

Emergence of High-Level Antibiotic Resistance in *Klebsiella pneumoniae*: A Narrative Review

ABSTRACT

In an era marked by remarkable advancements in medicine, the persistent emergence of high-level antibiotic resistance in *Klebsiella pneumoniae* poses a critical threat to public health globally. As the worldwide spread of extensively drug-resistant (XDR) and pan-drug-resistant (PDR) *K. pneumoniae* strains continues to grow, a significant shift in how we approach treatment is on the horizon. The complex interaction of genetic factors, which encompasses a wide range of beta-lactamases, aminoglycoside-modifying enzymes, and chromosomal mutations, creates a dynamic resistance mechanism that counters the effects of antibiotics. These intricate adaptations, arising from both gene transfers facilitated by plasmids and changes in the genome itself, present a challenging obstacle to our efforts in managing antimicrobial effectiveness. *Klebsiella* infections come back stronger armed with molecular tactics that challenge healthcare systems, prolong hospital stays, and increase mortality. Beyond healthcare settings, the economic and social dimensions grow as resources are redirected, intensifying the impact on vulnerable groups. This review delves into the intricate mechanisms behind the high-level antibiotic resistance in *K. pneumoniae*, examining its epidemiological, molecular, and clinical facets. Highlighting the necessity for coordinated research, medical protocols, and policies, the review underscores the importance of judicious antibiotic utilization, drug innovation, and rigorous infection management.

Keywords: *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, Antibiotic resistance, extensively drug-resistant (XDR), Pandrug-resistant (PDR), Beta-lactamases, Aminoglycoside-modifying enzymes.

1. INTRODUCTION

Over the decades, antibiotics have revolutionized the practice of medicine, ushering in an era where once-deadly bacterial infections could be tamed (Sagar et al., 2019). However, this triumph has not been without consequences. The widespread use and misuse of antibiotics have exerted immense selection pressure on bacterial populations, driving the evolution of resistance traits. *K. pneumoniae*, a member of the Enterobacteriaceae family, has been at the forefront of this resistance arms race, steadily acquiring genetic determinants that render it impervious to our most potent antibiotics (Capita & Alonso (2013).

Klebsiella pneumoniae plays a significant role in the challenge of antimicrobial resistance, emerging as a formidable adversary. This bacterium is known for its ability to adapt and develop resistance to a wide range of antibiotics, making it difficult to treat infections effectively. As *K. pneumoniae* continues to elude standard treatments, it emphasizes the pressing need for innovative strategies to combat the growing threat of antibiotic resistance. This requires coordinated efforts from the scientific community and healthcare professionals (Li et al., 2023; Navon-Venezia et al., 2017).

The rapid and substantial global increase in multi-drug-resistant *Klebsiella pneumoniae* (MDRKP) represents an urgent and pressing risk to public health in recent decades. This surge in prevalence underscores the critical need for immediate attention and intervention strategies to effectively address this escalating threat, which poses significant challenges to healthcare systems worldwide (Sharma et al., 2023, WHO 2015).

27 *Klebsiella pneumoniae* has become notorious for its complex and diverse mechanisms of antibiotic
28 resistance, which contribute to its ability to evade the effects of various antimicrobial agents. High-level
29 antibiotic resistance in *K. pneumoniae* is primarily driven by the acquisition of genes encoding enzymes
30 that can inactivate or modify antibiotics. Extended-spectrum β -lactamases (ESBLs), the key contributors
31 to resistance against broad-spectrum β -lactam antibiotics, including cephalosporins and penicillins
32 (Paterson & Doi 2007). Moreover, the emergence of carbapenemase, enzyme has rendered
33 carbapenems, the "last resort" antibiotics, ineffective against many *K. pneumoniae* strains (Munoz *et al.*,
34 2013). Additionally, aminoglycoside modifying enzymes, further diminish the utility of aminoglycoside
35 antibiotics. The global dissemination of multidrug-resistant (MDR) and extensively drug-resistant (XDR) *K.*
36 *pneumoniae* strains have very limited therapeutic options (Zhou2023).

37 This narrative review mainly focuses on the factors contributing to the rise of high-level antibiotic
38 resistance in *K. pneumoniae*. We will explore the key mechanisms employed by this bacterium to
39 withstand the onslaught of antibiotics, including the production of carbapenemases. These
40 carbapenemase-producing strains have rapidly disseminated worldwide, posing formidable challenges to
41 clinicians and healthcare systems alike.

42 In addition to addressing the molecular intricacies of resistance, this review will provide a comprehensive
43 overview of the epidemiology of *K. pneumoniae* strains that are transferred into superbugs. We will
44 examine the geographical variations in prevalence, shedding light on the global distribution of these
45 resistant strains. Furthermore, we also emphasized the role of major *K. pneumoniae* clones, in the
46 dissemination of resistance, unraveling the genetic interplay that underpins their global prevalence.

47 Ultimately, our endeavors are twofold: to provide a brief understanding of the multifaceted challenges
48 posed by high-level antibiotic resistance in *K. pneumoniae* and to lighten the way for innovative
49 therapeutic approaches that can mitigate the impact of this global health crisis. Through a meticulous
50 examination of the mechanisms, epidemiology, and treatment options, this review aims to enlighten
51 healthcare professionals, researchers, and policymakers with the knowledge needed to address this public
52 health issue effectively.

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55 **2. Antibiotic Resistance in *Klebsiella pneumoniae***

56 Due to the increasing significance of multidrug-resistant *Klebsiella pneumoniae* (MDR *K. pneumoniae*), it
57 is crucial to comprehend its population characteristics and the connection between these traits and the
58 genetic variability related to antibiotic resistance. Nevertheless, despite gaining improved insights into the
59 worldwide variety of this bacterium and outbreaks within individual healthcare facilities, we still have
60 limited knowledge about where MDR *K. pneumoniae* originates and how it spreads within countries in the
61 context of hospital infections (Moradigaravand *et al.*, 2017).

62 *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, among a selected group of bacteria, is currently grappling with a substantial surge
63 in antibiotic resistance, primarily stemming from modifications in its core genetic makeup. The origins of
64 this resistance can be traced back to 1929 when Alexander Fleming first identified beta-lactam antibiotic
65 resistance in gram-negative organisms. In the ensuing years, extensive research has revealed that *K.*
66 *pneumoniae* produces beta-lactamase enzymes, which catalyze the hydrolysis of the crucial beta-lactam
67 ring in antibiotics.

68 The emergence of Extended-Spectrum Beta-Lactamase (ESBL) producing *K. pneumoniae* strains was
69 documented in Europe in 1983 and later in the United States in 1989. ESBLs possess the ability to
70 enzymatically degrade oxyimino cephalosporins, rendering third-generation cephalosporin antibiotics
71 ineffective in treating infections caused by these strains. Consequently, clinicians turned to carbapenem

72 antibiotics as a treatment alternative for ESBL-producing *K. pneumoniae*. However, a concerning trend
73 emerged, as evidenced by data from the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) in 2013.
74 Among approximately 9,000 reported infections due to carbapenem-resistant Enterobacteriaceae, roughly
75 80% were attributed to *K. pneumoniae*. This rise in carbapenem resistance has been linked to various
76 factors within the bacterium, including the up-regulation of efflux pumps, alterations in the outer
77 membrane structure, and augmented production of ESBL enzymes (Ashurst & Dawson (2018)).

78 *Klebsiella pneumoniae* predominantly finds its primary reservoir within the human population. In the
79 broader community context, a notable percentage of individuals, ranging from 5% to 38%, harbored this
80 bacterium in their stool, with an additional 1% to 6% carrying it in the nasopharynx. The gastrointestinal
81 tract of patients and the hands of healthcare personnel stand as the principal sources of infection, posing
82 a significant risk for nosocomial outbreaks. It's worth noting that individuals of Chinese ethnicity and those
83 struggling with chronic alcoholism exhibit higher rates of colonization. Within hospital settings, the
84 prevalence of *K. pneumoniae* carriage far surpasses that observed in the general community.
85 Remarkably, in one study, carrier rates as high as 77% were detected among hospitalized patients, and
86 this correlated with the number of antibiotics administered (Esposito *et al.*, 2018; Walter *et al.*, 2018).

87 Examining the Indian scenario, the rising cases of antibiotic resistance and the emergence of new strains
88 are causing concern among medical practitioners and healthcare policymakers. A study by Kumarasamy
89 *et al.* (2010) highlights the increasing significance of multidrug-resistant *Klebsiella pneumoniae* (MDR *K.*
90 *pneumoniae*), it is crucial to comprehend its population characteristics and the connection between these
91 traits and the genetic variability related to antibiotic resistance. Nevertheless, despite gaining improved
92 insights into the worldwide variety of this bacterium and outbreaks within individual healthcare facilities,
93 we still have limited knowledge about where MDR *K. pneumoniae* originates and how it spreads within
94 countries in the context of hospital infections.

95 **2.1. Mechanisms of Antibiotic Resistance**

96 The multidrug-resistant organisms were once primarily confined to healthcare settings, but their presence
97 is now increasingly pervasive in community environments. This shift implies that reservoirs of antibiotic-
98 resistant bacteria extend beyond the boundaries of healthcare institutions. The ability of bacteria to mount
99 a response to the antibiotic "challenge" serves as a quintessential example of bacterial adaptation and
100 underscores the pinnacle of their evolutionary prowess. The concept of "survival of the fittest" arises from
101 the extraordinary genetic adaptability inherent in bacterial pathogens. This adaptability triggers distinct
102 responses, leading to mutational adjustments, acquisition of new genetic elements, or modulation of gene
103 expression, ultimately culminating in resistance to virtually all antibiotics currently utilized in clinical
104 medicine. Hence, gaining a profound comprehension of the biochemical and genetic underpinnings of
105 antibiotic resistance assumes paramount significance. Such understanding forms the foundation for
106 crafting strategies aimed at curbing the emergence and dissemination of resistance and devising
107 pioneering therapeutic interventions to combat multidrug-resistant organisms (Munita *et al.*, 2016).

108 To unravel the genomic underpinnings of this resistance phenomenon, several studies undertook a
109 rigorous genome sequencing endeavor and the results were interesting.

110 Lee *et al.* (2021) conducted a study encompassing 70 clinical isolates, all exhibiting an alarming extent of
111 drug resistance. The isolates were meticulously collected from hospitals in Brasília, Brazil, spanning the
112 time frame from 2010 to 2014. Strikingly, the preponderance of these strains (60 out of 70) clustered
113 within a singular clonal complex, denoted as CC258, which has conspicuously disseminated across the
114 global landscape over the past two decades. Among these CC258 strains, 44 were attributed to sequence
115 type 11 (ST11) and intriguingly bifurcated into two distinct clades, while ST258 strains were notably
116 absent. The comprehensive genomic analysis of this cohort, comprising 10,366 genes in the pan-genome
117 and approximately 4,476 core genes found in 95% of the isolates, unveiled a diverse array of resistance
118 mechanisms at play. These mechanisms encompassed the production of multidrug efflux pumps,
119 enzymes exhibiting the same target function but with diminished or null affinities to the drugs, as well as

120 proteins that either shielded the drug's target or inactivated the drug altogether. Notably, the production of
121 β -lactamases emerged as the most prominent and conspicuous mechanism intertwined with *K.*
122 *pneumoniae* resistance. Intriguingly, each strain manifested a repertoire of two to three distinct β -
123 lactamase enzymes, spanning class A (including SHV, CTX-M, and KPC), class B, and class C AmpC
124 enzymes. However, the absence of class D β -lactamases in this cohort was conspicuous. Furthermore,
125 among the strains harboring the formidable NDM enzyme, a trio of distinct sequence types (STs) was
126 observed, implying a lack of a common genetic ancestry underpinning this resistance mechanism. This
127 comprehensive genomic scrutiny underscores the multifaceted and dynamic nature of antibiotic
128 resistance mechanisms within *K. pneumoniae*, shedding vital insights into the formidable challenges
129 posed by this pathogen in clinical settings.

130 2.2. Beta-Lactam Resistance

131 *K. pneumoniae* is known for its robust resistance to beta-lactam antibiotics due to the production of
132 extended-spectrum beta-lactamases (ESBLs), carbapenemases, and other beta-lactamase enzymes
133 (Surgerset *et al.*, 2016). The extended-spectrum beta-lactamase strains carrying diverse ESBL genes such
134 as *bla*CTX-M, *bla*SHV, and *bla*TEM, including the dominant CTX-M-15 type, possess a global challenge.
135 The rapid horizontal transfer of ESBL genes via plasmids has amplified their spread. While ESBL-
136 producing and hypervirulent *K. pneumoniae* strains have been studied globally, however exploring the
137 genomes of these strains will provide crucial insights into the mechanisms driving drug resistance,
138 informing targeted strategies to confront this escalating threat (Chong *et al.*, 2011)

139 The study of Pathak *et al.*(2023) reported a concerning outbreak of multi-drug resistant *Klebsiella*
140 *pneumoniae* in an Indian hospital NICU, affecting 5 out of 7 neonates. The isolates showed resistance to
141 critical antibiotics and were categorized into three different sequence types (ST-11, ST-16, and ST-101),
142 carrying carbapenemase genes like *bla*NDM-1, *bla*NDM-5, and *bla*OXA-232, along with extended-
143 spectrum β -lactamases, While colistin resistance genes (*mcr*-1, *mcr*-2, *mcr*3) were absent, *K.*
144 *pneumoniae* ST101 was isolated from incubator water, carrying *bla*NDM-5, *bla*OXA-232, and ESBL
145 genes.

146 Sikarwar & Batra (2011) conducted a study in India that sheds light on a critical healthcare concern: the
147 emergence of multidrug-resistant strains of *Klebsiella pneumoniae*. They collected clinical isolates from
148 various regions of India, primarily from cases involving respiratory, urinary tract, and pus infections.
149 Notably, nearly half of the isolates were found to be multidrug-resistant, highlighting the prevalence of this
150 issue in Indian healthcare setups. Statistical analysis using the SPSS package highlighted the significant
151 resistance of antibiotics such as piperacillin, carbenicillin, ofloxacin, ampicillin, co-trimoxazole, and
152 chloramphenicol, with some showing moderate resistance, including cefotaxime and tetracycline.

153 Their study highlighted the global concern of antimicrobial resistance, emphasizing that it not only leads to
154 increased healthcare costs but also poses significant threats to patient care. The conclusion, which
155 suggests focusing on the genetic makeup of multidrug-resistant bacteria to understand gene mutations
156 and their effects on antibiotic resistance, aligns with the need for more comprehensive research in this
157 area. Encouraging rapid detection methods for infectious microorganisms and strengthening surveillance
158 and laboratory capacity are crucial steps in addressing this issue. Additionally, promoting rational
159 antibiotic use and fostering collaboration among healthcare professionals, pharmacists, and laboratory
160 personnel are essential strategies to mitigate the growing problem of antibiotic resistance in India and
161 globally.

162 In the face of a growing global health threat posed by carbapenem-resistant Gram-negative pathogens,
163 *Klebsiella pneumoniae* stands out as a major concern. A study conducted by Lee *et al.*(2016) discussed
164 the emergence of high-level antibiotic resistance in *K. pneumoniae*, focusing on its ability to produce
165 carbapenemases, including *K. pneumoniae* carbapenemases (KPCs), oxacillinase-48 (OXA-48) type
166 carbapenemases, and New Delhi metallo- β -lactamase (NDM) carbapenemases. These carbapenemase-

167 producing strains have rapidly disseminated worldwide, presenting significant challenges in terms of
168 treatment. Their study also explored the epidemiology of *K. pneumoniae* strains carrying these
169 carbapenemases, examining variations in prevalence across different geographic regions. Additionally, it
170 delves into the mechanisms underlying the global prevalence of these carbapenemase-producing strains,
171 including the role of major *K. pneumoniae* clones such as ST258 and ST11. Treatment options for
172 infections caused by these highly resistant strains are very limited, primarily involving colistin, polymyxin
173 B, fosfomycin, tigecycline, and select aminoglycosides. While combination therapy has been suggested
174 for severe infections, clinical evidence remains scarce, necessitating further research through rigorous
175 randomized controlled trials.

176 **2.3. Aminoglycoside Resistance**

177 The emergence of aminoglycoside-modifying enzymes (AMEs) in bacteria can develop resistance to
178 aminoglycosides. These enzymes chemically modify aminoglycoside antibiotics, rendering them inactive.
179 Aminoglycosides are frequently used in combination therapy for severe infections caused by Gram-
180 negative bacteria, including *Klebsiella pneumoniae*. When these strains develop resistance to
181 aminoglycosides, the treatment options will become limited. In healthcare settings, where *Klebsiella*
182 *pneumoniae* is a common cause of hospital-acquired infections, aminoglycoside resistance poses an
183 added concern, as patients in these settings are often more vulnerable to infections (Banerjee *et al.*,
184 2021; Talat *et al.*, 2023).

185 Jones *et al.* (2005) conducted a study involving 51 strains of *Klebsiella spp.* that produced extended-
186 spectrum beta-lactamases (ESBLs), 37 (72.5%) were found to harbor integrons. Detection was achieved
187 using PCR targeting integrase genes and cassette regions. Subsequent PCR and amplicon sequencing of
188 the cassette regions revealed the presence of *aadB* and *aadA2* gene cassettes, both conferring
189 resistance to various aminoglycosides. Specifically, *aadB* was associated with a class 1 integron located
190 on a 28-kb plasmid denoted as pES1. Remarkably, this plasmid not only carried *aadB* but also harbored
191 the blaSHV-12 gene and the insertion sequence IS26. This finding underscores the significance of
192 integrons as carriers of antibiotic-resistance genes in ESBL-producing *Klebsiella spp.* and highlights the
193 potential for genetic elements like pES1 to disseminate multidrug resistance within bacterial populations.

194 The study of Grutekeet *al.*(2003) examined a nosocomial outbreak caused by multi-drug-resistant
195 *Klebsiella pneumoniae*. Genetic typing confirmed clonality and detected the SHV-5 ESBL gene in most
196 outbreak strains. Notably, the presence of aminoglycoside resistance genes *aadB* and *aadA2* within
197 variable integrons were identified. The study highlights the challenge of detecting low-level ESBL
198 expression and suggests tailored screening based on ciprofloxacin MICs for optimal sensitivity. It
199 emphasizes the need for comprehensive outbreak control, including isolation measures, improved hand
200 hygiene, environmental sanitation, and antibiotic policy revision.

201 **2.4. Fluoroquinolone resistance**

202 Fluoroquinolone resistance in *Klebsiella pneumoniae* is a growing concern in healthcare due to its impact
203 on treatment options and patient outcomes. This resistance can arise through mechanisms like target site
204 mutations, efflux pump overexpression, and plasmid-mediated resistance genes. When *Klebsiella*
205 *pneumoniae* becomes resistant to fluoroquinolones, treatment choices are limited, especially for serious
206 infections. Risk factors for resistance include the overuse and misuse of fluoroquinolones and the hospital
207 environment, which can facilitate the spread of resistant strains. Preventing fluoroquinolone resistance
208 requires prudent antibiotic use through antibiotic stewardship programs, rigorous infection control
209 measures in healthcare settings, and ongoing research into new antibiotics with different mechanisms of
210 action.

211 *Klebsiella oxytoca* and *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, are known for their production of extended-spectrum β -
212 lactamase (ESBL) and cephalosporinase enzymes. These pathogens pose a significant threat in both

213 hospital-acquired (HA) infections and non-hygienic community settings, with a concerning prevalence of
214 ESBL positivity and fluoroquinolone resistance. The broad spectrum of antibiotic resistance, including
215 critical drugs like imipenem and ciprofloxacin, raises serious concerns for patients. Rath *et al.* (2014) have
216 clearly underscored the pressing global challenge of antimicrobial resistance and the urgent need for
217 comprehensive strategies, including prudent antibiotic use, rigorous infection control, and the
218 development of alternative treatment options, to address this growing public health threat.

219 The study of Shrestha *et al.*(2023) highlighted the presence of various quinolone resistance-determining
220 region (QRDR) mutations in genes *gyrA* and *parC*. Notably, a strong association between TMQR and β -
221 lactamase genes like *bla*_{CTX-M} and *bla*_{TEM} was identified, adding another layer of complexity to the
222 multidrug resistance.

223 3. CONCLUSION

224 The emergence of high-level antibiotic resistance in *Klebsiella pneumoniae* is a grave concern that cannot
225 be underestimated, as it poses substantial challenges to both clinical practice and public health. The
226 importance of addressing this crisis cannot be overstated. Such studies hold a pivotal role in illuminating
227 the ever-evolving landscape of antimicrobial resistance, equipping healthcare professionals and
228 policymakers with the knowledge necessary to make informed decisions in clinical practice and public
229 health policy. Furthermore, all reviewed studies underscore the urgent need to prioritize antibiotic
230 resistance as a paramount global health concern, emphasizing the imperative for coordinated efforts to
231 curb its proliferation. Equally critical is the recognition that high-level antibiotic resistance in pathogens like
232 *K. pneumoniae* underscores the crucial role of research and innovation in the development of new
233 treatment strategies and therapeutic agents. It is through such endeavors that we can hope to counteract
234 the inexorable rise of resistant pathogens and secure effective treatment options for the well-being of both
235 current and future generations. In conclusion, Together, we must safeguard the efficacy of antibiotics, an
236 invaluable resource, to ensure the health and welfare of individuals and communities worldwide.

237 4. ABBREVIATIONS

238 MDRKP- Multidrug-resistant *Klebsiella pneumoniae*

239 ESBLs- Extended-spectrum β -lactamases

240 CDC- Center for Disease Control and Prevention

241 XDR- Extensively drug-resistant *K. pneumoniae*

242 SHV- Sulf- hydryl variable active site

243 NICU- Neonatal intensive care unit

244 AMEs- Aminoglycoside-modifying enzymes

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252 **6. AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTIONS**

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254 Sona P H¹ designed the study, managed the literature searches, and wrote the first draft of the manuscript.
255 Dr. Pavan Chand Attavar² and M Shashidhar Kotian⁴ managed the analyses of the study. Rasmi T R³ and
256 Delna N S⁵ managed the literature searches. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.
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