LABORATORY DETECTION AND REPORTING OF BACTERIA WITH EXTENDED SPECTRUM β-LACTAMASES

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Each National Standard Method has an individual record of amendments. The current amendments are listed on this page. The amendment history is available from standards@hpa.org.uk.

On issue of revised or new pages each controlled document should be updated by the copyholder in the laboratory.
LABORATORY DETECTION AND REPORTING OF BACTERIA WITH EXTENDED SPECTRUM $\beta$-LACTAMASES

INTRODUCTION

These guidelines advise on the detection of ‘Extended-spectrum $\beta$-lactamases’ (ESBLs) and are issued at a time when the changing nature and distribution of these important enzymes presents clinicians and diagnostic laboratories with new challenges.

The term ESBLs is used to mean acquired, class A $\beta$-lactamases that hydrolyse and confer resistance to oxyimino- ‘2nd- and 3rd-generation’ cephalosporins, eg cefuroxime, cefotaxime, ceftazidime and ceftriaxone.

ESBLs include:

- Cephalosporin-hydrolysing mutants of TEM and SHV - the common plasmid-mediated penicillinas of Enterobacteriaceae. Well over 100 such variants are known (see http://www.lahey.org/studies).
- CTX-M types. These evolved separately, at least some of them via the escape and mutation of chromosomal $\beta$-lactamases of *Kluyvera* species. Over 30 variants are known².
- Obscure types, e.g. VEB and PER, not yet of concern in the UK; also OXA (Class D) ESBLs from *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, in Turkey.

ESBLs are not the sole $\beta$-lactamases to confer resistance to 2nd and 3rd generation cephalosporins, but are the most important. They occur mostly in Enterobacteriaceae (e.g. *E. coli*, *Klebsiella* species and *Enterobacter* species) and rarely in non-fermenters (e.g. *P. aeruginosa*). They should be distinguished from other important modes of resistance to 2nd and 3rd generation cephalosporins, eg:

- Hyperproduced chromosomal AmpC $\beta$-lactamases, especially in *Enterobacter* species.
- Plasmid-mediated AmpC $\beta$-lactamases, in *Klebsiella* spp. and *E. coli* (rare)
- Hyperproduced K1 chromosomal $\beta$-lactamases in *K. oxytoca* not *pneumoniae*)
- Efflux-mediated resistance in *P. aeruginosa*
- Various ill-defined mechanisms in *Acinetobacter* species.

Guidelines on distinguishing all these resistance mechanisms from strain phenotypes have been updated recently³-⁵.

ESBLs are clinically important because they destroy cephalosporins, workhorse hospital antibiotics, given as first-line agents to many severely-ill patients, including those with intra-abdominal infections, community acquired pneumonias and bacteraemias. Delayed recognition and inappropriate treatment of severe infections caused by ESBL producers with cephalosporins has been associated with increased mortality⁶,⁷. ESBL-mediated resistance is not always obvious in vitro to all cephalosporins³. Many ESBL producers are multi-resistant to non- $\beta$-lactam antibiotics such as quinolones, aminoglycosides and trimethoprim, narrowing treatment options. Some producers achieve outbreak status, spreading among patients and locales, perhaps owing to particular pathogenicity traits.

New guidance on ESBLs is needed because until 2001/2 most ESBL producers in the UK were *Klebsiella* species with TEM and SHV mutants. They were largely from specialist units, where multi-resistance is anticipated.
Since 2000, CTX-M ESBLs have emerged in the UK. They are often in *E. coli* from the hospital/community interface, for instance in urinary infections among out-patients with recent hospitalisation, who are catheterised, and who have underlying disease. Some patients with such infections do not appear to have had contact with hospitals. They may be admitted with serious secondary infections, such as bacteraemia, and be treated inappropriately due to delayed recognition that the organism is an ESBL producer, with serious sequelae. High mortality has been observed in these cases.

CTX-M β-lactamase-producing *E. coli* and *Klebsiella* species have been sent to the Antibiotic Resistance Monitoring & Reference Laboratory (ARMRL) from over 100 UK diagnostic labs. About one quarter of all the isolates received belong to one major outbreak *E. coli* strain, with CTX-M-15 enzyme and with a distinctive DNA profile. This strain has been reported from 18 centres and is dominant in 2. At least 4 other outbreak strains occur, also with CTX-M-15; in addition, this enzyme has been found in many sporadic *E. coli* strains. A few isolates have CTX-M-types other than CTX-M-15, principally CTX-M-3, -9 or -14.

Similar shifts to increased ESBL prevalence, dissemination and towards CTX-M types are occurring widely in Europe, Asia and Canada: CTX-M types have long been dominant in Argentina. The predominant CTX-M types do, however vary with the country: CTX-M-15 in the UK, Canada and Russia, CTX-M-2 in Argentina and Israel; CTX-M-14 in parts of China and CTX-M-9 and –12 in Spain.

These changes mean that ESBLs must be sought more widely than previously. Moreover CTX-M enzymes present different detection challenges to the TEM and SHV ESBLs.
1 HOW TO RECOGNIZE ESBL PRODUCERS

There are several ways to recognise ESBL producers, as outlined in the main body of this document; the strategy below is the simplest way to meet these guidelines.

1.1 ENTEROBACTERIACEAE FROM INFECTIONS IN HOSPITALISED PATIENTS

- Test both cefotaxime and ceftazidime on first-line panel, or test cefpodoxime.
- Do ESBL confirmatory tests (below) on isolates found resistant to any of cefotaxime, ceftazidime and cefpodoxime

1.2 ENTEROBACTERIACEAE FROM COMMUNITY PATIENTS

- Test cefpodoxime as an indicator on first-line panel (one possible first-line panel for community UTI isolates comprises cefpodoxime, nitrofurantoin, trimethoprim, a fluoroquinolone and two out of cephalaxin, co-amoxiclav and ampicillin/amoxycillin).
- Do ESBL confirmatory tests (below) on isolates found resistant to cefpodoxime.

Note: Identification to genus/species level is highly desirable for the interpretation of resistance patterns and, as a minimum, should be undertaken on all isolates found resistant to cefotaxime, ceftazidime or cefpodoxime in the above tests.

1.3 TO CONFIRM OF ESBL PRODUCTION IN ISOLATES FOUND RESISTANT TO CEFOTAXIME/CEFTAZIDIME OR CEFPODOXIME

Use cefpodoxime/clavulanate combination discs or, for Enterobacter species and C. freundii, cefpirome/clavulanate combination discs.

Cefpirome/clavulanate combination discs cannot be recommended as a single screen for ESBLs in all Enterobacteriaceae at this time. This screening method has poorly defined sensitivity for bacteria other than Enterobacter species. and C. freundii.

Note: Report ESBL producers resistant to all cephalosporins (except cefoxitin).

2 LABORATORY DETECTION: SCREENING THEN CONFIRMATION

The basic strategy to detect ESBL producers is to use an indicator cephalosporin to screen for likely producers, then to seek cephalosporin/clavulanate synergy, which distinguishes ESBL producers from, for example, strains that hyperproducer AmpC or K1 enzymes.

2.1 SCREENING

The ideal indicator cephalosporin is one to which all ESBLs confer resistance, even when their production is scanty. Choice is predicated by the following general traits:

- TEM and SHV ESBLs – obvious resistance to ceftazidime, variable to cefotaxime
- CTX-M ESBLs – obvious resistance to cefotaxime: variable to ceftazidime
- All ESBLs – obvious resistance to cefpodoxime
- Cefuroxime, cephalaxin and cephradine (see below) are unreliable indicators

It follows that the logical indicator is either cefpodoxime or BOTH of cefotaxime and ceftazidime resistance.

An alternative strategy has been proposed for community urines: testing cephalaxin or cephradine as the indicator drug, then doing confirmatory ESBL tests on all isolates that are found resistant (these include e.g. all Enterobacter species. and some hyperproducers of classical TEM, as well
as the ESBL producers). This is not recommended, as some CTX-M-15 producers, principally those belonging to the major UK outbreak strain, appear borderline susceptible8.

2.1.1 WHICH SPECIMENS AND ISOLATES TO SCREEN

The spread of CTX-M enzymes into out-patient/community E. coli means that the indicator cephalosporin(s) should be tested first-line against all Enterobacteriaceae or, if direct sensitivities are done, on all clinical specimens likely to harbour producers.

2.1.2 HOW TO SCREEN WITH INDICATOR

The indicator drugs should be included in primary susceptibility testing done e.g. by the method of the British Society for Antimicrobial Chemotherapy17. The indicators also work in Stokes’ comparative disc method, though this is no longer recommended, owing to its poor standardisation. Species identification is highly desirable to allow proper interpretation of results. BSAC recommended breakpoints for the cephalosporins advocated are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Antibiotic and disc content</th>
<th>Zone breakpoints (mm)</th>
<th>MIC (mg/L)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>R, ≤</td>
<td>S, ≥</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cefotaxime, 30 g</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>29</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ceftazidime, 30 g E. coli &amp; Kleb</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>21</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ceftazidime, 30 g, other species</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>27</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cefpodoxime, 10 g</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25*</td>
<td>26*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The BSAC zone diameter breakpoints for cefpodoxime have recently been revised to <=19 (R) and >=20 (S). It is acknowledged that isolates with zone diameters of 21-25 mm may deserve further investigation, although they are unlikely to produce an ESBL18.

If CLSI methodology is followed, attention should be paid to the Standards’ low breakpoints for ESBL detection, not only their (much higher) therapeutic breakpoints. Automated systems - e.g. Vitek and Phoenix - incorporate ESBL detection tests or strategies and are an alternative to the present recommendations19,20.

2.2 CONFIRMATORY TESTS FOR ESBLs

Enterobacteriaceae isolates resistant to any indicator cephalosporin in the screening tests outlined above should be subjected to confirmatory tests. Confirmation of ESBL production depends on demonstrating synergy between clavulanate and those indicator cephalosporin(s) to which the isolate was initially found resistant. Three methods can be used:

(i) **Double disc tests.** A plate is inoculated as for a routine susceptibility test. Discs containing cefotaxime and ceftazidime 30 µg (or cefpodoxime 10 µg) are applied either side of one with co-amoxiclav 20+10 µg; and c. 25-30 mm away from it.

ESBL production is inferred when the zone of either cephalosporin is expanded by the clavulanate. The method is cheap, but the optimal disc separation varies with the strain and some producers may be missed. We therefore do not recommend this method.

(ii) **Combination disc methods.** (Oxoid or Becton Dickinson ‘Combination Discs’ and Mast ‘MAST D52C ESBL’). These compare the zones of cephalosporin discs to those of the same cephalosporin plus clavulanate. According to the supplier, either the difference in zone diameters, (Oxoid or MAST) or the ratio of diameters (BD), is compared with zone diameter increases of >5 mm21 or >50%22 in the presence of the clavulanate implying ESBL production. These tests are cheap and do not require critical disc spacing.
(iii) *Etest ESBL strips* (AB Biodisk, Solna, Sweden; Bio-Stat, Stockport, UK). These have a cephalosporin gradient at one end and a cephalosporin + clavulanate gradient at the other. Users should follow the manufacturer’s instructions, including for a heavier inoculum than in BSAC disc tests. ESBL production is inferred if the MIC ratio for cephalosporin alone: cephalosporin + clavulanate MIC is \( \geq 8 \). These are accurate and precise, but more expensive than combination discs.

### 2.3 Controls for ESBL Tests

Quality Control of the cefpodoxime, cefotaxime and/or ceftazidime discs used in primary screening should be in accordance with standard BSAC or CLSI recommendations, as appropriate.

Positive controls should be used to ensure the performance of ESBL confirmatory tests. Three ESBL-positive *E. coli* strains are available from the NCTC:

- CTX-M-15 (ceftaximase) NCTC 13353
- TEM-3 (broad-spectrum) NCTC 13351
- TEM-10 (ceftazidimase) NCTC 13352

The CLSI recommends *K. pneumoniae* ATCC 700603 as an ESBL-producing QC control, as does AB Biodisk (Etest). This strain may be sourced from the ATCC.

Either *E. coli* NCTC 10418 or ATCC 25922 should also be used as a negative control in ESBL confirmation tests. Use of such controls is especially important when the cephalosporin and cephalosporin + clavulanate combination discs are from different batches, which may vary in original content or retained potency.

Zones of the cephalosporin and cephalosporin + clavulanate discs for ESBL-negative *E. coli* should be equal or, at worst, within ± 2 mm. Any greater difference implies malfunction or deterioration.

### 2.4 Pitfalls and Problems for ESBL Tests

Species with inducible AmpC β-lactamases: ESBLs are harder to detect in those Enterobacteriaceae with inducible AmpC chromosomal enzymes (e.g. *Enterobacter* species, *Citrobacter freundii*, *Morganella morganii*, *Providencia* species and *Serratia* species). The AmpC enzymes may be induced by clavulanate (which inhibits them poorly) and may then attack the cephalosporin, masking synergy arising from inhibition of the ESBL.

- If ESBL tests are to be done on *Enterobacter* species (10-20% of cephalosporin resistance in enterobacters is due to ESBLs, not derepressed AmpC) it is best to use an AmpC-stable cephalosporin (i.e. cefepime or ceftipirome) in the clavulanate synergy tests (though NOT as the first indicator compound). Cefepime/clavulanate Etests (AB Biodisk) and ceftipirome/clavulanate combination discs (Oxoid) are available, and should be used with these genera.

- Cephalosporin therapy of *Enterobacter* and *C. freundii* infections is anyway not recommended, owing to the risk of selecting AmpC-derepressed mutants; and clinicians should be steered away from the use of these agents\(^{23,24,24}\).

*K. oxytoca*: 10-20% of *K. oxytoca* isolates hyperproduce their class A “K1”chromosomal β-lactamase. These are resistant to cefpodoxime and (often) cefotaxime but not ceftazidime.

- They may give positive clavulanate synergy tests with cefotaxime or ceftipirome (never ceftazidime), so that producers are confused with ESBL producers. K1 hyperproduction resistance should be suspected if a *Klebsiella* isolate is indole-positive and has high-level resistance (growth up to the disc?) to piperacillin/tazobactam and cefuroxime, but has borderline susceptibility to cefotaxime and full susceptibility to ceftazidime.

*Acinetobacter* species, *P. aeruginosa* and *Stenotrophomonas maltophilia*: ESBL tests were not developed for these species and should not be used for them. False positive results with *Acinetobacter* are common owing to inherent susceptibility to clavulanate, whilst *S. maltophilia* may give positive results via inhibition of its chromosomal L-2 β-lactamase. ESBLs may
occur in these genera (e.g. VEB-1 in Acinetobacter species in France), but are not the common cause of cephalosporin resistance in them, and should not be routinely sought.

Enzymes with marginal ESBL activity, those expressed weakly, and those produced alongside other enzymes (e.g. derepressed AmpC) are the hardest to detect. The methods outlined here will never be so precise as the best molecular analysis, but will detect most producers.

### 3 REPORTING FOR ESBL PRODUCERS

**β-Lactams:** Organisms inferred to have ESBLs should be reported resistant to ALL penicillins (except temocillin), cephalosporins (except cefoxitin), and to aztreonam, irrespective of routine susceptibility results. Treatment failures and death have occurred when cephalosporins were used against ESBL producers that appeared susceptible in vitro.

- Carbapenems (imipenem, meropenem and ertapenem) are active against ESBL producers, so long as these do not have additional resistance mechanisms; such combinations of mechanism are rare.
- Susceptibilities of ESBL producers to β-lactamase inhibitor combinations vary with the isolate and its amount of enzyme, and are not always consistent between similar tests. Consequently, predicting treatment outcome is difficult, particularly for severe infections.
- Mecillinam often appears active against ESBL producers in vitro, but its efficacy remains unproven.
- Combinations of a cephalosporin with co-amoxiclav should work in principle, but have not been formally evaluated and may be antagonistic vs. Enterobacter species.

**Non-β-lactams:** Many ESBL producers, including community isolates with CTX-M enzymes, are multi-resistant to fluoroquinolones and aminoglycosides, but susceptibilities vary, and these agents may be options if the patient’s isolate is susceptible. The predominant CTX-M-15 producing E. coli strains in the UK are resistant to fluoroquinolones, trimethoprim, co-trimoxazole, tetracyclines and amikacin; gentamicin resistance is variable. Among oral agents suitable for community use in UTI, nitrofurantoin and fosfomycin (not readily available in the UK) are active against many ESBL producers including most CTX-M-15 producing E. coli isolates.

Empirical treatment strategies and antibiotic policies may need to be re-thought in settings and locales where ESBL producers are prevalent and/or where there is a significant perceived risk for an individual (e.g. for a patient with a history of UTI, admitted from the community with an overspill bacteraemia).

### Which ESBL producers to send to ARMRL?

ARMRL does not seek every ESBL producer, least of all every nosocomial Klebsiella species isolate believed to harbour an ESBL. We do, however, seek:

- Representatives from major outbreaks
- ESBL-positive E. coli from any laboratory where these have not been encountered previously (we will then advise on which further isolates to send).
- Any suspected producers from a patient without recent hospital contact.
- Any ESBL producer also resistant to carbapenems
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS AND CONTACTS

This National Standard Method has been developed, reviewed and revised by David Livermore and Neil Woodford together with the National Standard Methods Working Group for Clinical Bacteriology (http://www.hpa-standardmethods.org.uk/wg_bacteriology.asp). The contributions of many individuals in clinical bacteriology laboratories and specialist organisations who have provided information and comment during the development of this document, and final editing by the Medical Editor are acknowledged.

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