WILEY

ORIGINAL RESEARCH OPEN ACCESS

Distribution of Virulence-Associated and Aminoglycoside Resistance Genes Among Clinical Isolates of *Klebsiella pneumoniae* in the Southeast of Iran, During 2019–2023: A Cross-Sectional Study

Hamid Vaez¹ D | Zahra Yazdanpour^{1,2}

¹Department of Microbiology, School of Medicine, Zabol University of Medical Sciences, Zabol, Iran | ²Department of Microbiology, School of Medicine, Kermanshah University of Medical Sciences, Kermanshah, Iran

Correspondence: Hamid Vaez (hamidvaez@hotmail.com)

Received: 25 June 2024 | Revised: 1 December 2024 | Accepted: 6 December 2024

Funding: This study was supported by Zabol University of Medical Sciences, Iran (Grant No. 1402-915).

Keywords: aminoglycoside resistance genes | antibiotic resistance | hypervirulent | K. pneumoniae

ABSTRACT

Background and Aims: *Klebsiella pneumoniae* (*K. pneumoniae*), included in the World Health Organization's list of critical priority pathogens, is considered a serious threat to public health. The present study aims to investigate the prevalence of virulence-associated and aminoglycoside resistance genes in clinical isolates of *K. pneumoniae*.

Methods: This cross-sectional study was carried out on 88 clinical isolates of *K. pneumoniae* collected from patients at Zabol hospital, Iran. Isolates were identified using conventional microbiology tests and polymerase chain reaction (PCR). Antibiotic susceptibility patterns were ascertained by the disc diffusion method. The prevalence of virulence-associated genes (*K1, K2, K5, iucA*, and *peg-344*) and aminoglycoside resistance (AME) genes (*aac* (2')-*Ia*, *aac* (3)-*IIa*, *aac* (3)-*Ib*, *aac* (6')-*1b*, *ant* (2")-*Ia*, and *aph* (3")-*Ib*) was investigated by PCR.

Results: The isolates were mostly resistant to kanamycin (73.8%) and streptomycin (69.3%). The most predominant virulence gene was *iucA*, observed in 89.8% of isolates, followed by *peg-344* 55.7% and *K5* 14.8%. The most prevalent resistance gene was *aph* (3")-*Ib*, which was detected in 35.2% of isolates, followed by *ant* (2")-*Ia* 22.7% and *aac* (3)-*Ib* 17%. In addition, sixteen different patterns of AME genes were observed.

Conclusion: Most investigated isolates of *K. pneumoniae* were positive for different virulence-associated and AME genes and therefore can play a significant role in life-threatening infections. Meanwhile, resistance rates to aminoglycoside antibiotics were high and it was primarily due to the presence of AME genes such as aph(3'')-Ib, ant (2'')-Ia, and aac(3)-Ib.

1 | Introduction

Klebsiella pneumoniae (*K. pneumoniae*) is a significant member of the *Enterobacteriaceae* family that can cause different kinds of infections in humans, including pneumonia, urinary tract infection, liver abscess, meningitis, endocarditis, and wound infection [1]. K. pneumoniae is a well-known member of Enterococcus faecium, Staphylococcus aureus, Klebsiella pneumoniae, Acinetobacter baumannii, Pseudomonas aeruginosa and Enterobacter spp. (ESKAPE) pathogens. Over the recent decades, growing concern regarding infection burden associated with ESKAPE pathogens has been reported worldwide, especially in developing countries [2–4]. The ESKAPE pathogens, K. pneumoniae in

This is an open access article under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivs License, which permits use and distribution in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited, the use is non-commercial and no modifications or adaptations are made.

© 2024 The Author(s). Health Science Reports published by Wiley Periodicals LLC.

particular, are usually multi-drug resistant (MDR), displaying resistance to aminoglycosides, beta-lactams, and fluor-oquinolones antibiotics [5].

In Germany (Central Europe), *K. pneumoniae* has developed resistance to the vast majority of antibiotics, including cephalosporins, carbapenems, and aminoglycosides, in the past two decades. Moreover, extended-spectrum beta-lactamase (ESBL)-producing, as well as *aac* (6')-*I* and *aph* (2") positive *K. pneumoniae* have been reported in different federal states of Germany [4]. Likewise, in Tanzania (East Africa), MDR *K. pneumoniae* was reported to be the major Gram-negative ES-KAPE pathogen responsible for bloodstream infections (BSI) in hospitalized patients [2].

Usually, high mortality rates of *K. pneumoniae* infection are attributed to the presence of virulence-associated genes [6]. To accomplish infection, *K. pneumoniae* must successfully conquer different barriers of the host immune system. To achieve this, *K. pneumoniae* uses different virulence-associated genes, including, but not limited to, pili (type 1 and 3) that promote bacterial adhesion to epithelial cells and capsules (inhibit phagocytosis and hamper lysis by complement and antimicrobial peptides [1, 6].

Two different circulating pathotypes of *K. pneumoniae* have been reported in the world including classical *K. pneumoniae* (cKP) and hypervirulent *K. pneumoniae* (hvKp). These two pathotypes differ in their virulence-associated genes, antibiotic resistance patterns, and epidemiology. Infections of hvKp are often associated with higher mortality rates than cKP. Noteworthy, hvKp is recognized by some biomarkers (virulenceassociated genes) such as *iucA* (siderophore biosynthesis) and *Peg-344* (metabolite transporter) [7, 8].

Aminoglycosides such as gentamicin and amikacin are a class of antibiotics that in combination with carbapenems (imipenem and meropenem) are usually used to treat infections caused by multi-drug resistant *K. pneumoniae*. However, various antibiotic resistance mechanisms including aminoglycoside nucleotide transferase enzymes (ANT), aminoglycoside phosphotransferase enzymes (APH), and aminoglycoside acetyltransferase enzymes (AAC), as well as mutations in the target site and efflux pumps overexpression have reduced the effectiveness of these antibiotics [9, 10].

Given the substantial impact of *K. pneumoniae* on poor patients' outcomes this study aimed to investigate the prevalence of virulence-associated genes and aminoglycoside resistance (AME) genes in clinical isolates of *K. pneumoniae*.

2 | Materials and Methods

2.1 | Isolation of K. pneumoniae

This cross-sectional study was carried out on 88 clinical isolates of *K. pneumoniae* collected from patients at Zabol hospital $(31^{\circ}05'32.40'' \text{ N } 61^{\circ}32'22.79'' \text{ E})$, the only referral hospital in the region with 263 approved beds, providing healthcare services

for around four hundred thousand people, Iran, during 2019 to 2023. This study was approved by the Ethics Committee of ZBMU (IR. ZBMU. REC.1402.015).

The primary identification of isolates was performed based on conventional microbiology tests including growth on MacConkey agar (HiMedia), Gram staining, oxidase, catalase, Methyl red, Indole, Voges Proskauer, and citrate, as well as hydrogen Sulfide (H2S) production and motility on SIM medium (HiMedia) [11]. Finally, the confirmation of isolates was accomplished by Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) and previously explained procedures [10]. The PCR was performed by species-specific primers amplifying internal transcribed spacer (16s-23-s rRNA) region [10]. Each PCR reaction mixture was prepared by using 12.5 μ L 2× ready-to-use master mix (Ampliqon, Denmark), 1.5 μ L of forward and reverse primers (100 pmol), 2 μ L of extracted DNA template, and 7.5 μ L nuclease-free sterile distilled water.

2.2 | Virulence-Associated Genes Detection

Based on primer sequences and PCR conditions shown in Table 1 following virulence-associated genes were detected, capsular serotypes 1, 2, and 5 (*K1*, *K2*, and *K5*), aerobactin siderophore biosynthesis (*iucA*) and metabolite transporter (*peg-344*) [7]. For this purpose, genomic DNA was extracted using the boiling method [12]. Briefly, two colonies (24 h) of *K. pneumoniae* that were cultivated in Nutrient Agar (HiMedia) were completely dissolved in 400 μ L nuclease-free water. The provided suspension was boiled at 96°C for 10 min. The supernatant, after centrifugation, was stored at -80° C for further analysis.

The PCR (Eppendorf thermal cycler, Hamburg, Germany) reactions assay were carried out at a final volume of $30 \,\mu\text{L}$ made up of $15 \,\mu\text{L} 2 \times$ ready-to-use master mix (Ampliqon, Denmark), $1 \,\mu\text{L}$ of forward and reverse primers (100 pmol), $3 \,\mu\text{L}$ of extracted DNA template and $10 \,\mu\text{L}$ nuclease-free sterile distilled water. For PCR product separation and visualization, agarose gel electrophoresis 1% (w/v) (voltage 8 V/cm for 20 min) and sybr safe DNA stain were used, respectively.

2.3 | Aminoglycoside Resistance (AME) Genes Detection

Phenotypic detection of resistance against aminoglycosides (HiMedia, India) including gentamycin $(10 \ \mu g)$, amikacin $(30 \ \mu g)$, tobramycin $(10 \ \mu g)$, kanamycin $(30 \ \mu g)$, and streptomycin $(10 \ \mu g)$ was performed by disc diffusion method and CLSI (Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute) guidelines [13]. The genes encoding AME including *aac* (2')-*Ia*, *aac* (3)-*IIa*, *aac* (3)-*Ib*, *aat* (2'')-*Ia*, and *aph* (3'')-*Ib* were detected by PCR (Eppendorf, Germany) [14, 15]. The sequence of used primers and PCR amplification conditions are listed in Table 1. Each PCR reaction mixture (at final volume 25 μ L) was prepared by using 12.5 μ L 2× ready-to-use master mix (Ampliqon, Denmark), 1 μ L of forward and reverse primers (100 pmol), 3 μ L

TABLE 1	PCR	programs	and	sequence	of used	primers	in	this	study	٢.
---------	-----	----------	-----	----------	---------	---------	----	------	-------	----

Gene	Sequence (5'3')	Thermocycler program	Reference
iucA	GCTTATTTCTCCCCAACCC TCAGCCCTTTAGCGACAAG	Initial denaturation 95°C for 5 min, denaturation 94°C for 1 min, annealing 59°C 50 s, extension 72°C for 55 s (30 cycles), final extension 72°C for 10 min	7
peg-344	AAAGGACAGAAAGCCAGTG CAATGACGAGGGGGGATAATC	Initial denaturation 95°C for 5 min, denaturation 94°C for 1 min, annealing 54°C for 50 s, extension 72°C for 55 s (30 cycles), final extension 72°C for 10 min	7
K1	GTAGGTATTGCAAGCCATGC GCCCAGGTTAATGAATCCGT	Initial denaturation 96℃ for 5 min, denaturation 96℃ for 1 min, annealing 56℃ for 30 s, extension 72℃ for 55 s (30 cycles), final extension72℃ for 10 min	16
K2	GGAGCCATTTGAATTCGGTG TCCCTAGCACTGGCTTAAGT	Initial denaturation 96℃ for 5 min, denaturation 96℃ for 1 min, annealing 55℃ for 30 s, extension 72℃ for 55 s (30 cycles), final extension72℃ for 10 min	16
K5	GCCACCTCTAAGCATATAGC CGCACCAGTAATTCCAACAG	Initial denaturation 96°C for 5 min, denaturation 96°C for 1 min, annealing 56°C for 30 s, extension 72°C for 55 s (30 cycles), final extension 72°C for 10 min	16
aac (2')-Ia	AGAAGCGCTTTACGATTTATTA GACTCCGCCTTCTTCTTCAA	Initial denaturation 95°C for 5 min, denaturation 95°C for 1 min, annealing 54°C for 30 s, extension 72°C for 50 s (30 cycles), final extension 72°C for 10 min	14
aac (3)-Ib	GCAGTCGCCCTAAAACAAA GGATCGTCACCGTAGTCTGC	Initial denaturation 95°C for 5 min, denaturation 95°C for 1 min, annealing 56°C for 30 s, extension 72°C for 55 s (30 cycles), final extension 72°C for 10 min	14
aac (6′)-1b	TATGAGTGGCTAAATCGAT CCCGCTTTCTCGTAGCA	Initial denaturation 95°C for 5 min, denaturation 95°C for 1 min, annealing 50°C for 30 s, extension 72°C for 55 s (30 cycles), final extension 72°C for 10 min	15
ant (2")-Ia	ACGCCGTGGGTCGATGTTTGATGT CTTTTCCGCCCCGAGTGAGGTG	Initial denaturation 95°C for 5 min, denaturation 95°C for 1 min, annealing 64°C for 30 s, extension 72°C for 50 s (30 cycles), final extension 72°C for 10 min	14
aac (3)-IIa	GGCAATAACGGAGGCGCTTCAAAA TTCCAGGCATCGGCATCTCATACG	Initial denaturation 95°C for 5 min, denaturation 95°C for 1 min, annealing 62°C for 30 s, extension 72°C for 55 s (30 cycles), final extension 72°C for 10 min	14
aph (3")-Ib	GTGGCTTGCCCCGAGGTCATCA CCAAGTCAGAGGGTCCAATC	Initial denaturation 95°C for 5 min, denaturation 95°C for 1 min, annealing 58°C for 30 s, extension 72°C for 50 s (30 cycles), final extension 72°C for 10 min	14

of extracted DNA template, and 7.5 μL nuclease-free sterile distilled water.

2.4 | Statistical Analysis

Statistical analysis performed by SPSS software (V16, Chicago). p < 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

3 | Results

3.1 | Isolates

In this study, 88 nonduplicate strains of *K. pneumoniae* were collected from clinical specimens including, urine (n = 52, 59.1%), sputum (n = 17, 19.3%), blood (n = 10, 11.4%), and wound (n = 9, 10.2%). Out of 88 patients, 46 patients (52.3%) were male.

3.2 | Virulence-Associated Genes

Results of virulence-associated genes detection revealed that the most predominant virulence gene was *iucA*, which was observed in 89.8% (79/88) isolates, followed by *peg-344* 55.7% (49/88), *K5* 14.8% (13/88), *K1* 10.2% (9/88) and *K2* 9.1% (8/88), of these isolates, respectively. In addition, 58 isolates (65.9%) did not belong to serotypes K1, K2, and K5. Some isolates had only one virulence gene and some others harbored a combination of two or more genes (Table 2). In addition, thirteen different patterns of virulence genes were observed (Table 2). The most predominant combination was *iucA*+ *peg-344*, which was detected in 37.5% (33/88) isolates, followed by *iucA*+ *peg-344* + *K5* 6.8% (6/88) and *iucA* + *k1* 5.7% (5/88), respectively.

3.3 | Antibiotic Resistance and AME Genes

Out of 88 tested isolates, 67 (76.1%) isolates exhibited resistance to at least one of the tested aminoglycosides. Resistance rates to

Patterns	Combination	N (%)
1	iucA+ peg-344	33 (37.5%)
2	iucA	22 (25%)
3	iucA+ peg-344 + K5	6 (6.8%)
4	iucA + K5	5 (5.7%)
5	iucA + K1	5 (5.7%)
6	iucA + K2	4 (4.5%)
7	iucA+ peg-344 + K1	3 (3.4%)
8	<i>peg-344</i> + <i>K5</i>	2 (2.3%)
9	peg-344 + K2	2 (2.3%)
10	K2	1 (1.1%)
11	peg-344	1 (1.1%)
12	peg-344 + K1	1 (1.1%)
13	iucA+ peg-344 + K2	1 (1.1%)
14	Not detected	2 (2.3%)
	Total	88 (100%)

TABLE 2 | Combination of virulence-associated genes among 88 K.pneumoniae isolates.

TABLE 3 Coexistence of AME genes among aminoglycosideresistant *K. pneumoniae* isolates.

		No. of
Pattern	Combination	isolates (%)
1	aph (3")-Ib	15 (17%)
2	ant (2")-Ia	10 (11.4%)
3	aac (3)-Ib	8 (9.1%)
4	aac (3)-Ib+ aph (3")-Ib	5 (5.7%)
5	ant (2")-Ia+ aph (3")-Ib	4 (4.5%)
6	aac (3)-IIa	4 (4.5%)
7	aac (3)-IIa+ aph (3")-Ib	2 (2.3%)
8	aac (6')-1b	2 (2.3%)
9	aac (6')-1b+ aph (3")-Ib	2 (2.3%)
10	aac (6')-1b+ ant (2")-Ia	2 (2.3%)
11	aac (6')-1b+ ant (2")-Ia +aph (3")-Ib	1 (1.1%)
12	aac (3)-IIa+ ant (2")-Ia	1 (1.1%)
13	aac (3)-IIa +aac (6')-1b	1 (1.1%)
14	aac (3)-IIa +aac (6')-1b+ ant (2")-Ia	1 (1.1%)
15	aac (3)-Ib+ ant (2")-Ia+ aph (3")-Ib	1 (1.1%)
16	aac (3)-Ib+ aac (3)-IIa+ aph (3")-Ib	1 (1.1%)
	Total	60 (68.2%)

used aminoglycoside antibiotics were 65 (73.8%) for kanamycin, 61 (69.3%) for streptomycin, 55 (62.5%) for tobramycin, 48 (54.5%) for gentamicin, and 17 (19.3%) for amikacin. In total, 60

isolates (68.2%) were at least positive for one AME genes. Some isolates had only one gene and some others harbored a combination of two or more genes. In addition, sixteen different patterns of AME genes were observed (Table 3). The most predominant resistance gene was *aph* (3")-Ib, which was detected in 35.2% (31/88) isolates, followed by *ant* (2")-Ia 22.7% (20/88), *aac* (3)-Ib 17% (15/88), *aac* (3)-IIa 11.3% (10/88) and *aac* (6')-1b 10.2% (9/88), of these isolates, respectively. In this work *aac* (2')-Ia was not detected.

3.4 | Association Between Virulence-Associated Genes and AME

Based on statistical analysis, as shown in Table 4, a significant association was observed between *K2* and *aac* (3)-*IIa*. In addition, considering the positive value of *Phi* (0.26, p = 0.01), it can be concluded that there was a weak positive association between *aac* (3)-*IIa* and *K2*.

4 | Discussion

K. pneumoniae (a well-known member of the ESKAPE group of pathogens) was reported to be abundant among human and nonhuman (animals, environment, and foods) resources and can be transmitted to humans by direct contact. For example, based on phylogenetic analysis, a high association between humans and animals (sheep, cows, and chickens) *K. pneumoniae* has been observed, indicating transmission from animals to humans or from humans to animals. Therefore, constant monitoring of antibiotic resistance mechanisms and molecular characteristics will help reduce the spread of infections [17, 18].

To the best of our knowledge, this is the first report on the prevalence of virulence-associated and AME genes in *K. pneumonia* clinical isolates collected from Zabol hospital, Iran. In this work, 88 strains of *K. pneumoniae* were used. The PCR results showed that *iucA* and *peg-344* were the most prevalent virulence-associated genes, with 89.8% (79/88) and 55.7% (49/88) of positive isolates, respectively.

It has been reported that two different pathotypes of *K. pneumonia* are being isolated from patients worldwide, classical *K. pneumonia* (cKp) and hypervirulent *K. pneumonia* (hvKp) [19, 20]. Severe and extremely invasive infections of *K. pneumonia* such as liver abscesses, tissue-invasive infections, endophthalmitis, osteomyelitis, and pneumonia in both healthy and immunocompromised individuals usually attribute to hvKp strains [19, 20]. These two pathotypes differ in epidemiology and antibiotic resistance patterns [20–22]. Different molecular biomarkers, including *rmpA* (mediate capsule synthesis), *peg-344* (metabolic transporter), *iucABCD* (mediate siderophore production), *iroB* (salmochelins), siderophore yersiniabactin-related genes (*ybtA*, *ybtE*, *ybtP*), and allantoin utilization genes (*allA-D* and *allR-S*), have been reported for hvKp identification [2, 7].

Results of this study revealed that the most prevalent virulence gene was *iucA* followed by *peg-344*, with 89.8% (79/88) and

AIVLE genes	iucA n	i = 79	Peg-344	n = 49	KI I	n = 9	K2 1	n = 8	K5 1	$\eta = 13$
	P(%)	N(%)	$P\left(\% ight)$	N (%)	P(%)	N (%)	$P\left(\% ight)$	N (%)	$P\left(\% ight)$	N (%)
aac (3)-IIa $n = 10$	10 (100%)	0 (%0) (0	6 (60%)	4 (40%)	0 (0%)	10 (100%)	3 (30%)	7 (70%)	1(10%)	(%06) 6
p value	0.25		0.77		0.25		0.01*		0.65	
$aac (6')-1b \ n=9$	8 (88.9%)	1 (11.1%)	6 (66.7%)	3 (33.3%)	1 (11.1%)	8 (88.9%)	$1\ (11.1\%)$	8 (88.9%)	1 (11.1%)	8 (88.9%)
p value	0.92		0.48		0.92		0.82		0.74	
ant (2")-Ia $n = 20$	16 (80%)	4 (20%)	13 (65%)	7 (35%)	2 (10%)	18 (90%)	2 (10%)	18 (90%)	2 (10%)	18 (90%)
p value	0.1		0.34		0.97		0.87		0.49	
aph(3'')-Ib n = 31	29 (93.5%)	2 (6.5%)	19 (61.3%)	12 (38.7%)	3 (9.7%)	28 (90.3%)	1(3.2%)	30 (96.8%)	7 (22.6%)	24 (77.4%)
p value	0.38		0.43		0.9		0.15		0.12	
aac (3)-Ib $n = 15$	12 (80%)	3 (20%)	10 (66.7%)	5 (33.3%)	2 (13.3%)	13 (86.7%)	(%0) 0	$15\ (100\%)$	2 (13.3%)	13 (86.7%)
p value	0.17		0.34		0.66		0.17		0.86	

55.7% (49/88) of all isolates being positive, respectively. Similarly, in a study conducted in China, the most predominant virulence gene was reported to be *iucA* (56.8%) [23]. Likewise, in other studies such as Matsuda et al., (Japan) and Sanikhani et al., (Iran) the most prevalent gene was reported to be *iucA*, with 64% and 62.6% of isolates being positive, respectively [24, 25].

These findings may be attributed to pLVPK-like plasmids, encoding virulence-associated genes such as *iucABCD* (mediate siderophore production), *rmpA* (mediate capsule synthesis), and *peg-344* (metabolic transporter) [26].

In the present study, the prevalence of three capsular serotypes (K1, K2, and K5) was also investigated. Our results demonstrate that the most predominant capsular serotype was K5 14.8%, followed by K1 10.2% and K2 9.1%, respectively. In a similar study conducted in Iran, capsular serotypes 5 and 2 were the most isolated serotypes, with 4% and 2% of all isolates being positive, respectively [27]. Based on the results of other studies, the prevalence of capsular serotypes varied, for example, Solgi et al., and Taraghian et al., reported that K1 and K2 were the most prevalent serotypes, with 45.9%, 13.5%, and 7.6%, 66.6% of all isolates being positive, respectively [28, 29]. Contrary to most studies in Asia having introduced K1 and K2 as the most common serotypes [16, 20, 30-32], Hasani et al. reported that corpuscular serotypes 54 (29.5%) and 20 (21.3%) were the most commonly identified serotypes among analyzed strains [33].

These differences in virulence-associated genes and capsular serotypes observed among studies may be attributed to genetic recombination, mutation, population under study, sample size, source of isolated *K. pneumoniae*, or even diversity in applied detecting methods [27, 34].

Aminoglycoside antibiotics are of paramount importance to treat patients infected with K. pneumoniae. Based on phenotypic tests, the isolates were mostly resistant against kanamycin 73.8% and streptomycin 69.3% followed by tobramycin 62.5% and gentamicin 54.5%. Different aminoglycoside resistance mechanisms including efflux pump overexpression, decreased permeability, and modification of 30 s ribosomal subunit have been documented [35, 36]. However, AME genes such as aac, ant, or aph mediate enzymatic modification and inactivation of the aminoglycoside antibiotics and are commonly observed across gram-negative bacteria, particularly Enterobacteriaceae family (K. pneumoniae) [35-37]. Our results demonstrated that the most prevalent AME genes were aph (3")-Ib 35.2%, followed by ant (2")-Ia 22.7%, aac (3)-Ib 17%, aac (3)-IIa 11.3%, and aac (6')-1b 10.2%. These findings are lower than study conducted in Ahvaz, in which 44% of investigated K. pneumoniae were positive for ant (2")-Ia, 36.5% for aac (3')-IIa, 24.7% for aac (6')-Ib, and 20% for aph (3')-Ia [38]. Likewise, Al-Badawy et al. reported that acc (6')-Ib and acc (3')-II are highly distributed among K. pneumoniae isolates, with 88% and 58% of isolates being positive, respectively [39]. Results of independent studies on the distribution of AME genes in Egypt, Spain, Nigeria, Australia, and China revealed that the most prevalent AME genes were aac (3')-IIa and *aac* (6')-*Ib* [40–43].

In this work different combination of AME genes was observed, notably, 17 isolates (28.4%) had two AME genes, and 4 isolates (6%) had three AME genes, simultaneously. These findings can explain the high level of resistance against different aminogly-cosides at the same time since different AME genes can be carried by the mobile genetic elements such as plasmids and transposons, leading to simultaneous resistance against different aminoglycoside antibiotics [5, 6].

It has been reported that due to the continued overuse of antibiotics, the coexistence of AME genes and other antibiotic resistance genes such as extended-spectrum beta-lactamase (ESBL) on mobile genetic elements (plasmids and transposons) is becoming increasingly common [6, 44]. Noteworthy, these transferable plasmids belonged to different incompatibility groups and usually harbor different resistance genes, conferring resistance to various drugs. Therefore, successful treatment of infections caused by these isolates is becoming more difficult with each passing year [44].

Despite using PCR tests for virulence-associated and aminoglycoside resistance gene detections, the whole-genome sequencing (WGS) technique can be more useful because it can provide comprehensive information about the complete genome of microorganisms. Hence, WGS can play a pivotal role in the detection and prevention of bacterial infections [45–47].

Some limitations must be considered. Although a high level of *iucA* and *peg-344* (biomarkers for hvKp identification) positive isolates were identified, genotypic identification does not necessarily reflect the expression of genes; therefore, further studies are needed. In addition, to accurately estimate the prevalence of hvKp other biomarkers should be evaluated. Quantitative antibiogram methods such as dilution assays and other resistance mechanisms must be investigated to better define the rate of aminoglycoside resistance and the role of AME genes.

5 | Conclusion

The results of this work indicate that the prevalence of aminoglycoside-resistant *K. pneumoniae* in investigated hospital is high and should be considered a serious threat to patients' health. Meanwhile, resistance rates to different aminoglycoside antibiotics are high and it is primarily attributed to the presence of AME genes such as *aph* (3'')-*Ib*, ant (2'')-*Ia*, and *aac* (3)-*Ib*. Due to various combinations of AME genes and virulence-associated genes, probably different mobile genetic elements distributed among isolates can create a high risk of rapid spread of these genes.

Author Contributions

Conceptualization: Hamid Vaez. Data collection: Zahra Yazdanpour, Hamid Vaez. Formal analysis: Hamid Vaez. Funding acquisition: Hamid Vaez. Investigation: Hamid Vaez, Zahra Yazdanpour. Methodology: Hamid Vaez, Zahra Yazdanpour. Laboratory procedure: Hamid Vaez, Zahra Yazdanpour. Project administration: Hamid Vaez. Software: Hamid Vaez. Supervision: Hamid Vaez. Writing-original draft: Hamid Vaez.

Acknowledgments

We are thankful to the director and principal, as well as the vicechancellor of research and technology of Zabol University of Medical Sciences (ZBMU) for the support. This study was supported by Zabol University of Medical Sciences, Iran (Grant No. 1402-915). The funding sources had no involvement in study design; collection, analysis, and interpretation of data; writing of the report; and/or the decision to submit the report for publication.

Ethics Statement

This study was approved by the Ethics Committee of ZBMU IR. ZBMU. REC.1402.015 (https://ethics.research.ac.ir/ProposalCertificateEn.php? id=340563).

Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

Data Availability Statement

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request. All data generated or analyzed during this study are included in this published article.

Transparency Statement

All authors have read and approved the final version of the manuscript corresponding author had full access to all of the data in this study and takes complete responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of the data analysis. The lead author Hamid Vaez affirms that this manuscript is an honest, accurate, and transparent account of the study being reported; that no important aspects of the study have been omitted; and that any discrepancies from the study as planned (and, if relevant, registered) have been explained.

References

1. C. Y. Effah, T. Sun, S. Liu, and Y. Wu, "*Klebsiella pneumoniae*: An Increasing Threat to Public Health," *Annals of Clinical Microbiology and Antimicrobials* 19, no. 1 (2020): 1, https://doi.org/10.1186/s12941-019-0343-8.

2. F. F. Augustine, X. M. Mgaya, S. A. Yahya, E. M. Niccodem, and M. I. Matee, "An Alarming Prevalence of Multidrug-Resistant (MDR) ESKAPE Pathogens and Other Drug-Resistant Bacteria Isolated From Patients With Bloodstream Infections Hospitalized at Muhimbili National Hospital in Dar es Salaam, Tanzania," *German Journal of Microbiology* 3, no. 3 (2023): 7–15.

3. P. Kaza, B. B. Xavier, J. Mahindroo, et al., "Extensively Drug-Resistant *Klebsiella pneumoniae* Associated With Complicated Urinary Tract Infection in Northern India," *Japanese Journal of Infectious Diseases* 77, no. 1 (2024): 7–15, https://doi.org/10.7883/yoken.JJID. 2023.009.

4. G. Wareth, L. D. Sprague, H. Neubauer, and M. W. Pletz, "*Klebsiella pneumoniae* in Germany: An Overview on Spatiotemporal Distribution and Resistance Development in Humans," *German Journal of Microbiology* 1, no. 1 (2021): 16–25.

5. D. M. P. De Oliveira, B. M. Forde, T. J. Kidd, et al., "Antimicrobial Resistance in ESKAPE Pathogens," *Clinical Microbiology Reviews* 33, no. 3 (2020 Jun 17): 10–128.

6. G. Wang, G. Zhao, X. Chao, L. Xie, and H. Wang, "The Characteristic of Virulence, Biofilm and Antibiotic Resistance of *Klebsiella pneumoniae*," *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health* 17, no. 17 (2020): 6278, https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph17176278.

7. T. A. Russo, R. Olson, C. T. Fang, et al., "Identification of Biomarkers for Differentiation of Hypervirulent *Klebsiella pneumoniae* From

Classical K. pneumoniae," Journal of Clinical Microbiology 56, no. 9 (2018): 10–128.

8. A. M. Parrott, J. Shi, J. Aaron, D. A. Green, S. Whittier, and F. Wu, "Detection of Multiple Hypervirulent *Klebsiella Pneumoniae* Strains in a New York City Hospital Through Screening of Virulence Genes," *Clinical Microbiology and Infection* 27, no. 4 (2021 Apr 1): 583–589.

9. O. B. Ahmed, A. H. Asghar, M. Bamaga, F. S. Bahwerth, and M. E. Ibrahim, "Characterization of Aminoglycoside Resistance Genes in Multidrug-Resistant *Klebsiella pneumoniae* Collected From Tertiary Hospitals During the COVID-19 Pandemic," *PLoS One* 18, no. 7 (2023): e0289359, https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0289359.

10. Y. Liu, C. Liu, W. Zheng, et al., "PCR Detection of *Klebsiella pneumoniae* in Infant Formula Based on 16S–23S Internal Transcribed Spacer," *International Journal of Food Microbiology* 125, no. 3 (2008): 230–235.

11. C. Mahon, D. Lehman, and G. Manuselis, *Text Book of Diagnostic Microbiology* (New York, NY, USA: Elsevier, 2022). 7th Ed.

12. H. Vaez, Z. Yazdanpour, F. Khademi, and A. Pishdadian, "Prevalence and Antibiotic Resistance Patterns of Metallo-Beta-Lactamase-Producing Pseudomonas aeruginosa Isolated From Patients in a Hospital in Zabol, Southeast of Iran," *Infection Epidemiology and Microbiology* 9, no. 3 (2023): 201–208.

13. Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI). Performance Standards for Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing." *CLSI Supplement M100* (Wayne, PA: Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute, 2018). 28th ed.

14. E. Miró, F. Grünbaum, L. Gómez, et al., "Characterization of Aminoglycoside-Modifying Enzymes in Enterobacteriaceae Clinical Strains and Characterization of the Plasmids Implicated in Their Diffusion," *Microbial Drug Resistance* 19, no. 2 (2013): 94–99.

15. R. Ghotaslou, F. Yeganeh Sefidan, M. T. Akhi, M. Asgharzadeh, and Y. Mohammadzadeh Asl, "Dissemination of Genes Encoding Aminoglycoside-Modifying Enzymes and armA Among Enterobacteriaceae Isolates in Northwest Iran," *Microbial Drug Resistance* 23, no. 7 (2017): 826–832.

16. C. T. Fang, S. Y. Lai, W. C. Yi, P. R. Hsueh, K. L. Liu, and S. C. Chang, *"Klebsiella pneumoniae* Genotype K1: An Emerging Pathogen That Causes Septic Ocular or Central Nervous System Complications From Pyogenic Liver Abscess," *Clinical Infectious Diseases* 45, no. 3 (2007): 284–293.

17. K. Madhi, A. Jasim, H. Nasear, H. Ibraheim, and H. Gharban, "Phylogenetic Analysis of *Klebsiella pneumoniae* Isolates of Respiratory Tract Infections in Humans and Sheep," *Open Veterinary Journal* 14, no. 9 (2024): 2325.

18. M. Khan, M. Jamal, S. U. Rahman, et al., "Nutritional Analysis and Characterization of Carbapenemase Producing-*Klebsiella pneumoniae* Resistant Genes Associated With Bovine Mastitis Infected Cow's Milk," *PLoS One* 18, no. 10 (2023): e0293477.

19. C. Liu and J. Guo, "Hypervirulent *Klebsiella pneumoniae* (Hyper Mucoviscous and Aerobactin Positive) Infection Over 6 Years in the Elderly in China: Antimicrobial Resistance Patterns, Molecular Epidemiology and Risk Factor," *Annals of Clinical Microbiology and Antimicrobials* 18 (2019): 4.

20. R. Sanikhani, M. Moeinirad, F. Shahcheraghi, et al., "Molecular Epidemiology of Hypervirulent *Klebsiella pneumoniae*: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis," *Iranian Journal of Microbiology* 13, no. 3 (2021): 257–265.

21. J. E. Choby, J. Howard-Anderson, and D. S. Weiss, "Hypervirulent *Klebsiella pneumoniae*–Clinical and Molecular Perspectives," *Journal of Internal Medicine* 287, no. 3 (2020 Mar): 283–300.

22. T. A. Russo and C. M. Marr, "Hypervirulent Klebsiella pneumoniae," *Clinical Microbiology Reviews* 32, no. 3 (2019): 10–128. 23. M. Xu, Y. Fu, Y. Fang, et al., "High Prevalence of KPC-2-producing Hypervirulent *Klebsiella pneumoniae* Causing Meningitis in Eastern China," *Infection and Drug Resistance* 12 (2019): 641–653.

24. N. Matsuda, M. S. Aung, N. Urushibara, et al., "Prevalence, Clonal Diversity, and Antimicrobial Resistance of Hypervirulent *Klebsiella pneumoniae* and Klebsiella Variicola Clinical Isolates in Northern Japan," *Journal of Global Antimicrobial Resistance* 35 (2023 Dec 1): 11–18.

25. R. Sanikhani, M. Moeinirad, H. Solgi, A. Hadadi, F. Shahcheraghi, and F. Badmasti, "The Face of Hypervirulent *Klebsiella pneumoniae* Isolated From Clinical Samples of Two Iranian Teaching Hospitals," *Annals of Clinical Microbiology and Antimicrobials* 20, no. 1 (2021): 58.

26. L. Shu, N. Dong, J. Lu, et al., "Emergence of OXA-232 Carbapenemase-Producing *Klebsiella pneumoniae* That Carries a pLVPK-Like Virulence Plasmid Among Elderly Patients in China," *Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy* 63, no. 3 (2019): 10–128.

27. N. S. Maleki, F. Babazadeh, M. Arzanlou, R. Teimourpour, and H. P. Dogaheh, "Serotyping and Molecular Profiles of Virulence-Associated Genes Among *Klebsiella pneumoniae* Isolates From Teaching Hospitals of Ardabil, Iran: A Cross-Sectional Study," *Health Science Reports* 6, no. 9 (2023): e1557.

28. H. Solgi, F. Shahcheraghi, N. Bolourchi, and A. Ahmadi, "Molecular Characterization of Carbapenem-Resistant Serotype K1 Hypervirulent *Klebsiella pneumoniae* ST11 Harbouring blaNDM-1 and blaOXA-48 Carbapenemases in Iran," *Microbial Pathogenesis* 149 (2020): 104507.

29. A. Taraghian, B. Nasr Esfahani, S. Moghim, and H. Fazeli, "Characterization of Hypervirulent Extended-Spectrum β -Lactamase-Producing *Klebsiella pneumoniae* Among Urinary Tract Infections: The First Report From Iran," *Infection and Drug Resistance* 13 Sep 9 (2020): 3103–3111.

30. P. Remya, M. Shanthi, and U. Sekar, "Occurrence and Characterization of Hyperviscous K1 and K2 Serotype in Klebsiella Pneumoniael," *Journal of Laboratory Physicians* 10, no. 03 (2018): 283–288.

31. M. Sohrabi, M. Alizade Naini, A. Rasekhi, et al., "Emergence of K1 ST23 and K2 ST65 Hypervirulent *Klebsiella Pneumoniae* as True Pathogens With Specific Virulence Genes in Cryptogenic Pyogenic Liver Abscesses Shiraz Iran," *Frontiers in Cellular and Infection Microbiology* 12 (2022): 964290.

32. N. S. Anuar, H. Hazman, S. R. Jeyakumar, et al., "Occurrence of K1 and K2 Serotypes and Genotypic Characteristics of Extended Spectrum β -lactamases-producing *Klebsiella pneumoniae* Isolated From Selected Hospitals in Malaysia," *Asian Pacific Journal of Tropical Medicine* 17, no. 1 (2024): 30–38.

33. A. Hasani, E. Soltani, M. Ahangarzadeh Rezaee, et al., "Serotyping of *Klebsiella pneumoniae* and Its Relation With Capsule-Associated Virulence Genes, Antimicrobial Resistance Pattern, and Clinical Infections: A Descriptive Study in Medical Practice," *Infection and Drug Resistance* 13 (2020): 1971–1980, https://doi.org/10.2147/IDR.S243984.

34. J. Zhu, T. Wang, L. Chen, and H. Du, "Virulence Factors in Hypervirulent *Klebsiella pneumoniae*," *Frontiers in Microbiology* 12 (2021): 642484.

35. Y. Doi, J. Wachino, and Y. Arakawa, "Aminoglycoside Resistance," *Infectious Disease Clinics of North America* 30, no. 2 (2016): 523–537, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.idc.2016.02.011.

36. S. Garneau-Tsodikova and K. J. Labby, "Mechanisms of Resistance to Aminoglycoside Antibiotics: Overview and Perspectives," *MedChemComm* 7, no. 1 (2016): 11–27, https://doi.org/10.1039/C5MD00344J.

37. M. S. Ramirez and M. E. Tolmasky, "Aminoglycoside Modifying Enzymes," *Drug Resistance Updates* 13, no. 6 (2010): 151–171, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drup.2010.08.003.

38. S. Khoshnood, S. Akrami, M. Saki, et al., "Molecular Evaluation of Aminoglycosides Resistance and Biofilm Formation in *Klebsiella*

Pneumoniae Clinical Isolates: A Cross-Sectional Study," Health Science Reports 6, no. 5 (2023): e1266.

39. M. F. El-Badawy, W. M. Tawakol, S. W. El-Far, et al., "Molecular Identification of Aminoglycoside-Modifying Enzymes and Plasmid-Mediated Quinolone Resistance Genes Among *Klebsiella pneumoniae* Clinical Isolates Recovered From Egyptian Patients," *International Journal of Microbiology* 2017 (2017): 8050432, https://doi.org/10.1155/2017/8050432.

40. M. Fernández-Martínez, B. Ruiz del Castillo, M. J. Lecea-Cuello, et al., "Prevalence of Aminoglycoside-Modifying Enzymes in *Escherichia Coli* and *Klebsiella pneumoniae* Producing Extended Spectrum β -lactamases Collected in Two Multicenter Studies in Spain," *Microbial Drug Resistance* 24 (2018): 367–376.

41. A. N. Ginn, Z. Zong, A. M. Wiklendt, et al., "Limited Diversity in the Gene Pool Allows Prediction of Third-Generation Cephalosporin and Aminoglycoside Resistance in *Escherichia Coli* and *Klebsiella pneumoniae*," *International Journal of Antimicrobial Agents* 42 (2013): 19–26.

42. M. A. M. Abo-State, Y. E. S. Saleh, and H. M. Ghareeb, "Prevalence and Sequence of Aminoglycosides Modifying Enzymes Genes Among *E. coli* and Klebsiella Species Isolated From Egyptian Hospitals," *Journal of Radiation Research and Applied Sciences* 11 (2018): 408–415.

43. A. T. Adesoji, I. O. Olatoye, and A. A. Ogunjobi, "Genotypic Characterization of Aminoglycoside Resistance Genes From Bacteria Isolates in Selected Municipal Drinking Water Distribution Sources in Southwestern Nigeria," *Ethiopian Journal of Health Sciences* 29, no. 3 (2019): 321–332, https://doi.org/10.4314/ejhs.v29i3.4.

44. Y. Zhang, N. Zhang, M. Wang, et al., "The Prevalence and Distribution of Aminoglycoside Resistance Genes," *Biosafety and Health* 5, no. 01 (2023 Feb 25): 14–20.

45. E. A. Soliman, A. Saad, A. A. Abd El Tawab, et al., "Exploring AMR and Virulence in *Klebsiella pneumoniae* Isolated From Humans and Pet Animals: A Complement of Phenotype By Wgs-Derived Profiles in a One Health Study in Egypt," *One Health* 19 (2024): 100904.

46. G. Wareth, H. Brangsch, N. H. Nguyen, et al., "WGS Analysis of Hypervirulent and MDR *Klebsiella Pneumoniae* From Vietnam Reveales an Inverse Relationship Between Resistome and Virulome," *German Journal of Microbiology* 4, no. 1 (2024): 15–24.

47. C. Shankar, B. Veeraraghavan, L. E. B. Nabarro, R. Ravi, N. K. D. Ragupathi, and P. Rupali, "Whole Genome Analysis of Hypervirulent *Klebsiella pneumoniae* Isolates From Community and Hospital Acquired Bloodstream Infection," *BMC Microbiology* 18 (2018): 6.