

1 *Type of the Paper (Article)*

2 **Molecular Insights into β -Lactams Resistance in *Klebsiella pneumoniae* Clinical**

3 **Isolates with a Focus on Multidrug Resistance and Virulence**

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11 **Abstract:** *Klebsiella pneumoniae* is associated with high resistance to antimicrobials and

12 is common in isolates from colonization and healthcare-associated infections (HAIs).

13 This study aims to develop assays to detect resistance genes belonging to the *bla* family

14 and investigate metabolic pathways in resistant isolates of *K. pneumoniae*. The genes of

15 the subfamilies included were: *bla*SHV, *bla*TEM, *bla*NDM, *bla*KPC, *bla*GES, *bla*CTX-M

16 and relevant variants of the *bla*OXA subfamily. Mass spectrometry data were acquired

17 on the Orbitrap IDX spectrometer (Thermo) connected to the Vanquish UPLC system.

18 Isolates of *K. pneumoniae* (N = 122) were obtained from clinical samples from 04/23/2019

19 to 05/29/2021. A high prevalence of resistance to penicillins, cephalosporins and

20 carbapenems was found among the isolates. The identified genotypic profile showed a

21 high prevalence of genes belonging to Ambler's classes of beta-lactamases A, B and D.

22 In the metabolomic study, the N-fructosyl isoleucine metabolite was identified

23 increased in multidrug-resistant (MDR) strains of *K. pneumoniae* compared to strains

susceptible to antimicrobials. In conclusion, the assays developed were efficient in detecting the main genes of the *bla* family of resistance in *K. pneumoniae*. The use of the pentose phosphate metabolic pathway suggests a beneficial regulation of bacterial growth, and colonization in MDR *K. pneumoniae* strains, with may indicate the use of this pathway as a virulence mechanism in resistant strains.

KEYWORDS: Antimicrobial resistance; multidrug-resistant; β -lactamases; qPCR; molecular diagnosis; *Klebsiella pneumoniae*.

INTRODUCTION

Bacterial resistance to antimicrobial agents is a global public health problem that leads to an increase in the cost of treatment, length of stay, morbidity and mortality of hospitalized patients, especially in intensive care units (ICU).^{1,2} In this sense, understanding the emergency mechanisms of regulation and dissemination of resistance to antimicrobial agents in the pathogenesis of bacterial colonization and/or infection can be of critical importance in preventing and controlling this problem.

Klebsiella pneumoniae is a Gram-negative γ -proteobacteria bacteria, belonging to the *Enterobacteriaceae* family, and is generally viewed as an opportunistic microorganism, carrying several virulence factors and capable of accumulating resistance genes to various classes of antimicrobials. It is commonly related to cases of colonization and/or healthcare-associated infections (HAIs) and has been identified as an etiological agent in pneumonia, urinary tract infections (UTI), soft tissue and surgical wound infections, bacteremia, and sepsis.³

It is estimated that *K. pneumoniae* is responsible for approximately 10% of all cases of HAIs, and of these, 32.8% are caused by strains resistant to multiple

antimicrobial drugs. However, studies indicate that the rate of isolated strains presenting resistance to antimicrobials has increased over the years.^{4,5}

K. pneumoniae has been associated with the ability to overcome colonization resistance imposed by the gastrointestinal microbiota⁶ and has been reported as an emerging Multidrug-Resistant microorganism of emergency priority by the World Health Organization (WHO) for the development of new therapies.⁷ Epidemiological data have demonstrated that *K. pneumoniae* can translocate from the gastrointestinal tract to other sterile sites of the same host or other patients through the fecal-oral route. What makes clear the clinical relevance of this microorganism.⁸

One of the most likely causes of the increasingly frequent emergence of bacterial strains resistant to one or more antibiotics is the excessive and sometimes incorrect use of antimicrobials. The relatively long time required to identify the pathogen by traditional methods, as well as for the results of the antimicrobial susceptibility test (AST), forces the clinician to use broad-spectrum drugs empirically, increasing selective pressure, which ends up benefiting pathogens genetically capable of adapting to the adverse environment.^{1,9}

Possible answers to reduce the time needed to obtain a resistance profile, and to investigate new approaches in treatment, is the development of molecular methodologies, that can make the identification of resistance faster, and also be more sensitive than the traditional methodologies.¹⁰ And the investigation of metabolic differences between sensitive and resistant strains, that can lead to metabolites or pathways that can be used as targets for the development of new treatments and strategies for dealing with multidrug-resistant (MDR) microorganisms.¹¹⁻¹²

Beta-lactams are the class of antimicrobials most affected by resistance in general, which is conferred in gram-negatives, mainly by the *bla* gene family, this group of genes encodes enzymes called beta-lactamases, which can neutralize the action of beta-lactams through hydrolysis of the beta-lactam ring.¹³⁻¹⁵

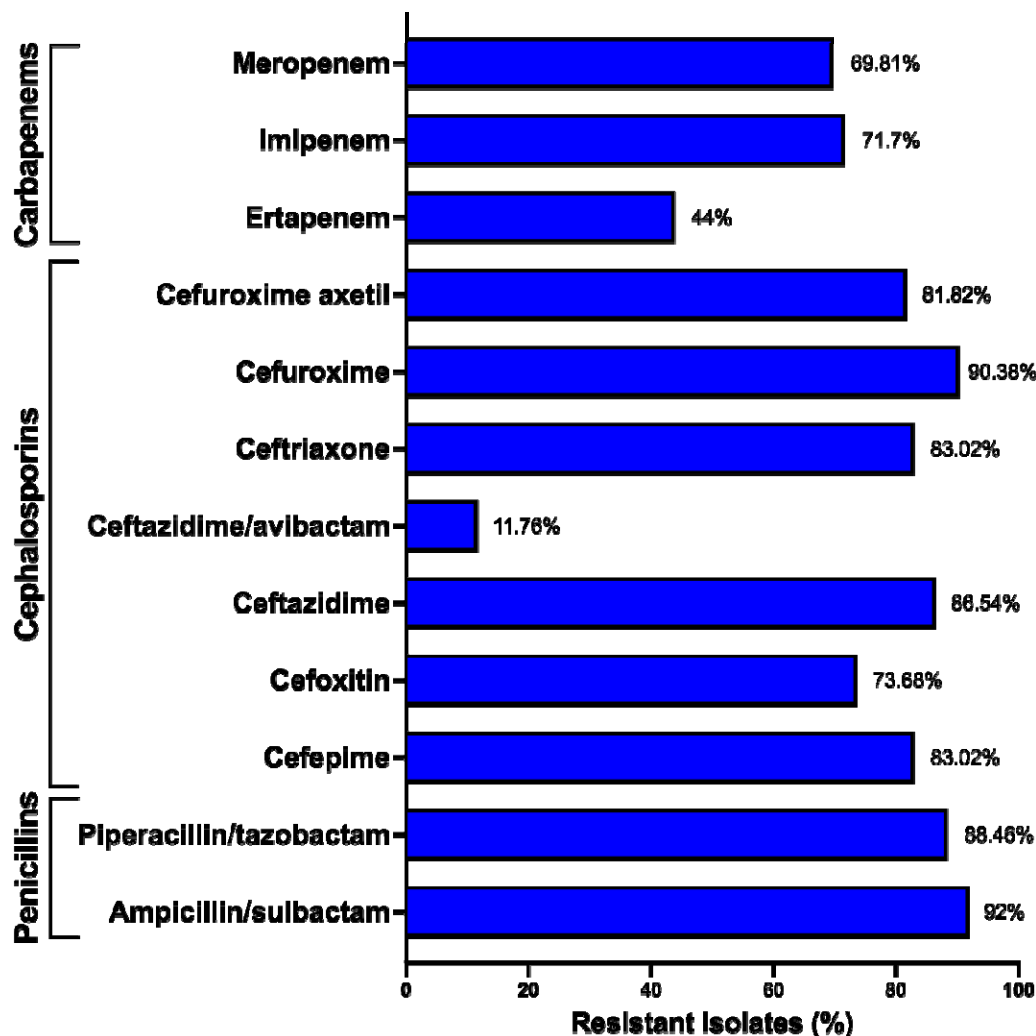
In this study it was investigated the phenotype of resistance, the genotypic profile of the *bla* family of β -lactamases, and the metabolic differences between sensitive and MDR *K. pneumoniae* strains, isolated from patients admitted to the ICU in a university hospital in the city of Fortaleza-CE, Brazil.

We aim to develop a molecular assay, capable of identifying all variants of the most relevant genes of the *bla* family, these being: *bla*SHV, *bla*TEM, *bla*NDM, *bla*KPC, *bla*GES and *bla*CTX-M. In addition, also was included the most epidemiologically relevant variants of the *bla*-OXA subfamily. Thus, creating a set of primers capable of detecting the presence of hundreds of resistance genes with a reduced number of reactions. Were also investigated the main differences between the metabolites up and down regulated in sensitive and MDR strains of *K. pneumoniae*, both from the intracellular medium and the supernatant among themselves and in comparison, with the control medium.

RESULTS

Selection of bacterial samples. A total of 249 samples of Gram-negative bacteria resistant to beta lactam antimicrobials were collected from 04/23/2019 to 05/29/2021, those were identified, and the most prevalent microorganism found was *Klebsiella pneumoniae* 48.99% (122/249), been 21,8% from infections cases and 78,2% from colonization cases.

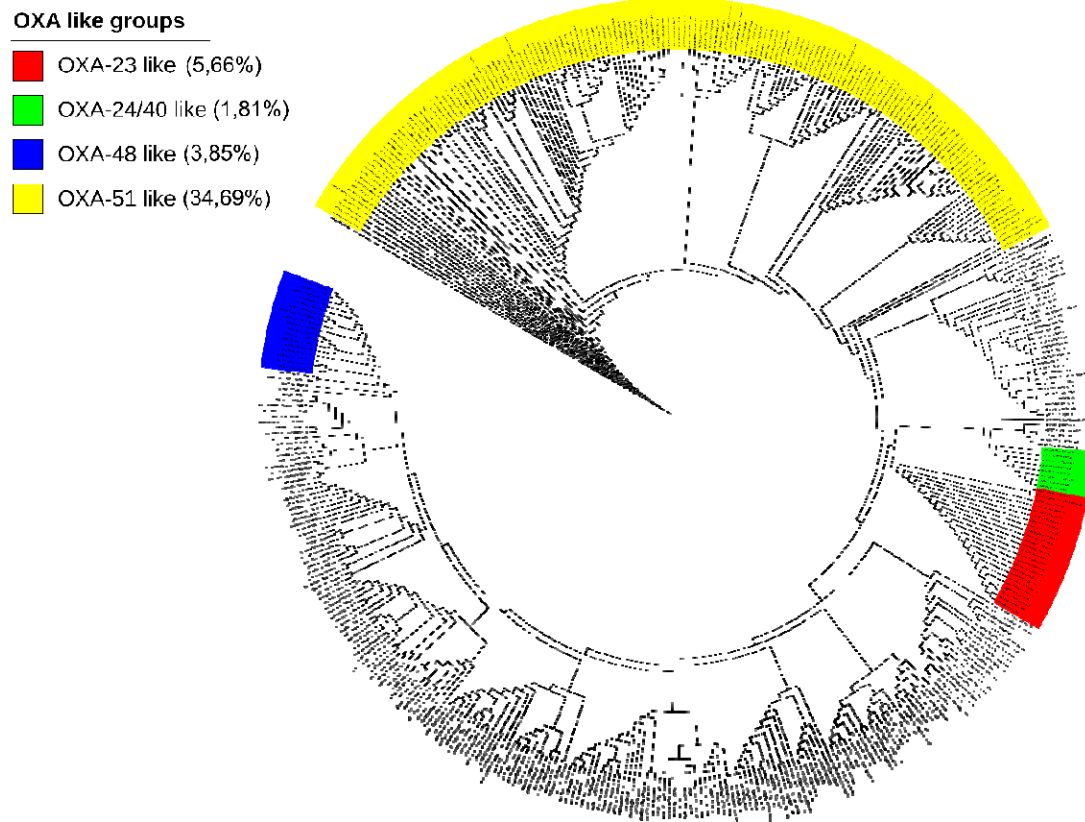
Identification of the phenotypic profile of beta-lactams resistance of *K. pneumoniae* strains. The bacteria isolates included in the study were tested against a wide range of beta-lactams drugs, and the presence of a high percentage of isolates resistant to these drugs was verified, which included Penicillins: ampicillin/sulbactam (92.00%) and piperacillin/tazobactam (88.46%), Cephalosporins: cefepime (83.02%), cefoxitin (73.68%), ceftazidime (86.54%), ceftazidime/avibactam (11.76%), ceftriaxone (83.02%), cefuroxime (90.38%) and cefuroxime axetil (81.82%) and Carbapenems: ertapenem (44.00%), imipenem (71.70%) and meropenem (69.81%), as shown in Figure 1.



103 **Figure 1.** Prevalence of *K. pneumoniae* isolates resistant to the beta-lactams evaluated
104 (Penicillins, Cephalosporins and Carbapenems), demonstrating a phenotypic profile of
105 resistance to multiple beta-lactams drugs, in approximately 70% of the isolates, with
106 the exception of ceftazidime/avibactam and ertapenem.

107 **Primers design.** After selection on the platforms: Comprehensive Antibiotic
108 Resistance Data-base (CARD) and National Center for Biotechnology and Information
109 (NCBI, USA), and subsequent compilation and analysis of FASTA sequences, it was
110 possible to identify consensus sequences common to all sequences available in the
111 databases for each of the genes included in the study: *blaSHV* (N = 156), *blaTEM* (N =
112 167), *blaNDM* (N = 27), *blaKPC* (N = 208), *blaGES* (N = 25), and *blaCTX-M* (N = 144).
113 Except for the *blaOXA* gene, for which the most clinically relevant sequences were used
114 (N = 203).

115 The *blaCTX-M* and *blaOXA* genes, due to their diversity and high degree of
116 genetic variation between homologous sequences, were grouped into clades, and
117 divided into groups. the *blaCTX-M* gene group was named according to the
118 international standardization for this gene with the CTX-M 1like been divided into two
119 groups due to its high number of sequences and the genetic variation between them.
120 CTX-M 1.1like (N = 42), CTX-M 1.2like (N = 16), CTX-M 2like (N = 23), CTX-M 8like (N =
121 14) and CTX-M 9like (N = 49), while the *blaOXA* gene was divided into the OXA-23like
122 (N = 25), OXA-24/40like (N = 8), OXA-48like (N = 17) and OXA-51like (N = 153), as can
123 be seen in **Figures 2 and 3.**



124

125 **Figure 2.** Cladogram of the *blaOXA* subfamily showing the most epidemiologically
 126 relevant groups, covered by the primers developed, and the percentage of sequences
 127 identifiable by each primer in comparison with the total number of the *blaOXA* family
 128 (N = 441) at the time of publication of this work.

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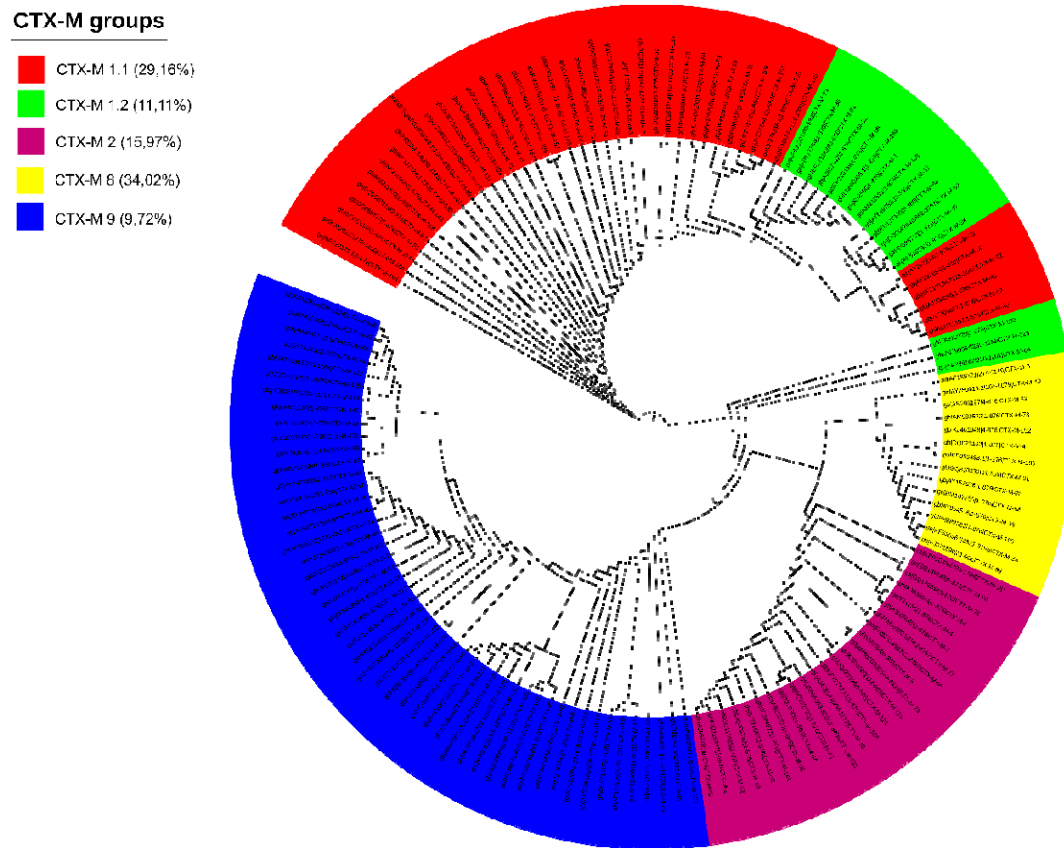


Figure 3. Cladogram with all sequences from the *bla*CTX-M subfamily divided into groups, illustrating the identifiable sequences, and the percentage of sequences detectable by each primer in comparison with the total number of the *bla*CTX-M family (N = 144) until the time of publication of this work.

A total of 14 pairs of primers were developed, which together have the capacity to detect 929 variants of resistance genes belonging to the *bla* gene family. The primer sequences for genes with conserved and non-conserved sequences can be found in **Tables 1 and 2**, respectively.

143

Table 1. Primer sequences for conserved genes

Name of gene	Number of variations detectable	Primer name	Sequence	Primer size
<i>blaSHV</i>	156	SHV-F	ATTATCTCCCTGTTAGCCACCC	22
		SHV-R	GTTTAATTTGCTCAAGCGGCTG	22
<i>blaTEM</i>	167	TEM-F	ACCCAGAAACGCTGGTGAAA	20
		TEM-R	GGGGCGAAAACCTCTCAAGGA	20
<i>blaNDM</i>	27	NDM-F	GAAGCTGAGCACCGCATTAG	20
		NDM-R	CCATTTGCTGGCCAATCGTC	20
<i>blaKPC</i>	208	KPC-F	TCGCGGAACCATTCGCTAAA	20
		KPC-R	GAATGAGCTGCACAGTGGGA	20
<i>blaGES</i>	25	GES-F	GCCCAGGAGAGAGATTACGC	20
		GES-R	CTTGACCGACAGAGGCAACT	20

144

145

Table 2. Primer sequences for non-conserved genes, divided into clades.

Name of gene	Number of variations detectable	Primer name	Sequence	Primer size
<i>blaCTX-M</i>	42	CTXM1.1L-F	GATTGCGGAAAAGCACGTCA	20
		CTXM1.1L-R	TTCATCGCCACGTTATCGCT	20
	16	CTXM1.2L-F	CGCCGCTGATTCTGGTCA	18
		CTXM1.2L-R	TGACGATTTTAGCCGCCGAC	20

<i>bla</i> OXA	<i>bla</i> CTX-M 2like	23	CTXM2L-F	ATGGCGCAGACCCTGAAAAA	20
			CTXM2L-R	CTGCCGGTTTTATCGCCCA	19
	<i>bla</i> CTX-M 8like	14	CTXM8L-F	CGCTCAACACCGCGATCC	18
			CTXM8L-R	ATCCCCGACAACCCACGAT	19
	<i>bla</i> CTX-M 9like	49	CTXM9L-F	CGTGGCTCAAAGGCAATACG	20
			CTXM9L-R	TCTGTTGCGGCTGGGTAAAA	20
	<i>bla</i> OXA-23like	24	OXA23L-F	GCTCTAAGCCGCGCAAATAC	20
			OXA23L-R	TGACCTTTTCTCGCCCTTCC	20
	<i>bla</i> OXA-24/40like	8	OXA24/40L-F	TGCCGATGACCTTGCACATA	20
			OXA24/40L-R	CCATTAGCTTGCTCCACCCA	20
	<i>bla</i> OXA-48like	17	OXA48L-F	GGTAGCAAAGGAATGGCAAG	21
			OXA48L-R	GGGCGATCAAGCTATTGGGA	20
	<i>bla</i> OXA-51like	153	OXA51L-F	GATCGGCCTTGAGCACCATA	20
			OXA51L-R	GCCATAACCAACACGCTTCA	20

147

148 ***In silico* primers validation.** The parameters obtained for each primer after
149 analysis using the Primer-BLAST® (NCBI, USA) and Sequence Manipulation Suite
150 (SMS): PCR Primer Stats software are available in **Table 3**.

151 **Table 3.** Parameters obtained by *in silico* validation of the developed primers.

Gene	Primer name	Tm (C°)	GC%	Self complementarity	Self 3' complementarity	Product length
<i>bla</i> SHV	SHV-F	59,2	50,0	3	0	70
	SHV-R	59,3	45,4	5	3	
<i>bla</i> TEM	TEM-F	60,1	50,0	4	0	110

	TEM-R	59,9	55,0	2	1	
<i>bla</i> NDM	NDM-F	59,3	55,0	5	1	86
	NDM-R	60,1	55,0	6	2	
<i>bla</i> KPC	KPC-F	60,3	50,0	4	2	128
	KPC-R	60,3	55,0	5	1	
<i>bla</i> GES	GES-F	59,9	60,0	3	2	94
	GES-R	59,9	55,0	3	2	
<i>bla</i> CTX-M 1.1 <i>like</i>	CTXM1.1L-F	59,7	50,0	4	1	87
	CTXM1.1L-R	60,1	50,0	4	2	
<i>bla</i> CTX-M 1.2 <i>like</i>	CTXM1.2L-F	60,1	61,1	3	2	90
	CTXM1.2L-R	61,0	55,0	3	3	
<i>bla</i> CTX-M 2 <i>like</i>	CTXM2L-F	60,5	50,0	4	0	155
	CTXM2L-R	60,7	57,8	4	1	
<i>bla</i> CTX-M 8 <i>like</i>	CTXM8L-F	61,5	66,6	4	2	197
	CTXM8L-R	60,9	57,8	3	2	
<i>bla</i> CTX-M 9 <i>like</i>	CTXM9L-F	59,9	55,0	3	2	180
	CTXM9L-R	60,1	50,0	3	0	
<i>bla</i> OXA-23 <i>like</i>	OXA23L-F	60,0	55,0	4	0	129
	OXA23L-R	59,9	55,0	2	0	
<i>bla</i> OXA-24/40 <i>like</i>	OXA24/40L-F	59,7	50,0	4	2	177
	OXA24/40L-R	60,0	55,0	4	0	
<i>bla</i> OXA-48 <i>like</i>	OXA48L-F	59,8	52,3	3	0	183
	OXA48L-R	59,8	55,0	4	0	
<i>bla</i> OXA-51 <i>like</i>	OXA51L-F	59,8	55,0	4	2	199
	OXA51L-R	59,1	50,0	2	1	

152

153 **Testing, optimization, and standardization of *in vitro* reactions.** All primers
154 were tested using positive controls developed *in house*, and it was possible to verify
155 that the ideal annealing temperature (Ta) for the developed primer pairs was 61°C,
156 except for the primer referring to the *bla*NDM gene, for which the ideal Ta was 64°C.
157 The reactions were then evaluated for their specificity and stability by checking the
158 Melting temperature (Tm). The melting curves are available in the supplementary
159 material **Figure S1**.

160 **Efficiency curve** It was found that all tested primers presented an efficiency
161 rate ≥ 93.21 and $\leq 101.28\%$, $R^2 \geq 0.99$, and detection limit between ≈ 2 and ≈ 13 copies/ μ L as
162 shown in **Table 4**.

163 **Table 4.** Results of the efficiency curves of the developed primers.

Gene name	Efficiency (%)	Correlation coefficient (R ²)	Threshold	Detection limit (Copies/ μ L)	Melting Peak (Tm°C)
<i>bla</i> SHV	96,15	0,992	0,60	≈ 2	86,7
<i>bla</i> TEM	95,32	1,000	0,70	≈ 2	81,5
<i>bla</i> NDM	99,90	0,999	0,48	≈ 2	85,7
<i>bla</i> KPC	100,44	0,992	0,24	≈ 2	85,7
<i>bla</i> GES	100,21	0,997	0,27	≈ 2	81,7
<i>bla</i> CTX-M 1.1like	95,75	0,999	0,40	≈ 13	84,3
<i>bla</i> CTX-M 1.2like	100,82	0,994	0,32	≈ 13	83,2
<i>bla</i> CTX-M 2like	98,09	0,998	0,30	≈ 2	86,4
<i>bla</i> CTX-M 8like	95,32	1,000	0,10	≈ 13	88,4
<i>bla</i> CTX-M 9like	97,82	0,996	0,10	≈ 2	89,0

<i>blaOXA-23like</i>	99,51	1,000	0,15	≈2	78,4
<i>blaOXA-24/40like</i>	101,82	0,988	0,15	≈13	78,7
<i>blaOXA-48like</i>	93,21	1,000	0,20	≈13	80,29
<i>blaOXA-51like</i>	95,51	0,993	0,55	≈2	82,0

164

165 **Identification of the genetic resistance profile of *K. pneumoniae* isolates.** The
166 122 *K. pneumoniae* isolates were tested against the 14 pairs of primers developed, and it
167 was possible to verify a high prevalence of beta-lactam resistance genes among the
168 isolates analyzed. The most prevalent genes detected were, respectively: *blaKPC*
169 (95.90%); *blaSHV* (94.26%); *blaCTX-M 1.2like* (88.52%); *blaCTX-M 2like* (83.61%); *blaCTX-*
170 *M 1.1like* (80.33%); *blaTEM* (80.33%); *blaNDM* (33.61%); *blaOXA-23like* (28.69%); *blaGES*
171 (20.49%); *blaOXA-51like* (15.57%); *blaCTX-M 9like* (13.93%); *blaCTX-M 8like* (12.30%);
172 *blaOXA-24/40like* (11.48%) and *blaOXA-48like* (3.28%). The results can be seen in **Figure**
173 **4A**, grouped according to Ambler's classification.

174 It is important to note that not all variants of each group of genes analyzed
175 belong to a single class in the Ambler's classification, such as *blaTEM* and *blaSHV*
176 genes, where not all variants have activity as extended spectrum beta-lactamases
177 (ESBL) for example, however, due to the grouping of all sequences in a single primer,
178 the separation of these sequences into other groups would be impossible, so the
179 grouping of genes was carried out globally in a way that covered the mains
180 classification of the subfamily in question.

181 Through the data obtained by the qPCR reactions developed, it was also
182 possible to verify that the isolates analyzed during this study had the presence of

several genes belonging to the *bla* family accumulated, with values varying from 3 to 12 of the tested genes, present per isolate, as shown in **Figure 4B**.

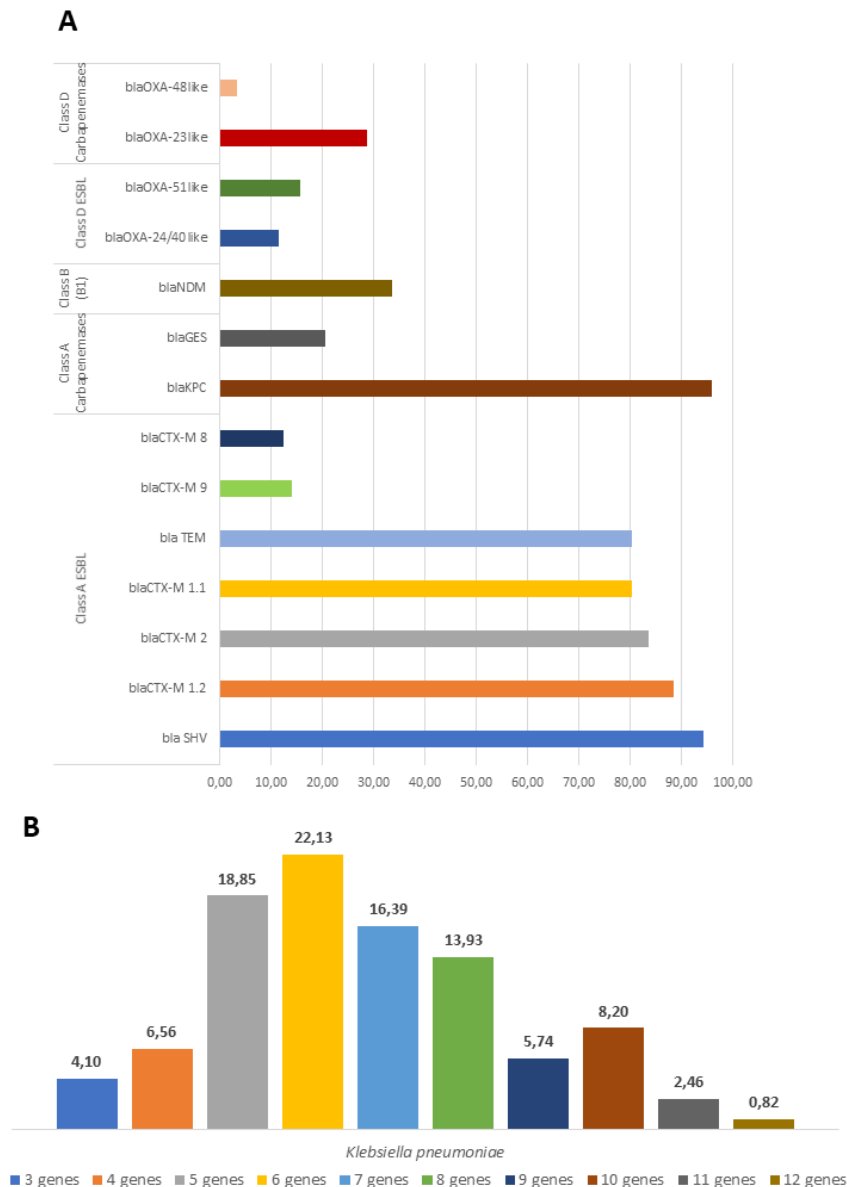
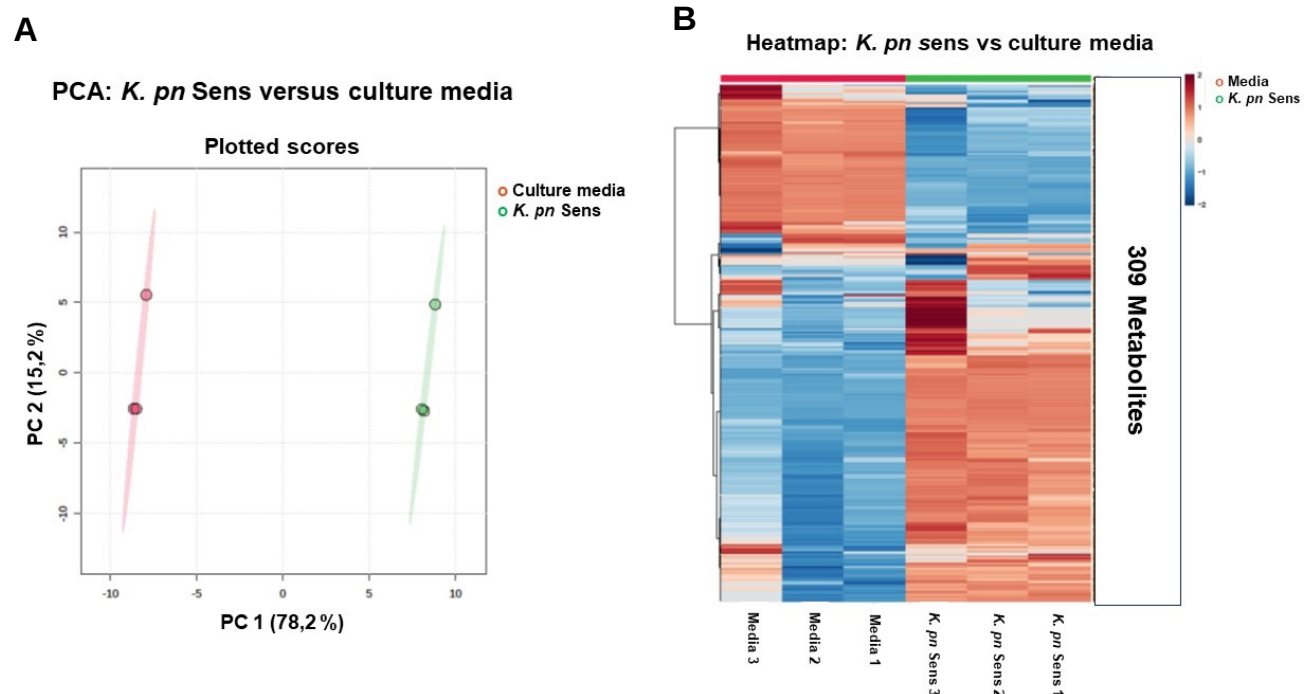


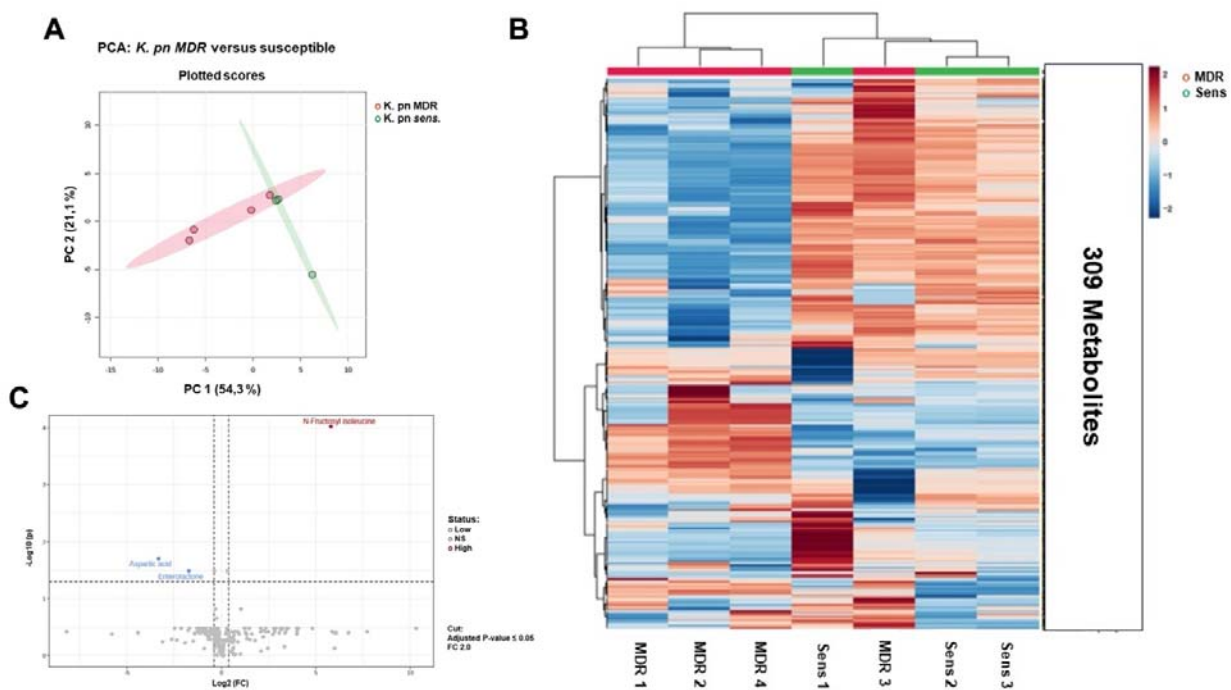
Figure 4. (A) Prevalence of beta-lactams resistance genes among the analyzed isolates, grouped according to the Ambler classification. **(B)** The percentage of *K. pneumoniae* isolates showing accumulation of genes encoding beta-lactamases belonging to the *bla* family.

190 **Comparisons of metabolomic profiles of *K. pneumoniae* isolates.** In total, 241
191 metabolites were identified in positive mode and 116 metabolites identified in negative
192 mode. Among these, 309 metabolites were identified by combining data from both
193 acquisition modes (positive and negative) without redundancy. The principal
194 component analysis (PCAs) and the heatmap analysis between the metabolites in
195 supernatant of susceptible *K. pneumoniae* versus the control culture medium showed
196 complete separation of the main vectors of the PCA plots and differential upregulation
197 or downregulation between the two experimental groups (**Figure 5**). Among these
198 metabolites, 25 were upregulated or downregulated. Interestingly, metabolites related
199 to the synthesis of nitrogenous bases, protein synthesis and energy supply to the
200 bacterial cell are significantly increased in supernatant derived from susceptible *K.*
201 *pneumoniae* (**Figures S2, S3 and S4**). Similar findings were detected between MDR *K.*
202 *pneumoniae* strains and control culture medium (**Figures S5, S6 and S7**).



204 **Figure 5.** Comparison between susceptible *K. pneumoniae* supernatants (Sens) versus
205 culture media. **(A)** Plot of the principal component analysis (PCAs) and **(B)** the
206 heatmap of the comparison of metabolites between the supernatant of susceptible *K.*
207 *pneumoniae* versus the control culture media.

208 The principal component analysis (PCAs) and the heatmap analysis of
209 metabolites in supernatants from *K. pneumoniae* MDR versus susceptible isolates
210 exhibited complete separation of the main vectors of the PCA plots (**Figure 6A**) and
211 differences on levels of metabolites (**Figure 6B**). The analysis of deregulated
212 metabolites between *K. pneumoniae* MDR versus susceptible isolates showed increased
213 N-fructosyl isoleucine in the MDR *K. pneumoniae* isolates ($p < 0.05$, **Figure 6C**).

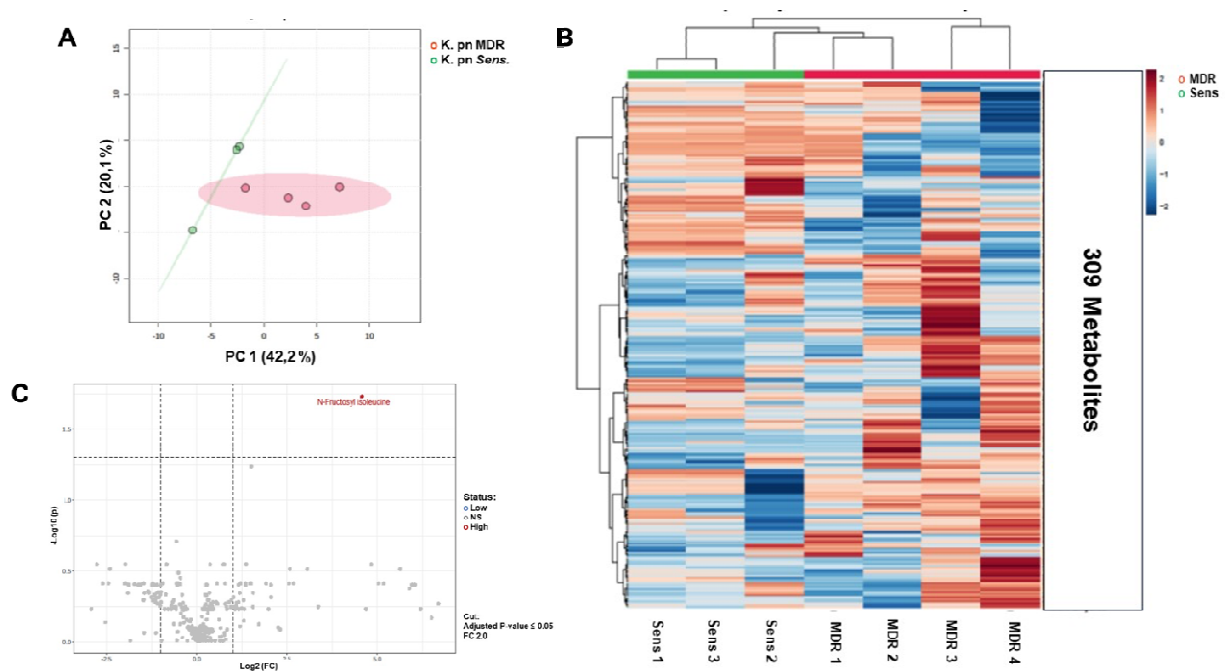


215 **Figure 6.** Comparison of supernatants from *K. pneumoniae* MDR versus susceptible
216 (Sens). **(A)** Plots of the principal component analysis (PCAs) and **(B)** the heatmap of the
217 comparison of metabolites between the supernatant of *K. pneumoniae* MDR versus

218 susceptible (Sens). (C) Plots of dysregulated metabolites between supernatants of *K.*
219 *pneumoniae* MDR and susceptible.

220

221 Analysis of the intracellular metabolites of susceptible versus MDR *K.*
222 *pneumoniae* showed differences in the PCAs vectors (Figure 7A), heatmap (Figure 7B).
223 and increased N-fructosyl isoleucine levels in the MDR *K. pneumoniae* isolates ($p < 0.05$,
224 Figure 7C). Figure 8 shows the PCAs and heatmap plots of supernatant from sensitive
225 and MDR *K. pneumoniae*.



227 **Figure 7.** Comparison of Intracellular media of *K. pneumoniae* MDR versus susceptible
228 (Sens). (A) Principal Component Analysis (PCAs) plots and (B) Heatmap of the
229 Intracellular Environment of *K. pneumoniae* MDR and susceptible. (C) Plots of
230 dysregulated metabolites between the intracellular media of *K. pneumoniae* MDR and
231 susceptible.

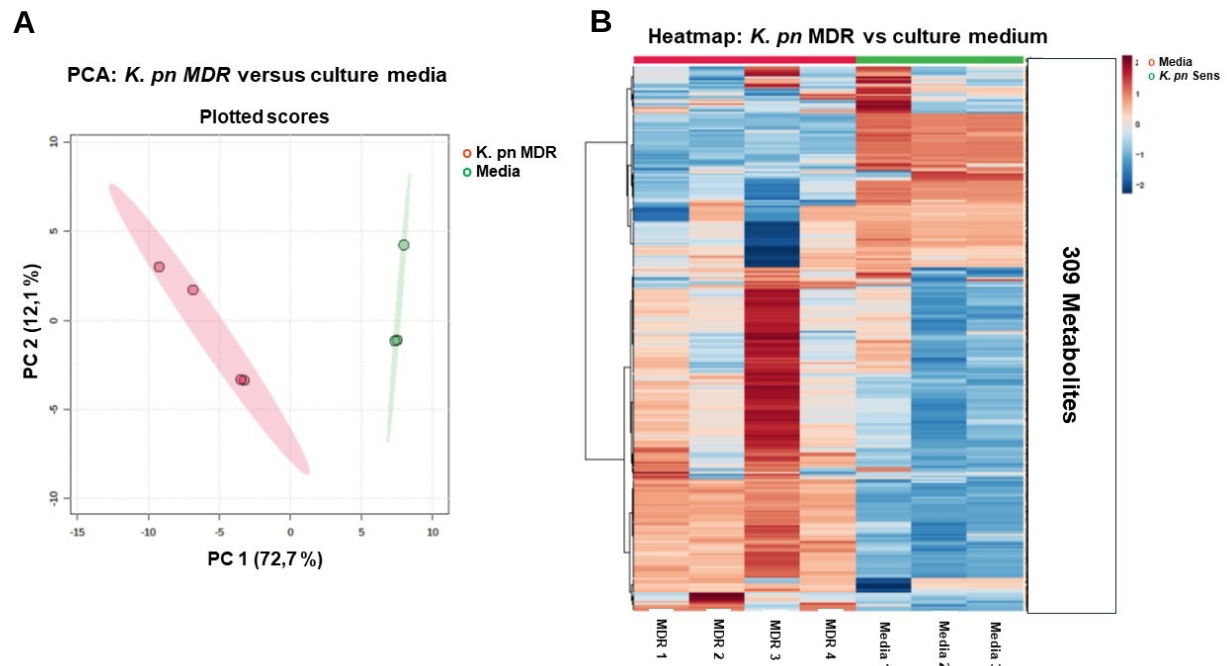


Figure 8. Comparison of *K. pneumoniae* Multidrug-Resistant (MDR) supernatants versus culture media. (A) Principal component analysis (PCAs) plots and (B) Heatmap of the supernatant of *K. pneumoniae* susceptible and MDR. Observe the separation of the main vectors of the (PCAs) plots and details of the differences in the heatmap between the two experimental groups.

DISCUSSION

During the period analyzed in the study, 249 bacterial isolates resistant to two or more classes of antimicrobials used in TSA were identified. Of these resistant isolates, 48.99% (122/249) belonged to the species *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, being this microorganism the most prevalent among those identified.

This data is consistent with what is seen in Egypt, where when evaluating 186 samples from Cairo hospitals, *K. pneumoniae* was found as the main gram-negative bacterial agent representing 40.9% (76/186) of the identified microorganisms, and

among these isolates obtained, a high prevalence of resistance to beta-lactams, quinolones, and sulfonamides was identified (89.4%, 89.4% and 87.1%) respectively.¹⁶

The phenotypic profile of the *K. pneumoniae* isolates analyzed in the present study demonstrated high levels of resistance to the beta-lactams drugs tested in all classes evaluated (penicillins, cephalosporins and carbapenems). Although the resistance profile of strains may vary depending on the test location and the conditions to prevent spread, the resistance to beta-lactams among *Enterobacteriaceae* is known to be high, as demonstrated in a study carried out in Brazil, with samples of human and veterinary origin where 62.85% and 54.28% of *Enterobacteriaceae* isolated were resistant to amoxicillin/clavulanate and cefazolin respectively.¹⁷

In studies carried out in Egypt, evaluating isolates of *K. pneumoniae* from food sources, and in Tunisia and Iran evaluating isolates from hospital samples, the presence of high resistance to beta-lactams can be verified for ampicillin/sulbactam (93%), ceftazidime (95.5%), cefoxitin (95.5%), cefotaxime (93.2%), amoxicillin/clavulanate (86.4%), ertapenem (90.9%) and temocillin (84.0%).^{18, 19, 20}

Likewise, in a study carried out with 102 isolates obtained from two Portuguese hospitals, the presence of resistance rates > 90% was verified for all beta-lactam drugs tested, except for cephalosporins: cefoxitin (40.2%), cefotetan (68.6%) and carbapenems: ertapenem (23.5%), imipenem (32.4%), meropenem (34.3%) and doripenem (33.3%).²¹

This result is consistent with that found in this study, where the beta-lactam drugs that showed a lower resistance rate belonged to the same classes mentioned, namely: cefoxitin (73.68%), ceftazidime/avibactam (11.76%), ertapenem (44.00%), imipenem (71.70%) and meropenem (69.81%).

269 Resistance to beta-lactams is conferred in Gram-negatives mainly by genes
270 belonging to the *bla* family. This group of genes is composed of dozens of subfamilies
271 and hundreds of genetic subvariants in each family, the molecular panel developed
272 managed to encompass some of the most predominant and clinically relevant
273 subfamilies among clinical isolates, identified in several studies, namely: *bla*SHV,
274 *bla*TEM, *bla*NDM, *bla*KPC, *bla*GES, *bla*CTX-M and *bla*OXA.²²⁻²⁴

275 After analysis using the Primer-BLAST® (NCBI, USA) and Primer Stats
276 Sequence Manipulation Suite (SMS) software, it was verified that the developed
277 primers have specificity for the sequences used in the alignment, melting temperature
278 (T_m) between 59.29 °C and 61.55 °C, GC% concentration varying between 45.45% and
279 66.67% in addition to having complementary base numbers ≤ 6 in the analysis of dimer
280 and hairpin formation. The values obtained for these parameters therefore demonstrate
281 that they are compatible with those obtained in reference studies.²⁵⁻²⁷

282 Due to the high number of sequences included in the development of primers,
283 many of the alternatives obtained through Primer-BLAST® (NCBI, USA) did not meet
284 the stability requirements regarding the formation of secondary structures (self-
285 annealing and hairpins), In order to choose the options with the best performance in
286 relation to these parameters, the GC clamp was relaxed so that the primers SHV-F,
287 SHV-R, CTXM1.2L-R and CTXM2L-R obtained 4 G or C residues within the last 5
288 nucleotides of the 3' end, the primers CTXM9L-R and CTXM2L-F did not present C or
289 G residues within the last 5 nucleotides of the sequence.

290 This fact could lead to the formation of strong bonds and increase the T_m value
291 in primers with more than 3 terminal GC residues, and cause inhibition of
292 amplification due to the presence of weak bonds when there is an absence of terminal

293 CG^{28,29}. Such changes, however, were not evident when the primers were tested *in*
294 *vitro*.

295 The variety of sequences detectable by the developed primers makes *in vitro*
296 validation using positive controls for all sequences virtually impossible. *In silico*
297 analysis allowed the evaluation of all tested sequences quickly, cheaply and constantly,
298 since the developed primers can be tested against new variants of the target genes.^{26–28}

299 *In vitro* analyzes were carried out using SYBR Green master mix, the melting
300 curve was therefore used as a parameter to evaluate the specificity of the reactions.
301 And it was verified that for all tested primers a single melting peak was found,
302 indicating the formation of a single amplicon. And excluding the presence of
303 secondary structures (primer dimers and hairpins).

304 The analysis of the melting curve and T_m is considered fundamental to test the
305 specificity of reactions that use SYBR Green as an amplification indicator, because
306 unlike reactions that use specific probes, which emit fluorescence only when the
307 reaction occurs at the expected target. The SYBR Green works by binding to any
308 double-stranded fragment formed, thus emitting fluorescence. Therefore, only by
309 analyzing the melting curve and the specific T_m of the amplicon is it possible to
310 determine whether the reaction was successful.^{29–31}

311 The efficiency curve and its parameters were used to evaluate the performance
312 of qPCR reactions, by checking how efficiently the targets were amplified in each PCR
313 cycle.^{32, 33} When evaluating the activity of primers in qPCR reactions using the
314 efficiency curve, it was found that all primers analyzed in this study presented
315 efficiency values >90% and <110% and correlation coefficients (R^2) >0.9, thus being in
316 accordance with the parameters presented in reference documents present in the

317 literature.³³ It was also possible to verify a high detection capacity even at low
318 concentrations of genetic material since the detection limit obtained varied between ≈ 2
319 and ≈ 13 copies/ μL of the target gene used as control.

320 Several studies report the growth in the prevalence of the *blaKPC* gene, with
321 this being the most detected carbapenemase worldwide. The values found vary
322 according to the location. The main variant of the *blaKPC* gene detected is *blaKPC-2*,
323 with prevalence values varying from 1.2% to 51.6% among enterobacteria in studies
324 carried out in the United States of America and China respectively.^{34, 35} This gene is
325 found more frequently in isolates of *K. pneumoniae*, many studies report high
326 prevalence rates in this species ranging from 17.2% to 64.6%.^{4, 35, 36, 37}

327 In a study conducted in an intensive care unit in the northeast region of Brazil,
328 it was shown that of 25 isolates of *K. pneumoniae* obtained during the research, 100%
329 exhibited the presence of the *blaKPC* gene.³⁸

330 The values found in this paper for the *blaKPC* gene may reflect the fact that the
331 primer developed detected all variants of the gene, as well as the higher rates of
332 resistance usually found in intensive care unities (ICU).³⁹

333 The results found in this work are in agreement with other studies performed at
334 the northeast of Brazil³⁸, what can represent an endemic presence of the *blaKPC* gene
335 among *K. pneumoniae* isolates in this Brazilian region.

336 The *blaTEM* and *blaSHV* genes were the first ESBL identified, and together with
337 the *blaCTX-M* subfamily of genes are considered the most prevalent ESBL's. These
338 genes are widely distributed among enterobacteria; in a study carried out in Sudan, the
339 *blaTEM*, *blaCTX-M* and *blaSHV* genes were identified in 86.0%, 78.0% and 28.0%
340 respectively.⁴⁰

341 In a work carried out in ICUs in Chile, it was possible to verify the presence of
342 these genes with prevalence rates of 81.0%, 84.7% and 73.0% for *blaSHV*, *blaCTX-M-1*
343 and *blaTEM*, where a higher prevalence of the *blaSHV* gene was found when compared
344 to the study carried out in Sudan.⁴¹

345 In Brazil, it is also possible to verify the presence of high prevalence rates of
346 these genes among *K. pneumoniae* isolates from ICU, with studies indicating rates of
347 100%, 96% and 72% for *blaTEM*, *blaSHV* and *blaCTX-M1* respectively.³⁸ These results
348 agree with those evidenced in this study for the *K. pneumoniae* isolates tested.

349 The *blaNDM* gene is considered the second most prevalent carbapenemase
350 producing gene in the world, behind only the *blaKPC* gene. In this study, the presence
351 of the metallo beta-lactamase NDM gene was verified in (33.61%) of the isolates.
352 Similar results were evidenced in China, where the presence of this gene was verified
353 in 35.7% of 935 carbapenem-resistant enterobacteria tested.³⁴

354 The prevalence found in this study for the *blaNDM* gene is still below what was
355 found in other studies carried out in Brazil in the states of São Paulo and Sergipe,
356 where the authors found a prevalence of 70 and 50% respectively in *K. pneumoniae*
357 isolates.^{42, 43}

358 Regarding oxacillinases, a low prevalence of the *blaOXA-48like* gene was
359 observed (3.28%). This gene may be present in all *Enterobacteriaceae*; however, it is more
360 prevalent in strains of *K. pneumoniae*.²¹

361 The values found in the literature for the presence of this gene in
362 *Enterobacteriaceae* are very divergent, with marked variations related to the location of
363 the analysis, these values vary from 7.3% in China to 83.3% in Morocco.^{34, 44} In a study
364 conducted in Brazil where 4,451 isolates of *Enterobacteriaceae* were analyzed, the

365 *bla*OXA-48like gene was detected in only 2.5% of the isolates tested.⁴⁵ In this way, the
366 result obtained is compatible with what was previously identified in Brazil, and close
367 to what is seen in China.

368 The presence of variants of the *bla*OXA gene (*bla*-OXA-51like (15.57%), *bla*OXA-
369 24/40like (11.48%) and *bla*OXA-23like (28.69%)) was also observed in the isolates tested,
370 these genes were long considered exclusive to strains of *Acinetobacter baumannii*,
371 however studies have demonstrated the presence of these genes in other
372 *Enterobacteriaceae*, including *K. pneumoniae*.⁴⁶ Results regarding the prevalence of these
373 genes in strains of *K. pneumoniae* are still scarce, however, in a study conducted in
374 Bahrain in the Persian Gulf, the *bla*OXA-51 and *bla*OXA-23 genes were identified
375 respectively in 45.8% and 41.6%. % of *K. pneumoniae* isolates analyzed.⁴⁷

376 It is believed that many of the beta-lactamases that today can be found
377 contained in mobile genetic elements had their origin in chromosomes of other
378 bacteria, as occurred with the SHV type variants that derived from the *K. pneumoniae*
379 chromosomal SHV-1, and the CTX-M type variants that appear to have originated from
380 the chromosomal CTX-M of *Kluyvera* spp²¹. This change in the presentation of these
381 genes, from chromosomal to mobile elements, may explain the appearance of genes
382 such as chromosomal *bla*OXA present in *A. baumannii* strains on plasmids widespread
383 in other species.

384 It was possible to verify the presence of isolates presenting multiple genes
385 coding for beta-lactamases, from 3 to 12 of the genes analyzed. Studies point to a high
386 prevalence among *Enterobacteriaceae* of the accumulation of genes from the *bla* family,
387 mainly genes belonging to ESBL, OXA beta-lactamases and carbapenemases such as
388 *bla*KPC and *bla*NDM. This phenomenon is more evident in hospital environments

389 where selective pressure favors microorganisms carrying resistance genes and where
390 there is a high rate of sharing of these genes.^{48,49}

391 Investigations into metabolomic modulation in *K. pneumoniae* have
392 demonstrated a promising area for understanding resistance to antimicrobial agents,
393 developing new therapies, and for studying bacterial virulence. For example,
394 significant inhibition of the pentose phosphate pathway, citrate cycle, amino acid and
395 nucleotide metabolism was observed to be beneficial during treatment of MDR *K.*
396 *pneumoniae* using the bacteriophage-polymyxin combination, showing the potential for
397 new therapeutic targets and pathways metabolic processes to improve the effectiveness
398 of treatment with available antimicrobial agents.^{50,51}

399 This study is in accordance with others that highlighted the importance of the
400 pentose phosphate pathway in MDR *K. pneumoniae* strains.⁵⁰ This finding was present
401 in both media, supernatant and intracellular in MDR isolates, compared with *K.*
402 *pneumoniae* isolates susceptible to antimicrobial agents. The significant presence of the
403 metabolic N-fructosyl isoleucine (C₁₂H₂₃NO₇; MW: 293.316) in the supernatant and
404 intracellular media of *K. pneumoniae* MDR indicates the expression of the fructose
405 degradation enzyme gene (*frwC*; fructose-specific phosphotransferase system), which is
406 involved in regulating bacterial growth, virulence and overcoming colonization
407 resistance due to the use of alternative carbon source from fructose.^{52, 53}

408 Metabolomics has proven to be a promising approach in the study of
409 antimicrobial resistance. Its use allows for the comprehensive investigation of
410 metabolic changes associates with different resistance mechanisms, such as alternative
411 energy-obtaining pathways, modifications that alter the cell wall, communication

412 between bacterial cells, and changes in the colonization capacity of these
413 microorganisms.^{54, 55}

414 The identification of these metabolic differences plays an important role in the
415 Discovery of new therapeutic targets and strategies for investigating the reversal of
416 resistance in these pathogens.⁵⁵⁻⁵⁷ The combination of genetic and metabolomic
417 techniques therefore contributes to a comprehensive view of resistance mechanisms in
418 bacteria.^{56,57}

419 The presence of N-fructosyl isoleucine in resistant strains, and the metabolic
420 benefit that its presence appears to generate in increasing colonization capacity,
421 together with the selective pressure found in ICU environments due to the constant use
422 of antimicrobials may be related to the high rates of resistant isolates disseminated
423 among patients in this environment.

424 The metabolic evaluation in turn points to a metabolic advantage in resistant
425 strains compared to sensitive ones, which goes beyond the resistance capacity itself.⁵⁸

426 This study has some limitations, such as the exploration of only *bla* family
427 genes, limiting a broader understanding of resistance mechanisms to antimicrobial
428 agents. On the other hand, it presents a broad methodology for exploring the
429 important *bla* family genes most associated with resistance to beta-lactams in *K.*
430 *pneumonia*. The metabolic findings showed a specific indication that suggests an
431 association with virulence and better proteomic studies will be necessary to associate
432 with potential mechanisms of resistance to antimicrobial agents. Furthermore,
433 additional preclinical studies will be necessary to determine and more specifically
434 validate the virulence associated with the pentose phosphate pathway in *K.*
435 *pneumoniae*.

436

437

438 CONCLUSIONS

439 The results of this work show the high prevalence of resistance to antimicrobial
440 agents in isolates of *K. pneumoniae* within the hospital environment, and that this
441 phenotypic pattern exhibited a great concern as it limits the therapeutic options
442 available, directly implicating the patient's prognosis.

443 The assays developed were within the quality criteria for qPCR reactions using
444 SYBR Green master mix and were efficient in detecting the beta-lactams resistance
445 genes from the *bla* family evaluated in this study. The genotypes of the *bla* genes
446 obtained are relevant and worrying for the local hospital scenario, and compatible with
447 the identified phenotypic profile.

448 The identification of the metabolic N-fructosyl isoleucine in the supernatant
449 and intracellular media of *K. pneumoniae* MDR indicates the expression of the fructose
450 degradation enzyme gene, which is involved in regulating bacterial growth, virulence
451 and overcoming resistance to colonization due to the use of an alternative carbon
452 source from fructose.

453 MATERIALS AND METHODS

454 **Obtaining bacterial isolates and identification.** For the following study,
455 samples were collected as part of the clinical investigation of patients admitted to the
456 ICU of a tertiary care health unit in the city of Fortaleza-CE. Were included in the work
457 those microorganisms that were identified as gram-negative bacteria, resistant to two

458 or more groups of antimicrobial agents, including subclasses of β -lactams,
459 fluoroquinolones and aminoglycosides.

460 The bacterial isolates were identified and tested for their susceptibility to
461 antimicrobials using the automated VITEK® 2 Compact method (BioMérieux, Marcy
462 l'Etoile, France), according to the manufacturer's recommendations. Minimum
463 inhibitory concentrations were interpreted according to the Clinical and Laboratory
464 Standards Institute (CLSI). For quality control of sensitivity tests, strains from the
465 American Type Culture Collection (ATCC) were used. Specimens that had a resistance
466 profile that fit the research objectives were included in the study.

467 **Extraction of bacterial DNA.** To extract the genetic material, the Wizard
468 Genomic DNA Purification extraction and purification kit (Promega, Madison, USA)
469 was used, according to the manufacturer's recommendations.

470 After extraction, all samples were then quantified by spectrophotometry using
471 the NanoDrop™ 2000 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, Massachusetts, USA) and
472 stored in a -80°C freezer until used in the experiments.

473 **Selection of genes used in the study and obtaining FASTA sequences.** For
474 greater coverage of the genetic profile of resistance to β -lactams in gram-negatives,
475 genes with relevant prevalence epidemiology, belonging to the *bla* gene family, were
476 part of the study, and these included the genes: *blaSHV*, *blaTEM*, *blaNDM*, *blaKPC*,
477 *blaGES*, *blaCTX-M* and *blaOXA*. The sequences used were obtained through the
478 Comprehensive Antibiotic Resistance Database (CARD) and National Center for
479 Biotechnology information (NCBI) platforms, which compiles and organizes the

480 resistance gene sequences available in GenBank, the list of identifiable sequences is
481 available in the supplementary material Text S1.

482 **Primer design.** To design the primers, all variant sequences of each gene
483 included in the study available on the CARD and NCBI platforms were gathered, the
484 sequences were aligned using the Clustal Omega software, and the alignments were
485 analyzed using the SnapGene software.

486 Consensus regions with homology $\geq 95\%$ were selected and these were used to
487 design the primers using the Primer Blast platform from the National Center for
488 Biotechnology and Information (NCBI, USA). The consensus sequences obtained is
489 available in the supplementary material Text S2.

490 Genes with few conserved regions, for which it was not possible to obtain
491 consensus sequences with homology $\geq 95\%$, were separated into clades, and primers
492 were then designed for the sequences by phylogenetic grouping, complying with a
493 minimum of 95% similarity.

494 ***In silico* validation of the developed primers.** All primers developed were
495 validated *in silico* regarding their specificity, structure, formation of primer-dimers and
496 hairpins using the Primer-BLAST® (NCBI, USA) and Sequence Manipulation Suite
497 (SMS): PCR Primer Stats platforms.

498 **Testing, optimization, and standardization of primers.** The reactions were
499 standardized with the use of positive controls developed in-house, through
500 amplification of genetic material, isolation, and purification of amplicons, originating
501 from isolates phenotypically resistant to beta-lactams, and negative control (water
502 DNase/RNase free). They were carried out using a CYBR Green master mix (Promega,

Madison, USA), the initial results were evaluated regarding the melting temperature (T_m), to confirm the specificity of the amplicons.

To determine the most efficient qPCR conditions, to reduce the existence of non-specificity and facilitate the interpretation of the results, the concentration gradient and annealing temperature (T_a) of the primers were performed. The qPCR reaction conditions included a hot start step at 95°C for 2 minutes, followed by 35 cycles consisting of a denaturation step for 15 seconds at 95°C, and an annealing/extension step for 1 minute at T_a. specific to each primer, all reactions went through a final melting curve step, with a temperature variation of 60 to 95°C with an increase of 0.05°C/sec.

A 9-point efficiency curve was performed with a dilution factor of 1:8, for each primer developed, with concentrations ranging from ≈27,438,596 to ≈2 (copies/μL), through this procedure it was possible to determine the values of threshold, evaluate the efficiency (%), the correlation coefficient (R²) and the limit of detection of each primer.

Detection of resistance-related genes by molecular biology. The *K. pneumoniae* isolates obtained in the study were tested against the developed primers. Melting curve analysis of all reactions was used to evaluate the specificity of the results of the isolates in comparison to the specific melting temperature (T_m) of the positive control.

Preparation of *K. pneumoniae* samples for metabolomic evaluation. Isolates of *K. pneumoniae* susceptible and multidrug resistant to antimicrobial agents obtained in this work were submitted for metabolomic analysis. For this experiment, seven samples of the culture supernatant were designed: one sample of the culture medium, two samples of the culture supernatant of susceptible *K. pneumoniae* (biological

replicates), four samples of the culture supernatant of multidrug-resistant *K. pneumoniae* (MDR) for untargeted metabolomics determination and analysis. Samples of the intracellular medium of the *K. pneumoniae* culture, two samples of susceptible *K. pneumoniae* (biological replicates) and four samples of MDR *K. pneumoniae* were also used for untargeted metabolomic analysis. Technical replicates were performed for susceptible media and samples to allow for a pilot statistical comparison.

Methodology for extracting *K. pneumoniae* culture supernatant. To 200 μ L of *K. pneumoniae* culture medium or control medium, 800 μ L of 80% methanol was added at -20 °C. The samples were vortexed and incubated at -20°C for 2 hours for protein precipitation. The samples were centrifuged for 10 min at 4°C at 10,000 g (Benchtop refrigerated centrifuge 10k RPM Eppendorf) and the supernatants were transferred to new tubes. The samples were dried under vacuum (Speed Vac Thermo fisher) for approximately 4-5 hours. Dried samples were redissolved in 100 μ L of 0.1% formic acid in water containing Metabolomics QReSS labeled heavy standards diluted 100X. (https://www.isotope.com/userfiles/files/assetLibrary/MET_RSCH_QReSS.pdf). A quality control (QC) was done, combining 10 μ L of each sample. After the QC test in the mass spectrometer, the samples were diluted 10x to be analyzed. The injection volume of each sample was 10 μ L per ionization mode.

Methodology for extractions from the intracellular medium of *K. pneumoniae* culture. To each tube, 750 μ L of cold chloroform:methanol (2:1) mixture at -20 °C was added, vortexed and transferred to tubes reinforced with a ball beater. Cells were disrupted in a bead beater with steel balls for 3 min at an intensity of 5 (Bead Ruptor Elite Omni International Material). The tubes were shaken vigorously for 30 min at 4°C in a temperature-controlled thermal shaker (Thermomixer Eppendorf). 400 μ L of water

551 was added, shaken vigorously, and centrifuged for 10 min at 10,000 rpm (Benchtop
552 refrigerated centrifuge 10k RPM Eppendorf) for phase separation. The upper
553 aqueous/methanolic phase was saved as a mixture of soluble metabolites and
554 transferred to Eppendorf tubes. Soluble metabolites were dried under vacuum for 3-4 h
555 (Speed Vac Thermo Fisher). Before running, samples were reconstituted in 100 μ L of
556 0.1% formic acid in water containing 100X diluted Metabolomics QReSS labeled heavy
557 standards
558 (https://www.isotope.com/userfiles/files/assetLibrary/MET_RSCH_QReSS.pdf). The
559 QC sample was prepared with 10 μ L of each sample. The injection volume of each
560 sample was 10 μ L.

561 **Analysis by Ultra Performance Liquid Chromatography Coupled to Tandem**
562 **Mass Spectrometry (UPLC-MS/MS) of metabolites.** MS data were acquired on the
563 Orbitrap ID^X spectrometer (Thermo) connected to the Vanquish UPLC system. Soluble
564 metabolites were separated using a Waters BEH C18 column (100 x 2.1 mm, 1.9 μ m)
565 operated at 30 °C and a flow rate of 250 μ L/min. Mobile phase A was 0.1% formic acid
566 in water and mobile phase B was 0.1% formic acid in 90% methanol. Bulk scan range:
567 67-1000 at 120,000 resolutions with 0.6 sec scan range. The 10 most intense ions in each
568 full scan were selected for fragmentation and MS² spectra were acquired at a
569 resolution of 30,000 and scaled collision dissociation fragmentation energy of 25, 30, 35
570 was used.

571 **UPLC gradient.** The total time used in the UPLC gradient runs was 15 minutes.
572 The flow used was 0.250 mL/min and the following gradient in the percentage of
573 mobile phase B was 50% at 8 min, 98% at 9 min. maintaining until a time of 13 min.,
574 ending with 0% between a time of 13.1 – 15 min.

575 **Verification settings in the mass spectrum.** The configurations used in the
576 verification through the mass spectrum were orbit trap of the mass spectrum in the
577 master scan, with an orbitrap detector with a resolution of 120,000. We used
578 quadrupole isolation with a scanning range between 67-1000 m/z, using the frequency
579 lens at 60%. The automatic gain control target was customized and normalized to 25%.
580 The maximum injection time mode has been customized with a maximum injection
581 time of 50 ms. Microscans of 1 and profile with positive polarity. Ion fragmentation
582 has been disabled.

583 **Data acquisition, metabolic identification, and data analysis.** Once the data
584 was acquired, the samples were analyzed using the open-source software MS-DIAL.
585 More details about the software can be obtained here:
586 <http://prime.psc.riken.jp/compms/msdial/main.html>.^{59,60} Three blank samples were
587 included in the analysis to identify background ions and remove them later. Samples
588 acquired using MS1 full scan used for quantification and data-dependent acquisition
589 (DDA) mode were used for spectral identification of metabolites. Tolerance MS1 was
590 set to 0.01 Da and MS2 set to 0.025 Da. For peak harvesting, the mass slice width was
591 set to 0.1. For peak alignment, the maximum retention time tolerance was set at 0.5
592 min, the MS1 tolerance was set at 0.01. Peaks were identified by searching MS2 spectra
593 in the public MS-DIAL database downloaded in January 2023 (324,191 records for
594 positive mode and 64,669 entries for negative mode) using a mass tolerance of 0.01 Da
595 for MS1 and 0.05 Da for MS2 with an identification cutoff point of 80%
596 <http://prime.psc.riken.jp/compms/msdial/main.html#MSP>. Additionally, peaks were
597 also searched against the core Biomolecular Analysis Facility's internal IROA library
598 (both positive and negative mode) with a mass tolerance of 0.02 and identification

599 cutoff of 85%. The data was manually inspected and identifications without MS2 were
600 filtered, except for identifications of the IROA molecule.

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604 **Supplementary Materials:** The following supporting information: Figures S1-S7; Text
605 S1; Text S2.

606 **Figure supplement legend:**

607 **Figure S1** – Primer's specificity evaluation through Melting curve: (A) SHV, (B)
608 KPC, (C) NDM, (D) TEM, (E) GES, (F) OXA-23like, (G) OXA-24/40like, (H) OXA-48like,
609 (I) OXA-51like, (J) CTX-M 1.1like, (K) CTX-M 1.2like, (L) CTX-M 2like, (M) CTX-M 8like e
610 (N) CTX-M 9like.

611 **Figure S2** - Plot analysis of the 25 main metabolites from the supernatant of
612 susceptible *K. pneumoniae* in general without separation by up- or down-regulation of
613 the analytes. Note that in the supernatant of *K. pneumoniae* compared to the culture
614 media, metabolites related to the synthesis of nitrogenous bases, protein synthesis and
615 energy supply to the bacterial cell are significantly increased.

616 **Figure S3** - Plot of the analysis of the 25 main metabolites from the supernatant
617 of susceptible *K. pneumoniae*, separated because they were up-regulated in relation to
618 the control culture media.

619 **Figure S4** - Plot of the analysis of the 25 main metabolites from the supernatant
620 of susceptible *K. pneumoniae*, separated because they were down-regulated in relation
621 to the control culture media.

Figure S5 - Plot of the analyzes of the 25 main metabolites from the supernatant of Multidrug-Resistant (MDR) *K. pneumoniae* in general without separation by up- or down-regulation in the analytes. Note that in the intracellular media of *K. pneumoniae* compared to the culture medium, metabolites related to the synthesis of nitrogenous bases, protein synthesis and energy supply to the bacterial cell are significantly increased.

Figure S6 - Plot of the analysis of the 25 main metabolites from the supernatant of *K. pneumoniae* MDR, separated by being up-regulated in relation to the control culture media.

Figure S7 - Plot d of the analysis of the 25 main metabolites from the supernatant of *K. pneumoniae* MDR, separated because they were down-regulated in relation to the control culture media.

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713

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