ORIGINAL ARTICLE



Molecular epidemiology of virulence and antimicrobial resistance determinants in *Klebsiella pneumoniae* from hospitalised patients in Kilimanjaro, Tanzania

Tolbert Sonda^{1,2} • Happiness Kumburu^{1,2} • Marco van Zwetselaar¹ • Michael Alifrangis³ • Blandina T. Mmbaga^{1,2} • Ole Lund⁴ • Gibson S. Kibiki^{2,5} • Frank M. Aarestrup⁶

Received: 21 May 2018 / Accepted: 9 July 2018 / Published online: 20 July 2018 © Springer-Verlag GmbH Germany, part of Springer Nature 2018

Abstract

This study aimed to use whole-genome sequencing to determine virulence and antimicrobial resistance genes in *K. pneumoniae* isolated from patients in a tertiary care hospital in Kilimanjaro. *K. pneumoniae* isolates from patients attending Kilimanjaro Christian Medical Centre between August 2013 and August 2015 were fully genome-sequenced and analysed locally. Sequence analysis was done for identification of virulence and AMR genes. Plasmid and multi-locus sequence typing and capsular or capsular (K) typing were performed and phylogeny was done to ascertain *K. pneumoniae* relatedness. Stata 13 (College Station, TX, 77845, USA) was used to determine Cohen's kappa coefficient of agreement between the phenotypically tested and sequence-predicted resistance. A total of 16 (47.1%) sequence types (STs) and 10 (29.4%) K types were identified in 30 (88.2%) and 17 (50.0%) of all analysed isolates, respectively. *K. pneumoniae* ST17 were 6 (17.6%). The commonest determinants were *bla*_{CTX-M-15} in 16 (47.1%) isolates, *bla*_{SHV} in 30 (88.2%), *bla*_{OXA-1} in 8 (23.5%) and *bla*_{TEM-1} in 18 (52.9%) isolates. (100%). Ceftazidime and ceftriaxone showed the strongest agreement between phenotype- and sequence-based resistance results: 93.8%, kappa = 0.87 and *p* = 0.0002. Yersiniabactin determinant was detected in 12 (35.3%) of *K. pneumoniae*. The proportion of AMR and virulence determinants detected in *K. pneumoniae* is alarming. WGS-based diagnostic approach has showed promising potentials in clinical microbiology, hospital outbreak source tracing virulence and AMR detection at KCMC.

Keywords K. pneumoniae · Whole-genome sequencing · Virulence · Antimicrobial resistance · Tanzania

Electronic supplementary material The online version of this article (https://doi.org/10.1007/s10096-018-3324-5) contains supplementary material, which is available to authorized users.

Tolbert Sonda t.sonda@kcri.ac.tz

> Happiness Kumburu h.kumburu@kcri.ac.tz

Marco van Zwetselaar zwets@kcri.ac.tz

Michael Alifrangis micali@sund.ku.dk

Blandina T. Mmbaga b.mmbaga@kcri.ac.tz

Ole Lund lund@cbs.dtu.dk

Gibson S. Kibiki g.kibiki@gmail.com Frank M. Aarestrup fmaa@food.dtu.dk

- ¹ Kilimanjaro Clinical Research Institute, Kilimanjaro Christian Medical Centre, Moshi, Tanzania
- ² Kilimanjaro Christian Medical University College, Moshi, Tanzania
- ³ Centre for Medical Parasitology, Department of Immunology and Microbiology, Copenhagen University Hospital, Copenhagen, Denmark
- ⁴ Centre for Biological Sequence Analysis, Technical University of Denmark, Lyngby, Denmark
- ⁵ East African Health Research Commission, Bujumbura, Burundi
- ⁶ DTU-Food, Centre for Genomic Epidemiology, Technical University of Denmark, Lyngby, Denmark

Introduction

Klebsiella pneumoniae is a major cause of hospital acquired infections including pneumonia, bloodstream and new-borns infection [1–4]. Treating infections caused by K. pneumoniae and other Enterobacteriaceae has been challenging worldwide due to emergence and rapid spread of resistant strains [5-9]. Initiatives towards monitoring of AMR should nonetheless go hand-to-hand with identification strategies of hypervirulent K. pneumoniae (hvKP) strains. Because roles played by virulence factors (VFs) in hvKP like versiniabactin [10], colibactin [11], aerobactin and salmochelin [12] in enhancing severity of infections and increase their survival is significant. The global dissemination of hvKP clones [13–15] do pose a serious public health threat, thus underscoring a necessity to characterise VFs in K. pneumoniae. Treatment failures and possibly many deaths could now be attributed to K. pneumoniae infections [16-18]. Reports have generally described that treating bacterial infections in low- and middle-income countries (LMICs) is adding more burden on the already disease-burdened communities [19-21] both psychosocially and economically. In some countries, it is believed that even carbapenems will no longer treat more than a half of K. pneumoniae infections [22]. Having a bacterial infection will soon mean death if measures against irrational prescription and misuse of antibiotics are not taken seriously [23-25]. Antibiotics have been over prescribed and over-consumed especially in LMICs [26, 27]. These practices have been implicated to be fuelling up drug resistance selection pressure [28, 29].

In LMICs like Tanzania, lack of efficient clinical laboratory diagnostic systems is one of the factors often leading to empirical treatment. We previously reported the huge potential for whole-genome sequencing (WGS) to improve clinical diagnostics and infection control at a tertiary hospital in Tanzania where clinical laboratories lack access to molecular-based methodologies for regular typing of bacterial isolates [30, 31]. In this report, we used WGS to determine molecular relatedness, antimicrobial resistance genes, virulence genes and plasmids diversity in *K. pneumoniae* isolates from patients at KCMC, which is a tertiary care hospital in Kilimanjaro, Tanzania.

Materials and methods

Study design, participants and specimen collection

A hospital-based prospective cross-sectional study was conducted at KCMC hospital from 2013 to 2015. Part of the study's methods has been described in details by Kumburu et al. [32]. Geographically, KCMC is located in Moshi municipality in Kilimanjaro and it is one of the biggest referral hospitals in Tanzania. It serves as a zonal referral hospital for a catchment area of around 15 million people. The hospital has a bed capacity of 650 with approximately 500 outpatients seeking medical services daily. This study was granted ethical approval by the KCMUCo Research Ethics Committee and the National Institute for Medical Research in Tanzania. A written informed consent was obtained from each participant or from parents or guardians of children before enrolment into the study. A convenient sampling method was used to recruit the study participants. It included participants suspected to have bacterial infection and admitted in medical and surgical wards. Specimens collected for bacterial culture included sputum, wound or pus swab and stool samples. Bacteria culture, isolation and identification were performed following in-house standard operating procedures as well as the Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI) guidelines. Sequentially, all K. pneumoniae isolates recovered over the study period were included for wholegenome sequencing and analysis. Over a 2-year period, 590 samples were collected without apriori knowledge of the infecting agent. A total of 377 bacterial strains were isolated, and whole genome sequenced. A number of isolates from this collection were randomly selected for antimicrobial susceptibility testing. A total of 34 K. pneumoniae collected sequentially were included in this study; amongst which, 16 K. pneumoniae isolates had phenotype-based antimicrobial susceptibility results.

Genomic DNA isolation, whole genome sequencing and analysis

For all K. pneumoniae isolates, genomic DNA (gDNA) was purified and its concentration was determined using the Easy-DNA Extraction Kit (Invitrogen®) and the Qubit dsDNA Assay Kit (Invitrogen®), respectively. The gDNA library preparation was performed following Nextera® XT DNA Sample Preparation Guide [33]. In brief, each gDNA was tagmented (tagged and fragmented) by the Nextera® XT transposome. The transposome simultaneously fragments the input DNA and adds adapter sequences to the fragment ends. Then, a limited-cycle PCR amplification followed, whereby indexes required for cluster formation were added to each DNA piece. Then, each gDNA library was normalised to ensure equal representation during sequencing. Equal volumes of the normalised library were combined, diluted in hybridization buffer and heat denatured prior to sequencing on the Illumina MiSeq platform (Illumina Inc.). The sequencer output was analysed using the standard WGS pipeline at KCRI, which is based on local implementations of the bioinformatics services available at https://cge.cbs.dtu.dk/services/. Quality control of the reads was performed using FastQC 0.11.4 [34]. De novo assembly

was performed with SPAdes 3.11.1 [35], and quality assessed using QUAST 4.5 [36]. For this article's purpose, the analyses included resistance gene identification using ResFinder 2.1 [37], multi-locus sequence typing (MLST) determination using MLST 1.8 [38], plasmid and plasmid MLST determination using PlasmidFinder 1.3 and pMLST 1.4 [39] and virulence gene determination using VirulenceFinder 1.4 [40]. Phylogeny reconstruction was done using CSI Phylogeny [41] (reference NTUH-K2044). The 34 assembled K. pneumoniae genomes of the present study have been submitted to the European Nucleotide Archive (ENA) with project accession number PRJEB26616. Stata 13 (College Station, TX, 77845, USA) was used to determine Cohen's kappa coefficient of agreement between the phenotype- and whole-genome sequence-based antimicrobial resistance results.

Results

Study participants and Klebsiella isolates

A total of 34 *K. pneumoniae* isolates were recovered: 9 (26.5%) in 2013, 17 (50.0%) in 2014 and 8 (23.5%) in 2015. Out of 34 *K. pneumoniae*, 25 (73.5%) isolates were from wound or pus swabs, 5 (14.7%) from sputum, 3 (8.8%) from stool and 1 (2.9%) from throat swab. Sixteen (47.1%) of *K. pneumoniae* were isolated from surgical wards, 3 (8.8%) from surgical ICU, 12 (35.3%) were isolated from patients admitted in medical wards, 1 (2.9%) from medical ICU and 2 (5.9%) were isolated from outpatients. A total of 11 (32.4%) *K. pneumoniae* were isolated from participants with infected wounds. The proportion of *K. pneumoniae* from participants with cough was 6 (17.6%), burn 6 (17.6%), wounds 6 (17.6%) and diabetes 6 (17.6%) (Table 1).

ID	Age (years)	Gender	Wards	Comorbidity	Specimen	Collection date
16	38	Male	Surgical ICU	Infected wound	Swab	2013
17	81	Female	Surgical	Infected wound	Swab	2013
29	44	Male	Surgical ICU	Infected wound	Swab	2013
38	41	Male	Surgical	Infected wound	Swab	2013
41	31	Male	Medical	Diabetes	Stool	2013
50	52	Female	Surgical	Burn wound	Swab	2013
51	53	Female	Surgical	Diabetes	Swab	2013
74	6	Male	Surgical	Burn wound	Swab	2013
79	74	Male	Surgical	Bedsore	Swab	2013
109	42	Female	Medical	Cough	Sputum	2014
110	54	Male	Medical	Diarrhoea	Stool	2014
131	53	Male	Surgical	Infected wound	Swab	2014
134	30	Male	Medical	Burn wound	Swab	2014
150	82	Male	Medical	Cellulitis	Stool	2015
152	70	Male	Medical	Bedsore	Swab	2014
198	70	Male	Surgical	Diabetes	Swab	2014
201	49	Male	Medical	Cough	Sputum	2014
248	56	Male	Medical	Infected wound	Swab	2014
284	54	Male	Medical ICU	Diabetes	Swab	2014
293	66	Female	Surgical	Diabetes	Swab	2014
302	80	Female	Medical	Cough	Sputum	2014
315	54	Female	Medical	Infected wound	Swab	2014
320	55	Female	Surgical	Burn wound	Swab	2014
343	23	Male	Surgical	Infected wound	Swab	2014
350	24	Female	Surgical	Burn wound	Swab	2014
365	47	Male	Surgical ICU	Tumour	Swab	2014
404	59	Male	Medical	Cough	Sputum	2015
566	71	Male	Surgical	Diabetes	Swab	2015
567	28	Male	Surgical	Infected wound	Swab	2015
576	36	Male	Surgical	Infected wound	Swab	2015
585	11	Female	Surgical	Burn wound	swab	2015
591	33	Female	Medical	Infected wound	Swab	2015
ADE ^a	40	Female	Other	Cough	Throat swab	2014
KLEB ^a	37	Female	Other	Cough	Sputum	2015
^a Outpatient	s					

 Table 1
 Characteristics of participants from which K.

 pneumoniae
 were isolated

MLST and capsular (K) typing

A total of 16 (47.1%) STs were identified in 30 (88.2%) of the analysed isolates whilst the remaining isolates could not be typed (unknown STs, 4 (11.8%)). A total of 6 (17.6%) were K. pneumoniae ST17, of which 4 were recovered from patients in surgical and 2 in medical wards. A total of 4 (10.8%) were K. pneumoniae ST392, of which 2 were recovered from patients in medical and 2 in surgical wards. Three (8.8%) were K. pneumoniae ST348 and all were recovered from patients in surgical wards. K. pneumoniae ST15, ST25, ST299 and ST1562 each was observed in 2 (5.4%) of the isolates (Table 2). A total of 10 (29.4%) different K types were identified including K2, K7, K10, K19, K23, K28, K34, K41, K60 and K80 whilst isolates with unknown K types were 17 (50.0%). All 4 K. pneumoniae ST392 were of unknown K types, whereas 5 out of 6 K. pneumoniae ST17 were unknown K types (Table 2).

Beta-lactam-resistance determinants

All isolates were carrying at least one beta-lactamresistance determinant. The commonest detected determinants were $bla_{\rm CTX-M-15}$ in 16 (47.1%) isolates, $bla_{\rm SHV}$ in 30 (88.2%), $bla_{\rm OXA-1}$ in 8 (23.5%) and $bla_{\rm TEM-1}$ in 18 (52.9%) isolates. A variable population of $bla_{\rm SHV}$ genes was found, whereby $bla_{\rm SHV-11}$ was found in 15 (44.1%) and $bla_{\rm SHV-1}$ in 7 (20.6%) isolates. Other infrequently $bla_{\rm SHV-61}$, $bla_{\rm SHV-83}$, $bla_{\rm SHV-99}$ and $bla_{\rm SHV-12}$, $bla_{\rm SHV-28}$, $bla_{\rm SHV-61}$, $bla_{\rm SHV-83}$, $bla_{\rm SHV-99}$ and $bla_{\rm SHV-133}$. At least three beta-lactam- resistance genes were found in 15 (44.1%) isolates. Carriages of four beta-lactam-resistance genes, namely $bla_{\rm CTX-M-15}$, $bla_{\rm SHV-11}$, $bla_{\rm OXA-1}$ and $bla_{\rm TEM-1B}$, were frequently observed in *K. pneumoniae* ST392 isolates (Table 2).

Aminoglycoside, fluoroquinolone and quinolone determinants

Almost all isolates were carrying at least one resistance determinant for aminoglycosides in 21 (61.8%) isolates, fluoroquinolones in 13 (38.2%) and quinolones 34 (100%). Fluoroquinolones gene, aac(6')Ib-cr, was identified in 13 (38.2%) isolates. Determinants for aminoglycoside resistance included aph(3'')-Ib and aph(6)-Id in 16 (47.1%) and 17 (50.0%) isolates, respectively. Other infrequent determinants for aminoglycosides were aac(3)-IIa, aac(3)-IId, aph(3')-Ia, aadA16, aadA1, aadA5, aadA24 and aadB (Table 3). The quinolone resistance determinants identified were oqxAB in all 34 (100%) and qnrB in 11 (32.4%) isolates. The variants

for qnrB gene included qnrB1, qnrB6, qnrB49 and qnrB66.

Fosfomycin, macrolide and phenicol

The determinants *FosA* and *mph(A)* for fosfomycin and macrolide resistance were identified in 34 (100%) and 4 (11.8%) isolates, respectively. Several gene families for phenicol resistance were detected: *catA2* in 10 (29.4%), *catA1* in 2 (5.9%), *catB4* in 8 (10.8%) and *cmlA1* in 2 (5.9%) isolates.

Rifampicin, sulphonamide tetracycline and trimethoprim

Seven (20.6%) isolates were carrying *arr-3*, a rifampicin resistance gene. Sulphonamide resistance determinants, *sul1* and *sul2*, were detected in 12 (35.3%) and in 22 (64.7%) isolates, respectively. Two tetracycline resistance genes detected were *tet(A)* in 7 (20.6%) and *tet(D)* in 4 (11.8%) isolates. Trimethoprim resistance genes were identified in 23 (67.6%) isolates. A total of 11 (32.4%) isolates were carrying *dfrA14* and 5 (13.5%) carrying *dfrA27*. Other infrequently observed trimethoprim resistance genes detected included *dfrA(1/5/7/15/17/25/30)* and *dfrG* (Table 3).

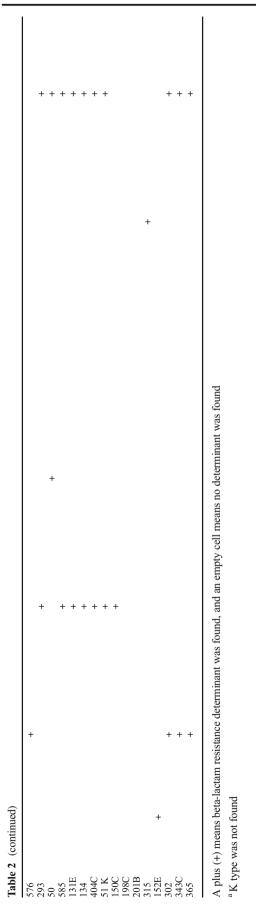
Comparison of phenotype- and whole-genome sequence-based antimicrobial resistance

Agreement between phenotype- and whole-genome sequence-based antimicrobial resistance was done for 16 out of 34 K. pneumoniae isolates (Table 4). On average, agreement across all antibiotics tested was 77.4%. Overall, the phenotypically determined resistance was higher than the wholegenome sequence-based resistance. Nevertheless, all antibiotics but ampicillin showed substantial (61-80%) or strong agreement (81-100%) between phenotype- and sequencebased resistance results. Ampicillin showed moderate agreement: 56.3%, kappa = 0.13 and p = 0.1508. The sequencebased analysis predicted that resistance to ampicillin was in 19 (55.9%) isolates, whereas phenotypic testing revealed 15 (93.8%) of isolates to be resistant. Ceftazidime and ceftriaxone showed the strongest agreement: 93.8%, kappa = 0.87 and p = 0.0002. Sequence-based analysis predicted resistance to both ceftazidime and ceftriaxone in 16 (47.1%) of isolates, whereas 6 (37.5%) of isolates were resistant phenotypically.

Virulence determinants in K. pneumoniae

Further, we analysed virulence determinants in all *K*. *pneumoniae* strains. Yersiniabactin was detected in a significant proportion, in 12 (35.3%) of isolates out of which, all (n=3) *K. pneumoniae* ST348 were carrying yersiniabactin

		I		
	$bla_{ m OXY-5-1}$		bla _{TEM-1B}	++ ++ + +++
	bla _{OXY-2-8}		66-VH2	
	bla _{OXY-1-1}			
	$bla_{\rm OXA-1}$	++ + + ++++	bla _{SHV-83}	+ +
	$bla_{\rm LEN2}$	+	-12	
	$bla_{\rm LEN16}$	+ +	bla _{SHV-12}	
	$bla_{\rm LEN12}$	+	711	
oneumoniae	bla _{CTX-M-55}	+	bla _{SHV-11}	++++ + ++ +
Beta-lactam-resistance determinants in K. pneumoniae	bla _{CTX-M-15}	+++ ++ +++ +++++ ++++++++++++++++++++++	bla _{SHV-1}	+ + +
m-resistanc	K type ^a	K66 K66 K67 K77 K71 K71 K71 K71 K71 K71 K71 K71 K7	bla _{LEN2}	
Beta-lacta	MLST	ST 15 ST 15 ST 17 ST 17	bla	
Table 2	Ð	248 591DK 17 17 199B 199B 1009B 1009B 1009B 1009B 1009B 1000 1009B 10005 10000	Ð	248 591DK 17 17 284D 286A 566A 1009B 11005 335 350 3350 3350 3350 3350 367B 16 79C 567B



genes. The ferric uptake operon system (*kfuABC*) was found in 10 (29.4%) of isolates. Different from the rest, isolate 315 (*K. pneumoniae* ST2042) was carrying genes coding for aerobactin, salmochelin and yersiniabactin but lacked the ferric uptake operon system (Table 5).

Plasmid multi-locus sequence typing

Plasmid analysis revealed a high diversity of incompatibility groups (Inc) or plasmid replicons (Table 6). The most frequent replicon was IncFIB(K) that was found in 30 (88.2%) K. pneumoniae isolates. Other IncFI members included IncFIB(pKPHS1), IncFIA(HI1), IncFIB(pECLA) and IncFIB(pENTAS01). Another prevalent replicon IncR was identified in 18 (52.9%) of K. pneumoniae isolates. The IncFII was another frequently detected replicons. In this group, IncFII(K) was found in 14 (41.2%), and IncFII in 7 (20.6%). Others were IncFII(pCRY), IncFII(pECLA) and IncFII(Y). Plasmid replicons that were infrequently identified include IncHI1B, IncHI2, IncHI2A and IncN3. A high diversity of plasmid multi-locus sequence types (pMLSTs) was identified (Table 6). IncF[F-:A16:B-] was detected in 5 (14.7%) of K. pneumoniae isolates, IncF[F-:A-:B10 detected in 4 (11.8%) of K. pneumoniae isolates and 9 (26.5%) and 5 (14.7%) of K. pneumoniae isolates had unknown pMLSTs belonging to IncF[Unknown ST] and IncHI1[Unknown ST], respectively. Other pMLSTs identified are shown in Table 6.

Phylogenetic analysis

For epidemiological tracking of nosocomial infections, SNP difference was calculated to show how closely or distantly related the isolates are. The observed minimum and maximum number of SNP difference between K. pneumoniae isolates were 57 and 42,893, respectively (Supplemental Table 1). The minimum SNP difference was observed between isolates 134 and 131E (both ST392), showing a possibility of nosocomial infections. The maximum SNP difference was observed between K. pneumoniae isolates ADE ST37 and 16 ST231, showing that it is unlikely these isolates closely related. The tree topology showed two isolates (79C ST 297 and 302 with undetermined ST) segregating very distinctly from others. The heatmap showed clear patterns of high beta-lactam, aminoglycoside and quinolone resistance gene proportions spreading almost universally across all isolates. Furthermore, an apparent pattern was observed indicating an inverse correlation between versiniabactin genes across the isolates (Fig. 1).

Discussion

The present study used whole-genome sequence-based approach in characterising clinical *K. pneumoniae* isolated from

Table 3	Antibiotic	resistance de	Antibiotic resistance determinants other than beta-lactamas	e genes i	se genes in K. pneumoniae						
D	MLST	K type ^a	AMG	FS	MC	Hd	FQ	RI	SU	TE	TMP
248	ST15	K60	aph(3")-Ib aac(3)-IIa	fosA	ere(A)	catB4 cmlA1	aac(6')-Ib-cr oqxA oqxB	ARR-3	sul1 sul2	tet(A)	dfrA14
591DK	ST15	K60	aph(3")-Ib aph(6)-Id aph(3")-Ib aph(6)-Id	fosA		catB4	aac(6')-Ib-cr oqxA oqxB		sul2		dfrA14
17	ST17	NF	aac(3)-IIa aph(3")-Ib anh(6)_IA aadA16	fosA		catA2	aac(6')-Ib-cr oqxA oqxB qmB6	ARR-3	sull sul2		dfr:A27
284D	ST17	NF	arunnn nr-laludn	fosA			oqxA oqxB		sul2	tet(D)	
29	ST17	NF	aac(3)-IIa aadA16	fosA		catA2	aac(6')-Ib-cr oqxA oqxB qmB6	ARR-3	sull sul2		dfr:A27
320	ST17	NF	apn(0)-14 apn(5)-10 aac(3)-11d	fosA		catA2	oqxA oqxB		sul2		dfrA30
41	ST17	NF	ant(2")-Ia aadAI	fosA		catAI	$oqxA \ oqxB$		Sull	tet(A)	dfrAI
566A	ST17	K23		fosA			$oqxA \ oqxB$				
109B	ST20	K28		fosA			$oqxA \ oqxB$				dfrG
110LF	ST25	K2	aph(6)-Id strA	fosA		catAI	$oqxA \ oqxB$		sull sul2	tet(D)	dfrA15
38	ST25	K2	$aph(3")-Ib \ aac(3)-IIa$	fosA		catA2	oqxA oqxB qnrB2		sull sul2	tet(D)	dfr:A25
350	ST29	K19	apn(0)-1a aac(3)-IIa aph(3")-Ib aph(6)-Id	fosA		catB4	qnrB1 aac(6')-Ib-cr oqxA oqxB		sul2	tet(A)	dfrA14
ADE	ST37	NF		fosA			$oqxA \ oqxB$				
74	ST152	K41		fosA			$oqxA \ oqxB$				
KLEB	ST193	NF	aac(3)-IId	fosA		catA2	$oqxA \ oqxB$		sull sul2		dfrA7 dfrA30
16	ST231	NF	aph(3')-Ia aph(3")-Ib	fosA		catB4 catA2	aac(6')-Ib-cr oqxA oqxB qnrSI		sul2		dfrA14
79C	ST297	K10	apn(0)-1a aac(3)-11d	fosA		catA2	oqxA oqxB		sul2		dfr:A30
567B	ST299	К7		fosA			$oqxA \ oqxB$				
576	ST299	К7		fosA			$oqxA \ oqxB$				
293	ST348	NF	aph(3')-Ia aph(3")-Ib anh(6)_Id	fosA	mph(A)		oqxA oqxB		sul2		dfrA14
50	ST348	K23	apn(0)-14 aadA16 aph(3')-1a anh(3'')-1b, anh(6)-1d	fosA	mph(A)		aac(6')-Ib-cr qnrB1 oqxA oqxB	ARR-3	sull sul2		dfrA14 dfrA27
585	ST348	K23	aac(3)-IIa aadA1 aph(3')-Ia aac(3)-IIa aadA1 aph(3')-Ia anh(3'')-Ih anh(6)-Id	fosA	ere(A) mph(A)	catA2 cmlA1	qmrB1 oqxA oqxB	ARR-3	sull sul2		dfrA14
131E	ST392	NF	aph(6)-Id aph(3")-Ib	fosA		catB4	aac(6')-Ib-cr oqxA oqxB		sul2		dfrA14
134	ST392	NF	aac(3)-IIa aph(6)-Id aph(3")-Ib	fosA		catB4	aac(6')-Ib-cr oqxA oqxB qmrB1		sul2	tet(A)	dfrA14
404C	ST392	NF	aac(3)-IIa aph(3")-Ib aph(6)-Id	fosA		catB4	aac(6')-Ib-cr oqxA oqxB qmrBI		sul2	tet(A)	dfrA14
51 K	ST392	NF	aac(3)-IIa aph(3")-Ib aph(6)-Id	fosA		catB4	aac(6')-Ib-cr oqxA oqxB qnrB1		sul2	tet(A)	dfrA14
150C	ST491	K80		fosA			oqxA oqxB				
198C	ST1562	NF		fosA			oqxA oqxB				
201B	ST1562	NF		fosA			oqxA oqxB				
315	ST2042	NF		fosA			$oqxA \ oqxB$				

D	MLST	MLST K type ^a AMG	AMG	FS MC	MC	Ηd	FQ	RI	SU	TE TMP	TMP
152E	NF	NF		fosA			oqxA oqxB				
302	NF	K19		fosA			$oqxA \ oqxB$		Sull	tet(D) d	dfrA5
343C	NF	K34	aph(6)-Id aac(3)-IId aadA5	fosA	mph(A)	catA2	qmrB6 oqxA oqxB aac(6')-Ib-cr	ARR-3	sull sul2		dfrA17 dfrA27
365	NF	K34	aadA16 aph(6)-Id aph(3")-Ib aadA16 aph(6)-Id aph(3")-Ib	fosA		catA2	aac(6)-1b-cr oqxA oqxB qnrB6 ARR-3 sul1 sul2	ARR-3	sul1 sul2		dfrA27
<i>AMG</i> an ^a K type	<i>AMG</i> aminoglycoside, <i>i</i> ^a K type was not found	le, <i>FQ</i> fluoroo nd	quinolone and quinolone, FS fosfoi	mycin, M(C macrolide, <i>P</i> .	H phenicol, RI rif.	AMG aminoglycoside, FQ fluoroquinolone and quinolone, FS fosfomycin, MC macrolide, PH phenicol, RI rifampicin, SU sulphonamide, TE tetracycline, TMP trimethoprim ^a K type was not found	cline, TMP	trimethoprim	_	

Table 3 (continued)

hospitalised patients at KCMC hospital in Moshi, Tanzania. All isolates were analysed to determine (1) K. pneumoniae subtypes and molecular relatedness for establishing existence of nosocomial transmissions or outbreaks, (2) virulence and antibiotic resistance determinants and (3) types of plasmids. The present study reveals high diversity of K. pneumoniae in the hospital. The observed K. pneumoniae diversity is plausibly attributed to the fact that specimens were collected from a diverse population as this is a consultant hospital that is serving the northern, eastern and central zones of Tanzania. Nonetheless through MLST, the majority of K. pneumoniae that were clonally related were actually isolates from patients admitted to the same wards. For instance, K. pneumoniae ST17 with number 17, 29 and 320 were from surgical wards. Also, instance K. pneumoniae ST17 with number 41 and 284 were from medical wards. Although few numbers of strains were identified within distinct ST groups (clusters), this may be an indication of nosocomial transmissions or outbreaks within the hospital. Similar to the present report, polyclonal existence of K. pneumoniae with predominance of K. pneumoniae ST17 in hospital settings was reported in the Netherlands by Souverein et al. [42]. Identification of K. pneumoniae clones particularly ST17 and ST348 within surgical wards in the present study compares with the findings in Norway [43] and Mwanza, Tanzania [6]. In both reports, it was shown that K. pneumoniae ST17 and ST348 strains were the likely causes of neonatal sepsis and outbreaks in neonatal ICU. Given the superiority of WGS over classical approaches in microbial identification, typing and tracing of outbreak sources [44–46], the possibility that there were sporadic nosocomial transmissions of K. pneumoniae in this hospital becomes highly likely.

Our data further suggests that K. pneumoniae circulating in the hospital are carrying high proportions of antimicrobial resistance determinants. These findings are in line with findings of study done in Kenya on K. pneumoniae isolates from stool [47]. This study identifies multiple carriages of resistance determinants including those for beta-lactams: bla_{SHV}, $bla_{\text{CTX-M-15}}$ and $bla_{\text{TEM-1}}$. Despite the fact that we noted $bla_{\rm SHV}$ being the most prevalent determinant, Tellevik et al. [48] and Mshana et al. [6] had earlier reported $bla_{CTX-M-15}$ as the most prevalent determinant in Dar es Salaam and Mwanza, respectively. On average, a strong agreement was observed between phenotype- and sequence-based resistance to all antibiotics tested, findings that are consistent with the previous report on *E. coli* that was conducted in the same settings [49]. Nonetheless, ampicillin revealed the lowest but moderate agreement between the two methods. The phenotypically determined resistance to ampicillin was higher than sequencebased resistance. Plausibly, the observed difference could be due to the fact that WGS analysis uses only known resistance genes and it is also true that not all genes involved in resistance mechanisms have been included in these databases.

 Table 4
 Agreement between

 phenotypically tested and wholegenome sequence-predicted
 antimicrobial resistance

 Table 5
 Virulence factors in K.

pneumoniae

Antibiotic name	DST ^a	WGS ^b	Agreement	Kappa	P value
Amoxicillin-clavulanate	7 (43.8%)	7 (20.6%)	75.0%	0.46	0.0147
Ampicillin	15 (93.8%)	19 (55.9%)	56.3%	0.13	0.1508
Ceftazidime	6 (37.5%)	16 (47.1%)	93.8%	0.87	0.0002
Ceftriaxone	6 (37.5%)	16 (47.1%)	93.8%	0.87	0.0002
Chloramphenicol	5 (31.2%)	2 (5.9%)	62.5%	-0.12	0.7569
Ciprofloxacin	5 (31.2%)	12 (35.3%)	87.5%	0.71	0.0023
Gentamycin	3 (18.8%)	9 (26.5%)	87.5%	0.59	0.0092
Trimethoprim aulphamethoxazole	9 (56.2%)	10 (29.4%)	62.5%	0.30	0.0451

^a Phenotype-based resistance detection on 16 isolates

^b Whole-genome sequence-based resistance detection on all 34 isolates

Aerobactin

Colibactin

The observed multiple carriage of beta-lactam- resistance determinants in this study, particularly amongst K. *pneumoniae* ST17 and ST392 isolates, might substantially be a reason for their persistence in this hospital as also noted elsewhere [6]. Apart from being prevalent in this study, K. *pneumoniae* ST392 appeared to carry multi-resistance

ID

MLST

Κ

type^a

determinants. Findings are similar to those reported in a hospital-based study at an Italian hospital [50], which showed that *K. pneumoniae* ST392 strain might become very aggressive. Although we could not identify a single resistance gene for carbapenem in the present study's isolates, *K. pneumoniae* ST15 and ST348 have been reported in Portugal to be the

+

Yersiniabactin

Salmochelin

kfuABC

++

++

+

kvgAS

248	ST15	K60	+
591DK	ST15	K60	
17	ST17	NF	+
284D	ST17	NF	
29	ST17	NF	+
320	ST17	NF	+
41	ST17	NF	
566A	ST17	K23	
109B	ST20	K28	
110LF	ST25	K2	
38	ST25	K2	
350	ST29	K19	+
ADE	ST37	NF	
74	ST152	K41	
KLEB	ST193	NF	
16	ST231	NF	+
79C	ST297	K10	
567B	ST299	K7	+
576	ST299	K7	+
293	ST348	NF	+
50	ST348	K23	+
585	ST348	K23	+
131E	ST392	NF	
134	ST392	NF	
404C	ST392	NF	
51 K	ST392	NF	
150C	ST491	K80	
198C	ST1562	NF	

A plus (+) means a virulence determinant was found, and an empty cell means no determinant was found

^a K type was not found

ST1562

ST2042

NF

NF

NF

NF

NF

NF

NF

K19

K34

K34

+

201B

152E 302

343C

365

315

+

ID	MLST	K type ^a	Plasmids	pMLST
248	ST15	K60	Col440I ColpVC FIA(pBK30683) IncFIB(K) IncFII IncR	IncF[K9:A13:B-]
591DK	ST15	K60	Col440I FIA(pBK30683) IncFIB(K) IncFII IncR	IncF[K9:A13:B-]
17	ST17	NF	Col(MGD2) FIA(pBK30683) IncFIB(K) IncFII(K) IncR	IncF[K2:A13*:B-]
284D	ST17	NF	IncFIB(K) IncFII(K) IncR IncY	IncF[F-:A-:B18]
29	ST17	NF	Col(MGD2) FIA(pBK30683) IncFIB(K) IncFII(K) IncR	IncF[K2:A-:B58*]
320	ST17	NF	Col440I IncFIB(K) IncFII(K) IncR	IncF[F-:A16:B-]
41	ST17	NF	Col440I IncFIB(K) IncHI1B	IncF[Unknown ST] IncH11[Unknown ST]
566A	ST17	K23	IncFIB(K) IncFIB(pKPHS1) IncHI1B	IncF[Unknown ST] IncHI1[Unknown ST]
109B	ST20	K28	Col440I ColRNAI IncFIA(HI1) IncFIB(K) IncFII	IncF[K12:A10*:B-]
110LF	ST25	K2	Col440I IncFIB(K) IncHI1B	IncF[Unknown ST] IncHI1[Unknown ST]
38	ST25	K2	Col440I Col440II ColRNAI IncFIB(K) IncFIB(pECLA) IncFII(pECLA) IncHI1B	IncF[Unknown ST] IncHI1[Unknown ST]
350	ST29	K19	Col440I IncFIB(K) IncFII(K)	IncF[F-:A-:B10]
ADE	ST37	NF	Col440I IncFIB(K)	IncF[Unknown ST]
74	ST152	K41	ColRNAI IncFIB(K)	IncF[Unknown ST]
KLEB	ST193	NF	Col440I Col440II IncFIB(K) IncFII(K) IncR	IncF[F-:A-:B10]
16	ST231	NF	Col(MG828) Col440I ColpVC IncFIB(K) IncFIB(pKPHS1) IncFII(K) IncFII(pCRY) IncQ1 IncR	IncF[F-:A-:B5]
79C	ST297	K10	Col440I ColRNAI IncFII(K) IncR	IncF[K5:A-:B-]
567B	ST299	K7	IncFIB(K) IncFII IncR	IncF[F-:A16:B-]
576	ST299	K7	IncFIB(K) IncFII IncR	IncF[K12:A-:B-]
293	ST348	NF	IncFIB(K) IncFIB(pKPHS1) IncFII(K) IncQ1	IncF[F-:A-:B18]
50	ST348	K23	IncFIB(K) IncFII(K) IncQ1 IncR	IncF[K8:A-:B-]
585	ST348	K23	IncFIB(K) IncFII(K) IncQ1 IncR	IncF[F-:A16:B-]
131E	ST392	NF	Col440I IncFIB(K) IncFII(K)	IncF[F-:A16:B-]
134	ST392	NF	Col440I ColRNAI IncFIB(K) IncFII(K)	IncF[F-:A-:B10]
404C	ST392	NF	Col440I FIA(pBK30683) IncFIB(K) IncFIB(pKPHS1) IncR	IncF[F-:A13:B-]
51 K	ST392	NF	Col440I IncFIB(K) IncFIB(pKPHS1) IncFII(K)	IncF[F-:A16:B-]
150C	ST491	K80	ColRNAI IncFIB(K) IncR	IncF[Unknown ST]
198C	ST1562		Col440I IncFIB(K)	IncF[Unknown ST]
201B	ST1562		Col440I IncFIB(K)	IncF[Unknown ST]
315	ST2042		IncFIA(HI1) IncFIB(K) IncFII	IncF[K4*:A-:B10*]
152E	NF	NF		
302	NF	K19	Col440I IncFIB(K) IncFII IncHI1B IncR	IncF[F-:A-:B10] IncHI1 [Unknown ST]
343C	NF	K34	Col(MGD2) FIA(pBK30683) IncR	IncF[F-:A13:B-]
365	NF	K34	Col(MGD2) FIA(pBK30683) IncR	IncF[K12:A-:B-]

 Table 6
 Plasmid multi-locus sequence typing (pMLST) in K. pneumoniae

^aK type was not found

cause of KPC outbreaks [51]. The identification of this aggressive ST348 strain in this hospital should at least signal for the emergence and spread of MDR bacteria and that no sooner than later common infections caused by *K. pneumoniae* and other bacteria will become untreatable.

The co-carriage of aminoglycoside, fluoroquinolone and quinolone resistance determinants was very common in

almost all *K. pneumoniae*. The fluoroquinolone, aminoglycoside and quinolone resistance genes: aac(6')Ib-cr, oqxA and oqxB, appeared to be associated with the carriage of $bla_{CTX-M-15}$ and other beta-lactam- resistance determinants, findings that are consistent with a report [52] on *K. pneumoniae* strains from urban settings in Barcelona.

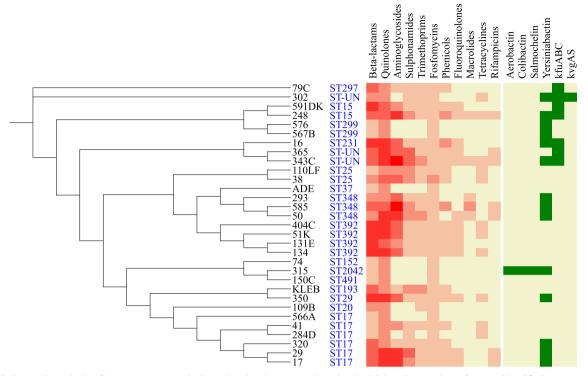


Fig. 1 Phylogenetic analysis of 31 *K. pneumoniae* isolates showing STs, resistance and virulence genes. The heatmap shows the frequency of AMR and virulence genes present in an isolate. The stronger the red

colour is, the higher the number of genes identified across antibiotic classes is. The green colour stands for isolates from which a virulence gene was present

The abundance and variability of resistance determinants to sulphonamides, tetracyclines, fluoroquinolones and trimethoprims was found to be high, findings that are in line with those by Taitt et al. [47]. In the current study, we further found a relatively higher proportion of *K. pneumoniae* carrying *arr-3* for rifampicin resistance than the proportion documented by Taitt et al. [47]. Uncontrolled and excessive use of first- and second-line antibiotics for both clinical and veterinary purposes is a plausible explanation to the emergence and spread of these determinants in Enterobacteriaceae [53].

We further observed a significant proportion of versiniabactin, colibactin, aerobactin and salmochelin in these K. pneumoniae strains. However, yersiniabactin was the most prevalent VF and it has been associated with K. pneumoniae infection rather than carriage, findings consistent with Holt et al. [54]. Based on the molecular characteristics proposed by Li et al. [55] for a hypervirulent K. pneumoniae, isolate 315 (K. pneumoniae ST2042) was the likely candidate. It was carrying genes coding for regulators of mucoid phenotype (*rmpA*), aerobactin (*iucABCD* and *iutA*), salmochelin (*iroBCDN*) and yersiniabactin (ybt, fyuA and irp1/2) but lacking the ferric uptake operon (kfuABC). Interestingly, we observe that this strain 315 (K. pneumoniae ST2042) with high virulence potential has low AMR. Apart from fosA and oqxAB, which it shares with all other isolates, its only beta-lactam gene is *bla*_{SHV-99}, which notably none of the

other isolates possess. This combination of high virulence and low AMR has been observed elsewhere [54, 56]. Amongst our isolates with many AMR genes, virulence determinants tend to be reduced.

Further analyses revealed that the most frequent plasmid replicon identified was IncF (I/II). Other replicons that were infrequently identified included IncHI1 and IncN3. The plasmids carried by *K. pneumoniae* appeared to be highly diverse. However, the IncFII plasmids seem to be common and correlated with the observed carriage of $bla_{CTX-M-15}$, similar to a Moroccan study [57] that identified IncFII plasmid as a carrier of $bla_{CTX-M-15}$ amongst *K. pneumoniae* ST466 strains. For instance *K. pneumoniae* ST15 appeared to carry plasmid ST IncF[K9:A13:B-], and *K. pneumoniae* ST17 was carrying plasmid ST IncF[K2*:A13:B-]. Plasmid ST IncF[K8:A-:B-] was identified in *K. pneumoniae* ST348 and ST231 and plasmid ST IncF[K7:A-:B-] was found in *K. pneumoniae* ST392 and ST29.

We acknowledge the presence of several limitations to this study. First, due to small numbers of isolates, the study lacked epidemiological analysis that might have shown correlation between AMR and virulence genes with patients' demographics (gender, age) and clinical characteristics including admission outcomes, antibiotics use, hospitalisation history and comorbidities. Second, phenotype-based resistance results were available for small numbers of bacterial isolates; this may have impacted on the agreement between phenotypeand sequence-predicted resistance results. Third, WGS analysis relied on resistance and virulence databases that at time of analysis might comprise of known genes and not all genes involved in resistance or virulence mechanisms have been documented or included in those databases. Further, the existence of genes encoding different resistance and virulence factors do not necessarily indicate gene activity in the isolates. There is therefore a need for future genomics studies to focus on quantifying expression levels of genes encoding different resistance and virulence factors.

Conclusions

In this study, the amount of antimicrobial resistance and virulence determinants detected in *K. pneumoniae* is alarming. Besides its application for research purposes, in resource-limited settings, WGS-based diagnostic approach has showed promising potentials in clinical microbiology, hospital outbreak source tracing, virulence and AMR detection. Having been implemented successfully in Kilimanjaro, WGS can be used as a surveillance tool for infectious agent and AMR detection nationwide. It has the potential of accelerating informed decisions in formulation of pragmatic antimicrobial stewardships, and other infection prevention and control initiatives.

Acknowledgements We thank the management of Kilimanjaro Christian Medical Centre and all patients who consented to participate in this study.

Authors' contributions TS conceived the initial idea; FA, OL, MA, BTM and GK refined the idea. TS and HK performed the laboratory analyses. TS and MZ analysed the data and prepared the manuscript draft. TS, HK, MZ, FA, OL, MA, BTM and GK read, revised and approved the final manuscript.

Funding This study was supported by DANIDA through Danida Fellowship Centre award number DFC no. 12-007DTU.

Compliance with ethical standards

Ethical approval and participant's consent This study was granted ethical approval by the KCMUCo Research Ethics Committee and the National Institute for Medical Research with approval numbers 893 and NIMR/HQ/R.8a/Vol.IX/2080, respectively. A written informed consent was obtained from each participant or from parents or guardians of children before enrolment into the study.

Consent for publication Not applicable.

Competing interests The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

Availability of Data and Materials Genome assemblies have been submitted to the European Nucleotide Archive with project accession number PRJEB26616. Other data are available on request to the authors.

References

- Christopher A, Mshana SE, Kidenya BR, Hokororo A, Morona D (2013) Bacteremia and resistant gram-negative pathogens among under-fives in Tanzania. Ital J Pediatr 39:1–8
- Onken A, Said AK, Jørstad M, Jenum PA, Blomberg B (2015) Prevalence and antimicrobial resistance of microbes causing bloodstream infections in unguja, Zanzibar. PLoS One 10:e0145632. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0145632
- Pourakbari B, Sadr A, Ashtiani MTH, Mamishi S, Dehghani M, Mahmoudi S et al (2012) Five-year evaluation of the antimicrobial susceptibility patterns of bacteria causing bloodstream infections in Iran. J Infect Dev Ctries 6:120–125
- Mpogoro FJ, Mshana SE, Mirambo MM, Kidenya BR, Gumodoka B, Imirzalioglu C (2014) Incidence and predictors of surgical site infections following caesarean sections at Bugando medical Centre, Mwanza, Tanzania. Antimicrob Resist Infect Control 3:25. https:// doi.org/10.1186/2047-2994-3-25
- Sonda T, Kumburu H, van Zwetselaar M, Alifrangis M, Lund O, Kibiki G et al (2016) Meta-analysis of proportion estimates of Extended-Spectrum-Beta-Lactamase-producing Enterobacteriaceae in East Africa hospitals. Antimicrob Resist Infect Control 5:1–9. https://doi.org/10.1186/s13756-016-0117-4
- Mshana SE, Hain T, Domann E, Lyamuya EF, Chakraborty T, Imirzalioglu C (2013) Predominance of Klebsiella pneumoniae ST14 carrying CTX-M-15 causing neonatal sepsis in Tanzania. BMC Infect Dis 13:466. https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2334-13-466
- Souli M, Galani I, Antoniadou A, Papadomichelakis E, Poulakou G, Panagea T et al (2010) An outbreak of infection due to βlactamase Klebsiella pneumoniae Carbapenemase 2–Producing K. Pneumoniae in a Greek University hospital: molecular characterization, epidemiology, and outcomes. Clin Infect Dis 50:364–373. https://doi.org/10.1086/649865
- Munoz-Price LS, Poirel L, Bonomo RA, Schwaber MJ, Daikos GL, Cormican M et al (2013) Clinical epidemiology of the global expansion of Klebsiella pneumoniae carbapenemases. Lancet Infect Dis 13:785–796. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1473-3099(13)70190-7
- Ahmed M, Moremi N, Mirambo MM, Hokororo A, Mushi MF, Seni J et al (2015) Multi-resistant gram negative enteric bacteria causing urinary tract infection among malnourished underfives admitted at a tertiary hospital, northwestern, Tanzania. Ital J Pediatr 41:44. https://doi.org/10.1186/s13052-015-0151-5
- Bachman MA, Oyler JE, Burns SH, Caza M, Lépine F, Dozois CM et al (2011) *Klebsiella pneumoniae* yersiniabactin promotes respiratory tract infection through evasion of lipocalin 2. Infect Immun 79:3309–3316. https://doi.org/10.1128/IAI.05114-11
- Lu M-C, Chen Y-T, Chiang M-K, Wang Y-C, Hsiao P-Y, Huang Y-J et al (2017) Colibactin contributes to the hypervirulence of pks+ K1 CC23 *Klebsiella pneumoniae* in Mouse Meningitis Infections. Front Cell Infect Microbiol 7:103. https://doi.org/10.3389/fcimb. 2017.00103
- Russo TA, Olson R, MacDonald U, Beanan J, Davidson BA (2015) Aerobactin, but not yersiniabactin, salmochelin, or enterobactin, enables the growth/survival of hypervirulent (hypermucoviscous) Klebsiella pneumoniae ex vivo and in vivo. Infect Immun 83:3325– 3333. https://doi.org/10.1128/IAI.00430-15
- Pomakova DK, Hsiao CB, Beanan JM, 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. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis 31:981–989. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10096-011-1396-6
- 14. Shon AS, Bajwa RPS, Russo TA (2013) Hypervirulent (hypermucoviscous) *Klebsiella pneumoniae*: A new and dangerous breed. Virulence 4:107–118. https://doi.org/10.4161/viru.22718

- Turton JF, Englender H, Gabriel SN, Turton SE, Kaufmann ME, Pitt TL (2007) Genetically similar isolates of *Klebsiella pneumoniae* serotype K1 causing liver abscesses in three continents. J Med Microbiol 56:593–597. https://doi.org/10.1099/jmm. 0.46964-0
- Melzer M, Petersen I (2007) Mortality following bacteraemic infection caused by extended spectrum beta-lactamase (ESBL) producing *E. coli* compared to non-ESBL producing *E. coli*. J Infect 55: 254–259. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jinf.2007.04.007
- Price DB, Honeybourne D, Little P, Mayon-White RT, Read RC, Thomas M et al (2004) Community-acquired pneumonia mortality: a potential link to antibiotic prescribing trends in general practice. Respir Med 98:17–24. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rmed.2003.08.011
- Blomberg B, Manji KP, Urassa WK, Tamim BS, Mwakagile DSM, Jureen R et al (2007) Antimicrobial resistance predicts death in Tanzanian children with bloodstream infections : a prospective cohort study. BMC Infect Dis 7:1–14. https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2334-7-43
- Marra AR, Pereira CAP, Castelo A, Do Carmo Filho JR, Cal RGR, Sader HS et al (2006) Health and economic outcomes of the detection of Klebsiella pneumoniae-produced extended-spectrum βlactamase (ESBL) in a hospital with high prevalence of this infection. Int J Infect Dis 10:56–60. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijid.2005. 04.002
- Hu B, Ye H, Xu Y, Ni Y, Hu Y, Yu Y et al (2010) Clinical and economic outcomes associated with community-acquired intra-abdominal infections caused by extended spectrum beta-lactamase (ESBL) producing bacteria in China. Curr Med Res Opin 26: 1443–1449. https://doi.org/10.1185/03007991003769068
- Esteve-Palau E, Solande G, Sánchez F, Sorlí L, Montero M, Güerri R et al (2015) Clinical and economic impact of urinary tract infections caused by ESBL-producing Escherichia coli requiring hospitalization: a matched cohort study. J Infect 71:667–674. https://doi. org/10.1016/j.jinf.2015.08.012
- Pitout JDD, Nordmann P, Poirel L (2015) Carbapenemaseproducing Klebsiella pneumoniae, a key pathogen set for global nosocomial dominance. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 59:5873– 5884. https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.01019-15
- Yeo JM (2016) Antimicrobial stewardship: improving antibiotic prescribing practice in a respiratory ward. BMJ Qual Improv Rep 5:u206491.w3570. https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjquality.u206491. w3570
- Bantar C, Sartori B, Vesco E, Heft C, Saúl M, Salamone F et al (2003) A hospitalwide intervention program to optimize the quality of antibiotic use: impact on prescribing practice, antibiotic consumption, cost savings, and bacterial resistance. Clin Infect Dis 37:180–186. https://doi.org/10.1086/375818
- Hardy-Holbrook R, Aristidi S, Chandnani V, Dewindt D, Dinh K (2013) Antibiotic resistance and prescribing in Australia: current attitudes and practice of GPs. Healthc Infect 18:147–151. https:// doi.org/10.1071/HI13019
- 26. Gwimile JJ, Shekalaghe SA, Kapanda GN, Kisanga ER (2012) Antibiotic prescribing practice in management of cough and/or diarrhoea in Moshi municipality, Northern Tanzania: cross-sectional descriptive study. Pan Afr Med J 12:103
- Thriemer K, Katuala Y, Batoko B, Alworonga J-P, Devlieger H, Van Geet C et al (2013) Antibiotic prescribing in DR Congo: a knowledge, attitude and practice survey among medical doctors and students. PLoS One 8:e55495. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal. pone.0055495
- Ah YM, Kim AJ, Lee JY (2014) Colistin resistance in Klebsiella pneumoniae. Int J Antimicrob Agents 44:8–15. https://doi.org/10. 1016/j.ijantimicag.2014.02.016
- van den Boogaard J, Semvua HH, Boeree MJ, Aarnoutse RE, Kibiki GS (2009) Sale of fluoroquinolones in northern Tanzania: a potential threat for fluoroquinolone use in tuberculosis treatment.

J Antimicrob Chemother 65:145–147. https://doi.org/10.1093/jac/ dkp413

- Sonda T, Kumburu H, van Zwetselaar M, Ahrenfeldt J, Alifrangis M, Lund O et al (2016) Benchtop whole-genome sequencing for identification of nosocomial outbreaks in Tanzania. Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol 37:622–623. https://doi.org/10.1017/ice.2016.28
- 31. van Zwetselaar M, Nyombi B, Sonda T, Kumburu H, Chamba N, Dekker MCJ et al (2018) Aeromonas caviae mimicking Vibrio cholerae infectious enteropathy in a cholera-endemic region with possible public health consequences: two case reports. J Med Case Rep 12:71. https://doi.org/10.1186/s13256-018-1603-5
- Kumburu HH, Sonda T, Mmbaga BT, Alifrangis M, Lund O, Kibiki G et al (2017) Patterns of infections, aetiological agents and antimicrobial resistance at a tertiary care hospital in northern Tanzania. Tropical Med Int Health 22:454–464. https://doi.org/10.1111/tmi. 12836
- Illumina®. Nextera® XT library prep reference guide [Internet]. Document #15031942 v01 2016;1–28. doi: http://support. illumina.com/downloads/nextera_xt_sample_preparation_guide_ 15031942.html
- Andrews S, FastQC A (2018) Quality control tool for high throughput sequence data
- Bankevich A, Nurk S, Antipov D, Gurevich AA, Dvorkin M, Kulikov AS et al (2012) SPAdes: a new genome assembly algorithm and its applications to single-cell sequencing. J Comput Biol 19:455–477. https://doi.org/10.1089/cmb.2012.0021
- Gurevich A, Saveliev V, Vyahhi N, Tesler G (2013) QUAST: quality assessment tool for genome assemblies. Bioinformatics 29: 1072–1075. https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btt086
- Zankari E, Hasman H, Cosentino S, Vestergaard M, Rasmussen S, Lund O et al (2012) Identification of acquired antimicrobial resistance genes. J Antimicrob Chemother 67:2640–2644. https://doi. org/10.1093/jac/dks261
- Larsen MV, Cosentino S, Rasmussen S, Friis C, Hasman H, Marvig RL et al (2012) Multilocus sequence typing of total-genomesequenced bacteria. J Clin Microbiol 50:1355–1361. https://doi. org/10.1128/JCM.06094-11
- Carattoli A, Zankari E, Garciá-Fernández A, Larsen MV, Lund O, Villa L et al (2014) In silico detection and typing of plasmids using plasmidfinder and plasmid multilocus sequence typing. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 58:3895–3903. https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC. 02412-14
- Joensen KG, Scheutz F, Lund O, Hasman H, Kaas RS, Nielsen EM et al (2014) Real-time whole-genome sequencing for routine typing, surveillance, and outbreak detection of verotoxigenic Escherichia coli. J Clin Microbiol 52:1501–1510. https://doi.org/ 10.1128/JCM.03617-13
- Kaas RS, Leekitcharoenphon P, Aarestrup FM, Lund O (2014) Solving the problem of comparing whole bacterial genomes across different sequencing platforms. PLoS One 9:e104984. https://doi. org/10.1371/journal.pone.0104984
- 42. Souverein D, Boers SA, Veenendaal D, Euser SM, Kluytmans J, Den Boer JW (2014) Polyclonal spread and outbreaks with ESBL positive gentamicin resistant Klebsiella spp. in the region Kennemerland, the Netherlands. PLoS One 9:e101212. https:// doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0101212
- Löhr IH, Hülter N, Bernhoff E, Johnsen PJ, Sundsfjord A, Naseer U (2015) Persistence of a pKPN3-like CTX-M-15-encoding IncFIIK plasmid in a Klebsiella pneumonia ST17 host during two years of intestinal colonization. PLoS One 10:e0116516. https://doi.org/10. 1371/journal.pone.0116516
- 44. Zhou K, Lokate M, Deurenberg RH, Tepper M, Arends JP, Raangs EGC et al (2016) Use of whole-genome sequencing to trace, control and characterize the regional expansion of extended-spectrum βlactamase producing ST15 *Klebsiella pneumoniae*. Sci Rep 6: 20840. https://doi.org/10.1038/srep20840

- 45. Snitkin ES, Zelazny AM, Thomas PJ, Stock F, Henderson DK, Palmore TN et al (2012) Tracking a hospital outbreak of carbapenem-resistant *Klebsiella pneumoniae* with whole-genome sequencing. Sci Transl Med 4:148ra116–148ra116. https://doi.org/ 10.1126/scitranslmed.3004129
- Becker L, Fuchs S, Pfeifer Y, Semmler T, Eckmanns T, Korr G et al (2018) Whole genome sequence analysis of CTX-M-15 producing klebsiella isolates allowed dissecting a polyclonal outbreak scenario. Front Microbiol 9:322. https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2018. 00322
- Taitt CR, Leski TA, Erwin DP, Odundo EA, Kipkemoi NC, Ndonye JN et al (2017) Antimicrobial resistance of Klebsiella pneumoniae stool isolates circulating in Kenya. PLoS One 12:e0178880. https:// doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0178880
- Tellevik MG, Blomberg B, Kommedal Ø, Maselle SY, Langeland N, Moyo SJ (2016) High prevalence of faecal carriage of esblproducing enterobacteriaceae among children in Dar Es Salaam, Tanzania. PLoS ONE 11:e0168024. https://doi.org/10.1371/ journal.pone.0168024
- 49. Sonda T, Kumburu H, van Zwetselaar M, Alifrangis M, Mmbaga BT, Aarestrup FM et al (2018) Whole genome sequencing reveals high clonal diversity of Escherichia coli isolated from patients in a tertiary care hospital in Moshi, Tanzania. Antimicrob Resist Infect Control 7:72. https://doi.org/10.1186/s13756-018-0361-x
- Di Mento G, Cuscino N, Carcione C, Cardinale F, Conaldi PG, Douradinha B (2017) Emergence of a *Klebsiella pneumoniae* ST392 clone harbouring KPC-3 in an Italian transplantation hospital. J Hosp Infect 98:313–314. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhin.2017. 11.019
- Vubil D, Figueiredo R, Reis T, Canha C, Boaventura L, Da Silva GJ (2017) Outbreak of KPC-3-producing ST15 and ST348 *Klebsiella pneumoniae* in a Portuguese hospital. Epidemiol Infect 145:595– 599. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0950268816002442

- 52. Coelho A, González-López JJ, Miró E, Alonso-Tarrés C, Mirelis B, Larrosa MN et al (2010) Characterisation of the CTX-M-15encoding gene in Klebsiella pneumoniae strains from the Barcelona metropolitan area: plasmid diversity and chromosomal integration. Int J Antimicrob Agents 36:73–78. https://doi.org/10. 1016/j.ijantimicag.2010.03.005
- Madoshi BP, Kudirkiene E, Mtambo MMA, Muhairwa AP, Lupindu AM, Olsen JE (2016) Characterisation of commensal *Escherichia coli* isolated from apparently healthy cattle and their attendants in Tanzania. PLoS ONE 11:e0168160. https://doi.org/ 10.1371/journal.pone.0168160
- 54. Holt KE, Wertheim H, Zadoks RN, Baker S, Whitehouse CA, Dance D et al (2015) Genomic analysis of diversity, population structure, virulence, and antimicrobial resistance in *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, an urgent threat to public health. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 112:E3574–E3581. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas. 1501049112
- Li J, Ren J, Wang W, Wang G, Gu G, Wu X et al (2017) Risk factors and clinical outcomes of hypervirulent Klebsiella pneumoniae induced bloodstream infections. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis 37: 679–689. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10096-017-3160-z
- Bialek-Davenet S, Criscuolo A, Ailloud F, Passet V, Jones L, Delannoy-Vieillard AS et al (2014) Genomic definition of hypervirulent and multidrug-resistant klebsiella pneumoniae clonal groups. Emerg Infect Dis 20:1812–1820. https://doi.org/10.3201/ eid2011.140206
- 57. Ballén V, Sáez E, Benmessaoud R, Houssain T, Alami H, Barkat A et al (2015) First report of a *Klebsiella pneumoniae* ST466 strain causing neonatal sepsis harbouring the blaCTX-M-15gene in Rabat, Morocco. FEMS Microbiol Lett 362:1–4. https://doi.org/ 10.1093/femsle/fnu026