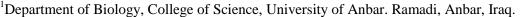
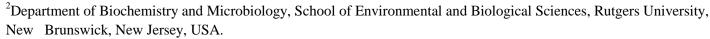
Molecular and phenotypic detection of siderophore production by hypervirulent *Klebsiella pneumoniae*

Abdulbaset Mohammed Al-Fahdawi^{1*}, Gerben J. Zylstra², Thamer Y. Mutter¹





ARTICLE INFO

Received: 15 / 07 /2023 Accepted: 22 / 07 / 2023 Available online: 11 /12 / 2023

DOI:10.37652/juaps.2023.141818.1100

Keywords:

Hypervirulent, Klebsiella, Molecular, Phenotypic, Siderophores

Copyright©Authors, 2023, College of Sciences, University of Anbar. This is an open-access article under the CC BY 4.0 license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0).



ABSTRACT

Klebsiella pneumoniae is a highly prevalent pathogen among nosocomial and community-acquired infections, including urinary tract infections (UTIs), pneumonia, surgical site infections, and bloodstream infections.

One hundred (100) isolates were obtained from different sources, including urine, burns, sputum, blood, and wound. All isolates were bacteriologically identified as *Klebsiella pneumoniae* using phenotypic and biochemical tests. The antimicrobial susceptibility test was done by using the disc diffusion method for thirteen different antimicrobial agents. String test was used to evaluate the hypermucoviscousity of the isolates and siderophore production was estimated by CAS agar and colorimetric methods. Two genes, *iucA and iroB*, were detected by PCR and their correlation with phenotypic markers was evaluated. The results showed that 51% of the isolates were positive for the string test and 49 % were negative. The results showed that the siderophores production ranged between 14 to 74 psu. Genotyping results showed that 23% of the isolates contained *iucA* gene and 17 % contained *iroB*. There was a high correlation between the two genes and the hypermucoviscousity. Also, siderophore production was highly associated with having one of the genes or both with more than 60 psu of siderophores production.

INTRODUCTION:

Klebsiella pneumoniae is a highly prevalent pathogen among nosocomial and community-acquired infections, including urinary tract infections (UTIs), pneumonia, surgical site infections, and bloodstream infections. It is the second most frequent cause of gramnegative sepsis [1-3]. Several virulence factors are in K. pneumoniae, including capsular polysaccharide (CPS) and a crucial virulence component that is a significant factor in developing sepsis [4,5]. Two distinct groups of clinical isolates of Klebsiella pneumoniae (two pathotypes) were discovered. Classical strains (cKp) are typically isolated from patients with some degree of immunocompromise, and that known as carbapenem-resistant (CR). In contrast, hypervirulent strains (hvKp) are associated with community-acquired invasive infections, and those are sensitive to carbapenem [6,7].

*Corresponding author at: Department of Biology, College of Science, University of Anbar, Iraq.

E-mail address: abdulbaset.moh@uoanbar.edu.iq

The string test is a routine and commonly used microbiological test to identify hypermucoviscosity (HMV). Hypermucoviscosity phenotype is used to identify the hypervirulent species of K. pneumoniae. The hypermucoviscous phenotype is conferred by the hypercapsule produced by hypervirulent K. pneumoniae (hvKP) [8]. CPS inhibits the expression of human defense mechanisms as well as neutrophil and macrophage phagocytosis [9]. Moreover, the hypercapsule strengthens protection against numerous humoral defensive systems [8]. Because of this, hvKP is less susceptible to complement killing than classical K. pneumoniae (cKP) [10]. Low-molecular-weight secondary metabolites called siderophores have the ability to chelate iron. These are substances with tiny peptide molecules having side chains and functional groups that have great affinity ligands for binding to ferric ions and transporting them across the cell membrane [11]. Even at deficient concentrations, microbial siderophores effectively chelate iron and stimulate its absorption by forming a ferric-siderophore complex [12]. Siderophores are also necessary factors for

K. pneumoniae pathogenesis [6]. K. pneumoniae needs a scarce amount of iron from the environment to survive during infection, which is not easly accessible in the host. This is mainly because the host sequesters it as part of the nonspecific immune response to limit the proliferation of several potential pathogens. Typically, there is often little free iron in host plasma because it is joined by iron transport molecules like transferrin. Mammalian hosts can lower iron levels during bacterial infection by switching iron binding to lactoferrin, an inherent defense protein found in body fluids [13-15]. The dominant mechanism used by many pathogens, including K. pneumoniae, to gain iron is by the production of siderophores, which are substances with a greater affinity for iron than host transport proteins do. Iron can be scavenged from the environment or from the host's ironchelating proteins by siderophores [15]. Klebsiella pneumoniae expresses several siderophores, including enterobactin, yersiniabactin, salmochelin, and aerobactin [16]. Salmochelin, a specific kind of siderophore encoded by the *iroB* gene, is only present in around 2 to 4% of nosocomial K. pneumoniae strains (CKP). It is 90% more common in hypervirulent K. pneumoniae strains [17,18]. Aerobactin is a specific kind of siderophore encoded by the iucA gene [19]. Classical nosocomial K. pneumoniae clinical isolates seldom express it, but hypervirulent K. pneumoniae isolates do [20,21]. On the other hand, not all hyper-capsulated strains possess this siderophore gene [20]. Hypervirulent K. pneumoniae strains can acquire iron using several siderophore genes, and aerobactin gene is one of the most genes used in at least one hvKp strain [21]. The siderophore production is commonly detected using the chrome azurol sulphonate (CAS) assay as mentioned by Schwyn and Neilands [22]. Additionally, Solid CAS agar media are also commonly known that is used to detect siderophore production in hypervirulent species [23].

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Sample Collection

Patients suspected with *Klebsiella* infections were subjected to this study. Isolates were collected from patients who attended four main hospitals located in Al-Anbar province, western Iraq, between June and October 2022. All isolates were isolated from urine, burns, sputum, blood, and wounds.

Isolates identification

Traditional and biochemical tests were used to identify all *Klebsiella pneumoniae* isolates by using cultural methods, microscopic identification, and biochemical tests. MacConkey agar and Blood agar were used to grow and identify all isolates. Gram stain, indole, Methyl Red, Voges-Proskauer, Citrate utilization, catalase, oxidase, and urease were used to identify *Klebsiella* isolates according to Mahon and Lehman [24]. All isolates were confirmed automatedly at the species level by using VITEK-2 compact system with identification of G-ve bacteria (ID-GNB) cards following the manufacturer's instructions.

Antibiotics Susceptibility Tests

The Kirby-Bauer method was followed as described by CLSI (2021) to perform the antibiotics susceptibility test (Table 1).

String test

To be considered hypermucoviscous (HMV), bacterial isolates were cultured on blood agar and incubated at 37°C for 24 h. A sterilized loop was used to stretch the mucoid of the colony, 5 mm or more of the viscous filament from the colony's surface was accounted as HMV. The test was used to differentiate between hvKp and cKp phenotypically [19].

Siderophore estimation assay

The Chrome Azurol Sulphonate (CAS) assay was used to test the siderophore-production capacity of *Klebsiella* isolates [22]. All glassware were first cleaned with 3 mol/l hydrochloric acid (HCl) to remove iron, then rinsed in deionized water. A quantitative method was used to calculate the amount of the production of the siderophore, CAS reagent was made following Louden *et al.* [25].

Chrome Azurol Sulphonate reagent (blue dve CAS)

The blue dye was used to estimate siderophore production and was prepared as follows: Solution (1) was prepared by diluting 0.06 g of CAS (Fluka Chemicals) with 50 ml of ddH2O. Solution (2) was prepared by mixing 0.0027 g of FeCl3-6 H2O with 10 ml of 10 mM HCl. Solution (3) was prepared by mixing 0.073 g of hexadecyltrimethylammonium bromide (HDTMA)

Table 1. Antimicrobial agents used in this study.

| Class | Antibiotic | Abbr. | Conc. |
|------------------------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| Aminoglycosi des | Gentamicin | GM | 30 µg |
| | Amikacin | \mathbf{AK} | 30 μg |
| Penicillins(β- lactamase) | Amox- Clavu | AMC | 20/10 μg |
| | Piper-tazoba | TPZ | 100/10 µg |
| Folatepathwa y inhibitors | Trim- sulpha | SXT | 1.25/23.75 µg |
| Cephalospori | Ceftriaxone | CRO | 30 μg |
| | Cefotaxime | CTX | 30 μg |
| | Cefepime | FEP | 30 μg |
| | Ceftazidime | CAZ | 30 μg |
| Carbapenem | Imipenem | IPM | 10 μg |
| Monobactam | Aztreonam | ATM | 30 μg |
| Quinolones | Levofloxacin | LEV | 5 μg |
| | Ciprofloxacin | CIP | 5 µg |

with 40 ml of ddH2O. Solution (1) was combined with 9 ml of solution (2) and then mixed with Solution (3). The mixture should be blue after mixing, and then it was autoclaved in a polycarbonate bottle, stored in a plastic container/bottle.

Chrome Azurol Sulphonate agar plate

Klebsiella pneumoniae pathogenicity may be accurately assessed using a quantitative siderophore production test, which may also help differentiate hvKp from cKp isolates. For 1 L of CAS agar, 900 ml of Laurie Bertani agar was prepared and autoclaved. The medium was cooled to 60 °C, and 100 mL of the blue dye (CAS solution) was added with stirring. The final medium was aseptically poured into Petri dishes. Sterilized filter paper discs (5 mm diameter) were aseptically fixed on the plates. An inoculum (10µL) of overnight Klebsiella pneumoniae isolates (OD600=0.5) was pipetted into the paper disc. The CAS agar plates were incubated at 37°C for 24 hours, and the control plates were prepared similarly without bacterial inoculum. The size of an orange halo zone around the paper disc that indicates the siderophore production was measured by millimeter. The optimal siderophore production cut-off point to predict hvKp was determined at 9.6 mm [26].

Analysis of siderophore production using colorimetric methods

Quantitative estimation of siderophore production was performed using colorimetric techniques.

Traditional method

Bacterial cultures cultivated in an LB broth medium were used, and their supernatants were utilized to quantitatively determine siderophore [27].

In a 1.5 ml Eppendorf tube (containing 1 ml of LB broth), $10 \mu l$ of a freshly grown bacterial culture (10^8 cfu/ml) was added to the tube and incubated for 24 hours at 37 °C. The control was prepared similarly without any inoculum. Then, the tube was centrifuged at 10,000 rpm for 10 min, and the supernatant was then used to calculate the amount of siderophore. Each bacterial culture's supernatant (0.5 ml) was combined with 0.5 ml of CAS reagent, and after 20 minutes, optical density at 630 nm was measured. The amount of siderophore was calculated in Percent Siderophore Units (psu) [28], which was determined by using the formula:

Siderophore production (psu) =
$$\frac{Ar - As}{Ar} * 100$$

Where Ar = reference absorbance (CAS solution and un-inoculated broth), and As = the sample's absorbance (CAS solution and cell-free supernatant of sample).

Modified microplate assay

The modified method was done by using 96 well microtiter plate. In a microcentrifuge tube, 0.5 ml of colonized (5 μ L inoculum containing 10^8 cfu/ml) broth was used to obtain the supernatant. In each microplate well, 100 μ L of the supernatant from each bacterial culture was added, then the 100μ L CAS reagent was added. Following the incubation, the optical densities were measured at 630 nm using a microplate reader, and then the siderophore was estimated using the formula mentioned above [29].

Chrome Azurol Sulphonate broth and Chrome Azurole Sulphonate agar (CAS media)

CAS agar was prepared by mixing 100 ml CAS reagent in 900 ml sterilized LB agar medium. CAS reagent solution was autoclaved in a polycarbonate bottle or turbid white tube, which was washed with HCl and then rinsed with distilled water [26,29].

Molecular markers

Two genes, *iucA* and *iroB*, were selected to differentiate hvKp. The genomic DNA of *Klebsiella* isolates was extracted using Wizard® Genomic DNA

Purification Kit, Promega (USA), following the manufacturer's instructions. PCR analysis was performed using the Applied Biosystems Bio-Rad instrument (UK). iucA amplified using the primers GCTTATTTCTCCCCAACCC and R-TCAGCCCTTTAGCGACAAG, and iroB was amplified Fthe primers ATCTCATCATCTACCCTCCGCTC and R-GGTTCGCCGTCGTTTTCAA [19].

PCR-based detection of these genes used (per reaction)10 μ L of 2x GoTaq® Hot Start Green Master Mix (Promega /USA), 1 μ L of forward primer, 1 μ L of reverse primer (10 μ mol/ μ L), 60 ng/ μ L of gDNA, and the volume was adjusted to 20 μ L using free nuclease water. PCR cycling conditions were followed: initial denaturation at 95 °C for 3 min, (denaturation at 95 °C for 30 s, annealing at 56 °C for 35 s, extension at 72 °C for 1 min) for 30 cycles, and final extension at 72.0 °C for 10 min. All PCR products were analyzed using 1.5% agarose.

RESULTS

Identification of Klebsiella isolates

One hundred *Klebsiella* isolates were isolated from four hospitals in Al-Anbar province and were identified using cultural and biochemical tests and confirmed by VITEK-2 compact system. Out of the 100 isolates, 44 were obtained from urine samples, 23 from burns samples, 19 from sputum, 9 from blood, and 5 from wounds, Table 2.

Differentiation of hvkp using String test

The hypermucoviscousity is defined by the string test, and the isolate is identified as hvKp when a viscous filament stretches 5mm or more from the colony surface [19], Figure 1. The results showed that 51% of the isolates were positive for the string test and defined as a hvKp and 49% were negative for the string test and defined as cKp. String test results showed that 100% of the Blood isolates were positive, sputum isolates (78.9%), wounds (60%), urine (36.3%), and burns (34.7%), as shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Percentage of a positive string test.

| Site | Number | Positive string | Negative string |
|--------|--------|--------------------|-----------------|
| Urine | 44 | 16 (36.36 %) | 28(63.64%) |
| Burns | 23 | 8 (34.78 %) | 15(65.22%) |
| Sputum | 19 | 15 (78.95 %) | 4(21.05%) |
| Blood | 9 | 9 (100 %) | 0 |
| Wound | 5 | 3 (60 %) | 2(40%) |



Figure 1. Positive string test. Shows the viscous filament length

Antimicrobial resistance profile

The 100 isolates showed varying degrees of resistance. Both pathotypes (hvKp and cKp) were quietly similar in their resistance profile toward antibiotics used in this study. hvKp and cKp showed a high degree of resistance against Amoxycillin-Claculanic acid, Trimethoprime-Sulphamethaxazone, Ceftazidime, Ceftriaxone, and Cefotaxime as shown in Table 3. cKp isolates were more resistance to Imipenem (6.12%). In contrast, hvKp isolates were all sensitive to the same antibiotic.

Chrome azurol S agar plate assay (CAS)

A zone of orange color surrounding the colonies created by bacteria cultured on CAS indicates siderophores production, as shown in Figure 2. The siderophore production was roughly calculated based on the halo size developed on CAS agar around the colonies. The ideal siderophore production cut-off point for an isolate to be considered hvKp strain was 9.6 mm. The results showed that 51 (51%) of the 100 K. pneumonia clinical isolates were hvkp, as the orange halo around the colonies ranged between 9.8-27 mm in diameter, as shown in Figure 3.

| Antibiotic | hvKp (51) | cKp (49) |
|------------------------|--------------------------|-----------------------|
| | | Resistance |
| Amox-Clavulanic acid | (100%) | ٤٧ (95.92%) |
| Cefotaxime | (86.27%) | £ 0 (91.84%) |
| Piperaci-tazobactam | ۲۸ (54.90%) | 25 (51.02%) |
| Trimeth sulphameth. | € ∨ (92.16%) | £ 0 (91.84%) |
| Ceftriaxone | (86.27%) | ٤٦ (93.88%) |
| Ceftazidime | (98.04%) | ^{£ 9} (100%) |
| Cefepime | ۳۷ (72.55%) | ٣٧ (75.51%) |
| Imipenem | • | " (6.12%) |
| Aztreonam | ۲۹ (56.86%) | T £ (48.98%) |
| Amikacin | 17 (31.37%) | 17 (24.49%) |
| Gentamicin | ^{7 9} (56.86%) | ۳۲ (65.31%) |
| Levofloxacin | ۳۱ (60.78%) | Yo (51.02%) |
| Ciprofloxacin | T £ (66.67%) | ٣٠ (61.22%) |

Table 3. Antimicrobial-resistant profile of the two pathotypes

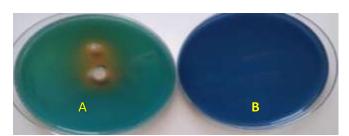


Figure 2. (A) The orange halo zone due to siderophore production, (B) the CAS agar plate's control.

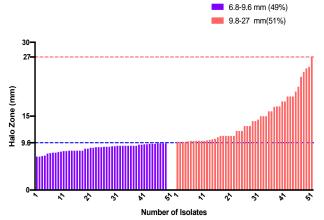


Figure 3. The percentage of hvKp and cKp using the CAS method.

Colorimetric methods

The CAS agar method is not optimal and can only give an approximate estimation of the siderophore production. A modified method and CAS reagent were used to quantify the siderophore production for more accurate results. As mentioned in the Methods, two phenotypic methods were used to estimate the siderophore production accurately.

The amount of the siderophore produced by all 100 isolates was checked using the proposed traditional and modified microplate methods. The level of siderophore produced by bacterial isolates ranged from 14 to 74 psu when measured by the microplate technique. The results indicated that 56% of the isolates showed siderophore production ranged between 30-74 psu, and 44% were less than 30 psu producer, as shown in Figure 4.

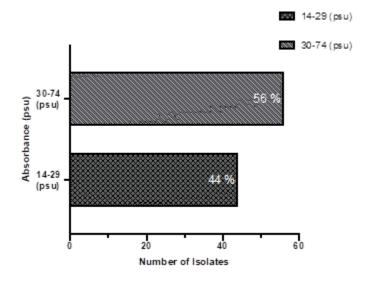


Figure 4. Estimation of siderophores production using colorimetric methods.

Detection of iroB and iucA genes

PCR results showed that the *iucA* gene was found in 23 isolates (23%) and *iroB* in 17 isolates (17%), Figure 5. The two genes were detected in the same isolate in 10 out of the 100 *Klebsiella* isolates.

The PCR and string test results indicated that out of the 23 isolates carrying *iucA*, 19 isolates (82.6 %) were positive for the string test, and 15 isolates (88.2%) of the 17 isolates carrying *iroB* were positive for the string test. Interestingly, all 10 isolates carrying both genes were 100% positive for the string test.

The siderophore production of all 23 isolates carrying *iucA* ranged between 32-74 psu. All isolates carrying *iroB* were very high producers ranging between 64-74 psu, as shown in Table 4. The distribution of isolates according to the site of isolation is indicated in Table 5. *iucA* and *iroB* were most prevalent in blood sample isolates, with 88.89% and 66.6% for *iucA* and *iroB*, respectively.

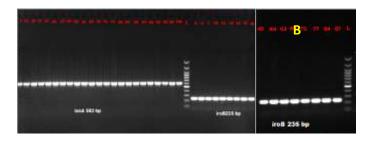


Figure 5. Gel electrophoresis of the PCR products. (L) ladder 100 to 1200 bp, (A) left of the ladder *iucA* bands 583, (A) right of the ladder and (B) *iroB* bands 235 bp.

Table 4. Distribution of *iucA* and *iroB* and their association with phenotypic markers

| | iucA (23) | iroB (17) | iucA+ iroB (10) |
|------------------|-------------|-------------|-----------------|
| String test (51) | | | |
| positive | 19 (82.61%) | 15 (88.24%) | 10 (100%) |
| negative | 4 (17.39%) | 2 (11.76%) | 0 |
| P value | 0.0007 | 0.0009 | 0.0012 |
| Siderophore | | | |
| production (56) | | | |
| >30 psu | 23 (100%) | 17 (100%) | 10 (100%) |
| <30 psu | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| P value | < 0.0001 | <0.0001 | 0.0022 |

Table 5. Distribution of molecular markers among sources of infection.

| Source | iucA | iroB | iucA and iroB |
|--------------------|-----------|-----------|---------------|
| Urine (44) | 7(15.91%) | 7(15.91%) | 3(6.82%) |
| Burns (23) | 4(17.39%) | 2(8.70%) | 1(4.34%) |
| Sputum (19) | 4(21.05%) | 1(5.26%) | 1(5.26%) |
| Blood (9) | 8(88.89%) | 6(66.67%) | 5(55.56%) |
| Wound (5) | 0 | 1(20%) | 0 |

DISCUSSION

Out of the 100 *K. pneumoniae* isolates, 51(51%) hvKp strains were identified using string tests. The percentage is differed according to the region and the source of isolation. The antibiotic resistance patterns are caused by various factors, including the number of samples, regional differences, the source of specimens, the site of infection, and patient predilection [30]. Other studies indicated that a string test identified 33% and 45.7% of *K. pneumoniae* isolates as hypermucoviscous (hvKp) [31,32]. Blood isolates had a higher percentage of hypermucoviscous strains (100%), followed by sputum isolates. Hypermucoviscous is an essential virulence factor in causing sepsis [5].

Hypervirulent Klebsiella pneumoniae isolates have evolved and have been of major clinical concern for the past 40 years after identifying this pathotype. The results showed that hvKp isolates were resistant to all antimicrobial agents used in this study except for Imipenem, Table 3. This observation is attributable to hvKp isolates acquiring chromosomal or plasmidencoded antibiotic resistance genes found on mobile genetic elements like plasmids and ICE [33]. However, compared to the cKp strains in this investigation, a considerably higher number of hvkp strains showed resistance to the tested antimicrobials such as Amoxicillin- Clavulanic acid, Piperacillin-tazobactam, Trimethoprimsulphamethoxazole, Amikacin, and Levofloxacin which is consistent with Wang et al. [34]. The ckp isolates appeared more resistant to other antimicrobial agents such as Cefotaxime. Ceftriaxone, Ceftazidime, Cefepime. Imipenem, and Gentamicin. The results of the resistance profile between the two pathotypes are consistent with another research [31]. These findings support the idea that hvKp strains are developing an increased level of antibiotic resistance that was changed over time.

It is obvious that the genotype and phenotype of hvKp have been modified, but it is unclear what caused this modification. Classical *Klebsiella* (cKp) strains seem genetically different from hvKp despite having certain virulence traits in common [35,36]. Initially, it was suggested that the distinguishing features of hvKp isolates are defined by a hypermucoviscous phenotype [37]. This study showed an association between having *iucA* and *iroB* genes with string tests that were

statistically highly significant, Table 4. This indicates an impact of iron on cps expression. Fur and IscR are iron-responsive transcriptional regulators in the Enterobacteriaceae that regulate cps. iscR activated the cps to increase capsule production when there is a sufficient amount of iron.

In contrast, fur indirectly suppresses cps when there is a high concentration of iron and relieves this effect when the iron level is low [38]. Absorption of ferric iron, which is more common in hvKP strains than cKP strains, is necessary for maximal systemic virulence of hvKp isolates. These results align with a study done in Sudan [39].

Siderophores production was assessed using two techniques as mentioned in the methods. Isolates that contain iron acquisition genes appear to produce more siderophore than others. In this study, *iucA* and *iroB* genes were highly correlated with siderophores production in *Klebsiella* isolates, Table 4. All isolates with one of the genes or both showed high production of siderophores with more than 30 psu compared to other isolates lacking any of the two genes. This association indicates the importance of *iucA* and *iroB* in iron acquisition and siderophores production. The results agree with previous studies that demonstrated that hvKp produces high siderophore than cKp due to the presence of these two genes that have a great affinity for iron (19, 40-42].

CONCLUSION

The phenotypic and molecular biomarkers identification of local *K. pneumoniae* isolates revealed a high correlation between having *iucA* and *iroB* genes with the hypermucoviscousity and siderophores production. Klebsiella's two phenotypes are regulated as both are connected through iron acquiring by siderophores chelating agent. Our findings highlighted the necessity to periodically monitor *Klebsiella* infections to decrease the spread of hvKp strains that could increase in our region. Further investigations are needed to identify the severity of the public health risk raised by hvKp strains in Iraq.

REFERENCES

- [1] Podschun, R. and Ullmann, U. (1998). *Klebsiella* spp. as nosocomial pathogens: epidemiology, taxonomy, typing methods, and pathogenicity factors. Clinical microbiology reviews, 11(4), 589-603.
- [2] Kang, C. I., Song, J. H., Chung, D. R., Peck, K. R., Ko, K. S., Yeom, J. S., et al. (2011). Risk factors and pathogenic significance of severe sepsis and septic shock in 2286 patients with gram-negative bacteremia. Journal of Infection, 62(1), 26-33.
- [3] Magill, S. S., Edwards, J. R., Bamberg, W., Beldavs, Z. G., Dumyati, G., Kainer, M. A., et al. (2014). Multistate point-prevalence survey of health care– associated infections. New England Journal of Medicine, 370(13), 1198-1208.
- [4] Álvarez, D., Merino, S., Tomás, J. M., Benedí, V. J., et al. (2000). Capsular polysaccharide is a major complement resistance factor in lipopolysaccharide O side chain-deficient *Klebsiella pneumoniae* clinical isolates. Infection and immunity, 68(2), 953-955.
- [5] Cortés, G., Borrell, N., de Astorza, B., Gómez, C., Sauleda, J., et al. (2002). Molecular analysis of the contribution of the capsular polysaccharide and the lipopolysaccharide O side chain to the virulence of *Klebsiella pneumoniae* in a murine model of pneumonia. Infection and immunity, 70(5), 2583-2590.
- [6] Paczosa, M. K. and Mecsas, J. (2016). Klebsiella pneumoniae: going on the offense with a strong defense. Microbiology and molecular biology reviews, 80(3), 629-661.
- [7] Sellick, J. A. and Russo, T. A. (2018). Getting hypervirulent *Klebsiella pneumoniae* on the radar screen. Current opinion in infectious diseases, 31(4), 341-346.
- [8] Fang, C. T., Chuang, Y. P., Shun, C. T., Chang, S. C., et al. (2004). A novel virulence gene in *Klebsiella pneumoniae* strains causing primary liver abscess and septic metastatic complications. The Journal of experimental medicine, 199(5), 697-705.
- [9] Russo, T. A. and Marr, C. M. (2019). Hypervirulent Klebsiella pneumoniae. Clinical microbiology reviews, 32(3), 10-1128.

- [10] Pomakova, D. K., Hsiao, C. B., Beanan, J. M., Olson, R., MacDonald, U., Keynan, Y., et al. (2012). Clinical and phenotypic differences between classic and hypervirulent Klebsiella pneumonia: an emerging and under-recognized pathogenic variant. European Journal of clinical microbiology & infectious diseases, 31, 981-989.
- [11] Raymond, K. N., Allred, B. E., and Sia, A. K. (2015). Coordination chemistry of microbial iron transport. Accounts of chemical research, 48(9), 2496-2505.
- [12] Boiteau, R. M., Mende, D. R., Hawco, N. J., McIlvin, M. R., Fitzsimmons, J. N., Saito, M. A., et al. (2016). Siderophore-based microbial adaptations to iron scarcity across the eastern Pacific Ocean. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 113(50), 14237-14242.
- [13] Bullen, J. J., Rogers, H. J., and Leigh, L. (1972). Iron-binding proteins in milk and resistance to Escherichia coli infection in infants. Br med J, 1(5792), 69-75.
- [14] Carniel, E. (2001). The Yersinia high-pathogenicity island: an iron-uptake island. Microbes and infection, 3(7), 561-569.
- [15] Miethke, M. and Marahiel, M. A. (2007). Siderophore-based iron acquisition and pathogen control. Microbiology and molecular biology reviews, 71(3), 413-451.
- [16] Brock, J. H., Williams, P. H., Liceaga, J., and Wooldridge, K. G. (1991). Relative availability of transferrin-bound iron and cell-derived iron to aerobactin-producing and enterochelin-producing strains of Escherichia coli and to other microorganisms. Infection and immunity, 59(9), 3185-3190.
- [17] Hsieh, P. F., Lin, T. L., Lee, C. Z., Tsai, S. F., and Wang, J. T. (2008). Serum-induced iron-acquisition systems and TonB contribute to virulence in *Klebsiella pneumoniae* causing primary pyogenic liver abscess. Journal of Infectious Diseases, 197(12), 1717-1727.
- [18] El Fertas-Aissani, R., Messai, Y., Alouache, S., and Bakour, R. (2013). Virulence profiles and antibiotic susceptibility patterns of *Klebsiella pneumoniae* strains isolated from different clinical specimens. Pathologie Biologie, 61(5), 209-216.

- [19] Russo, T. A., Olson, R., Fang, C. T., Stoesser, N., Miller, M., MacDonald, U., et al. (2018). Identification of biomarkers for differentiation of hypervirulent *Klebsiella pneumoniae* from classical K. pneumoniae. Journal of clinical microbiology, 56(9), 10-1128.
- [20] Yu, W. L., Ko, W. C., Cheng, K. C., Lee, C. C., Lai, C. C., and Chuang, Y. C. (2008). Comparison of prevalence of virulence factors for *Klebsiella pneumoniae* liver abscesses between isolates with capsular K1/K2 and non-K1/K2 serotypes. Diagnostic microbiology and infectious disease, 62(1), 1-6.
- [21] Russo, T. A., Olson, R., MacDonald, U., Metzger, D., Maltese, L. M., Drake, E. J., and Gulick, A. M. (2014). Aerobactin mediates virulence and accounts for increased siderophore production under iron-limiting conditions by hypervirulent (hypermucoviscous) Klebsiella pneumoniae. Infection and immunity, 82(6), 2356-2367.
- [22] Schwyn, B. and Neilands, J. B. (1987). Universal chemical assay for the detection and determination of siderophores. Analytical biochemistry, 160(1), 47-56.
- [23] Raaska, L., Viikari, L., and Mattila-Sandholm, T. (1993). Detection of siderophores in growing cultures of Pseudomonas spp. Journal of industrial microbiology and Biotechnology, 11(3), 181-186.
- [24] Mahon, C. R. and Lehman, D. C. (2022). Textbook of diagnostic microbiology-e-book. Elsevier Health Sciences.
- [25] Louden, B. C., Haarmann, D., and Lynne, A. M. (2011). Use of blue agar CAS assay for siderophore detection. Journal of microbiology & biology education, 12(1), 51-53.
- [26] Namikawa, H., Niki, M., Niki, M., Oinuma, K. I., Yamada, K., Nakaie, K., et al. (2022). Siderophore production as a biomarker for *Klebsiella pneumoniae* strains that cause sepsis: A pilot study. Journal of the Formosan Medical Association, 121(4), 848-855.
- [27] Qing-Ping, H. and Jian-Guo, X. (2011). A simple double-layered chrome azurol S agar (SD-CASA) plate assay to optimize the production of siderophores by a potential biocontrol agent Bacillus. African Journal of Microbiology Research, 5(25), 4321-4327.
- [28] Payne, S. M. (1993). Iron acquisition in microbial pathogenesis. Trends in microbiology, 1(2), 66-69.

- [29] Arora, N. K. and Verma, M. (2017). Modified microplate method for rapid and efficient estimation of siderophore produced by bacteria. 3 Biotech, 7(6), 381.
- [30] Martínez, J. L., and Baquero, F. (2002). Interactions among strategies associated with bacterial infection: pathogenicity, epidemicity, and antibiotic resistance. Clinical microbiology reviews, 15(4), 647-679.
- [31] Li, W., Sun, G., Yu, Y., Li, N., Chen, M., Jin, R., et al. (2014). Increasing occurrence of antimicrobial-resistant hypervirulent (hypermucoviscous) *Klebsiella pneumoniae* isolates in China. Clinical infectious diseases, 58(2), 225-232.
- [32] Liu, C. and Guo, J. (2019). Hypervirulent *Klebsiella pneumoniae* (hypermucoviscous 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, 1-11.
- [33] Choby, J. E., Howard Anderson, J., and Weiss, D. S. (2020). Hypervirulent Klebsiella pneumoniae—clinical and molecular perspectives. Journal of internal medicine, 287(3), 283-300.
- [34] Wang, L., Shen, D., Wu, H., and Ma, Y. (2017). Resistance of hypervirulent *Klebsiella pneumoniae* to both intracellular and extracellular killing of neutrophils. PLoS One, 12(3), e0173638.
- [35] Brisse, S., Fevre, C., Passet, V., Issenhuth-Jeanjean, S., Tournebize, R., Diancourt, L., and Grimont, P. (2009). Virulent clones of Klebsiella pneumoniae: identification and evolutionary scenario based on genomic and phenotypic characterization. PloS one, 4(3), e4982.
- [36] Wu, K. M., Li, L. H., Yan, J. J., Tsao, N., Liao, T. L., Tsai, H. C., et al. (2009). Genome sequencing and comparative analysis of *Klebsiella pneumoniae* NTUH-K2044, a strain causing liver abscess and meningitis. Journal of Bacteriology, 191(14), 4492-4501.

- [37] Fung, C. P., Chang, F. Y., Lee, S. C., Hu, B. S., Kuo, B. I., Liu, C. Y., et al. (2002). A global emerging disease of *Klebsiella pneumoniae* liver abscess: is serotype K1 an important factor for complicated endophthalmitis?. Gut, 50(3), 420-424.
- [38] Cheng, H. Y., Chen, Y. S., Wu, C. Y., Chang, H. Y., Lai, Y. C., and Peng, H. L. (2010). RmpA regulation of capsular polysaccharide biosynthesis in *Klebsiella pneumoniae* CG43. Journal of Bacteriology, 192(12), 3144-3158.
- [39] Monem Mohammed, K. A., Abdalla Ali Elhag, S., Tag Elser Sed Ahmed, S., Taher Gorish, B. M., Osman Noorelhuda Mohammed, S., Ismail Yahia Abdelmula, W., ... and H Ali, A. (2022). Molecular Detection of Virulence genes (rmpA2, iuc & iroB) of Hypervirulent *Klebsiella pneumoniae* in Clinical Isolates from Patients in Khartoum State, Sudan. Asian Journal of Research in Infectious Diseases, 9(4), 23-31.
- [40] Russo, T. A., Shon, A. S., Beanan, J. M., Olson, R., MacDonald, U., Pomakov, A. O., and Visitacion, M. P. (2011). Hypervirulent K. pneumoniae secretes more and more active iron-acquisition molecules than "classical" K. pneumoniae thereby enhancing its virulence. PLoS One, 6(10), e26734.
- [41] Li, J., Ren, J., Wang, W., Wang, G., Gu, G., Wu, X., et al. (2018). Risk factors and clinical outcomes of hypervirulent *Klebsiella pneumoniae* induced bloodstream infections. European Journal of Clinical Microbiology & Infectious Diseases, 37, 679-689.
- [42] Liu, Y. M., Li, B. B., Zhang, Y. Y., Zhang, W., Shen, H., Li, H., and Cao, B. (2014). Clinical and molecular characteristics of emerging hypervirulent *Klebsiella pneumoniae* bloodstream infections in mainland China. Antimicrobial agents and chemotherapy, 58(9), 5379-5385.

الكشف الجزيئى والمظهري لانتاج Siderophores للكليبسيلا الرئويه عالية الضراوة

عبد الباسط محمد جاسم'، كيربن زيلسترا'، ثامر يوسف مطر'

لا قسم علوم الحياة، كلية العلوم، جامعة الانبار، الانبار، العراق مسم الكيمياء الحيوية والاحياء المجهرية، كلية العلوم، جامعة روتكرز، الولايات المتحده الامريكية

الخلاصة:

بكتريا الكليبسيلا الرئوية هي مُمْرِض منتشر بشكل كبير بين عدوى المستشفيات ومسبب لكثير من الالتهابات بين الناس الاصحاء، بما في ذلك التهابات المسالك البولية (UTIs) والالتهاب الرئوي والتهابات الجروح والتهابات مجرى الدم. تم الحصول على ١٠٠ عزلة من مصادر مختلفة منها الادرار والحروق والبلغم والدم والجروح. تم تشخيص جميع العزلات على أنها Klebsiella pneumoniae باستخدام الاختبارات المظهرية والاختبارات البايوكيميائية وتم تأكيد التشخيص باستخدام 2-VITEK تم إجراء اختبار الحساسية للمضادات الحيوية باستخدام طريقة الانتشار بالاقراص باستخدام ثلاثة عشر مضاد حيوي. استخدم اختبار test لتقييم اللزوجة في العزلات وتم تقدير إنتاج Siderophores بواسطة عدة طرق منها CAS agar والطرق اللونية. تم الكشف عن اثنين من الجينات بواسطة تفاعل البوليميراز المتسلسل (PCR) . كما تم دراسة العلاقة بين هذه الجينات واللزوجة العالية من جهة ، ومن جهة أخرى تم دراسة العلاقة بين هذه الجينات واللزوجة العالية من جهة ، ومن جهة أخرى تم دراسة العلاقة بين هذه الجينات والنازوجة العالية من جهة ، ومن جهة أخرى تم دراسة العلاقة بين هذه الجينات والنوبية العالية من جهة ، ومن جهة أخرى تم دراسة العلاقة بين هذه الجينات والنوبية العالية من جهة ، ومن جهة أخرى تا دراسة العلاقة بين هذه الجينات والنوبية العالية من جهة ، ومن جهة أخرى تا دراسة العلاقة بين هذه الجينات والنوبية العالية من جهة ، ومن جهة أخرى تا دراسة العلاقة بين هذه الجينات والنوبية العالية من جهة ، ومن جهة أخرى تا دراسة العلية من جهة ، ومن جهة أخرى تا دراسة العلية من جهة المينات والنوبية العلية من جهة ، ومن جهة أخرى تا دراسة العلية من جهة الحينات والنوبية العلية من جهة ، ومن جهة أخرى تا دراسة العلية من جهة الحينات والنوبية العلية من جهة العربية و العربي

أظهرت النتائج أن ٥١٪ من العز لات كانت موجبة لاختبار Stirng و ٤٩٪ كانت سلبية لهذا الاختبار.

وأظهرت النتائج أن إنتاج Siderophores تراوح ما بين (Siderophores). كما أظهرت نتائج الدراسة الجزيئية أن ٢٣٪ من العزلات احتوت على جين ١٧٥٪ احتوت على ١٢٥٨. بينت النتائج وجودارتباط كبير بين الجينين وانتاج الغشاء المخاطي. وكذلك فان انتاج Siderophores كان مرتبطًا بشكل كبير بامتلاك أحد الجينات أو كليهما بأكثر من (60 psu) من إنتاج عوامل الحديد.

الكلمات المفتاحية: عالية الضراوة، الكلبسيلا ، الجزيئي ، المظهري ، السايديروفور .