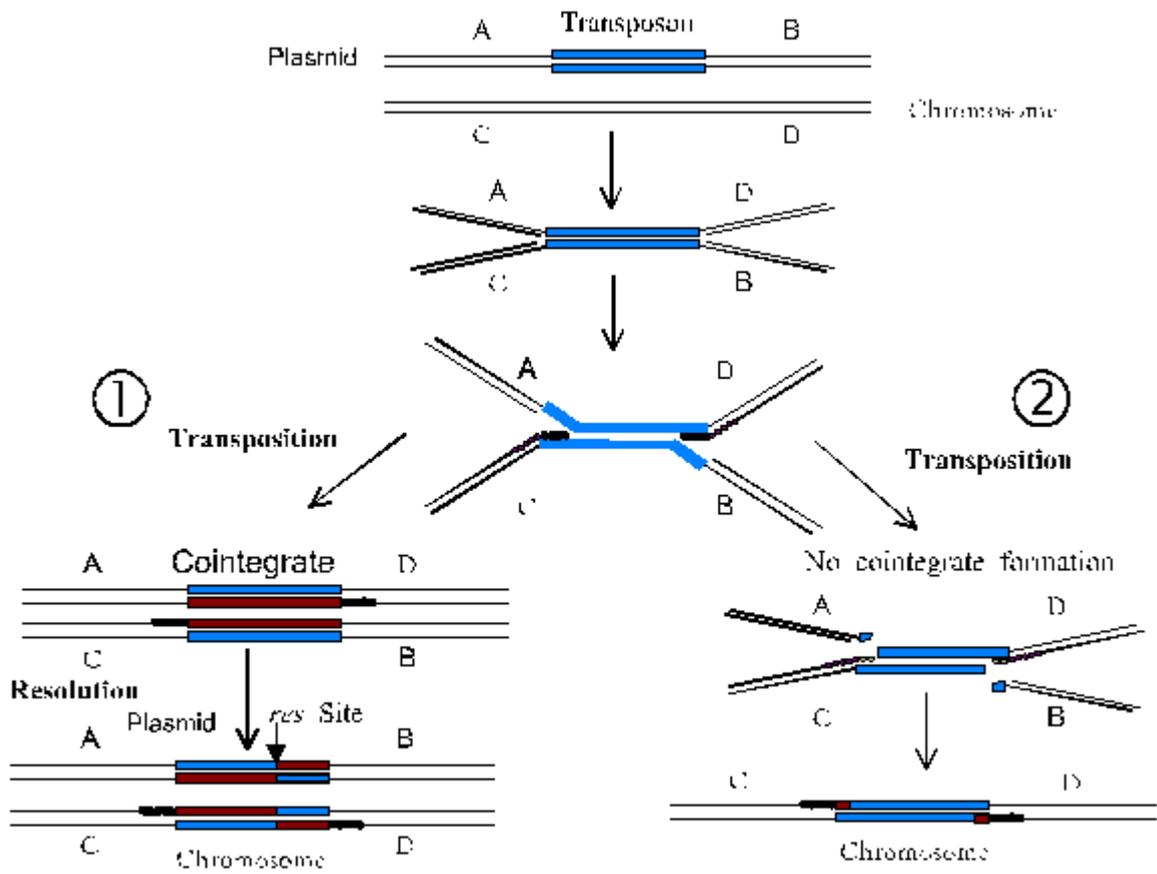


Fig. (2-6) Transposon Sequence Grindley and Reed, (1980)

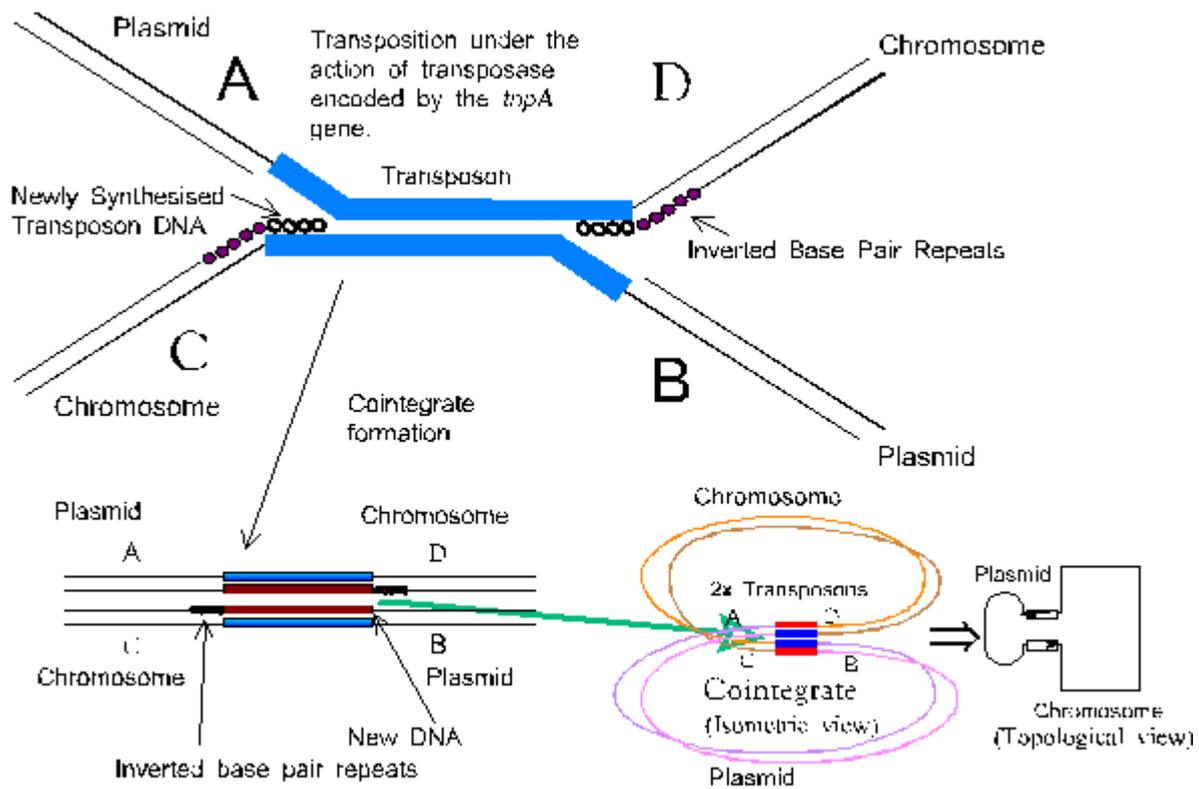


Fig. (2-7) Detail from Fig.(1-6)with additional cointegrate illustration.(Grindley & Reed, 1980)

2.2.3.2: Effects of temperature on transposition:

The rate of transposition of prokaryotic transposons has been shown to be temperature dependent (Kretschmer and Cohen, 1979; Cornelis, 1979).

Transposon Tn³ in *E.coli* has an optimum between 26°C and 30°C, above 30°C the rate falls off rapidly with a direct negative linear relationship between frequency and temperature. Transposition events depend on the ability of transposase and resolvase to carry out their functions as described above (Mechanisms of transposition in prokaryotes). Changes in the physiological conditions in the cell may cause a conformational change in either the transposase or the resolvase, making them less efficient. In the case of Tn³ it is

suggested by Cornelis, (1979), that it is the action of cointegrate formation that is influenced by the temperature variation.

۳.۱: Materials and Substances:

۳.۱.۱: Apparatus and Tools

Table (۳-۱) Apparatus and tools used during study

Apparatus and tools	Company	Country
Autoclave	Betec	Iran
Autoclave	Webeco-Bad, Schwastan	Germany
Auto vortex MIXER	Stuart scientific Co. Ltd.	England
Balance	Sartorius	Germany
Biofuge	Keudro Heraeus	Germany
Centrifuge	Hettich EBH. ۲۰	Germany

Cold centrifuge	Keudro Heraeus	Germany
Electrophoresis cell	Akhtarian, mod. SH-۰۰۳	Iran
Electrophoresis constant power supply	CONSORT-E۸۶۳ ۶۰۰ Volt – ۲۰۰ m Ampere	Belgium
Incubator	WTB binder	Germany
Light microscope	Olympus optical Co., LTD	Japan
Apparatus and tools	Company	Country
Micropipette (۲-۲۰ micro liter)	Sigma	Germany
Micropipette (۱۰-۱۰۰ micro liter)	Costar	Cambridge,U.S.A
Micro syringe	KLOEHN Co., INC WHITTER, CALIF	U.S.A
Microprocessor pH meter	HANNA (pH-۲۱۱)	Germany
Oven	WTB binder	Germany
Oven	Philip HARRIS	England
Sensitive balance	HANGPING JA ۱۰۰۳	Japan
Shaker	Labover	Germany
Shaker incubator	Stuart orbital incubator, S ۱۰۰	U.K

Spectrophotometer	BEJING RAYLEIGH ANALYTICAL, MC	China
Ultra violet transilluminator	UPLAND	U.S.A
Water bath	TAFESA	W. Germany
Medical Deep Freezer	SANYO	Japan
Millipore Filter (0.45, 0.22)	Sartorions Membrane Filter W.	Germany
Digital Camera	SONY	Japan

3.1.2 Materials

Table (3-2) Materials that used during experiments.

Material	Company
a- Chemical Material Agarose , ammonium chloride, Calcium chloride, chloroform, CTAB, glacial acetic acid, K_2HPO_4 , low melting agar, magnesium sulphate, Na_2HPO_4 , Na^+ - EDTA, Phenol, potassium chloride anhydrate, sodium	BDH (England)

chloride, Salicylic acid, sodium hydroxide, Sodium Acetate, Sodium dodecyl sulphate, Tris base.	
b-Sugars and Amino acid D-glucose, lactose, Sucrose. Casamino acid, Thiamine, yeast extract.	BDH (England)
c-Dyes Bromothymol blue, Ethidium bromide, India ink.	BDH (England)
d-Enzymes Lysozyme Proteinase K.	CinnaGen (Iran) CinnaGen (Iran)

۳.۱.۳ Plasmids and bacterial strains

Table (۳-۳) plasmids and strains that used in experiment

plasmids and bacterial strains	Phenotype & Genotype	Source
<i>E. coli</i> GMP ϵ 176 (<i>pR</i> γ 1)	<i>hsd R</i> ⁻ , <i>hsd M</i> ⁻ , <i>recA</i> ⁻ , <i>IncP</i> , <i>tra</i> ⁺ <i>leu</i> ⁻ , <i>pro</i> ⁻ , <i>lac</i> , <i>gal</i> ⁻ , <i>Sm</i> ^r	Institute of genetic engineering and biotechnology for postgraduate studies Baghdad university
<i>E. coli</i> MM γ 94	<i>hsd R</i> ⁻ , <i>hsd M</i> ⁺ , <i>edn</i> <i>AI</i> , <i>pro</i> ⁻ , <i>thi</i> ⁻ , <i>Rif</i> ^r	Biology department University of Sulaimani

***hsd R*⁻** : lack of restriction system.

***hsd M*⁺** : presence of modification system

***hsd M*⁻** : lack of modification system

***rec A*⁻** : lack of recombination system

end AI : lack of end nuclease activity

***gal*⁻** : have no ability to ferment galactose.

***tra*⁻** : lack of tra genes.

Inc P : incompatibility P group.

***pro*⁻, *leu*⁻ and *thi*⁻** (proline, leucine, and thymine respectively):need proline , leucine and thymine in their growth media .

Tp : trimethoprim,

r : Resistance

3.1.4 Culture media and solutions

3.1.4.1 Buffers and solutions

a. Antibiotic solution:

Antibiotic solutions were prepared according to (Al-zaaq, 1987 and Baron and finegold, 1990). The antibiotic solution stocks sterilized by Millipore filter 0.22, and stored at 4 °C.

Table (1-4) concentration of antibiotics that used in the culture media

Antibiotic	Final concentration in culture media ($\mu\text{g/ml}$)	Solvent used to dissolve antibiotic	Manufacture Company
Ampicillin(Ap)	100	Distilled water	Oxoid(England)
Rifampcin (Rif)	100	Aceton	Sigma(Germany)
Tetracycline (TC)	20	Ethanol alcohol/water 90%	Oxoid
Kanamycin (Km)	50	Distilled water	Sigma
Streptomycin (Sm)	100	Distilled water	Oxoid
Chloramphenicol (Cm)	50	Aceton	Oxoid
Amoxillin (Ax)	50	Distilled water	Sigma
Trimethoprim (Tp)	50	Aceton	Sigma
Cefotaxime (Ctx)	50	Distilled water	Sigma

b- Saline EDTA:

The buffer was prepared by dissolving 0.10 mol of sodium chloride, 0.1 mol of EDTA in distilled water and the pH was adjusted to 8 with 1 N NaOH. Then volume of solution was

adjusted to one liter with distilled water. The solution was sterilized by autoclave (Murmur, 1961).

c- Lysozyme solution:

This solution was prepared freshly by dissolving 10 mg of Lysozyme in 100 µl STET buffer (Sambrook *et al.*, 1989).

d- SDS solution

This solution was prepared by dissolving 0.1 mmol of Tris-base in 10 ml of distilled water then the pH was adjusted to 12.6 with 1.2 ml of 1N NaOH. The volume was completed to 100 ml with distilled water. The solution was sterilized by filtration and stored at 4°C (Kado and Liu, 1989).

e- TE buffer

The buffer was prepared by dissolving 0.1 mol of Tris-base and 0.01 mol of EDTA in distilled water then the pH adjusted to 8. The volume of the solution was completed to one liter with distilled water and the solution was sterilized by autoclave (Sambrook *et al.*, 1989).

f- EST buffer

The buffer was prepared by dissolving 0.01 M of Tris-base, 0.001 M of EDTA and 0.01 M of NaCl in distilled water then the pH adjusted to 8. The volume of the solution was completed to one liter with distilled water and the solution was sterilized by autoclave (Sambrook *et al.*, 1989).

g- EDTA-Sodium acetate

The Solution was prepared by dissolving 1 mol of sodium acetate, 0.01 mol of EDTA in distilled water. The pH was adjusted to 9 with acetic acid, and then the volume of the

solution was completed to one liter with distilled water. The solution was sterilized by autoclave (Sambrook *et al.*, 1989).

h- chloroform- isoamyl Alcohol mixture

This solution was prepared in a ratio of 3:1 and stored in bottle at 4°C (Sambrook *et al.*, 1989).

i- Phenol solution

The solution was prepared by melting the phenol at of 64°C, and then 0.1% of antioxidant α -hydroxyquinoline was added to it, an equal volume of buffer solution of 0.05 mol Tris-HCl at pH 8 was added to the mixture and mixed well by mechanical vortex and then the solution left to set at room temperature. The upper aqueous layer was separated from the lower layer. The upper layer was discard by pasture pipette and then an equal volume of 0.1 molar Tris-HCl pH 8 was added to the phenol and this process was repeated until the pH of phenol become more than 7.8. The phenol solution was stored under thin layer of 0.1 molar Tris solution in a dark bottle at 4°C (Sambrook *et al.*, 1989).

j- Phenol: chloroform: isoamyl alcohol mixture

Phenol, chloroform, isoamyl alcohol was mixed together at ratio of 3:3:1 and was stored under a layer of 0.1 molar Tris-HCl solution (pH 8) in a dark bottle at 4°C (Sambrook *et al.*, 1989).

k- TBE buffer

The solution was prepared by dissolving 0.089 mole of Tris-base, 0.089 mole of boric acid and 0.002 mole Na₂-EDTA in distilled water. The pH of the solution was adjusted to 8 with 1 N NaOH and the volume of solution was completed to one liter with distilled water. The solution was sterilized by autoclave (Sambrook *et al.*, 1989).

l- Ethidium bromide dye:

The dye solution was prepared by dissolving 0.0 mg of Ethidium bromide in 10 ml distilled water, and the solution was stored in dark bottle at room temperature (Sambrook *et al.*, 1989).

m--Extraction solution:

Solution I was prepared by mixing 0.0 mM glucose, 20 mM Tris -Cl (pH 8) and 10 mM EDTA (pH 8). The solution was prepared in batches of ~100 ml then the solution was sterilized by autoclave and stored at 4°C.

Solution II was prepared by mixing 0.2 N NaOH (freshly diluted from 10 N stocks) and 1% SDS. **Solution III** (1M Sodium acetate) pH 4.8: It was prepared by mixing 60 ml of 0 M potassium acetate, 11.0 ml glacial acetic acid and 28.0 ml of distilled water (Sambrook *et al.*, 1989).

n- Salicylic acid solution

A stock solution of concentration 20 mg/ml of was prepared by dissolving 1 gm of the salicylic acid in 50 ml distilled water and sterilized by Millipore filter 0.45µm (Domenico *et al.*, 1989).

o -Normal saline

It was prepared by dissolving 0.10 moles from sodium chloride and 0.1 mole of KH_2PO_4 in distilled water, the pH was adjusted to 7.2 by adding 1 N NaOH . Then the volume was completed to one liter by adding distilled water, and then sterilized by autoclave.

p- CTAB solution:

The solution was prepared by mixing 1% CTAB in 0.0 mM Tris—10 mM EDTA, and then the pH was adjusted to 8.0 (Corinaldesi *et al.*, 2008).

3.1.4.2 Culture media

A-Ready culture media

Table (3-5) Ready culture media used during experiments

The following media were prepared as recommended by the manufacturing company and autoclaved

Culture media	Manufacture company
Brain-Heart infusion agar	(BHF), (Mast diagnostics company; U.K).
Brain-Heart infusion broth	(BHI), (Mast diagnostics company; U.K).
Eosin methylene blue agar (EMB),	(Difco U.S.A).
MacConKey agar	(Difco-U.S.A).
Muller-Hinton agar	(Difco-U.S.A).
Nutrient agar	(Mast diagnostics U.K).
Nutrient broth	(Mast diagnostics U.K).

B-Prepared culture media

1- Minimum medium M₁

It was prepared by dissolving 9 gm of Na₂HPO₄, 3 gm of KH₂PO₄, 0.5 gm of sodium chloride, and 1 gm of NH₄Cl in 980 ml deionized water at pH 7.4 then sterilized by autoclave. After that 2 ml of 1 M MgSO₄ solution, 10 ml of 20% glucose solution, 1 ml of Casamino acid solution at the final concentration (20 mg/ml) and thiamine (20 mg/ml) was sterilized separately by filtration and added to the medium. When the medium was used as solid medium 2% agar would be added to it (Sambrook *et al.*, 1989).

2-SOC liquid medium

It was prepared by dissolving 2 gm of trypton, 0.5 gm yeast extract, and 0.005 gm sodium chloride in 90 ml distilled water and then 1 ml of 0.20 M of potassium chloride was added, the pH of the solution was adjusted to 7 and the volume completed to 100 ml. Before using, 0.5 ml of 2 M magnesium chloride, and 1 ml of 0.20 molar of glucose previously been sterilized by filtration was added when the medium used as solid culture, 2% of agar would be added (Sambrook *et al.*, 1989).

3- Salicylic acid medium

The medium prepared by adding salicylic acid at concentration of 100 µg/ml to the M₁ medium (Al-Jlawi, 2000).

4-Luria broth

It was prepared by dissolving 10 gm of trypton, 5 gm yeast extract, and 10 gm sodium chloride in 900 ml distilled water. The pH of medium was adjusted to 7 then the volume was completed to one liter, and then sterilized by autoclave (Sambrook *et al.*, 1989).

3.2. Methods

3.2.1: Sterilization:

3.2.1.1: Dry sterilization:

Glasswares were sterilized using oven instrument at 180 C° for two hr.

3.2.1.2: Autoclaving:

All the media, solutions and used in this work were autoclaved at 121 C° for 15 min.

3.2.2: pH of culture media:

The hydrogen ion concentration (pH) for all culture media was adjusted to (7.2 – 7.4) using pH meter.

۳.۲-۳: Identification of *K.pneumoniae*:

۳-۲.۳.۱: Microscopical examination (Gram staining film):

Smears were prepared by taken a small amount of isolated colony from a bacterial culture on a glass slide by mixing a colony of tested bacterium with a drop of distilled water, stained with Gram stain and examined using oil immersion objective lens under ۱۰۰X power.

۳-۲--۳-۲: Cultural characteristics:

The morphological characteristics of isolated colonies were carefully studied with the aid of a lens ۱۰X lens.

Depending on above two criteria the cultures were primarily classified as pure or mixed cultures.

۳.۲.۴: Antibiotic resistance

A-Antibiotic sensitivity test (Antibiotic susceptibility test by disk-diffusion method (Kirby Bauer test) :

A single colony of bacterial strain was transferred to a fresh test tube containing ۵ ml Brain-Heart infusion broth then incubated for ۲۴ hours at ۳۷ C°. After that ۰.۱ ml of the inoculum was transferred to a Muller-Hinton agar plate, streaked by a sterile straight wire all over the surface of the medium three times. After ۱۰-۱۵ min, antibiotic discs were plated on the medium then incubated at ۳۷ C° for ۲۴ hours. After incubation the inhibition zone

diameters were determined in millimeters (mm), comparison was done with standard inhibition zone (Mahon and Manuselis, ۲۰۰۰).

Table (۳-۱) Antibiotic disc used in antibiotic susceptibility test.

Antibiotic disc	Concentration ($\mu\text{g}/\text{disc}$)	Manufacture company
Amoxicillin (Ax)	۲۵	Jovet
Ampicillin (Amp)	۱۰	Oxoid
Cefotaxime (CTM)	۳۰	Oxoid
Chloramphenicol (C)	۳۰	Oxoid
Nalidixic acid (NA)	۳۰	Oxoid
Neomycin (N)	۳۰	Oxoid
Novobiocin (NV)	۳۰	Oxoid
Rifampicin (RA)	۵	Oxoid
Streptomycin (S)	۱۰	Oxoid
Tetracycline (TE)	۳۰	Oxoid
Trimethoprim (TEM)	۵	Oxoid

B- Antibiotic resistance test in solid cultures media

The Mullar-Hinton agar was prepared and sterilized by autoclave, cooled to ۵۰ C°. Antibiotic solution in appropriated concentration was added to the cooled culture medium,

poured into sterilized Petri dish and left to solidify, then. The bacterial isolates were cultured by picking and patching method. The result were recorded by presence (+) or absence of growth (-) (Nassif *et al.*, 1989).

3.2.5: Detection of presence of plasmid DNA

3.2.5.1. Plasmid DNA Extraction

A-Extraction of large plasmid

Alkaline lysis method of Kado and Liu, 1981 was used to extract large plasmids and the salting out method was used to prepare total DNA (Pospiech and Neuman, 1990) as below:

1. A single colony of bacterial isolate was incubated into LB agar plates that containing 100 µg/ml of ampicillin. Then the plates were incubated at 37 C° for 24 hr.
2. The bacterial cells were collected by sterilized loop and transfer to polypropylene tube with plastic cap containing 0 ml of STE buffer.
3. The bacterial cells were precipitated by centrifugation at 3000 xg for 10 min. the supernatant was discarded and the pellet was resuspended by 0 ml of STE buffer.
4. Aliquot of 100 µl of 20 % SDS solution and 120 µl of proteinase K (20 mg/ml) were added to the bacterial suspension and incubated in water bath at 60 C° for 2 hr.
5. Aliquot of 5 ml of 0 M NaCl solution was added to the lysate, then mixed by inversion, and left to cool to 37 C°.
6. Equal volume of phenol-chloroform-isoamyl alcohol mixture (24:24:1) was added to the lysate then mixed gently by inversion for 30 min until an emulsion formed.
7. The mixture was separate by centrifugation at 12000 rpm for 10 min at 4 C°. The aqueous phase was transferred by pipette to a fresh tube. (The steps 6 and 7 were repeated until no protein was visible at the interphase of the organic and aqueous phases).
8. Equal volume of chloroform was added to the aqueous phase that contains the nucleic acid and step 7 was repeated.
9. Aliquot of 0.6 % (v/v) isopropanole was added to the extract and mixed by inversion then the DNA was spooled onto a sealed pasture pipette rinsed in 70 % cold ethanol then dissolved in 1-2 ml TE buffer pH 8.

B- Plasmid extraction by alkaline lysis:

1. Single colony of the bacterial isolate was grown in 10 ml of LB broth containing 100 mg/ml ampicillin and incubated at 37 C° for 24 hr. with shaking. Bacterial cells were harvested by centrifugation at 10000 rpm for 10 min.
2. The pellet resuspended in 10 ml of EST/saline buffer.
3. The suspension centrifuged at 10000 rpm for 10 min. (the step 2, 3 repeated twice)
4. The pellet was resuspended in 0.5 ml of solution I, then transferred to sterile eppendorf tube and omitted for 5 minutes at room temperature.
5. Aliquot of 0.5 ml of solution II was added to the mixture and then the eppendorf tube was gently inverted for many times and omitted in ice bath for 10 min.
6. Aliquot of 0.5 ml of cold solution III was added to the mixture above and the eppendorf tube was inverted for many times before putting on ice bath for 5 min.
7. The mixture was centrifuged at 14000 rpm for 5 min.
8. Aliquot of 0.5 ml of the supernatant was transferred to the new sterile eppendorf, then an equal volume of phenol-chloroform-isopropanole solution was added and mixed very well then the solution subjected to centrifugation as previous step.
9. The upper layer was transferred to the new sterile eppendorf, and both the middle and lower layer omitted. this step was repeated till the protein was excluded from the solution.
10. Aliquot of 3 M of cold sodium acetate in ratio of 0.1 volumes was added to the supernatant that contain plasmid DNA and mixed very well.
11. Double volume of cold absolute ethanol was added to the suspension and mixed gently and then left at -10 C° for two hr.
12. The mixture was centrifuged at 12000 rpm for 10 min. then the ethanol was excluded from the solution, and the pellet was washed by 70% ethanol and then centrifuged as in the previous step.
13. The eppendorf was inverted on sterile filter paper and the pellet dissolved in 50 µl of TE buffer and stored at -20 C° (Kado and Liu, 1981).

C- Determination of DNA concentration by spectrophotometer:

Concentration of prepared DNA was estimated using spectrophotometer by applied this equation (Sambrook *et al.*, 1989):-

$$\text{Conc. of DNA } \mu\text{g/ml} = \text{optical density at } 260_{\text{nm}} \times \text{dilution factor} \times 50 \mu\text{g/ml}$$

2.2.5.2: Gel electrophoresis

According to method of Sambrook *et al.* (1989), agarose gel were prepared by dissolving 0.5 gm agarose powder in 100 ml of 1 X Tris-borate buffer, heated to boiling in water bath. The gel was cooled to 60 C° then 100 µl of Ethidium bromide was added to final concentration of 0.5 µg/ml and mixed thoroughly. The edge of the a lean, dry glass plate was sealed with tape so as to form a mold and the mold set on horizontal section of the bench. The comb was placed above the plate. The gel was poured into the mold (10 x 5 cm). After that the gel was allowed completely to set for 30-40 min at room temperature, the comb and surrounding former cover were removed and the gel soaked in a gel tank containing (1 X) Tris-borate buffer. 10 µl of DNA samples were mixed with 5 µl of loading buffer dye, Finally 10 µl of this mixture was loaded into the wells, then the gel tank were closed by lid and electrical leads was attached 100 v/cm was applied for 1-2 hr. After that the electric current turned off and removes the leads and the lid from the gel tank. The gel was examined by UV-light and photographed the gel.

2.2.6: Recovery of Plasmid DNA from the gel

0.8 % of low melting agarose gel was prepared as above then, the samples of DNA and molecular weight marker (Lambda DNA cut by *EcoRI* and *HindIII*) was electrophorized at 100 V for 1 hr. until the bromophenol blue reached the bottom of the gel. The gel was examined by UV-light and photographed it. Then the gel was placed in petredish lid on the transilluminator and razor blade was used to dissect the band. The band was trimmed as much as possible. Once we had removed the rest of the gel, it was rotated at 90° so that it was lied flat on the Petri plate, the band was put in clean, labeled microcenterfuge tube then, the agarose was melted in 60 C° for 5 min. after that the DNA was precipitated adding 1 volume of a cetyl trimethyl ammonium bromide (CTAB) solution (1% CTAB in 50 mM Tris-10 mM EDTA, pH 8.0). Samples were incubated at 60°C for 30 min and then centrifuged at 5,000 rpm for 10 min at 4°C. The supernatants were discharged, and each pellet was resuspended in high-salt TE buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl, 0.1 mM EDTA, 1 M NaCl; pH 8.0). Then 0.6 volume of cold isopropanol was added to each sample and the samples were incubated for 1 h on ice and centrifuged at 10,000 rpm for 10 min at 4°C. The pellets were resuspended in 10 mM Tris-HCl-0.1 mM EDTA (pH 8.0), an equal volume of equilibrated phenol-

chloroform-isoamyl alcohol (2:2:1, vol/vol/vol) was added to each preparation, and the preparations were centrifuged at 10,000 rpm for 5 min. Each supernatant was mixed with an equal volume of chloroform isoamyl alcohol (2:1, vol/vol) and centrifuged again. The supernatant was then precipitated with cold ethanol (final concentration, 70%) and sodium chloride (final concentration, 0.5 M), incubated at -20°C for 1 h, and centrifuged at 10,000 rpm for 10 min. Finally, the pellet was washed two times with ethanol, dried, and resuspended in TE buffer. The purity of DNA was checked by determining the ratio of absorbance at 260 nm to absorbance at 280 nm (Corinaldesi *et al.*, 2004).

2.2.7: Generating of variant derivatives by Salicylic acid

K.pneumoniae No. 10 was subjected to successive subculturing for (240) generation (20 min/ generation) on supported M⁹ medium containing 100 µg/ml of salicylic acid at 37 C°. Antibiotic resistance marker of the last subculture (10th) detected on Mullar-Hinton agar supplemented with the antibiotics like ampicillin, tetracycline, vancomycin, kanamycin, nalidixic acid, neomycin, trimethoprim, and rifampicin and DNA content of resulting cells were analyzed (Al-Jlawi, 2002).

2.2.8: Genetic stability detection y of *K.pneumoniae I* variant

K. pneumoniae I variant was subjected to successive subculturing for (240) generation (20 min/ generation) on Mullar-Hinton agar at both 30 C° and 37 C°. Antibiotic resistance marker of the last subculture (10th) detected on Mullar-Hinton agar supplemented with the antibiotics like ampicillin, tetracycline, vancomycin, kanamycin, nalidixic acid, neomycin, trimethoprim, and rifampicin and DNA content of resulting cells were analyzed.

2.2.9: Detection of type of antibiotic encoded by transposon

K.pneumoniae I variant was subjected to successive subculturing on Mullar-Hinton agar containing increasing concentration of antibiotics like ampicillin, amoxicillin, tetracycline, novobiocin, kanamycin, nalidixic acid, , and Chloramphenicol incubated at 37C°

2.2.10: Detection of transposition of ampicillin resistance

The detection of transposition of ampicillin was performed according to the method of Ruben et al. (1976) with some modification. Conjugative Inc P plasmid $R^{V\phi}$ carrying trimethoprim gene was introduced into *K.pneumoniae* I variant which harbored large plasmid $pKPI$ (that carry ampicillin transposon) by conjugation. Then the transconjugant selected on Mullar-Hinton agar supplemented with $100 \mu\text{g/ml}$ of ampicillin, $20 \mu\text{g/ml}$ trimethoprim and $100 \mu\text{g/ml}$ of rifampicin. the transconjugant that contain both plasmid ($R^{V\phi}$ plasmid and $pKPI$) were subjected to successive subculturing for about 10 generation ($30 \text{ min/generation}$) on Mullar-Hinton agar containing $100 \mu\text{g/ml}$ of ampicillin at both 37°C and 30°C . After that antibiotic resistance marker of the last subculture (10th) detected on Mullar-Hinton agar supplemented with the studies antibiotics and the DNA contents of the resulting cells were analyzed.

2.2.11: Bacterial conjugation.

Day one:

- 1- A single colony of donor strain was inoculated in to 20 ml LB broth containing appropriated antibiotic.
- 2- A single colony of *E.coli* MM294 rif^r recipient was inoculated in to 20 ml LB broth containing $100 \mu\text{g/ml}$ of rifampicin.
- 3- The cultures were incubated overnight at 37°C for 18 hr. with vigorous shaking or until OD $0.9 \approx 0.54$.

Day two: Surface mating

- 1- Aliquot of 2×10^7 of donor cell and 1×10^8 recipients were mixed in sterile eppendorf.
- 2- The pellet was resuspended in $20 \mu\text{l}$ of LB and the cells were transferred to $0.22 \mu\text{m}$ Millipore filter on LB agar plate.
- 3- The LB agar plates which contain Millipore filter were incubated at 37°C for $1-2 \text{ hr.}$

ξ- The cells were resuspended by placing filter in a tube containing 0.5 ml of 0.8% saline and agitating the tube on a vortex.

ο- Serial 1/10 dilution was made to 10⁻⁶ of the mating mixture.

ϖ- Aliquot of 0.1 ml of dilution 10⁻¹ to 10⁻⁶ was spread on LB agar containing rifampicin (100 µl/ml) and trimethoprim (50 µl/ml).

Υ- Aliquot of 0.1 ml of original overnight culture of donor and recipient was spread on the same medium to determine the frequency of antibiotic resistance spontaneous mutation.

Λ- Aliquot of 0.1 ml of dilution 10⁻¹ and 10⁻⁶ was spread on LB agar containing rifampicin (100 µl/ml) to estimate the number of recipient cells in the mating.

ϑ- All plates were incubated at 37°C.

Control:

A- Aliquot of 0.1 ml of donor cells was transferred to rifampicin plate.

B- Aliquot of 0.1 ml of recipient cell *Escherichia coli* MM294 rif^r were transferred to Plates containing antibiotic of donor strain.

ϑ- All plates were incubated at 37°C.

Day three

The colonies that had grown on the selection plate was counted and the number of bacteria per ml in mating mixture exhibiting the phenotype rifampicin (total recipient) and Rif^r, Tp^r (transconjugant) was calculated (O' Connell, 1984)

- The frequency of conjugation was calculated as below:

No. Of transconjugants cells/ml

Tranconjugant cells per Recipient cells= _____
No. of recipients cells /ml

۳.۲.۱۲: Transformation

۳.۲.۱۲.۱: Preparation of competent cells

۱- A starting culture was prepared by adding freshly isolated single colony to ۵ml of nutrient broth medium and grown overnight at ۳۷C°.

۲- Aliquot of ۰.۳ ml of starting culture was inoculated in to ۶۰ ml of fresh nutrient broth medium and the cells were grown at ۳۷C° for ۱-۲hr.

۳- The culture was chilled on ice for ۵-۷ minutes; cell suspension was centrifuged at ۸۰۰۰ rpm for ۱۵min in a sterile ۱۰۰ml glass centrifuge tube.

۴- The supernatant was discarded; the pellet was resuspended in half of original culture volume, (۳۰ml) of an ice-cold sterile solution of ۰.۱M CaCl_۲.

۵- The cell suspension was placed on ice, and then centrifuged at ۸۰۰۰ rpm for ۱۵ min.

۶- Supernatant was discarded and the pellet was resuspended in ۱ ml of ice cold ۰.۱M CaCl_۲ (Sambrook *et al* ۱۹۸۹).

۳.۲.۱۲.۲: DNA up takes

1- For each 100 µl of competent cells in a transformation tube 10 µl of a DNA solution was added and incubated on ice bath for 30 min.

2- The competent cells were heat- shocked by placing the tube in a 42°C water bath for 90 Sec. and then 3 min. at ice bath.

3- Aliquot of 100 µl of pre warmed (37°C) SOC medium was added to the suspension and Incubated at 37°C with moderate agitation for 10 min.

4- Aliquot of 0.1 ml cells were spread quickly and gently on selective plated, SOC agar plates by spreading.

5- The plates were incubated upside down at 37°C over night.

6- The transformants colonies were calculated as below:

No. of transformants cells/Concentration of DNA
(µg/ml)

Transformant frequency= _____
Competent cells

7- Co-transfer for transformant cells were made on different plates containing different type of antibiotics (Sambrook *et al.* 1989).

4. Results and Discussion

4.1. Re-identification of *K.pneumoniae* No.10 Isolate

K.pneumoniae No.10 had previously been isolated by (Al-Jlawi, 2000), which re-identified by using api 20 E. as in Fig (4-1). The isolate was resistant to most antibiotics including ampicillin,

tetracycline, streptomycin, kanamycin, trimethoprim, Chloramphenicol, and nalidixic acid The resistance of *K.pneumoniae* No. 10 is mainly by large plasmid pKP about 120 kbp (Al-Jlawi, 2000).

The wide spread use of β -lactamase groups of antibiotic against bacterial infection and continued mismanaged selective pressure has contributed toward the emergence of extended spectrum- β -lactamase resistance bacteria (Cohen, 1992). It demonstrated that β -lactamase which was associated with high level ampicillin resistance in *K.pneumoniae* strains are mainly produced by large plasmid pK¹ (Livermore, 1990). Philippon *et al.* (1989) indicated that one large plasmid encoding multidrug resistance genes usually carry one β -lactamase encoded gene, which is probably a mutant of the TEM-1 gene to code for enzyme capable of hydrolyzing the extended –spectrum β -lactam. Genes specifying resistance to β -lactamase may be included in transposable elements it has been reported that each β -lactamase reside in a 2,000 bp DNA sequence called the ampicillin transposon (TnA). Tn¹, Tn², Tn^{26.1}, and Tn^{26.2} have been identified on Rp¹, R¹, Rms²¹², and Rms²²⁰, respectively (Hedges and Jacob, 1974; Kopeco and Cohen, 1970; Yamamoto *et al.*, 1980). These TnA are very similar in size, base sequence homology as observed by heteroduplex formation, restriction endonuclease cleavage site, and possession of short inverted repeat sequence at both end (Hefforn *et al.*, 1970). Gene specifying resistance to β -lactamase may be including in transposable elements consequently, these experiment were performed to determine whether *K.pneumoniae* No. 10 mega plasmid pKP harboring a transposon encoding ampicillin resistance.



***Klebsiella pneumoniae* (0210773) [97.7] accuracy of diagnosis.**

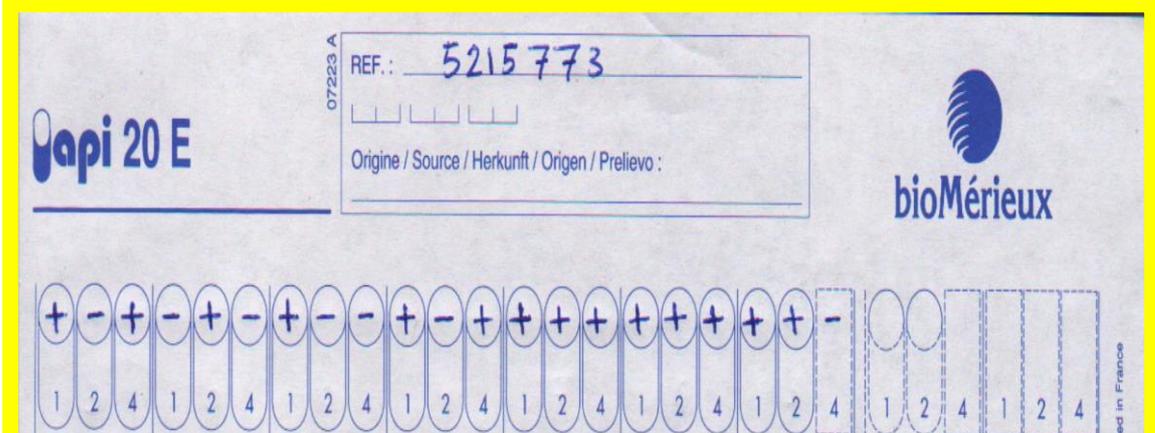


Fig. (4-1) Re- Identification of *K.pneumoniae* No. 10 Using api 20E.

4.2. Variant Derivatives from *K.pneumoniae* No. 10 after Salicylic acid Treatment.

The salicylic acid was used to obtain variants from *K.pneumoniae* sensitive to trimethoprim in order to use them as recipient to Inc P plasmid R⁵¹ which is trimethoprim resistant. Salicylic acid has good role in plasmid curing when use in high concentration 100 µg/ml (Al-Said, 1997).

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Al-Jlawi (2000) showed that optimum concentration of salicylic acid that lead plasmid cure with out any inhibition effect to the *K. pneumoniae* is 100 µg/ml.

The successive subculture of *K.pneumoniae* No. 10 on the Supported M₁ medium containing 100 µg/ml of salicylic acid resulted in to obtaining four variant groups that differ in their antibiotic susceptibility pattern and their plasmid contents as shown in Fig (4-2).

Group 1 of variant groups designated as *K.pneumoniae I* which comprise about 31.66% of total variant groups characterized by susceptibility toward streptomycin, trimethoprim, and rifampcin in compared with those present in the wild type *K. pneumoniae* No. 10 as shown in table (4-1). Electrophoresis study of the plasmids contents in *K.pneumoniae I* group showed there were two bands of plasmid DNA in compare with those found in wild type of the *K.pneumoniae* No. 10 which contained single band.

Al-Jlawi, (2000) refereed that the presence of salicylic acid in culture medium result different genetic variation ascribed to recombination of genetic material in *K. pneumoniae* No. 10 and presence of transposable element in this strain. The presence of transposable elements in the *K. pneumoniae* No. 10 led also to disturb genes responsible for antibiotic resistance .Transposon have ability to make changes in the genetic material of *K.pneumoniae* by various way like deletion , addition, reversion, base pair substitution, and as well as insertional mutagenesis (Simon-Smit *et al*, 1984; Lewin, 1990).

Group 2 variant which designated as *K.pneumoniae G* comprise about 18.66% characterized by sensitivity towards tetracycline, streptomycin, nalidixic acid, and rifampcin.

Electrophoresis of plasmid contents of *K.pneumoniae G* revealed that there were three bands of plasmid DNA compare with single band in wild type *K.pneumoniae* No. 10. Group 3 designated as *K.pneumoniae K* and group 4 which designed as *K. pneumoniae L* comprised 27.66% and 22% respectively of total variant groups. Each of them possesses two bands of plasmid DNA in gel electrophoresis; *K. pneumoniae K* group was sensitive to tetracycline, vancomycin, kanamycin, nalidixic acid, neomycin, trimethoprim, and rifampcin while the *K. pneumoniae L* was sensitive to tetracycline, vancomycin, kanamycin, nalidixic acid, neomycin, and trimethoprim.

McLaughlin (1973) and Domenico *et al.* (1989) Showed that salicylic acid act as chelating agent that chelating divalent cations especially Mg^{+2} and Ca^{+2} ion in the culture medium that play important role in stabilizing of plasma membrane and enzymatic activation that found in per plasma space. The salicylic acid has ability to adsorb the phospholipids causing an increasing in negativity of the plasma membranes of *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, consequently led misdistribution of the plasmids during replication (Al-Jlawi, 2000). Plasma membranes contain specialized site that bind to plasmids and DNA chromosomes during host replications so that salicylic acid may affect on these site thus play role in curing of plasmids (Al-said, 1997).

Table (4-1): Successive subcultures of *K.pneumoniae* No 10. Isolate on supported M9 medium containing Salicylic acid (100 µg/ml) at 37 C°.

Parent groups															Percentage
K.pneumoniae (10)															

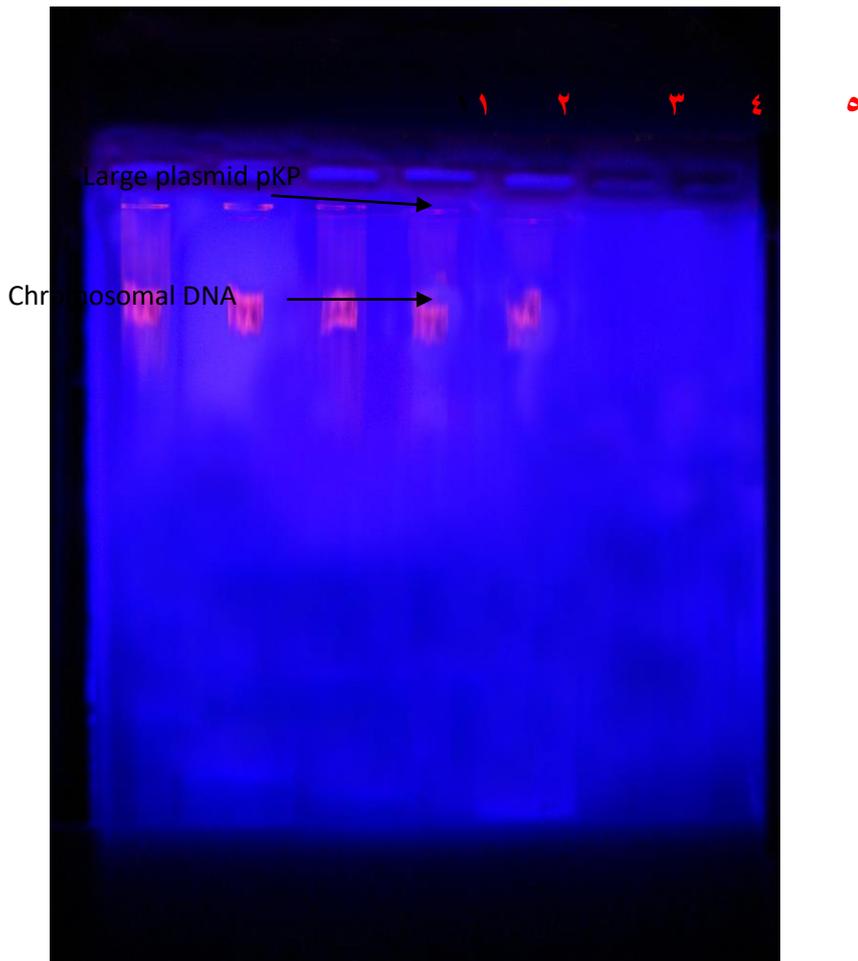


Fig. (4-2) plasmid profile of variant groups of *Klebsiella pneumoniae* No. 10 after treating with 100 µg/ml of Salicylic Acid.

The DNA plasmid extracted by alkaline lysis (Kado and Liu, 1981) and migrated on Agarose gel 0.5%, 80 volt, and 1hr.

Lane 1: *Klebsiella pneumoniae* No. 10 with out treating with salicylic acid.

Lane 2: *K.p I* (Variant group 1 of *K.pneumoniae* No. 10)

Lane 3: *K.p G* (Variant group 2 of *K.pneumoniae* No. 10)

Lane 4: *K.p K* (Variant group 3 of *K.pneumoniae* No. 10)

Lane 5: *K.pL* (Variant group 4 of *K.pneumoniae* No. 10)

4.3 Detection of transposon in *K. Pneumoniae* I Variant

4.3.1 Transposons are responsible for genetic instability.

The relocation of transposons can lead to genetic instability. This may result in the simple loss of a phenotype if transposition results in the insertion of a transposable element into a structural gene (Hefforn *et al.*, 1970).

The successive subcultures of *K. pneumoniae I* (that derived from *Klebsiella pneumoniae* No. 10 after treating with salicylic acid) on medium containing 100 µg/ml ampicillin led to excision of transposon from positions that they located in *pKPI* to other location of *pKPI* itself (Intramolecular transposition) or to other plasmids or chromosomes (Intermolecular transposition), with company of block of structural genes, including the antibiotic resistance genes.

The excision of transposon is due to the concentration of ampicillin that makes stress on the host and therefore induced the SOS response in bacteria which consequently stimulate the excision of transposon (Rusina *et al.*, 1992) and (Miller *et al.*, 2004).

The successive subculturing (24th generation) of *K. pneumoniae I* in Mullar-Hinton Agar medium containing 100 µg/ml at 37°C the last subculture (10th) was revealed two groups of variant as shown in table (4-2). The first group designed as *K. pneumoniae I₁*, which comprised about 92.0% of total variant groups and characterized by losing the neomycin resistance while the second group members which designed as *K. pneumoniae I₂*, constitute about 7.0% of total variant groups and characterized by losing neomycin and tetracycline resistance in comparison with *K. pneumoniae I* variant.

Goryshin and Rezinkoff, (1998) showed the Tn^o can randomly insert in to genome of an organism, and in doing so, disrupt function of genes that they may incorporated in to. Hefforn, (1970) reported that the gene that specified streptomycin phospho transferase inactivate when TnA had been inserted in to this gene. DE lacruz and Grinsted, (1982) showed that the transposition of Tn²¹ some times inactivated tetracycline gene that responsible for tetracycline resistance in *pACYC 1A* by insertion.

When the same *K. pneumoniae I* variant subjected to the same treatment but incubated at 37°C, the colonies of last subculture (10th) revealed four groups of variants as shown in table (4-3). The first group designed as *K. pneumoniae I₁* constitute about 60% of total variant groups characterized by losing Neomycin resistance in comparison of *K. pneumoniae I* variant. The second group which designed as *K. pneumoniae I₂* comprised about 20% of total variant groups characterized by losing neomycin and vancomycin resistance in comparison of *K. pneumoniae I* variant. The third group which designed as *K. pneumoniae I₃* constitute about 11.0% of total

variant groups characterized by losing Neomycin , Vancomycin and Kanamycin resistance in comparison of *K. pneumoniae I* variant .The fourth group which designed as *K. pneumoniae I*₄ comprised about 8.9 % of total variant groups characterized by losing neomycin ,vancomycin, kanamycin and novobiocin resistance in comparison of *K. pneumoniae I* variant.

These results indicated that transposition of transposon in *K. pneumoniae I* variant at 37 °C is more than these occurred at 30 °C and therefore the antibiotic change pattern in 37 °C is more than those at 30 °C .

This result was similar to both Cornelis (1979) that stated that the rate of transposition of prokaryotic transposon is temperature dependent and Kretschmer and Cohen (1979) that showed that the transposon Tn_r in *E.coli* has an optimum temperature for transposition falls between 26 - 30 °C; but the rate of transposition falls directly above 30 °C . The falls in this transposition demonstrated by Cornels, 1979 , by changes in the physiological condition in the cell that lead to cause a conformational change in either the transposase or resolvase, making them less efficient.

Table (4-2): different phenotypic classes obtained from successive subcultures of *K.pneumoniae I* variant on Mullar-Hinton containing ampicillin (100 µg/ml) at 37 °C.

*The calculated percentage for 100 single colony transferred by picking and patching in the

<i>Variant Groups</i>	Ap	Tc	Ax	Sm	VA	Km	NV	Nal	N	Tp	Rif	Cm	Ctx	Percentage %
Group 1 (<i>K.p I₁</i>)	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	+	+	92.0
Group 2 (<i>K.p I₂</i>)	+	-	+	-	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	+	+	7.0
Original (<i>K.p I</i>)	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	+	+	100

presence of ampicillin (100 µg/ml) incubated at 37 C°.

*The symbol (+) refer to resistance while the (-) is sensitive.

*Ap :ampicillin(100 µg/ml),Tc :tetracycline(30 µg/ml),Ax :amoxicillin(30 µg/ml),Sm : streptomycin(30 µg/ml),VA : vancomycin(30 µg/ml),Km : kanamycin(30 µg/ml), NV : novobiocin(30 µg/ml),Nal : nalidixic acid (30 µg/ml),N : neomycin (30 µg/ml),Tp : trimethoprim (30 µg/ml),Rif : rifampicin(100 µg/ml),Cm :chloramphenicol (30 µg/ml),and CTX :cefotaxime (30 µg/ml)

**K.p I₁*, and *K.p I₂*: represent variant strains derived from *K. pneumoniae I* after successive subculture on ampicillin medium incubated at 37 C°.

Table (1-3): different phenotypic classes obtained from sequential subculturing of *K. pneumoniae* I variant on ampicillin containing medium (100 µg/ml) at 37 C°.

*The calculated percentage for 100 single colony transferred by picking and patching in the

<i>Variant Groups</i>	Ap	Tc	Ax	Sm	VA	Km	NV	Nal	N	Tp	Rif	Cm	Ctx	Percentage %
Group 1 (<i>K.p I_r</i>)	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	+	+	60
Group 2 (<i>K.p I_s</i>)	+	+	+	-	-	+	+	+	-	-	-	+	+	20
Group 3 (<i>K.p I_o</i>)	+	+	+	-	-	-	+	+	-	-	-	+	+	11.0
Group 4 (<i>K.p I_i</i>)	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	8.0
Original (<i>K.p I</i>)	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	+	+	100

presence of ampicillin (100 µg/ml) incubated at 37 C°.

*The symbol (+) refer to resistance while the (-) is sensitive.

*Ap :ampicillin(100 µg/ml),Tc :tetracycline(30 µg/ml),Ax :amoxicillin(30 µg/ml),Sm : streptomycin(30 µg/ml),VA : vancomycin(30 µg/ml),Km : kanamycin(30 µg/ml), NV : novobiocin(30 µg/ml),Nal : nalidixic acid (30 µg/ml),N : neomycin (30 µg/ml),Tp : trimethoprim (30 µg/ml),Rif : rifampicin(100 µg/ml),Cm :chloramphenicol (30 µg/ml),and CTX :cefotaxime (30 µg/ml)

**K.p I_r*, *K.p I_s*, *K.p I_o* and *K.p I_i*: represent variant strains derived from *K. pneumoniae* I after successive subculture on ampicillin medium incubated at 37 C°.

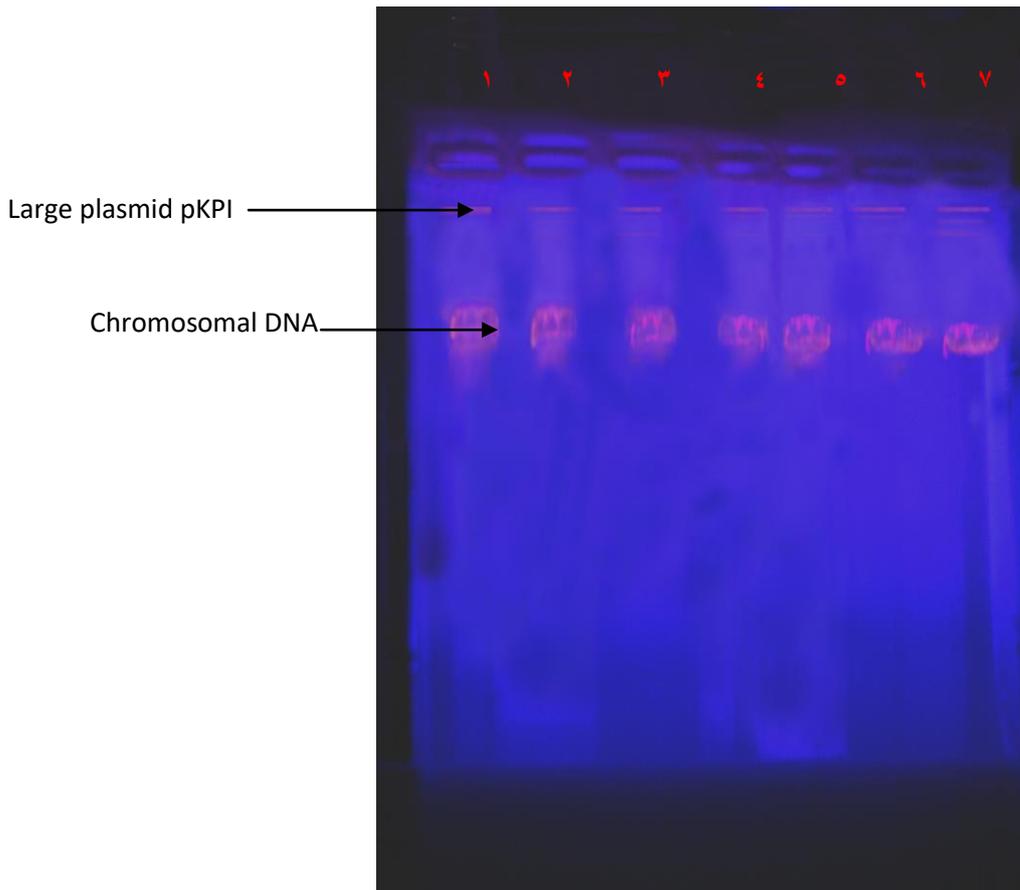


Fig. (4-3) Electrophoresis of Plasmids DNA contents of several groups of *K. pneumoniae I* variant at 37°C and 30°C.

The DNA plasmid extracted by alkaline lysis (Kado and Liu, 1981) and migrated on Agorose gel 0.5%, 80 volt, and 6 hr.

Lane 1: *K.p I* variant (*K.pneumoniae* variant group 1) after treated by salicylic acid).

Lane 2: *K.p I₁* derived from *K. pneumoniae I* after successive subculture at 37°C.

Lane 3: *K.p I₂* derived from *K. pneumoniae I* after successive subculture at 30°C.

Lane 4: *K.p I₃* derived from *K. pneumoniae I* after successive subculture at 30°C.

Lane 5: *K.p I₄* derived from *K.pneumoniae I* after successive subculture at 30°C.

Lane 6: *K.p I₅* derived from *K.pneumoniae I* after successive subculture at 30°C.

Lane 7: *K.p I₆* derived from *K.pneumoniae I* after successive subculture at 30°C.

4.3.2 Type of antibiotic encoded by transposon

Successive subculture of *K.pneumoniae* I variant in increased concentration of ampicillin, novobiocin, chloramphenicol, tetracycline, and amoxicillin in solid culture revealed that *K.pneumoniae* I harboring transposon conferring ampicillin resistance.

The results in table (4-4) showed that *K.pneumoniae* I variant was sensitive to antibiotic like chloramphenicol, novobiocin, tetracycline, and amoxicillin at concentration \geq than 200 µg/ml, 20 µg/ml, 20 µg/ml, and 100 µg/ml respectively except for ampicillin which remain resistant even at concentration about 1000 µg/ml.

The survive of *K.pneumoniae* I variant in medium containing more than 1000 µg/ml in compare with *K.pneumoniae*(control) which was unable to survive in the same concentration of ampicillin, led us to suggest that the transposon conferring ampicillin resistance, but no other antibiotic like amoxicillin, tetracycline, novobiocin and chloramphenicol.

Hefforn *et al.* (1970) Reported that if transposition occurs into a regular gene, then a normally repressed gene may become expressed constitutively, and at much higher levels than is usual. this has consequence for the phenotype of the insertional mutant it is quite possible that ampicillin mediated transposon(TnA) insertion within structural gene has inactivated or modified plasmid gene that control the rate of initiation of plasmid replication or some aspects of replication control. Rubens *et al.* (1976) referred that some transposon carry strong promoter sequence and these may affect the expression of genes downstream of the site of insertion, causing polar mutation.

Table (4-4): Determination of type of antibiotic resistance carried by transposable genetic element in *K.pneumoniae I variant*.

Isolates	Antibiotic Type	Concentrations (µg /ml)												
		20	50	100	200	300	400	500	600	700	800	900	1000	
<i>K. pneumoniae I variant</i>	Cm	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	NV	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Ap	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
	Tc	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Ax	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>K.pneumoniae (control)</i>	Ap	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

The symbol (+) refer to resistance while the (-) is sensitive.

AP: ampicillin, Tc: tetracycline, Ax: amoxicillin, NV: novobiocin,

Nal: nalidixic acid, and Cm: chloramphenicol.

4.4 An attempt to isolate transposon on Inc p conjugative pR^{101}

Upon mating of *E.coli* GMP $\xi 176$ (pR^{101}) with *K.pneumoniae* I variant ampicillin, trimethoprim-resistant Tranconjugant (TR₁) were selected at frequency of 7.2×10^{-8} per recipient. The 52 kb conjugative plasmid, pR^{101} which confer trimethoprim resistance, was successfully transferred to *K.p I variant* (Tp^S) by conjugation.

Peterson *et al.* (1982) referred that when two or more plasmids reside in the same cell, they may coexist stably without affecting one another, or may interact in some way. One possible interaction is physical exchange of segments of DNA. This can occur by transposition or recombination. Transposition of one segment of DNA to another is widely observed and since it can occur in the absence of *recA* function in a host cell, it is therefore not by homologous recombination (Calos and Millar, 1980).

Successive subcultures of TR₁ on Mueller-Hinton agar containing 10 µg/ml of ampicillin incubated at both 37°C and 30°C to induce transposon to transpose from $pKpl$ to Inc p plasmid R^{101} as shown in table ($\xi-0$) and ($\xi-1$) respectively.

200 colonies of TR₁ from the last 10th subculture of those grown at 37°C transferred by picking and patching to media containing ampicillin, trimethoprim, chloramphenicol, kanamycine and tetracycline, two phenotypic classes of TR₁ *K.pneumoniae* obtained table ($\xi-2$). Group I of TR₁ designated as TR₁A which constitute about 92.0% and characterized by susceptibility to only Streptomycin. Group II of TR₁ designated as TR₁B comprised 8.0% of total TR₁ phenotypic classes and characterized by susceptibility toward Streptomycin and Chloramphenicol.

Three phenotypic classes of TR₁ yielded, when 200 colonies of last subculture (10th) of TR₁ at 30°C transfer to the media containing ampicillin, trimethoprim, chloramphenicol, kanamycine and tetracycline. Group 1 of TR₁ which designed as TR₁C comprise 61.0% of total TR₁ phenotypic classes and characterized by susceptibility to only streptomycin table ($\xi-3$). Group 2 of TR₁ which designated as TR₁D constitute 36.0% of total TR₁ change in antibiotic resistance pattern distinguish from original TR₁ by sensitivity toward tetracycline and Chloramphenicol in addition to streptomycin., while group 3 which designated as TR₁E comprise only 3% of TR₁ phenotypic classes appeared to be sensitive to trimethoprim, chloramphenicol, streptomycin, and tetracycline.

The DNA of first six subcultures of those grew at 37°C had chosen to be extracted and subjected to gel electrophoresis, Fig (4-5) revealed the presence of two plasmid bands one of them resemble *pKPI* and other smaller in size in molecular weight than *pKPI* but it is higher than *R101* plasmid.

The DNA from Subcultured No. 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, and 10 of *K.pneumoniae* TR that grown at 37°C table (4-7) were subjected to gel electrophoresis, the results revealed presence of two bands in each 3, 4, 5, 6 and 10 subculture, one of them resemble that of *pKPI* and the other smaller in molecular weight than *pKPI* but higher than conjugative *inc P* plasmid as shown in Fig (4-6). The results revealed also presence of bright high molecular band may be formed as result of cointegration between *pKPI* and *R101* plasmid in subculture No.2.as shown in Fig (4-6 lane 2).

From the cointegrate formation; we suggest that the transposable element found in *K.pneumoniae I* isolates which confer resistance to ampicillin is belonging to Tn_r family.

Reed (1981) showed that Tn_r transpose from one replicon to another in a two- step process in the first , element mediated fusion of two replicons produces a co integrate structure, this fusion which requires the TnpA protein necessarily for replicative process ;cointegrate contain an additional copy of the element and duplication of a 9 base pair target sequence. The second step in transposition is the resolutions of co integrate by site-specific recombination.

Hefforn *et al.* (1983) documented that Tn_r is an ampicillin –resistance transposons, which is 4907 bp in length and contain a 38-bp terminal inverted repeat at the left of the terminus (IRL) and at the right inverted repeat (IRR).

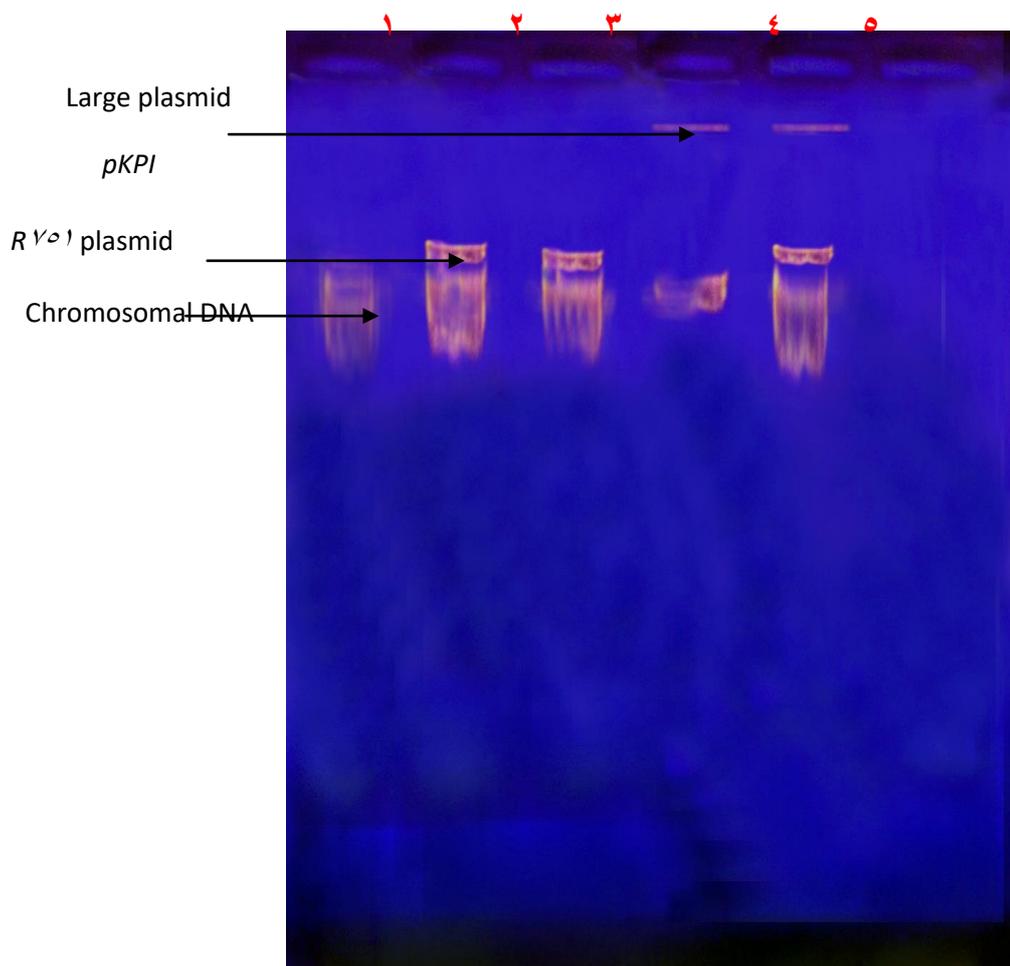


Fig. (4-4) Electrophoresis of tranconjugant obtained from mating *K.pneumoniae I variant* and *E. coli* JMP4176 (pR701) Sm^r,Tp^r at 37°C.

The DNA plasmid extracted by alkaline lysis (Kado and Liu, 1981) and migrated on Agorose gel 0.5%, 80 volt, and 1hr.

Lane 1: *E.coli* MM294 Rif^r

Lane 2 and 3: *E.coli* JMP4176 (pR701) Sm^r,Tp^r

Lane 4: *K.pneumoniae I variant*

Lane 5: TR₁ (Tp^r, Ap^r).

Table (4-5): Subsequent subcultures of Tranconjugant TR1 on medium contain 100 µg/ml ampicillin incubated at 37°C.

Number of Subcultures	Muller –Hinton Agar contain 100 µg/ml of Ampicillin					
	Amp	Tp	Cm	Km	Sm	Tc
1	+	+	+	+	-	+
2	+	+	+	+	-	+
3	+	+	+	+	-	+
4	+	+	+	+	-	+
5	+	+	-	+	-	+
6	+	+	-	+	-	+
7	+	+	-	+	-	+
8	+	+	-	+	-	+
9	+	+	-	+	-	+
10	+	+	-	+	-	+

* The symbol (+) refer to resistance while the (-) is sensitive

* Ap: ampicillin (100 µg/ml), Tp: trimethoprim (50 µg/ml) Km: kanamycin (50 µg/ml),
Cm: chloramphenicol (50 µg/ml), and Tc: tetracycline (20 µg/ml)

Table (4-1): Variant groups of TR₁ obtained by transferring 100 colonies of last 1st subculture of TR₁ from these grown at 37 C° by picking and patching.

R ₁ phenotypic class	Ap	Tp	Cm	Km	Sm	Tc	Percentage %
Group 1 TR ₁ A	+	+	+	+	-	+	92.0
Group 2 TR ₁ B	+	+	-	+	-	+	7.0
TR ₁ before treatment	+	+	+	+	-	+	100

*The calculated percentage for 100 single colony transferred by picking and patching in the presence of ampicillin (100 µg/ml) incubated at 37 C°.

*The symbol (+) refer to resistance while the (-) is sensitive.

*The symbol (+) refer to resistance while the (-) is sensitive.

Ap : ampicillin(100 µg/ml),Tc : tetracycline(30 µg/ml),Sm : streptomycin(100 µg/ml),Km : kanamycin(100 µg/ml), Tp : trimethoprim (100 µg/ml), and Cm :chloramphenicol (100 µg/ml).

*TR₁A : represent group 1 of total phenotypic class after successive subculture of TR₁ on ampicillin medium and incubated at 37 C°.

*TR₁B : represent group 2 of total phenotypic class after successive subculture of TR₁ on ampicillin medium and incubated at 37 C°

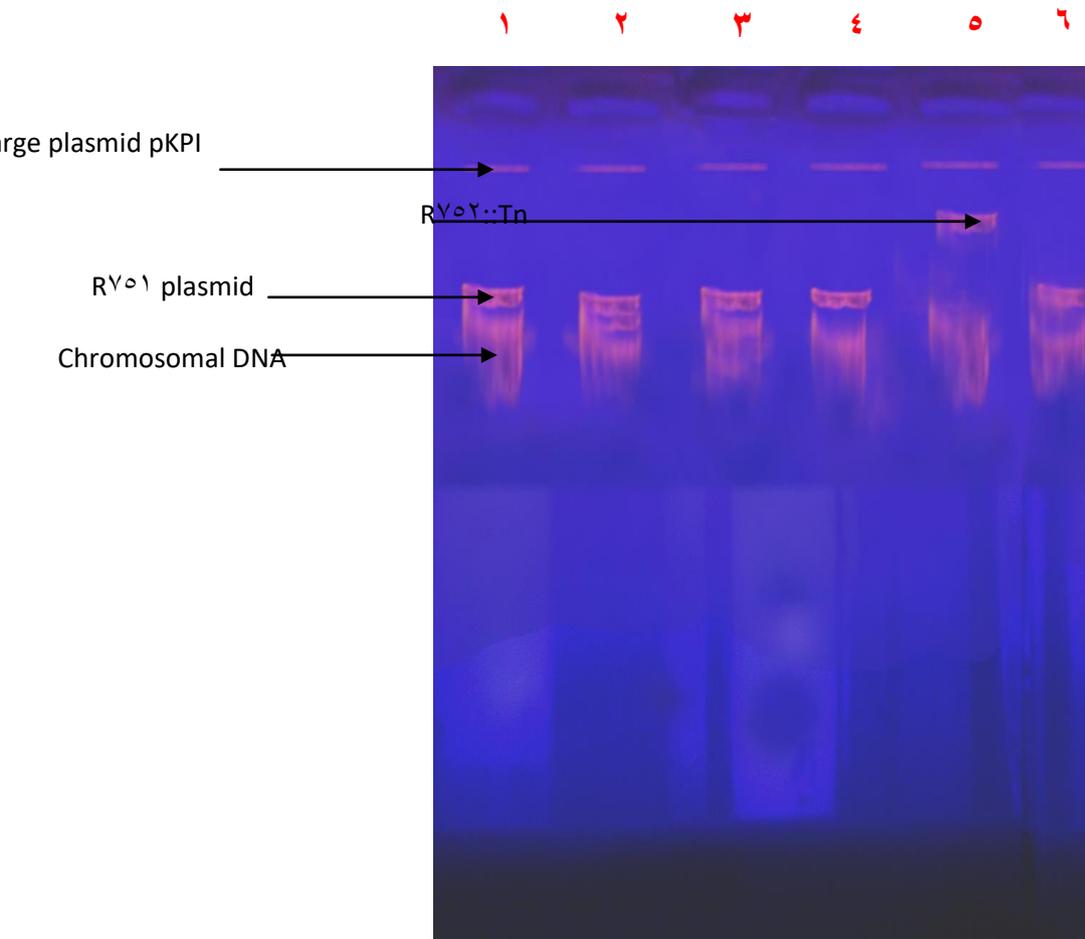


Fig.(4-5) Electrophoresis for tranconjugant TR₁ (Tp^r, Ap^r) Plasmids DNA contents of several subcultures at 37°C.

The DNA plasmid extracted by alkaline lysis (Kado and Liu, 1981) and migrated on Agorose gel 0.5%, 200 volt, for 3hr.

Lane 1: TR₁ from first subculture

Lane 2: TR₁ from second subculture

Lane 3: TR₁ from third subculture

Lane 4: TR₁ from fourth subculture

Lane 5: TR₁ from fifth subculture

Lane 1: TR₁ from sixth subculture

Table (4-7): Successive subcultures of tranconjugant TR₁ on medium contain 100 µg/ml ampicillin incubated at 37°C

Number of Subcultures	Muller –Hinton Agar contain 100 µg/ml Ampicillin					
	Amp	Tp	Cm	Km	Sm	Tc
1	+	+	+	+	-	+
2	+	+	+	+	-	+
3	+	+	+	+	-	+
4	+	+	+	+	-	-
5	+	+	+	+	-	-
6	+	+	-	+	-	-
7	+	+	-	+	-	-
8	+	+	-	+	-	-
9	+	-	-	+	-	-
10	+	-	-	+	-	-

*The symbol (+) refer to resistance while the (-) is sensitive

*The symbol (+) refer to resistance while the (-) is sensitive.

*The symbol (+) refer to resistance while the (-) is sensitive.

Ap : ampicillin(100 µg/ml),Tc : tetracycline(20 µg/ml),Sm : streptomycin(100 µg/ml),Km : kanamycin(100 µg/ml), Tp : trimethoprim (100 µg/ml), and Cm :chloramphenicol (100 µg/ml).

Subsequent subcultures	Ap	Tp	Cm	Km	Sm	Tc	Percentage %
Group 1 TR,C	+	+	+	+	-	+	61.0
Group 2 TR,D	+	+	-	+	-	-	36.0
Group 3 TR,E	+	-	-	+	-	-	2

Table (4-8): Variant groups of TR₁ obtained by transferring 200 colonies of last 1st subculture of TR₁ from these grown at 37 °C by picking and patching

TR ₁ before treatment	+	+	+	+	-	+	100
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*The calculated percentage for 100 single colony transferred by picking and patching in the presence of ampicillin (100 µg/ml) incubated at 37 C°.

*The symbol (+) refer to resistance while the (-) is sensitive.

Ap : ampicillin(100 µg/ml), Tc : tetracycline(20 µg/ml), Sm : streptomycin(100 µg/ml), Km : kanamycin(100 µg/ml), Tp : trimethoprim (100 µg/ml), and Cm :chloramphenicol (100 µg/ml).

*TR_{1C}, TR_{1D} and TR_{1E} : represent groups 1, 2 and 3 of total phenotypic class after successive subculture of TR₁ on ampicillin medium and incubated at 37 C°.

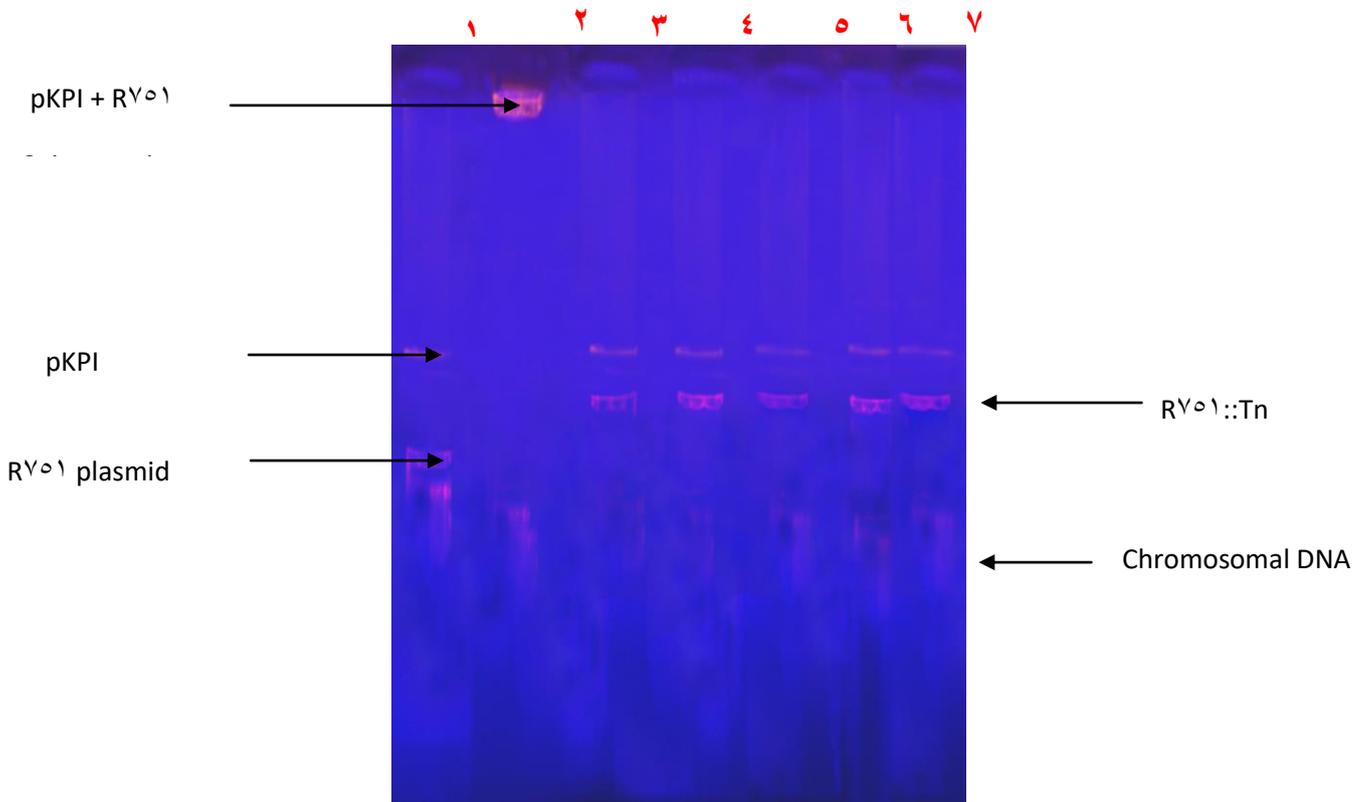


Fig. (4-6) Electrophoresis of Tranconjugant TR₁ (Tp^r, Ap^r) Plasmids DNA contents of several subcultures at 30°C.

The DNA plasmid extracted by alkaline lysis (Kado and Liu, 1981) and migrated on Agorose gel 0.5%, 80 volt, and 16hr.

Lane 1: *K. pneumoniae* transconjugant TR₁.

Lane 2: subculture No.2 from these that grow at 30°C.

Lane 3: subculture No.3 from these that grow at 30°C.

Lane 4: subculture No.4 from these that grow at 30°C.

Lane 5: subculture No.5 from these that grow at 30°C.

Lane 6: subculture No.6 from these that grow at 30°C.

Lane 7: subculture No.7 from these that grow at 30°C.

Transposition of Tn_r occurred via cointegrate intermediate which produced by action of *tnpA* gene that expressed transposase and *tnpR* which expressed resolvase that divide the co integrate into it's two original molecules by site-specific recombination between two copies of the duplicate transposon; the result is a copy of the element at it's original locus and new copy at the target site (Reed, 1981).

In order to show that conjugative *R^{YD1}* plasmid acquired the ampicillin transposon from large *pKPI*, conjugation between TR₁B which harbored both mega plasmid *pKPI* and conjugative plasmid *R^{YD1}* plasmid with *E. coli* MM 294, ampicillin, trimethoprim –resistant tranconjugant (TR_r) were selected at frequency of 6x10⁻⁸ per recipient. TR_r harbored single plasmid pTR_r that appeared to carry determinants for resistance to trimethoprim and ampicillin and the size of pTR_r appeared larger than parent *R^{YD1}* plasmid which confer resistance only to trimethoprim (Fig 4-7 lane 2)

Upon mating of TR_D which harbored mega plasmid *pKPI* and conjugative plasmid *R₁₀₁* plasmid with *E.coli* MM⁹⁴, ampicillin, trimethoprim –resistant tranconjugant (TR_r) were selected at frequency of 10⁻⁷ per recipient. The plasmid contents study revealed of TR_r presence of plasmid pTR_r that higher in molecular weigh than *R₁₀₁* plasmid and may represent *R₁₀₁::Tn* (Fig ξ - γ lane 3).

Upon mating of TR_E which harbored mega plasmid *pKPI* and conjugative plasmid *R₁₀₁* plasmid with *E.coli* MM⁹⁴, ampicillin, Rifampcin –resistant tranconjugant (TR_r) were selected at frequency of 10⁻⁷ per recipient. The plasmid profile of TR_r (Ap^r Tp^s) in Fig (ξ - γ lane 4) showed presence of a band represent pTR_r plasmid which differed in their molecular weigh from that of parent *R₁₀₁* plasmid (ξ - γ lane 5).

The explanation for the presence of conjugative plasmid IncP *R₁₀₁* in TR_r and Lacking of ability to survive in the presence of trimethoprim in medium is that the transposon may inserted to position where the trimethoprim resistance genes is located.

As in our study, Rubens *et al.* (1981) have shown that a transposable DNA sequence encoding resistance to beta –lactamase , located on 100 Kbp plasmid isolated from *Klebsiella* strains, is capable of transposing to other plasmid that exist within the same cell during a prolonged epidemic of nosocomial infection.

The transposon that carry ampicillin determinant in our *K.pneumoniae* I variant strain successfully transferred from *pKPI* to the co resident 93 kb conjugative *R₁₀₁* plasmid which consequently transferred to *E. coli* MM⁹⁴.

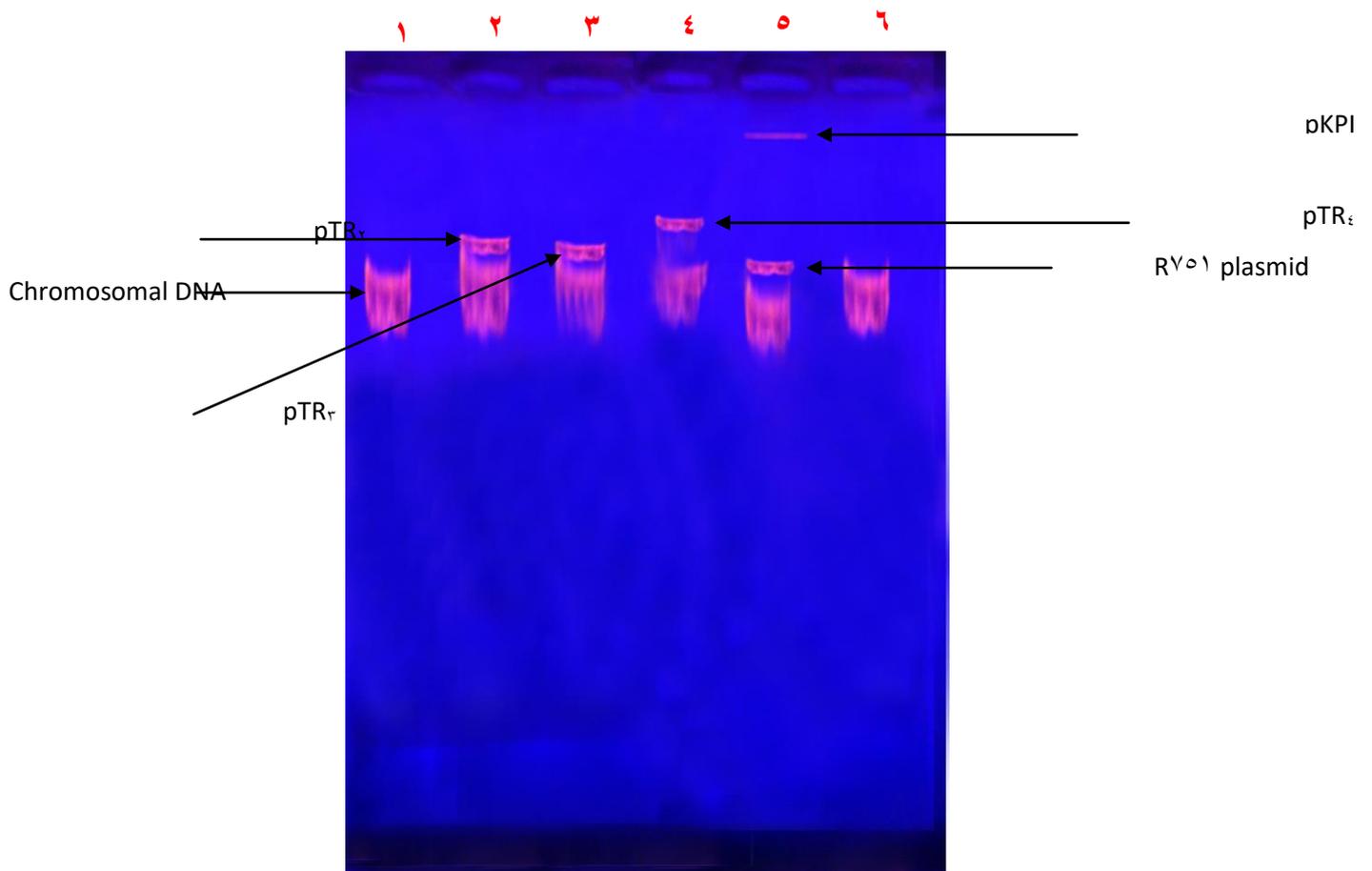


Fig. (4-6) Electrophoresis for Plasmids DNA contents for Tranconjugant TR_γ, TR_γ, and TR_ε.

The DNA plasmid extracted by alkaline lysis (Kado and Liu, 1981) and migrated on Agarose gel 0.5%, 200 volt, and 1hr.

Lane 1: *E.coli* MM294.

Lane 2: *E. coli* MM294 transconjugant TR_γ.

Lane 3: *E. coli* MM294 transconjugant TR_γ

Lane 4: *E. coli* MM294 transconjugant TR_ε

Lane 5: *K.pneumoniae* I transconjugant TR_γ

Recommendation

This study advises to determine nucleotide sequence and G-C ratio of this transposon which confers ampicillin resistance to *K. pneumoniae* in order to confirm whether our transposon is similar to Tn γ family or not. We also recommend further analyzing of this transposon by using suitable DNA probes of the Tn γ family transposon family and hybridized them with our transposon for further identification. Finally we advise for further Identification of the type of beta-lactamase that expressed by our transposon by isoelectric focusing and determine the type of beta-lactamase.

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Supervisor certification

I certify that this Thesis was prepared under my supervision at the Department of Biology / College of Science / University of Babylon, as a partial requirement for the degree of Master of Science- Biotechnology.

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In view of the available recommendation, I forward this thesis for debate by the examining

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Committee Certification

We, the examining committee, certify that we have read this Thesis and examined the student in its contents and that in our opinion; it is adequate for awarding Degree of Master of Science in Biotechnology.

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/ / ٢٠٠٦

Summary

The isolate *Klebsiella pneumoniae* No ١٠ which was previously isolated by (Al-Jlawi, ٢٠٠٠), is genetically instable and harbor a single non-conjugative large plasmid *pKP* (١٢٠Kbp) encoding resistance to ampicillin, tetracycline, streptomycin, kanamycine, trimethoprim, chloramphenicol, and nalidixic acid in addition to mucoid phenotype of bacteria.

Four variant groups (*K.pneumoniae* I, *K.pneumoniae* G, *K.pneumoniae* K and *K.pneumoniae* L) were derived from the isolate by successive subculturing in M₁ medium supplemented with 100 µg/ml salicylic acid. The derived groups differ from the wild *K.pneumoniae* No. 10 in their plasmid profile and antibiotic resistance pattern. *K.pneumoniae* I was sensitive to trimethoprim, streptomycin and rifampicin and thus, was used to serve as a recipient for the conjugative *Inc P* plasmid *R^{YD1}* (Tp^r).

Ampicillin at concentration 100 µg/ml induces genetic instability of *K.pneumoniae* I when subcultured about 10⁴ generation in ampicillin medium also this instability was greater at 30 C° than at 37 C°.

This isolate was resistance to high ampicillin concentration more than 1000 µg/ml in comparison with the other antibiotics including chloramphenicol, tetracycline, novobiocin, and amoxicillin. This result suggested that possibility presence of transposon that encoding to ampicillin resistance in the isolate.

The ampicillin transposon (Tn::Ap) was induced to jump from the *pKPI* plasmid of *K.pneumoniae* transconjugant TR₁ that harbor *pKPI* and *R^{YD1}* plasmid into conjugative *R^{YD1}* plasmid by ampicillin 100 µg/ml at both 30 C° and 37 C°. Agarose gel electrophoresis of the DNA contents of these cells types revealed presence of plasmid band higher in molecular weight than *pR^{YD1}* but less than *pKPI*. These results suggest possibility of jumping Ap-Tn from *pKPI* to *pR^{YD1}*.

Three type of transconjugant of *E.coli* MM²⁹⁴ (rif^r) TR_γ, TR_τ and TR_ε obtained from mating of *E. coli* MM²⁹⁴ (rif^r) and *K.pneumoniae* I cells in which transposition of Ap-Tn occurred. The gel electrophoresis of DNA contents from TR_γ, TR_τ and TR_ε revealed presence of plasmid band higher in molecular weight than the original *pR^{YD1}* due to presence of an extra DNA fragment (transposon) that inserted to *R^{YD1}* plasmid.

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