

Detection of Drug Resistant *Klebsiella Pneumoniae* from Various Clinical Samples in Tertiary Care Hospital, Central India: In Context with β -Lactamase Enzymes (ESBL, Ampc, MBL and Carbapenemase)

Dr. Sonali Waske^{1*}, Dr. Yogyata Marothi²¹Assistant Professor Microbiology R. D. Gardi Medical College Surasa, Ujjain, Madhya Pradesh India²Professor and Head Microbiology R. D. Gardi Medical College Surasa, Ujjain Madhya Pradesh IndiaDOI: [10.36347/sjams.2019.v07i10.005](https://doi.org/10.36347/sjams.2019.v07i10.005)

| Received: 29.09.2019 | Accepted: 07.10.2019 | Published: 17.10.2019

*Corresponding author: Dr. Sonali Waske

Abstract

Original Research Article

Multi drug resistant (MDR) and extensive drug resistant (XDR) *Klebsiella pneumoniae* infection is very common and causes high morbidity and mortality in community acquired as well as hospital acquired infection. Here, we present a study to detect MDR, XDR and pan drug resistant and characterize extended spectrum β -lactamase, AmpC β -lactamase, metallo β -lactamase and carbapenemase producing *K. pneumoniae* isolates from different human clinical samples. A total 124 *K. pneumoniae* isolated from various clinical samples. Antimicrobial susceptibility of *K. pneumoniae* isolates was performed by Kirby-Bauer disk diffusion. The resistant isolates were tested for ESBL, AmpC, MBL and Carbapenemase production by their respective phenotypic confirmatory test. Distribution of MDR, XDR and PDR detected according to antimicrobial resistance pattern as per guideline. Total 124 *K.pneumoniae* isolated from various clinical samples, Isolates were maximum resistant to Ceftazidime 81% and least resistant to Imipenem 15%. 45% of *K. pneumoniae* was MDR, 30% were XDR and no isolate was PDR. ESBL production was seen in 48.3%, AmpC in 6%, MBL in 3.2% and Carbapenemase in 11% of isolates. The study indicates that inadvertent uses of antibiotics promote the emergence, persistence, and dissemination of resistant isolates in the community as well as hospital environment. Periodic review of antibiotic policy is necessary for rationalized use of antibiotics.

Keywords: Multi Drug resistance, extensive drug resistance, Pan Drug resistance, *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, ESBL, Amp C, MBL and Carbapenemase.

Copyright © 2019: This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution license which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium for non-commercial use (NonCommercial, or CC-BY-NC) provided the original author and source are credited.

INTRODUCTION

Multidrug resistance is emerging worldwide at an alarming rate among a variety of bacterial species, including *K.pneumoniae*. Resistance determinants in *K.pneumoniae* are typically encoded on the chromosome, plasmids and many other mechanisms [1]. In 2013, the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) released a landmark report on “Antibiotic Resistance Threats 2”. Three microorganisms were tagged as posing a threat level of urgent – *Clostridium difficile*, carbapenem-resistant Enterobacteriaceae (CRE) and drug-resistant *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* [2]. CRE, which include organisms such as *Klebsiella pneumoniae* and *Escherichia coli*, are resistant to almost all currently available antibiotics [2]. Multi-drug resistance is also reported by the production of varying type of enzymes e.g. extended spectrum of β -lactamase, AmpC β -lactamase, metallo- β -lactamase and carbapenemase [3]. With the increase in occurrence and types of these multiple β -lactamase enzymes, early

detection is crucial, the benefits of which include implementation of proper antibiotic therapy and infection control policy.

Extensive use of broad-spectrum antibiotics in hospitalized patients has led to increased carriage of *Klebsiella* and development of multidrug-resistant strains, extensive drug resistance and pan drug – resistant to various antimicrobial agents [4]. Pan drug-resistance implies non-susceptibility to all commercially available antibiotics relevant to the treatment of a particular bacterial infection. These strains are also isolated among nosocomial infections, particularly those in the intensive care unit (ICU).

Knowledge of antibiotic-susceptibility pattern of *K.pneumoniae* will be helpful so that hospital patients can be treated with more narrow- spectrum and target- specific antibiotics [5].

So, the present study was designed to investigate the presence of antimicrobial resistance of *K.pneumoniae* in our geographical area and the occurrence of different classes of β -lactamase enzymes in clinical isolates of *K.pneumoniae*.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

A total of 124 consecutive, nonrepetitive isolates of *K. pneumoniae* isolated from different clinical samples like urine, blood, sputum, pus and body fluids (CSF, Pleural fluid) etc. between Feb2015- July 2016. Samples were included in the study from Dept. of Microbiology, Ruxmaniben Deepchand Gardi Medical College (R.D.G.M.C.) and Chandrikabahan Ruxmaniben Gardi, Hospital (CRGH), Ujjain (M.P.). Samples were inoculated on appropriate culture media including blood agar and MacConkey agar as soon as received in laboratory and incubated for 18-24 hrs at 35-37°C under aerobic condition, by using standard laboratory methods [3,6]. All the clinical isolates were identified by using standard guidelines [3, 7]. All isolates were stored at 4 °C in 0.2% semisolid agars until used. Antibiotic susceptibility testing was performed according to CLSI recommended Kirby-Bauer disk diffusion method [7]. The following antibiotics were tested for *K. pneumoniae*: Piperacillin (100 μ g), Amoxicillin-clavulanate (20/10 μ g), Piperacillin-tazobactam (100/10 μ g), Amikacin (30 μ g), Gentamicin (10 μ g), Tobramycin (10 μ g), Cefuroxime (30 μ g), Cefepime

(30 μ g), Cefoxitin (30 μ g), Cefotaxime (30 μ g), Ceftazidime (30 μ g), Cefuroxime (30 μ g), Ciprofloxacin (5 μ g), Norfloxacin (10 μ g), Levofloxacin (5 μ g), Nitrofurantoin (300 μ g), Aztreonam (30 μ g), Tetracycline (30 μ g), Cotrimoxazole (1.25/ 23.75 μ g), Imipenem (10 μ g), Meropenem (10 μ g) and Ertapenem (10 μ g). The zone diameters were interpreted as per CLSI recommendations [7]. *E.coli* ATCC 25922 strain was used for quality control.

Isolates that were resistant to third generation cephalosporins (3GC) were tested for ESBL production by combined disk diffusion method [7].

Detection of extended spectrum β -lactamase (ESBL) Figure 1

The screening for ESBL production was done as per recommended method [7]. Isolates showing zone of inhibition ≥ 22 mm for Ceftazidime, ≥ 27 mm for Cefotaxime and ≥ 27 mm for Aztreonam were suspicious for ESBL production and isolates were tested by a phenotypic confirmatory test combined disc diffusion method. Discs of Ceftazidime (30 μ g) alone and Ceftazidime-clavulanic acid (30 μ g/10 μ g) are placed 20 mm apart from centre to centre on the agar plate. An increase of ≥ 5 mm in zone of inhibition with use of combination disc indicates the presence of ESBL [7]. *Klebsiella pneumoniae* ATCC 700603 serve as quality control.

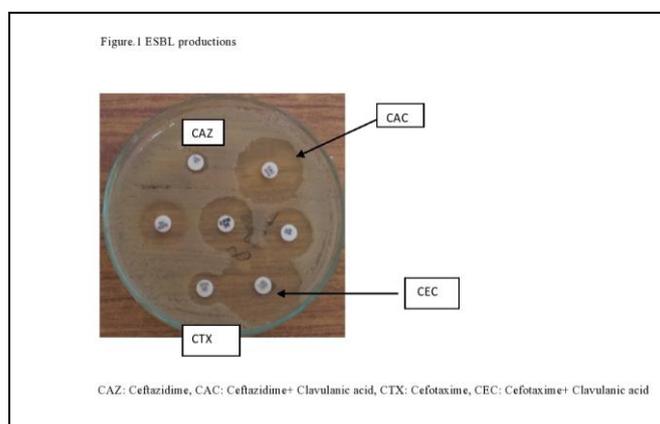


Fig-1

Detection of AmpC β -lactamase (Fig 2)

All the isolates that were screened for AmpC β -lactamase by Kirby-Bauer's disk diffusion method using cefoxitin (30 μ g) disk. Zone of inhibition ≤ 18 mm for cefoxitin was suspicious for AmpC production and is an indication for the organism to be tested by a phenotypic confirmatory test. [8,9,10]. Broth suspension of a cefoxitin susceptible *E.coli* ATCC 25922 indicator strain was adjusted to 0.5 McFarland's standard and plated on Muller Hinton agar plate by using of sterile cotton swab. After drying, cefoxitin

(30 μ g) disc was placed at the centre of the plate and the test strains shown screening test positive streaked from the edge of the disc to the periphery of the plate. The plate was incubated overnight or 18-24 hours at 37°C. The presence of a "diagonal" growth or 3mm or more in 'cloverleaf shaped' of zone of inhibition toward the test organism streak due to AmpC production by test strain was considered as positive. A negative Hodge test shows no diagonal growth into the cefoxitin zone [8, 9, 10].

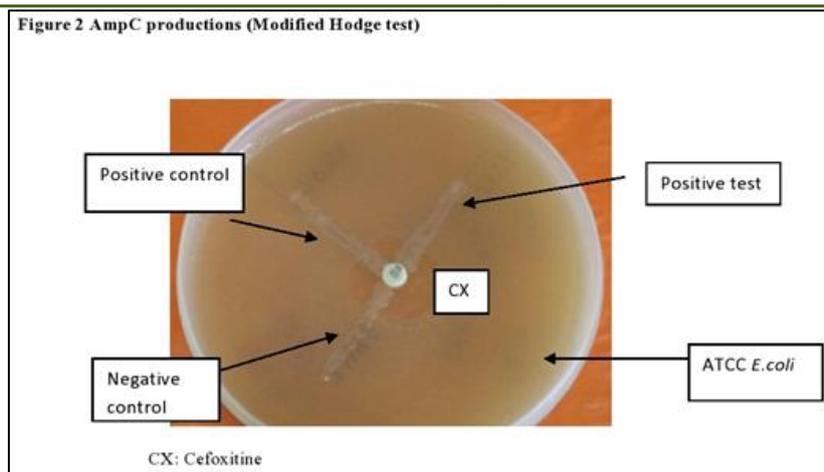


Fig-2

Detection of Metallo- β -lactamase (Fig 3)

Isolates that were resistant to carbapenemase (Imipenem, Ertapenam, Meropenam) and third generation cephalosporins (3GC) were considered screening positive. It is an indication for the organism to be tested by a phenotypic confirmatory test by Combined disc test (Zone enhancement with EDTA-imipenem disc) [7]. Test organisms were inoculated onto plates of MHA. An Imipenem (10 μ g) disc and

another Imipenem-EDTA disc were kept on the surface of the agar plate at the distance of 20 mm from centre to centre. The inhibition zones of Imipenem, and Imipenem-EDTA were compared after 16-18 hours of incubation in air at 35⁰C-37⁰C. Inhibition zone of Imipenem-EDTA disc is \geq 7mm than the Imipenem disc alone, the strain is considered to be the MBL producer. [3, 7, 11].

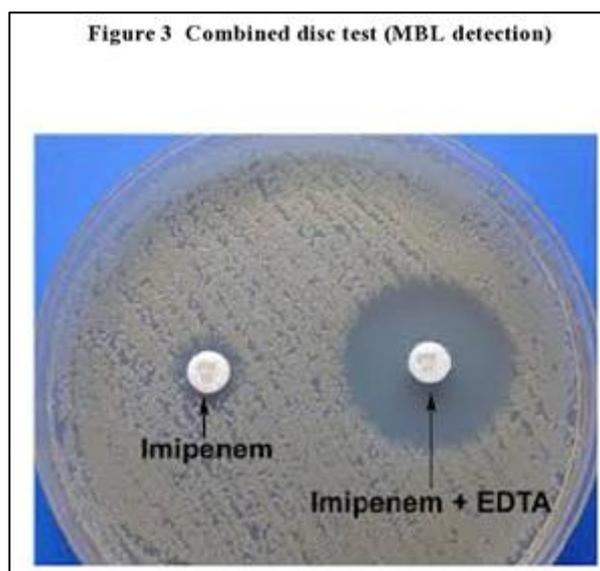


Fig-3

Detection of Carbapenemase (Fig 4)

Isolates were resistant to carbapenemase (Imipenem, Ertapenam, Meropenam) and third generation cephalosporins (3GC) were considered screening positive. The organism is tested by a phenotypic confirmatory test by Modified Hodge test. [7] Culture suspension of *E. coli* ATCC 25922 adjusted to 0.5 McFarland standards and diluted 1:10 in saline or broth was inoculated using a sterile cotton swab on the surface of MHA. After drying for 3- 10 minutes, 10 μ g Imipenem disc was placed at the centre of the plate.

Using of sterile loop, picked 3-5 colonies of the test strain was inoculated in a straight line out from the edge of the disc to the periphery of the plate. The streak was at least 20-25 mm in length. The plate was incubated at 37⁰C for 18-20 hours. The presence of a 'cloverleaf shaped' zone of inhibition due to carbapenemase production by test strain was considered as positive. *K. pneumoniae* ATCC BAA- 1705—MHT positive and *K. pneumoniae* ATCC BAA- 1706—MHT negative serve as controls [7].

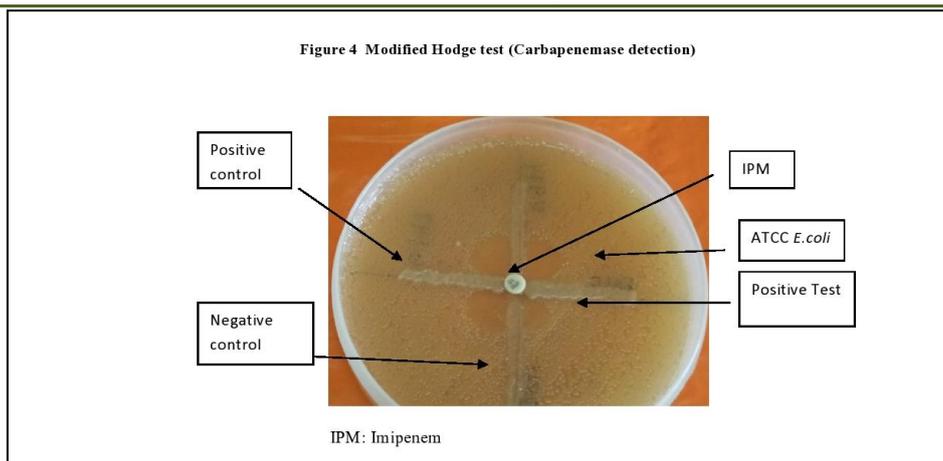


Fig-4

RESULTS

A total of 124 *K.pneumoniae* were isolated from various clinical samples, among them male were 59% and female were 41%, as shown in Table 1. Thirty percent of *K.pneumoniae* were isolated from Surgery department followed by Pulmonary medicine 20% as shown in figure 5. Majority of *K.pneumoniae* isolates were in the age group of 0-10 years (18.5%) followed by 51-60 years of age group (17%) (Table 1). Isolates

shown low level resistance to Imipenem 15.5%, Meropenem 27%, Ertapenem 27% with high level resistance pattern for Ceftazidime 81%, Cefotaxime 73.4 % and Amoxicillin-clavulanate 72.6 % (Figure 6). Urinary isolates were resistance to Norfloxacin 41% and Nitrofurantoin 37%. Distribution of MDR, XDR, PDR and ESBL, AmpC, MBL and carbapenemase, as shown in table 2 and 3 respectively.

Table-1: Age and sex wise distribution of study subjects (n=124)

Age group(yrs)	No. of patients%	Male%	Female%
0-10	23(18.5)	15(12)	8(6.4)
11-20	9(7.2)	4(3.2)	5(4)
21-30	19(15.3)	2(1.6)	17(14)
31-40	19(15.3)	10(8)	9(7.2)
41-50	16(13)	11(8.9)	5(4)
51-60	21(17)	17(14)	4(3.2)
>60	17(14)	13(10.4)	4(3.2)
Total	124 (100%)	73(59)	51(41)

Table-2: MDR, XDR and PDR in *Klebsiella pneumoniae* isolates (n=124)

Antimicrobial category*	Number of Resistant	Percentages of Resistant
MDR	56	45.2
XDR	37	30
PDR	00	00

*β-lactams (Penicillin/Cephalosproin), carbapenems, Aminoglycosides, fluoroquinolones +Monobactams+ Cotrimoxazole +Tetracycline

MDR: ¹² Non-susceptible to ≥1 agent in >3 antimicrobial categories

XDR: ¹² Non susceptible to ≥1 agent in all but <2 antimicrobial categories

PDR: ¹² Non-susceptible to all antimicrobial agents

Table-3: *Klebsiella pneumoniae* strains producing ESBL, AmpC, MBL and Carbapenemase enzymes (n=124)

Enzymes	Percentages(%) of Strains
ESBL	48.3
AmpC	6
MBL	3.2
Carbapenemase	11

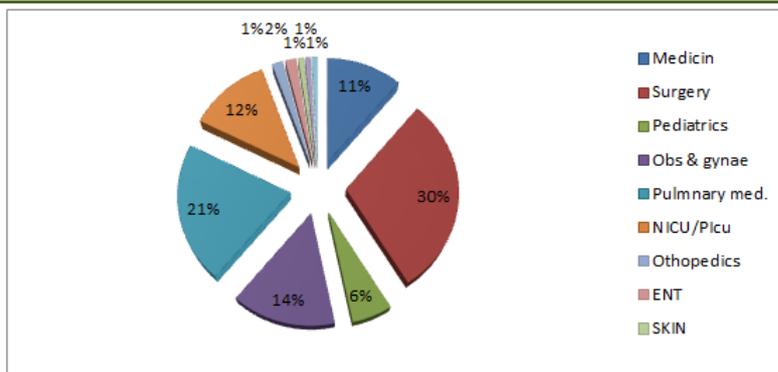


Fig-5: Percentage of *Klebsiella pneumoniae* Isolates obtained from various departments (n=124)

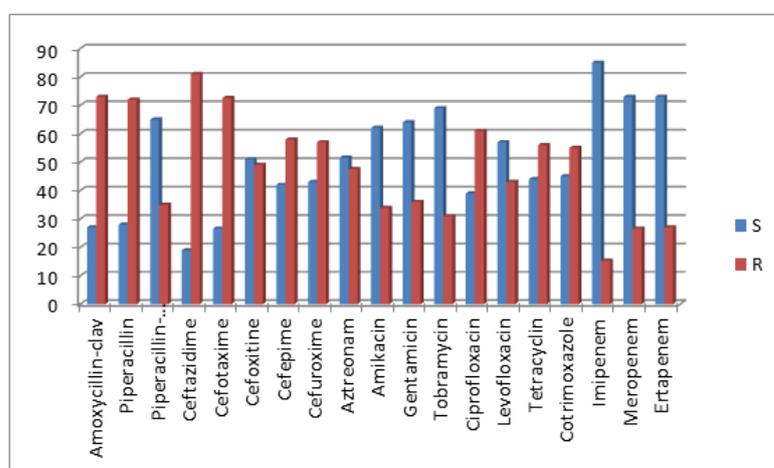


Fig-6: Antibigram of *Klebsiella pneumoniae* In Percentages (n=124)

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

In present study, majority of the strains were isolated from the patients of 0-10 year age group 18.5%, among them male were 12% and female were 6.4%. This is in contrast to a study conducted by Namratha KG *et al.* that reported highest strains from above 60 years group (male 28.57% & female 32.43%)[13]. In our study maximum isolates were obtained from Surgery 29.8%. Most of the strains were from the in-patients 88.7%, majority from males 60% compared to females 41.1%. This observation is in accordance with study from MGM hospital Mumbai (males 75% and females 53.05%) [14]. *K.pneumoniae* were isolated maximum from urine sample 40%, similar observation is reported from North India 41.5% [15]. But in work conducted from MGM hospital Mumbai, the highest rate of isolates were from ET-secretion 40% [14]. *K. pneumoniae* from urine in our study might be due to the large number of urine samples received in the laboratory during the study period.

K. pneumoniae displays wide and variable spectrum of antibiotic resistance. In this study, high resistance was seen to Amoxicillin-clavulanic acid 72.6% and comparatively lower resistance to Aztreonam and Piperacillin-tazobactams 47.6% and 34.7% respectively. A study from Karnataka reported

higher resistance to Aztreonam 83% and Piperacillin/tazobactam 67% [13]. In present study, resistance to third generation cephalosporin was 72.6%; with Ceftazidime and Cefotaxime showing 81% and 73.4% resistance respectively. It correlates with the study by Sasirekha *et al.* where 84% and 85% resistance to Ceftazidime and Cefotaxime respectively seen [16]. Another study by Archana Singh Sikarwar *et al.* reported variable range of resistance pattern to cephalosporins 28% to 76% [4]. This indicates that the frequent use of third generation cephalosporin and production of extended spectrum β - lactamase and Amp C β - lactamase may be accounting for widespread resistance. Although, resistance to aminoglycoside remains lower in our setup (Amikacin 33.9% and gentamicin 35.5% resistance). Much lower resistance was reported from Tamil Nadu (Amikacin 13.9, gentamicin 19.3%) [17]. In our study, resistance to Ciprofloxacin was 60.5%. This finding is in accordance with Study conducted by Gupta *et al.* 63% but studies by Rakesh Kumar and Ali *et al.* reported much higher percentages of resistance i.e. 88.8% and 76.9% respectively [18,19,20]. Looking into the resistance pattern, judicious use of antibiotic is advocated to circumvent the problems being faced by centres in larger cities as above.

Resistance to carbapenem was comparatively less in our study. Resistance to Imipenem was 15% whereas resistance to Ertapenem and Meropenem were 27%. Much less resistance to Meropenem 6.9% and Imipenem 4.3% was reported from Delhi study [21]. But a study conducted in tertiary care centre south India, reported higher resistance to Meropenem 43.6%, Imipenem 32% and Ertapenem 20.3% [22]. Study conducted by AIIMS showed a very high carbapenem resistance rate 69% [23]. In all studies, slightly more resistant to Meropenem might be due to its frequent use in the treatment of infections caused by multidrug resistant bacteria in ICU and high risk wards [24, 25].

Alarming increase in the emergence of MDR isolates among *K. pneumoniae* is a major problem. In our study, 45 % strains were MDR, 30% strains were XDR and PDR were not seen in any isolate. Our findings correlated well with study by Silpi Basak *et al.* they reported MDR 30% and XDR 27.8% [26]. In contrast, a study conducted from MGM hospital Mumbai, 67% strains were MDR [14]. A study conducted in Tertiary-Care Hospital in Beijing, China reported the proportion of MDR and XDR were 12.5%, 62.5% respectively, XDR strains were higher in Beijing than our study [27].

The increased incidence of drug resistant strains observed in our study may be because our hospital is a tertiary care center and patients from adjoining villages are admitted for treatment. Before attending the hospital, most of the patients get different antibiotics from general practitioners or due to over-the-counter sale of antibiotics often in improper dose.

The commonest mechanism of β -lactam antibiotic resistance in Gram negative bacteria is predominantly due to the production of β -lactamase that cleaves the structural β -lactam ring. In our study the ESBL production was 48.3%, higher number of ESBL production was detected from Surgery department 21%. Amp C production was 6% whereas MBL and Carbapenemase production was 3.2 % and 11% respectively. Maximum number of carbapenemase production was seen from NICU/PICU 6%. A study yielded ESBL 44.93% from Karnataka [28]. Another study by Singh *et al.* reported ESBL 35.32% and MBL 4.34% [29]. In a study from South India none of the isolates were found to produce MBL [22], Study by Anusuiya, AmpC was 5%, which correlates, with our study [30]. Contrast result reported by Varsha Gupta *et al.* for AmpC was 32% [18], which was higher than our study.

The emergence of drug resistant *K.pneumoniae* is a major threat to global health. MDR and XDR producing *K. pneumoniae* results higher morbidity and mortality and is due to various mechanisms. One of the most important drug resistance mechanisms is β -lactamase production; ESBL, MBL, Amp C and

carbapenemase. B-lactamase can spread inside hospitals as well as outside in the community setting. Currently, few treatment options remain active against organisms that produce KPC and have resulted in the increased use of combination therapy. Until new effective drugs or combination of drugs are found, detection, prevention, and containment are the keys to curtailing the spread of this dangerous antimicrobial resistance.

REFERENCES

1. De Jesus MB, Ehlers MM, Dos Santos RF, Kock MM. Understanding β -lactamase producing *Klebsiella pneumoniae*. *Antimicrobial Resistance: An Open Challenge*. 2015 Nov 26:51.
2. Centres for Disease Control and Prevention (US). Antibiotic resistance threats in the United States, 2013. Centres for Disease Control and Prevention, US Department of Health and Human Services; 2013.
3. Koneman EW, Allen S, Janda W, Schreckenberger P, Winn WC. *Color Atlas and Text book of Diagnostic Microbiology*, 6th edn. New York: Lippincott. 2006.
4. Sikarwar AS, Batra HV. Prevalence of antimicrobial drug resistance of *Klebsiella pneumoniae* in India. *International Journal of Bioscience, Biochemistry and Bioinformatics*. 2011 Sep 1;1(3):211.
5. Cryz SJ, Furer E, Germanier R. Protection against fatal *Klebsiella pneumoniae* burn wound sepsis by passive transfer of anticapsular polysaccharide. *Infection and immunity*. 1984 Jul 1;45(1):139-42.
6. Collee JG, Fraser AG, Marmion BP, Simmons AM. McCartney. *Practical Medical Microbiology*. Churchill Livingstone. Chapter. 1996;4:62-6.
7. PACLSI W. Performance standards for antimicrobial susceptibility testing; twenty-fifth informational supplements. CLSI document M100-S25. Clinical and laboratory standards institute. 2015.
8. Manchanda V, Singh NP. Occurrence and detection of AmpC β -lactamases among gram-negative clinical isolates using a modified three-dimensional test at Guru Tegh Bahadur hospital, Delhi, India. *J Antimicrob Chemother* 2003;51:415-8
9. Black JA, Moland ES, Thomson KS. AmpC disk test for detection of plasmid-mediated AmpC β -lactamases in Enterobacteriaceae lacking chromosomal AmpC β -lactamases. *Journal of clinical microbiology*. 2005 Jul 1;43(7):3110-3.
10. Yong D, Park R, Yum JH, Lee K, Choi EC, Chong Y. Further modification of the Hodge test to screen AmpC β -lactamase (CMY-1)-producing strains of *Escherichia coli* and *Klebsiella pneumoniae*. *Journal of microbiological methods*. 2002 Nov 1;51(3):407-10.
11. Sweta B. Prajapati, Sanjay J. Mehta, Kunjan M. Kikani, Pratima J. Joshi. Original article Evaluation of various methods for detection of metallo- β -

- lactamase (MBL) production in gram negative bacilli. Int J Biol Med Res. 2011; 2(3): 775
12. Magiorakos AP, Srinivasan A, Carey RB, Carmeli Y, Falagas ME, Giske CG, Harbarth S, Hindler JF, Kahlmeter G, Olsson-Liljequist B, Paterson DL. Multidrug-resistant, extensively drug-resistant and pandrug-resistant bacteria: an international expert proposal for interim standard definitions for acquired resistance. Clinical microbiology and infection. 2012 Mar;18(3):268-81.
 13. Namratha KG, Sreeshma P, Subbannayya K, Dinesh PV, Champa H. Characterization and antibiogram of *Klebsiella* spp. isolated from clinical specimen in a rural teaching hospital. Sch. J. App. Med. Sci. 2015;3(2E):878-83.
 14. B.L.Chaudhary^{1*}, Shailja Srivastava¹, Brij Nandan Singh² and Snehanshu Shukla Original Research Article „Nosocomial Infection due to Multidrug Resistant (MDR) *Escherichia coli* and *Klebsiella pneumoniae* Intensive Care Unit, Int. J. Curr. Microbiol. App. Sci. 2014; 3(8): 630-635
 15. Sarojamma V, Ramakrishna V. Prevalence of ESBL-producing *Klebsiella pneumoniae* isolates in tertiary care hospital. ISRN microbiology. 2011 Dec 1;2011.
 16. Sasirekha B, Manasa R, Ramya P, Sneha R. Frequency and antimicrobial sensitivity pattern of extended spectrum β -lactamases producing *E. coli* and *Klebsiella pneumoniae* isolated in a tertiary care hospital. Al Ameen J Med Sci. 2010;3(4):265-71.
 17. Prakash D, Saxena RS. Distribution and antimicrobial susceptibility pattern of bacterial pathogens causing urinary tract infection in urban community of Meerut City, India. ISRN microbiology. 2013 Oct 29; 2013.
 18. Gupta V, Kumarasamy K, Gulati N, Garg R, Krishnan P, Chander J. AmpC β -lactamases in nosocomial isolates of *Klebsiella pneumoniae* from India. The Indian journal of medical research. 2012 Aug;136(2):237.
 19. Asati Rakesh Kumar Antimicrobial sensitivity pattern of *Klebsiella pneumoniae* isolated from pus from tertiary care hospital and issues related to the rational selection of antimicrobials. Journal of Chemical and Pharmaceutical Research. 2013, 5(11):326-331
 20. Ali Abdel Rahim KA, Ali Mohamed AM. Prevalence of extended spectrum β -lactamase-producing *Klebsiella pneumoniae* in clinical isolates. Jundishapur Journal of Microbiology. 2014; 7(11): e17114.
 21. Gupta E, Mohanty S, Sood S, Dhawan B, Das BK, Kapil A. Emerging resistance to carbapenems in a tertiary care hospital in north India. Indian Journal of Medical Research. 2006 Jul 1;124(1):95.
 22. Parveen RM, Harish BN, Parija SC. Emerging carbapenem resistance among nosocomial isolates of *Klebsiella pneumoniae* in South India. International journal of pharma and bio sciences. 2010;1(2).
 23. Mate PH, Devi KS, Devi KM, Damrolien S, Devi NL, Devi PP. Prevalence of carbapenem resistance among Gram-negative bacteria in a tertiary care hospital in north-east India. IOSR J Dent Med Sci. 2014;13(12):56-60.
 24. Rahal JJ, Urban C, Horn D, Freeman K, Segal-Maurer S, Maurer J, Mariano N, Marks S, Burns JM, Dominick D, Lim M. Class restriction of cephalosporin use to control total cephalosporin resistance in nosocomial *Klebsiella*. Jama. 1998 Oct 14;280(14):1233-7.
 25. Meyer KS, Urban C, Eagan JA, Berger BJ, Rahal JJ. Nosocomial outbreak of *Klebsiella* infection resistant to late-generation cephalosporins. Annals of internal medicine. 1993 Sep 1;119(5):353-8.
 26. Basak S, Singh P, Rajurkar M. Multidrug resistant and extensively drug resistant bacteria: A study. Journal of pathogens. 2016;2016.
 27. Li B, Yi Y, Wang Q, Woo PC, Tan L, Jing H, Gao GF, Liu CH. Analysis of drug resistance determinants in *Klebsiella pneumoniae* isolates from a tertiary-care hospital in Beijing, China. PLoS one. 2012 Jul 31; 7(7):e42280.
 28. Kotekani L, Kotigadde S. Virulence determinant and extended spectrum beta-lactamase production in *Klebsiella pneumoniae* isolated from a tertiary care hospital, South India. Journal of laboratory physicians. 2018 Apr; 10(2):155.
 29. Malvika Singh, Barnali Kakati*, R.K.Agarwal and Aarti Kotwal Detection of *Klebsiella pneumoniae* carbapenemases (KPCs) among ESBL / MBL producing clinical isolates of *Klebsiella pneumoniae*. Int.J.Curr. Microbiol. App. Sci, 2015; 4(4): 726-731
 30. Devaraju AD, Ramachander R. Occurrence of various beta-lactamase enzyme-producing Enterobacteriaceae in the hospital effluent: A wake-up call. Int J Med Sci Public Health. 2016;5(6):1204-8.